Chapter 3

Mobility, Internationalisation, Higher Education: European Challenges

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ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the author address the following issues: convergence of internationalisation paths in universities and trends in European higher education; international cooperation and education regarding the internationalisation of higher education policy in Europe and other world regions; mobility trends with the growth of selective and qualified migration; student flows and migration in the higher education globalisation and internationalisation process; European and national policies for academic mobility and internationalisation of higher education; consequences of academic mobility and migration regarding the professional value of mobility, interculturalism, and higher education; institutional and social responses to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation of higher education. The author note how international academic mobility represents a professional added value and a cultural, scientific, and technological enrichment for higher education, which broadens the perspectives of the individuals and institutions involved. The internationalisation of higher education contributes to spreading an educational culture with a tendency to establish itself as a European and global educational model.

INTRODUCTION

The agenda of the sociocultural and political role of the University discussion is very heavy, in society and in the university itself as a social institution. The emergence of new contexts and paradigms brings new challenges in defining what quality education means.

Internationalisation and international mobility, inclusiveness and excellence are priority themes on the higher education agenda. On 11 July 2013 the European commission launched the communication “European higher education in the world”, which outlines a strategy for the internationalisation of European higher education. International mobility is a growing phenomenon in
contemporary world, which has received increased attention both in terms of policy and research.

Human mobility in the knowledge society experiencing economic, cultural and labour market globalisation is increasing. Transnational interactions which are inherent to globalisation and the building of European Union lead to a growing mobility of cultural, economic and human exchanges (Ramos, 2000, 2005; Taran, Ivkhnyuk, Ramos & Tanner, 2009; Zimmermann, 2013). The growth in mobility at European and world level poses new challenges to education, culture, management, citizenship, the building of Europe and the necessary regulation and integration of migratory flows (Ramos, 2002, 2007, 2008, 2011, 2013). Migrations are at the centre of globalisation and are conditioned by economic, political and cultural facts.

The economic convergence process has implications for education. Globalisation brings new configurations in international migration, with work and education/training goals, thus posing great challenges to universities and European higher education policies. The increase of causalities between migration and education is obvious, in particular regarding the transnational mobility of students, which has evident political and social consequences (King, Findlay, Ahrens, 2010; Robertson, 2013; King & Raghuram, 2013), but also the mobility of researchers, teachers and the development of European and international scientific networks.

A convergence of policies, structures and governance of universities is needed to respond to this increased mobility and international cooperation. Universities have been preparing their management structures and their curricula plans to tackle these new challenges. In Portugal, higher education is organised according to the Bologna dimensions. The document “European higher education in the world” (EU, 2013) places specific emphasis on how member states and higher education institutions can develop strategic international partnerships to tackle global challenges more effectively.

**CONVERGENCE OF INTERNATIONALISATION PATHS IN UNIVERSITIES AND TRENDS IN EUROPEAN HIGHER EDUCATION**

Globalisation influences labour markets, management and education in many ways. Within the global context, internationalisation of education is considered at a higher level, as it creates and transfer the knowledge which is crucial to the growth of both developed and developing countries (Bhandari & Laughlin, 2009).

Among the current policies for higher education, internationalisation emerges as an important strategy for the integration of countries into the globalised world either by the perspective of solidarity advocated by UNESCO, or by the mercantilist trend promoted by the World Trade Organisation.

Europe’s universities have a long tradition of international cooperation (Altbach, 2004; Teicher, 2004; Byran & Dervin, 2008). In the past 25 years, European cooperation in higher education has increased dramatically. “The Bologna Process, programmes such as Erasmus, Tempus, Erasmus Mundus and Marie Curie, and transparency tools such as the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) and the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) have helped EU national higher education systems to achieve a significant degree of intra-European internationalisation” (EC, 2013, p. 2).

Internationalisation and international cooperation have moved to the center of current higher education debate. The Bologna declaration formulates the objective of enhancing the attractiveness of European higher education on a global scale, and this statement has been repeated and refined since 1999 (David & Abreu, 2007; Robertson, 2009). Universities and other higher education institutions operate in an increasingly international environment. Many of them run international marketing campaigns and recruit students on a global scale.
tion and enrollment of international students are rapidly gaining importance. International students are now more likely to be enrolled in the highest levels of education than in the past, reflecting an increasing internationalisation of academic research and science (Ackers, 2005; Vaira, 2004; OECD, 2009, 2012; Teichler, 2012).

Several types of educational internationalisation exist, in the form of student mobility, teacher mobility, internationalisation of curricula, opening of branch offices, institutional and networked cooperation, mutual recognition agreements, transnational nets of universities and virtual transnational higher education. In this sense, internationalisation policies of higher education include the establishment and development of partnerships and international cooperation networks between universities, companies, governments, and other organisations. The European Union, the United States, Latin America, Asia and Africa participate and offer numerous options of cooperation networks for student mobility.

Student international mobility appears in the current political agenda of some emerging economies, where governments, motivated by economic and strategic reasons, have sought to develop incentive policies in that sense. Such is the case of China, India, Japan, South Korea and Brazil. Therefore, there is a continuous increase in overall spending on education by public authorities as well as companies and people (Zamberlam et al., 2009, p. 36).

The Erasmus Mundus programme, created in 2004, is a European Union programme to facilitate and encourage student cooperation at the level of higher education with third countries, seeking dialogue and mutual intercultural understanding. There are also institutional factors such as the arrangements established between universities from countries of origin and host countries that allow for and encourage student mobility. Portugal, through its Higher Education Institutions, takes part in mobility programmes for and within the EU, such as Erasmus Mundus, as well as in programmes outside the European context, such as the “Science without Borders” programme (CsF), together with Brazil, among others. Portugal is a member of the Community of the Portuguese-Speaking Countries (CPLP), a situation which encourages the admission of students from Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Principe and East Timor.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND EDUCATION: INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION POLICY IN EUROPE AND OTHER REGIONS

The European Commission (2013) identifies three key areas for comprehensive internationalisation strategies at national and institutional level:

- The promotion of international mobility of students and staff (for example through enhanced services for mobility, tools for recognition of studies, better visa procedures for foreign students and emphasis on two-way mobility – into and out of Europe).
- The promotion of “internationalisation at home” and digital learning (including language learning, using ICT to internationalise curricula).
- The strengthening of strategic cooperation, partnerships and capacity building (with emphasis on joint and double degrees, partnerships with business and also international development cooperation partnerships).

Student mobility is one of the ways to the internationalisation of university education (Teichler, 2012). A strong tradition of intra-European mobility in recent decades is now being complemented by an energetic effort to expand the enrolment of non-European students, a key element in the overall European effort to strengthen the competitive position of Europe’s higher education sector.
In 2011, the largest numbers of foreign students came from China, India and Korea. Asian students represented 53% of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education worldwide, with 3 out of 4 of them enrolled in an OECD country (OECD, 2013c).

The international mobility of the Brazilian students is equally intensifying in the international scenario. These seek better qualifications in Europe for the levels of bachelor, master, doctoral, exchange courses for a few months and even the study of foreign languages. Brazilians are the first foreign nationality holding a legally resident status in Portugal and are among the first foreigners who are granted visas studies (SEF, 2012). Brazilian students are the most numerous foreign students in several Portuguese universities, the causes for this great demand being those universities’ reputation, the sharing of the same language and cultural and historical relations. According to Dickmann (2012), the existence of a common language facilitates adaptation and is an important driver for the choice of the country of destination.

For Brazilian students, there are scholarships programmes from the Coordination of Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (CAPES) and the National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq). The Brazilian Government, through the Plan of Action of CAPES for the expansion of graduate students, undergraduates and teachers abroad training, announced in June 2011 that this institution had supported about 25 000 fellows abroad and that it intended to grant 40 000 new scholarships for studying abroad by the end of 2014.

According to Zamberlam et al. (2009, p. 62), since 2001 a strong step was taken in the integration process for higher education, namely the creation of a new form of exchange through “university partnerships” and “universities consortia”. Initially created with European countries and the United States, it has accelerated the international integration of Brazilian universities, creating bilateral programmes that fund joint research projects and academic partnerships. Further initiatives have encouraged a number of Brazilian students to complete their studies abroad. In 2011, the “Science without Borders” programme - CsF (Silva, 2012) was launched on a governmental level, and later on the Scholarship Programme Exchange for Undergraduates, University of São Paulo (USP), the best university in Brazil according to the Ranking Web of World Universities, 2012. This programme will offer more than 1,000 scholarships abroad, distributed by two modalities: Academic Merit Scholarship and Entrepreneurship Scholarship.

According to data on student mobility provided by UNESCO, the World Compendia of Education for the years 2006-2010, and referring to receiving regions and those that send students abroad, it can be concluded that the regions that receive more students in the mobility process are those where countries are more developed and better engaged in the new international division of labour (Unesco, 2009). Latin America is peripherally a part of this process as a region with low reception and high sending rate of students to other regions of the world, especially to North America and Western Europe. This trend is also confirmed in the case of Brazil, although this country stands out with one of the best results in the continent, a trend that is consolidated, for the country has adopted strategies to increase its integration into student mobility, through the implementation of programmes and the creation of public universities aimed at regional integration (Siufé, 2007; Castro & Neto, 2012).

**MOBILITY TRENDS: GROWTH OF SELECTIVE AND QUALIFIED MIGRATION**

Current mobility has become more complex, with an increasing variety of types of flows and displacements: students; skilled workers; brain drain; family reunification; temporary workers; refugees, undocumented workers.
People born abroad accounted for 14% of the population in those OECD countries for which data is available. The migration of people from the countries most heavily affected by the crisis, in particular the countries of Southern Europe, has deepened as shown by the 45% increase registered between 2009 and 2011 (OECD, 2013b). Countries belonging to this organisation which show more entries of permanent immigrants in recent years (2007-2011) were the USA, the UK, Spain, Canada, Germany, France and Switzerland. The main reasons why people migrate temporarily are: studies, temporary work, seasonal work, tourism, intra-company transfers, internships.

A driver induced by globalisation concerns skilled worker (Dumont & Lemaître, 2005; Lowell, 2008; Ramos, 2008, 2013; Hunter et al., 2009). According to the trends shown in OECD countries, migrations for skilled employment purposes represent an increasing share of international mobility: recruitment of personnel associated with new technologies and to the health sector, increase in foreign students, particularly in Europe and in countries like the UK and France, “brain drain”. Highly qualified women were often overlooked in the studies about international migration, in spite of being strongly represented at the same time, especially in the education and health sectors (Dumont, Martin & Spielvogel, 2007; Ramos, 2010, 2013).

The brain drain, or “skills exodus” for developed countries is a growing phenomenon that affects mainly the poorest countries. A World Bank study notes the importance of the demand for skilled migrants and the brain drain in the Lusophone world: among the 30 countries with the highest emigration rates of skilled population in the year 2000 (countries with a population higher than 5 million people), Mozambique is ranked in the 3rd place, Angola in the 7th, and Portugal in the 21st (Schiff & Ozden, 2005). Given the current recession, rising unemployment and restrictions regarding public employment policies in Portugal, many skilled Portuguese citizens seek for the possibility of exercising their occupation abroad.

Studies of the OECD and the World Bank show that Portugal has one of the highest rates of brain drain, with about 20% of graduates leaving the country. Youth unemployment rate reached the value of 42.5% in April 2013 (Eurostat).

In this sense, we observe the intensification of migratory flows from highly skilled workers, i.e., those who have great reasoning and management skills as well as technical expertise. Permanent officials have also become a group with strong international mobility, but with another institutional setting, since their mobility does not occur in the context of “free” migration, such as the so-called “brain drain”, but as transfers within the organisations. These workers play an important role in innovation, organisational learning, knowledge transfer, and even in the integration between branch offices scattered across the globe, since they are key players in the promotion and dissemination of organisational culture (Collings et al., 2009).

Stagnation and economic instability of the country of origin are factors for the increase of propensity to emigrate, with job insecurity and lack of career appreciation being the forces that drive the international migration to countries that offer greater opportunities (Taran et al., 2009). The situation on the labour market of the country of origin and country of destination is one of the major forces promoting international mobility. The lack of good job opportunities and limited career opportunities in the country of origin may be one of the main reasons for emigration (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). Educational and family reasons can motivate the leave, as well as financial incentives (Dickmann et al., 2008).

A study conducted on the international mobility of skilled young Portuguese towards Brazil after 2008 (Fracalossi & Ramos, 2013) stands out among the economic factors the forces of expulsion from the country of origin, mainly related to the lack of future prospects combined with better conditions and opportunities of the labour market in the destination country, i.e., better employment opportunities in this specific area of training. International experience in the education
and professionalization process is seen as a way to get a distinctive element for the curriculum and the differentiated opportunities in the labour market. Regarding factors which are not strictly economic as influencers of international migration, we highlight the professional considerations linked with career and as factors influencing the choice of the destination country, the role of contact networks and the language issue. The term “diaspora knowledge networks” was coined with regard to more qualified people migrating from their countries of origin to join their compatriots living in other countries (Mahroum et al., 2006).

The increasing international mobility is an important manifestation of the internationalisation of occupations and labour markets. Most independent or voluntary expatriates seek a better lifestyle through new career options (Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2000) and so the concept of international career, boundaryless career arises (Baruch et al., 2007).

The debate about the benefits and losses of international migration, including brain drain for countries of origin and brain gain for the destination countries, reveals that this is a complex issue (Mahroum et al., 2006). How can one tackle the brain drain problem among young graduates that Europe suffers from? Through counterflows of knowledge, migrants are seen as active agents of economic growth and studies on the positive effects of migration and development are at the heart of political initiatives (Beine et al., 2008; De Haas, 2012). Migration is a permanent phenomenon that can have a positive impact when properly regulated, while migration and development can be interconnected (Taran et al., 2009).

The situation of immigrants in the labour market has deteriorated in recent years. Numerous countries have adopted a more restrictive attitude to hiring foreigners, trying to protect their national labour against the rise of unemployment, instituting point systems that offer greater flexibility in the selection of highly skilled immigrant candidates (OECD, 2013b).

Programmes designed to attract investors and entrepreneurs also raised increasing attention. The role of immigration policies, related to the increase in reception of immigrants programmes, simplified procedures for the recognition of diplomas, understanding and appreciation of human rights, have a major importance in the formation of international migration flows (Derwing & Krahn, 2008).

There have been efforts from European countries for diploma equivalence, seeking to implement an European area for education and research, as outlined by the Bologna Process, aiming at standardising higher education in the European Union, and facilitate mobility and integration in the European and global labour markets (David & Abreu, 2007; Robertson, 2009). In the context of the Bologna process, student international mobility in Europe is rising (Teichler, 2012).

Portugal, as a member of the NARIC network (National Academic Recognition Information Centres) is a signatory to the Lisbon Recognition Convention, and provides conditions to conduct foreign diplomas and degrees recognition, or school year or course units equivalence.

**STUDENT FLOWS AND MIGRATION IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION GLOBALISATION AND INTERNATIONALISATION PROCESS**

According to King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010, p. 46), the phenomenon of international student mobility is still poorly researched in the social sciences. These are migrants who differ from others due to their educational differences, skills and status level (King, 2002).

The number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship has sharply increased over the last decades, reflecting the expansion of tertiary education systems worldwide and the globalisation of economies and societies.
The promotion of international student and staff mobility has become, over the past decades, a major policy objective of the European Union. Large-scale mobility programmes, such as ERASMUS, have been created, and ambitious mobility targets (20% of all students) have been set at the European level, to ensure that more and more European students become internationally mobile. Since 1987, the European mobility programme ERASMUS enabled over two million students to study in another European country. ERASMUS, the “flagship” among the educational programmes of the European Union, underwent substantial programmatic and structural changes when it became a sub-programme under the umbrella of the SOCRATES programme in the mid-1990s.

In 2009, almost 3.7 million tertiary students studied abroad (OECD, 2011). The number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of origin increased more than threefold, from 1.3 million in 1990 to nearly 4.3 million in 2011, with an average annual growth rate of almost 6% (OECD, 2013c). This number is growing and it is expected to reach 10 million students by 2025, representing a growth of 233% in 16 years. King (2002) drew attention to the fact that one out of ten European students is studying at a university in another EU country.

OECD countries continue to attract skilled migrants and international students. In 2011 and 2012, seven OECD countries changed their system of attracting international graduate students in their labour markets.

The most attractive student destinations are mainly European countries, with North America holding the second place. The U.S., UK, Germany, France and Australia are the main destination countries. International students have long favoured Anglophone countries as study destinations.

According to the OECD report ‘Education at a glance’ (2012), the number of students attending international mobility programmes has grown, which also reflects the growing globalisation and the spreading of contacts between universities with growing development and prestige.

The stock of foreign students is an important predictor of subsequent migration (Dreher & Poutvaara, 2005). The issue regarding the transition from student to migrant status is an aspect that requires reflection on the contemporary migration phenomenon. Linked with international migration of skilled labour and brain drain, a study by Baruch et al. (2007) analyses this phenomenon through the increase in the trend of international students staying in the country of destination after completing their studies, mainly due to four factors: the perception of the labour market, the adaptation process, the role of family and social support. According to these authors, previous international experiences may increase the interest in staying and pursuing an international career. International graduates are largely popular at the end of their courses. According to the OECD, retention rates of international students who stay in the host country vary between 15% and 35%, with an average of 21% (Ramos, 2013). International students are therefore a strong potential for highly skilled immigrant workers to OECD countries.

Multiculturalism in the Portuguese society impacts at the level of the school population and on the internationalisation of universities. In many Portuguese universities, the number of foreign students is about 10%, the most being Brazilians, Spaniards and Italians, strongly represented in the Erasmus programme (LLP National Agency - Lifelong Learning Programme). 3465 youngsters from 98 nationalities (11% of the total of students) studied at the University of Porto (UP) in the 2011/2012 school year, the most international of all Portuguese universities (Universidade do Porto, 2012). Among the UP’s foreign students, 1906 are undertaking a complete course, including MAs and PhDs, 1559 come via international mobility programmes such as the Erasmus programme, or agreements between the UP and universities around the world. Most of these students come from Brazil and Spain, followed by Italy, Poland,
Czech Republic, Germany and the UK. Students from the PALOP (African Portuguese speaking countries) and Brazil are strongly represented in Portugal (SEF). It is important to mention the fact that these countries and Portugal maintain historical diplomatic relations, with strong cultural and social impacts, over which the sharing of a common language is essential, as well as the existing projects of institutional cooperation.

The Faculty of Economics of the University of Porto (FEP) received more than 200 foreign students from 50 countries this year, with a great diversity of nationalities, where one can find Brazilians, Turks, East Europeans, among others, in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd cycles.

According to a survey conducted by the University of Porto international relations department, international students choose this university by its educational quality, reputation, recommendation from teachers or colleagues who conducted a mobility period at this institution. From those foreign students who attended the UP in 2012, 93% said they would recommend this University at the end of their study period (UP Newsletter). He or she who invests in Portugal is investing in its cultural capital, even if one thinks about the convenience of accessing other European countries.

Motivation is increased by established social networks with other students who have been, or still are in Portugal or the UK. Almada (2010, p. 240) drew attention to the fact that immigration flows always reside in networks that are established and being established. Zamberlam et al. (2009, p. 75) have also referred that the network enables migrants to move in a relatively familiar context. At the personal level, the fact that one has contacts in the host country, or people who have already been there, helps the decision making of students who leave. For King (2002), migrants seeking those destinations take into account cultural familiarity and the existence of social and family contacts when deciding. As noted by Dreher & Poutvarra (2005), immigrants tend to go to places or countries where immigrants from the same nationality or ethnic group are already present. The existence of social capital in the destination country is a factor strongly influencing the decision in favour of mobility.

Student migration may possess individual motivations, may be an adventure, a part of a dream of personal achievement and may also have the traditional economic motivation of work. As King mentioned (2002), the expansion of language skills is a factor that must not be overlooked in contemporary migration. Other aims include doing a master or a PhD in another country, to get to know new cultures and experiences, to make a better curriculum. In a National Union of Students survey, King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010) show that 72% of respondents consider themselves to have better job prospects, one of the reasons for mobility. Through new international experiences, individuals believe they will have advantages in the future and consequent progress in their career (Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Stahl et al., 2002; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Dickmann et al., 2008).

In financial terms, for students who have no institutional help, support comes usually from their parents or relatives. Some try to also combine their studies with part-time jobs in the country of destination. During the staying period in Portugal, international students have the right to take up a subordinated professional activity and part-time, if properly authorised by the Foreigners and Border Service (SEF). They may also, under certain conditions, have the right to family reunification.

EUROPEAN AND NATIONAL POLICIES FOR ACADEMIC MOBILITY AND INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

A study on the impact of ERASMUS, notably on the subsequent careers of formerly mobile students and teachers by Lawson & Shibayama (2013) investigates the effect of temporary mobility spells abroad on a researcher’s probability for promotion.

Researcher mobility has received increasing support from policy makers around the world as an
instrument to improve the performance of research systems by promoting the diffusion of knowledge, and facilitating knowledge and technology transfer, network creation, and productivity (OECD, 2008).

In the increasing global competition for the best students, the quality and attractiveness of an institution does no longer depend only on its academic, teaching and research standards: services to students have come to play an important role in the quality assessment – and thus competitiveness – of institutions.

The role of the centre of the university was strengthened at the expenses of the networks of departments, and more emphasis was placed on curricular innovation, teaching staff mobility and on involvement of the non-mobile students.

Faced with globalisation, how can the university respond to its own need for internationalisation and diversity, with a growing exchange of students, researchers, teachers and scientific networks?

Among the strategic priorities of the University, we should highlight the effort for internationalisation, which produced bilateral agreements with international schools, for the number of foreign students, for the settling of foreign teachers, and for the extension of master and doctoral courses and offer of courses that are taught in English. The internationalisation of universities is a process that integrates a global and intercultural dimension with education's goals, functions and supply.

This tendency is obvious at the University of Porto, which bears an important and growing internationalisation process, as expert reports show: number of foreign students and researchers; number of mobility students staying abroad; international agreements and partnerships with higher education institutions in various countries; coordinated international projects with high attendance; scientific production, research centres and institutes; presence in the international classification ladder.

The Faculty of Economics (FEP) has over 60 bilateral agreements with reputed international schools in more than 20 countries across Europe, Asia and America. These agreements allow students of any teaching cycle to undertake a period of international mobility during the course, and hosting international students from FEP's partner schools. One of the internationalisation dimensions of the FEP is the integration of foreign visiting professors in its teaching activity.

The FEP is making a clear commitment to offering regular courses and subjects taught in English in the Economics and Management Graduate Degrees. Additionally, it offers 2 Masters and 2 PhDs taught entirely in English: Master in Finance, Master in Management, PhD in Economics e PhD in Business and Management Studies. In recent years, the number of courses taught in English has more than tripled, and the School, at this time, has a total of 115 English courses through 3 teaching cycles (bachelor, master, doctorate).

The University of Porto is the 4th in Europe in terms of participation and fundraising for international Erasmus Mundus consortia, which provide scholarships for international mobility of students and teaching and non-teaching staff, such as the EMINENCE II Programme (East-European countries) and the LOTUS Programme (South East Asia).

The University of Porto takes part in Erasmus Mundus international projects granting scholarships to non-national foreign students from European countries (www.up.pt). Within its masters taught in English, the FEP created the “FEP Excellence Grant” Scholarship aimed at high-potential candidates with high academic and extracurricular performance.

There are some institutions that grant postgraduate scholarships to international students in Portugal, and it is advised that candidates check all available grants and the eligibility conditions every year (e.g.: Foundation for Science and Technology, Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, Orient Foundation). It should be noted that there are special schemes for fellows coming from African Portuguese-speaking countries (PALOP) and East Timor, by fulfilling a set of requirements. Portugal also provides merit and social action.
scholarships, and accessible by the latter and other international students.

The Section of International Mobility of the FEP meets with undergraduate students interested in pursuing an international mobility, and students have the opportunity to hear testimonies and question colleagues who underwent mobility. There are also scheduled sessions where international students present their home schools as a way to publicise FEP’s partner schools to everyone interested in applying for international mobility.

Within the International Staff Week organised by the International Office of the University of Porto, FEP receives groups of officials and technicians of international offices from FEP’s foreign partner schools and other institutions interested in learning about the school and the investment made in the internationalisation of its programmes. These visits provide a more direct contact with international schools, in view of the deepening of bilateral cooperation.

The key priorities on mobility for higher education institutions and European Member States are to:

Focus internationalisation strategies to include a strong student, researcher and staff mobility component, supported by a quality framework including guidance and counselling services;

Set up two-way mobility schemes with non-EU countries, embracing a wide variety of subjects and where appropriate targeting fields with skills shortages;

Support fair and formal recognition for competences gained abroad for internationally mobile students, researchers and staff, including a better use of transparency and comparability tools and an increased focus on learning outcomes (EC, 2013, p. 6).

CONSEQUENCES OF ACADEMIC MOBILITY AND MIGRATION: THE PROFESSIONAL VALUE OF MOBILITY AND THE INTERCULTURALISM AND HIGHER EDUCATION

Exchange programmes, student, teacher and administrative staff mobility and the integration of Information and Communication Technologies in Education have encouraged new challenges for universities. One of these is to incorporate interculturality as an educational and communication principle to account for the cultural diversity of students coming from different countries. International exchange allows the enrichment of the academic record in students who, during their learning process, contact with the global world and work in a multicultural context. Student adhesion to international higher education mobility programmes is a fact, for they are allowed to meet different cultures and to grow as a person while studying.

According to N. Ramos (2011, p. 192), in the framework of ERASMUS MUNDUS it is estimated that 1,300 students outside Europe came to study under this programme. This increase in international student mobility and the changes made in European Higher Education meet the Bologna Declaration and reinforce the creation of a European and World Space for Higher Education and the promotion of intercultural relations.

In the global marketplace, the human resource potential linked with multiple linguistic and cultural valences is important. Migrations provide usefulness to cultural competences (specific knowledge and language skills) (Ramos, N. 2003, 2007; Ramos, 2013). Global workers include migrant populations, necessary for economic efficiency. For companies in the context of globalisation, qualified personnel capable of working in different cultural environments and constant mobility is a factor of competitiveness.
The internationalisation process of higher education, articulated with the globalisation process requires new skills of international nature, thus creating a series of needs for higher education institutions. On one hand, they have intensified their engagement with communitarian student and teacher mobility and training, such as Erasmus, and have developed cooperation partnerships, as well as managing and technical support structures to such programmes and students involved. On the other hand, university curricula are increasingly trying to prepare students for the global market and an active citizenship with the introduction of subjects such as international human resource management, international migrations, intercultural management, ethics and social responsibility, etc., thus showing the need to extend multidisciplinary competences which are associated with present economic and social reality, to acquire a holistic training necessary for professionals that wish to respond to global challenges and to intervene in societies with growing cultural diversity, in the labour market and the educational area.

The context of economic and labour globalisation requires new university training supply at the graduate, but mostly post-graduate, level in economics and management, thus bringing about the issues of international mobility of labour, of international management of human resources and intercultural management within the organisations (Dickmann et al., 2007; Dowling et al., 2008; Brewster et al., 2011).

Current migration flows show the increasing cultural diversity phenomenon in receiving societies. With those migrations occurring mainly into urban areas, there is an unprecedented increase of contacts between cultures, posing serious challenges to the management of cultural diversity, to education and to intercultural communication and to the need to educate for interculturality and citizenship (Ramos, N., 2011). The growing internationalisation of companies and the internal diversity within the organisations calls for intercultural management and communication into account. Cross-cultural management explains people behaviour in organisations around the world and shows how to work with organisations holding employees and clients from different cultures.

Today, multinationals recruit globally, life experiences, flexibility and ease of adaptation allow greater opportunities for employment. Thus, university students seek international mobility to expand these possibilities (Zamberlam et al., 2009). The growth of international business, the growing emphasis on global strategies, the greater integration of multinational companies' operations, and the increasing need for cross-border knowledge transfer increase the need for leaders with global skills and perspectives of a "boundaryless career" (Suutari & Smale, 2008). The new realities in international careers recast the specific skills needed for a successful career by global professionals. There is a need to train global managers, to take their attraction, retention and development into account, to manage expatriates along the expatriation cycle and the management of their international careers.

Migration is both a result and cause of development, for development turns people more able and motivated to migrate. Thus we may highlight personal and professional issues. According to Tharenou (2003), the main reasons for an individual to look for a job outside his/her country of origin are new cultural experiences, personal growth and career development. Interest in personal development (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), personal challenge (Stahl et al., 2002.) and individual desire for adventure and life changing (Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Dickmann et al, 2008), through new international and professional experiences, are important factors for the search for employment outside the country of origin, since individuals believe that international experience will provide future benefits, consequent career progress and financial advantages.
INSTITUTIONAL AND SOCIAL RESPONSES TO INTERNATIONALISATION, EUROPEANISATION AND GLOBALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The importance of educational activities in the universities' social responsibility must be emphasized, as well as the responsibility that lies on a university’s educational plan and on the side of those at university. Universities graduate at the same time professionals and citizens that will act in society, in companies and other kinds of organisations (Kleymann et al., 2009). It is therefore necessary to develop students’ skills so that they can become future generators of business and social sustainability and work for an inclusive and sustainable global economy (United Nations Global Compact, 2008).

The Faculty of Economics of University of Porto (FEP) joined PRIME - Principles for Responsible Management Education (UN Global Compact, 2008). Curriculum content increasingly incorporates the concepts and issues of sustainability and social responsibility.

The World Conference on Higher Education 2009 regarding the new dynamics of higher education and research for change and social development, promoted by UNESCO, proposes as one of its axes higher education’s social responsibility, with the aim of strengthening the functions of the university for the twenty-first century.

It is expected that professionals, university graduates, are able to work in multidisciplinary teams and interdisciplinary actions, so that these actions are interactive and reflective, capable of promoting the participation of different actors in society, in the individual and collective construction of knowledge.

FEP is a member of EFMD (European Foundation for Management Development), a network of Economics and Management Schools that develops a central role in accessing and sharing information, particularly with regard to educational practices.

University of Porto (UP) is one of the universities of excellence in Portugal and already belongs to the very limited universe of 250/300 best universities in the world (3% of the approximately 20,000 universities around the world) and 100/150 best in Europe.

90% of FEP's teachers have a PhD. We call for student employability skills to be developed, facilitating the integration of young people into the world of work. 89% of master students at the EFF are placed on the job market after a period of 3 months. Universities should give a practical and vocational sense to student training, open to the social, economic and professional context and never inward-looking.

It is also necessary to improve information and credit recognition systems, as well as further harmonisation of the assessment process of students attending mobility programmes.

It is necessary to create financial support systems to ensure international mobility, particularly for students coming from low-income families, enabling studies and internships in the European higher education space to be undertaken. Without such support it is difficult for Portugal to reach the goal it has committed to in 2020: to have 20% of all Portuguese students holding training experiences in international institutions.

It is also necessary to pay attention to administrative and legal issues regarding the stay of foreign students in the host countries. In Portugal, the actions taken by the Foreigners and Border Service (SEF) and the Council of Rectors of Portuguese Universities (CRUP) are very important, either through the creation of SEF-Universities Interface system (ISV), which aims to facilitate the documentary regularisation of students in Higher Education Institutions, or the establishing of protocols for the same purpose.
CONCLUSION

The institutional and financial crisis of the university is presented by Santos (2010) as its weakest link, because it affects the scientific and pedagogical autonomy, reinforcing the need for universities to face the present moment, in the prospect of overcoming new challenges and priorities.

Several factors have contributed to the internationalisation of the education system: the standardisation of the Anglo-Saxon model worldwide; the existence of an expanding world academic market for students and qualified professionals; the adoption of English as the language of instruction in various programmes; internet; cooperation projects between institutions; the harmonisation of the educational, teaching and assessment methods systems (Dia, 2005).

The internationalisation of higher education aims at human development through the exchange of knowledge, it intends to expand the diversity of knowledge, to extend the cultural horizons, scientific and technological possibilities and intercultural understanding among university students and education community. This exchange of knowledge contributes to the cultural enrichment and renewal, both in the host countries, as the countries of origin, and enhances the cultural space and international prospects from the involved individuals and institutions (Bhandari & Laughlin, 2009; Sobral & Ramos, 2012).

Statements about the European Union’s role in the dissemination of an intercultural educational culture, with a tendency to constitute itself as a new European and world educational order are being expressed. Does intra-European student mobility strengthen the European identity? (Van Mol, 2013). There is need for further educational and communication interculturality, to build bridges and dialogues able to form a new university culture. International student’s migration mapping the field and new research European agendas (King & Raghuram, 2013).

The pillars – lifelong learning, intercultural education and ICT integrated into educational practices - contribute for the construction of an educative model that extends to an indicative of the universalisation of knowledge, being Europe its motor. We cannot ignore the growth of “virtual mobility”, the use of the internet in delivering courses anywhere in the world.

There is a growing internationalisation of higher education as a way to respond to the demands of the economy and the globalised labour market and preparing international students for a global career. International mobility is a challenge for education and European integration.

Further studies the university internationalisation are needed, so that we do not fall in a transnational process where regulatory negotiations do not consider regional characteristics and the sovereignty of the nation-state.

REFERENCES


KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Academic Mobility: Includes the mobility of students, researchers, teachers and administrative staff.

Higher Education: All education beyond the secondary level leading to a formal degree.

Implementation of the University Internationalisation: It's a process that integrates an expanding world academic market for students and qualified professionals, academic mobility, internationalisation of curricula, exchange programmes and scientific networks, mutual recognition agreements, foreign language provision and the adoption of English as the language of instruction in various programmes, international collaborative research and international consortia activity.

International Mobility: Includes a variety of types of flows and displacements, such as students flows, skilled workers, brain drain, temporary workers,..., growth of selective and qualified migration.

International Students: Students who study outside their country of origin.

Internationalisation of Higher Education: "Internationalization includes the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions - and even individuals - to cope with the global academic environment" (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Internationalisation of Universities: It's a process that integrates a global and intercultural dimension with education's goals, functions and supply.

Internationalisation Policies of Higher Education: Includes the establishment and development of partnerships and international cooperation networks between universities, companies, governments, and other organisations.

Multiculturalism/Interculturalism in Higher Education: The integration of cultural diversity and the production of skills, thus promoting intercultural relationships, intercultural communication and intercultural management.