

# THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN. **AN ASSESSMENT**



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UNIVERSIDAD DE GUADALAJARA

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# PREFACE

One of the main challenges for tertiary education institutions and systems (TEIs) in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) in the 21<sup>st</sup> century involves their capacity to adapt to the internationalization processes that have impacted both their institutional future and results. The contents of these processes affect them in particular because they are trying to build a humanistic internationalization characterized by solidarity that will contribute to greater and better understanding and cooperation among cultures and nations (IESALC, 2017a). In other words, they want to safeguard the institutional mission so that it does not simply serve the hegemonic and de-nationalizing interests of globalization. This involves discussing and debating the relevant issues in order to make collaboration possible among institutions, on the basis of a relationship of solidarity among equals, in a way that generates a new style of cooperation based on mutual respect.

The agenda for the upcoming 3<sup>rd</sup> Regional Conference on Higher Education (CRES, in its initials in Spanish), to be held in Cordoba, Argentina, in June 2018, includes as one of the key areas of discussion the issues of the internationalization of regional higher education in LAC. The specific topic that a team of academics, researchers and experts have been working on is *Higher education, internationalization and integration*.

Within this framework, over a period of six years the UNESCO International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (IESALC) has worked toward enhancing its efficiency (IESALC, 2017b) by focusing on two key topics: *Internationalization* and *Knowledge management and production*. Under the former heading, efforts have been made to develop projects that stimulate the strengthening and consolidation of higher education networks and streamline processes for recognizing studies, degrees and diplomas with an eye to quality assurance, making use of different institutional instruments such as UNESCO chairs, publication media (online and print, such as the *ESS* magazine) and social networks, all made available to the multiple regional actors involved in higher education. As for the latter strategic area, many initiatives have revolved around observatories. In collaboration with prestigious universities, institutions and businesses in the region, IESALC has sponsored observatories that focus on social commitment and responsibility, teacher training, diversity and interculturalism, and the internationalization of tertiary education.

In this context and for the purposes of this presentation, we focus specifically on the Regional Observatory of Internationalization and Networking in Tertiary Education (OBIRET), developed in conjunction with the Universidad de Guadalajara and the Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla – both in Mexico – starting in February 2015, under the direction of Dr. Jocelyne Gacel-Ávila. The OBIRET is a virtual information system and a space for reflection, study, debate and formation; its overall objective is to systematically disseminate and analyze the characteristics and trends of the process of internationalization of tertiary education in LAC. The Observatory was created to serve as a tool for the planning, implementation and evaluation of internationalization strategies and programs, as well as for the design and projection of the corresponding public policies in the region.<sup>1</sup>

OBIRET's main strategies include the creation of the Regional Network for the Promotion of the Internationalization of Higher Education in Latin America (RIESAL, in its initials in Spanish). For this purpose, it procured joint financing from the European Commission within the framework of the Erasmus program+Capacity Building in the field of Higher Education (CBHE), which develops transnational cooperation projects based on multilateral associations, mainly between TEIs and partner countries. The purpose of the RIESAL project is to improve the culture of internationalization management in the TEIs of LAC.<sup>2</sup>

## **THE CONSTRUCTION OF RELIABLE INFORMATION SYSTEMS**

A look at the evolution of higher education in the region since the start of the 21st century reveals, in some cases, very noticeable trends as well as areas where progress is falling short. Quality assurance and the streamlining of internationalization processes in tertiary education represent an important part of this unfinished business. These two areas, along with five others, are included on the proposed agenda and design of the 3rd CRES 2018.

The changes in higher education in the region cannot be explained solely by pointing to population growth, which will continue for some time to impact enrollment rates, the proliferation of institutions and private-sector incorporation. LAC also shows qualitative progress in terms of contents, processes and results. This progress notwithstanding, tertiary education institutions and systems as a whole face significant challenges, and future decision-making by these actors and the Governments of the region will require conceptual and instrumental progress in order to gradually eliminate the deep asymmetries that exist today between institutions, countries and systems.

As institutions enhance their capacities and consolidate in response to the new realities and challenges of internationalization, they will need access to solid, relevant information in order to strengthen their institutional processes. The OBIRET offers support for tertiary education institutions in the region as they pursue these goals.

On the assumption that internationalization constitutes a key trend in the

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1 For more information, visit: <http://obiret-iesalc.udg.mx/>  
2 Visit: <http://erasmusplusriesal.org/es/>

development and strengthening of tertiary education, OBIRET set out to compile the most reliable sources of information possible on the subject by approaching regional tertiary education institutions, which led, within the RIESAL project, to the 1st Regional Survey of Internationalization Trends in Tertiary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean. This Survey is an important step toward the construction of reliable and up-to-date sources of information that enable the systematic analysis of internationalization. OBIRET has produced a wide-ranging study, in terms of both dimension and scope; furthermore, it is unique in that it focuses on the distinctive features of the region. It is aimed at offering a regional perspective on the international dimension of tertiary education for the purpose of identifying trends, strengths, risks, obstacles and limitations.

From a statistical standpoint, the Survey collected 377 responses from twenty-two countries in the region. Public tertiary education institutions account for 55% of the responses, private TEIs for 30%, and non-university institutions of higher education for 5%.

The results of the Survey are highly encouraging for the future: we feel that they represent an opportunity to apply similar instruments with a certain periodicity in order to identify trends and allow OBIRET and UNESCO-IESALC to support institutional decision-making on different aspects of the internationalization of higher education based on highly reliable information.

The availability of up-to-date and consistent information allows institutions such as ours to play our pedagogic role effectively and to offer technical guidance to TEIs as they look to improve their performance. We welcome the application of technical instruments that facilitate the work of the enormously diverse institutions of tertiary education in the region as they strive to adapt to these times of rapid change and pressing demands. We hope that this road toward improvement attracts more and more institutions to apply our evaluation and follow-up instruments, in order to optimize their capacities and make decisions that respond to what our society demands and expects from tertiary education.

Accurate, relevant information opens up perspectives beyond the traditional aspects of internationalization, such as academic mobility or scholarship funding, and sheds light on key aspects of systems and institutional management to meet the challenges of internationalization processes in areas such as capacity installation, program content, coverage, enrollment, public and private participation in the sector, different levels of tertiary education in universities, the participation of the most vulnerable sectors of the population, etc. Useful information will provide insight into trends and help to detect alternative decisions that might be more suitable to the constantly shifting local context.

UNESCO-IESALC thanks and commends the OBIRET team, especially its director, Dr. Gacel-Ávila, for having the courage to accept the challenge of collecting information straight from the source, i.e., from the TEIs in the region, on aspects as relevant as internationalization and its effects on institutional management. It is clear that there is a long road ahead in the construction of more solid tertiary education systems in LAC. This is a strategic priority for IESALC, and for this reason it will continue to support OBIRET's initiatives in order to ensure sustainable progress.

We are convinced that advancing in the construction of information systems that make our institutions more transparent can only produce positive effects for all the actors involved in tertiary education in the region.

I encourage you to take a close look at the results of the *1st Regional Survey of Internationalization Trends in Tertiary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean*. You

will find interesting perspectives on the development of tertiary education and compelling evidence on progress in certain areas, which raises questions and uncertainties about the future of our higher education, but also shows a path to more accurate analysis than can help to achieve the results that all the actors involved are hoping for.

**PEDRO HENRIQUEZ GUAJARDO**

Director of UNESCO-IESALC

Caracas, September 2017

# **OBIRET**

## **UNESCO-IESALC REGIONAL OBSERVATORY OF INTERNATIONALIZATION AND NETWORKING IN TERTIARY EDUCATION**

The Regional Observatory of Internationalization and Networking in Tertiary Education (OBIRET, in its initials in Spanish) is a virtual information system and a space for reflection, study, debate and formation, coordinated by the International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean of the United Nations Education, Science and Culture Organization (UNESCO-IESALC).

Its overall objective is to systematically disseminate and analyze the characteristics and trends of the process of internationalization of tertiary education in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). The Observatory seeks to be a tool for the planning, implementation and evaluation of internationalization strategies and programs, as well as for the design and projection of the corresponding public policies in the region.

UNESCO-IESALC, through OBIRET, fulfills its function of articulating tertiary education processes with the needs of different actors and sectors of society, in accordance with the UNESCO General Conference and Regional Conferences.

OBIRET endorses the values of UNESCO regarding the need for tertiary education to promote global citizenship and a culture of peace, in order to lay the foundations for sustainable human development on the basis of justice, equality, freedom, solidarity, democracy and human rights.

OBIRET acts under the institutional auspices of the Universidad de Guadalajara (UDG) and the Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla (BUAP), both based in Mexico, and started its work in February 2015. The Observatory's General Coordinator is Dr. Jocelyne Gacel-Ávila, Research Professor and Director of the Division of State and Society Studies of the University Center for Social Sciences and Humanities (CUCSH, in its initials in Spanish) of the UDG.

At the heart of OBIRET's mandate is the promotion of activities such as the following:

- Integrating the international dimension into the mission and vision of tertiary education institutions;
- Implementing a concept of comprehensive or integral internationalization through programmed cross-sectional organizational strategies for all institutional activities, development and culture.
- Coming up with curricular proposals to form graduates with the profile required for their local, regional and global context.
- Expanding the catalogue of collaborative study and graduate programs;
- Promoting international mobility among students, academics, and administrative and service personnel;
- Attracting and hosting more foreign students in LAC;
- Developing human resources to manage and study topics of internationalization and international cooperation;
- Recording and studying good internationalization practices;
- Building databases on international activities in the region;
- Designing bi- and multi-lateral agendas, as well as intra- and inter-regional agendas;
- Promoting alliances between university networks and associations at the regional and global levels;
- Proposing systems that assure the quality of internationalization at the regional and inter-regional levels.
- Promoting agreements regarding the recognition of studies, degrees and diplomas at the regional and inter-regional levels;
- Promoting academic integration at the regional LAC level.

# PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY

Internationalization is one of the key trends for transforming tertiary education so that it can meet the demands of a global, multicultural and highly competitive society; this means that a particularly important strategy for educational institutions of the region is to build capacities that enable the sector to implement its internationalization process. This process must be comprehensive and central to the entire educational process, going beyond student and academic mobility, which until now has constituted the region's main internationalization initiative.

Consistent with its mission, OBIRET designed one of its first macroprojects: the *1<sup>st</sup> Regional Survey of Internationalization Trends in Tertiary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean*. A wide-ranging study in terms of both dimension and scope, it is unique in that it focuses on the distinctive features of the region, unlike other studies that take a more global approach, such as the *Global Survey of the International Association of Universities* (IAU), for instance.

The purpose of this Survey is to generate a regional overview of the international dimension of tertiary education institutions (TEIs) in Latin America and the Caribbean, in order to identify major trends, strengths, risks, obstacles and limitations, in response to the lack of systematized and comprehensive information on the internationalization process that prevails in the region.

The Survey was launched in March 2016: invitations were sent to the representatives of associations of TEIs in the region, so that they in turn would invite their associated institutions to participate. In addition, personalized invitations were extended to TEIs in the region whose internationalization activities and programs have garnered particular attention and recognition. Finally, the Survey was promoted on interest lists, on the official Facebook page and at different events in which the OBIRET team participated.

The Survey was available in Spanish, English and Portuguese at the following link: <http://encuestainternacionalizacionalc.questionpro.com/>

The institutions of the region participated very actively, producing 377 responses from twenty-two different countries (59% from public TEIs, 36% from private non-profit institutions, and 5% from private for-profit institutions). It is worth pointing out that this level of response surpasses that of the IAU survey, which obtained responses from 141 institutions in LAC. Table 1 shows the geographical distribution of the participating institutions:

**TABLE I. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS**

<b>COUNTRY</b>	<b>NUMBER OF TEIs</b>	<b>% OF TEIs</b>
<b>ARGENTINA</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>5.6</b>
<b>BOLIVIA</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1.6</b>
<b>BRAZIL</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>23.6</b>
<b>CHILE</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>3.7</b>
<b>COLOMBIA</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>15.6</b>
<b>COSTA RICA</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1.1</b>
<b>CUBA</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.1</b>
<b>ECUADOR</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>4.5</b>
<b>EL SALVADOR</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.1</b>
<b>GUATEMALA</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>HONDURAS</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.3</b>
<b>JAMAICA</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.3</b>
<b>MEXICO</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>27.9</b>
<b>NICARAGUA</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.1</b>
<b>PANAMA</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.1</b>
<b>PARAGUAY</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0.8</b>
<b>PERU</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>4.5</b>
<b>PUERTO RICO</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0.8</b>
<b>DOMINICAN REPUBLIC</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2.4</b>
<b>TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>URUGUAY</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>VENEZUELA</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1.3</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>377</b>	<b>100</b>

## **STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT**

The report is divided into five sections:

- Section I addresses the objectives of the study and presents its methodology, including the design of the questionnaire, the characteristics of the universe and sample, as well as the profile of the participating institutions.
- Section II addresses the current regional context, as well as the challenges for the tertiary education sector in Latin America and the Caribbean, in terms of access, diversification, quality and relevance, with an emphasis on the challenges posed by globalization and the society of knowledge.
- Section III provides a detailed description and analysis of the Survey's results.
- Section IV summarizes our main findings.
- Section V contains some final reflections.

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, we would like to extend our deepest thanks to Pedro Henriquez Guajardo, Director of the International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean of the United Nations Education, Science and Culture Organization (UNESCO-IESALC), for his valuable and unconditional support of this project, as well as to the entire team at the Regional Observatory of Internationalization and Networking in Tertiary Education (OBIRET), especially to Teresa Medrano Miranda, Magdalena Bustos Aguirre and José Manuel Favila Márquez for their contribution to the implementation of this project.

We also thank the International Association of Universities (IAU), particularly its Executive Ministry, as the Global Survey on the Internationalization of Higher Education, which this Association has conducted on four occasions, was a source of inspiration for the present Survey.

Furthermore, this research project would not have been possible without the support and collaboration of the organizations and associations in the region that enthusiastically disseminated the Survey, including: UNESCO-IESALC, Asociación Brasileña de Educación Internacional (FAUBAI), Asociación de Universidades Grupo Montevideo (AUGM), Asociación de Universidades e Instituciones de Investigación del Caribe (UNICA), Asociación Dominicana de Rectores de Universidades (ADRU), Asociación Mexicana para la Educación Internacional (AMPEI), Asociación Venezolana de Rectores Universitarios (AVERU), Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo (CINDA), Consejo Interuniversitario Nacional de Argentina (CIN), Consejo Nacional de Rectores de Costa Rica (CONARE), Consejo de Rectores de Panamá (CRO), Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Chilenas (CRUCH), Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Privadas Argentinas (CRUP), Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano (CSUCA), Ministerio de Educación de Cuba (MES), Organización Universitaria Interamericana (OUI), Proyecto INCHIPE, Proyecto Learn Chile, Red Colombiana para la Internacionalización de la Educación Superior (RCI) of the Asociación Colombiana de Universidades (ASCUN), and the Unión de Universidades de América Latina y el Caribe (UDUAL). We are also grateful to the tertiary education institutions involved for their timely and active participation. We appreciate the time and effort that they have invested in this study.

We would also like to recognize the valuable contribution of José Celso Freire and his team at FAUBAL, who translated the questionnaire into Portuguese and disseminated the Survey among all their associates.

Furthermore, we express our gratitude for the invaluable cooperation of David Julien and Patricia Gudiño at OUI, who actively promoted the Survey among their member institutions: it was their collaboration that enabled us to reach all the countries in the region.

We also thank the team at AMPEI, who conducted the pilot test of the survey and provided us with valuable feedback on its content and functionality.

**SECTION I**  
**OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY OF**  
**THE STUDY**





## **I. JUSTIFICATION**

In general there have been very few studies that analyze the process of internationalization in tertiary education institutions (TEIs) in the region. We can cite the pioneering book published by the World Bank (de Wit, Jaramillo, Gacel-Ávila, & Knight, 2005); the surveys conducted by the International Association of Universities (IAU), which offer a comparative overview; a few studies done by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), evaluating national systems; and projects undertaken by regional associations such as the National Association of Universities and Higher Education Institutions (Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior, ANUIES), the Colombian Association of Universities (Asociación Colombiana de Universidades, ASCUN), and the Brazilian Association of International Education (FAUBAI), to mention a few.

Until now, however, there had not yet been a comprehensive regional survey that specifically addressed the internationalization process of TEIs in all aspects (organizational policies and structures at the institutional level, as well as the wide range of programs).

## **2. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**

The current global context calls for internationalization strategies that are systemic and cross-sectional, touching on all public and institutional policies, so that they impact a wide range of academic areas, such as the updating of curricular contents and structures, the promotion of international and intercultural competencies in students, the generation of knowledge with a global perspective, the promotion of cultural understanding, among others. In this sense, internationalization becomes a strategic means to innovate and improve the quality and relevance of the tertiary education sector.

In this sense, this study refers to internationalization as

the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purposes, functions and delivery of tertiary education, while aiming to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and personnel of the institutions, for the purpose of making a significant contribution to society (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015, p. 283).

By internationalization, we also refer to

a process that integrates a global, international, intercultural, comparative and interdisciplinary dimension into the substantive functions of HEIs [higher education institutions], with the ultimate intention of promoting a global perspective and awareness of human issues in a way that encourages the values and attitudes of responsible, humanistic and solidary global citizenship (Gacel-Ávila, 2006, p. 61).

Hudzik (2011), for his part, defines “comprehensive or integral internationalization as a commitment, confirmed through action, to the integration of the international and comparative perspectives into teaching, research, and higher education services” (p. 1). Consequently, as internationalization becomes a strategic element in the transformation processes of national educational systems, it becomes crucial to generate objective and contrasted information as to what really occurs in this area. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to provide a regional overview of the international dimension of TEIs in Latin America and the Caribbean, by identifying major trends, strengths, risks, obstacles and limitations.

Thus, the intention of this Survey is to offer reliable data and an analysis that will enable institutional leaders and internationalization operators to design and implement relevant policies and strategies for the region’s unique situation.

### **3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following research questions guided the present study:

- What is the current state of the internationalization process of TEIs in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC)?
- Which countries are leading the implementation of the internationalization process?
- Are there differences between public and private institutions with regard to the implementation of the internationalization process?

- What are the characteristics of internationalization offices (IOs)?
- Which are the main partner countries of the TEIs in LAC?
- Is internationalization a priority for TEIs in the region?
- Which internationalization strategies are implemented the most by TEIs in LAC?
- What are the top-priority geographical areas for internationalization in the region?
- What is the situation of curricular internationalization in the region?
- What activities are undertaken in the region to internationalize the curriculum?
- What is the situation of joint or dual-degree programs?
- What is the situation of the internationalization of research?
- Which are the main countries of destination for academics who engage in mobility?
- What are the main mobilization destinations for students in the region?
- Have TEIs in the region implemented instruments and mechanisms to evaluate their own internationalization process?
- What benefits are associated with the internationalization process in the region?
- What risks are perceived with regard to the internationalization process in the region?
- What obstacles does the internationalization process face in the region?
- What is the regional opinion of global university rankings?

#### **4. UNIVERSE AND SAMPLE**

*The 1st Regional Survey of Internationalization Trends in Tertiary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean* was open to a selected sample of TEIs in the region, from both the public and private sectors. According to Brunner (2016), the region has 1,328 public university institutions and 2,753 private universities, making a total of 4,081 institutions.

- The following criteria were considered for defining the sample:
- Membership in an international education association.
- Existence of an office or person in charge of internationalization.
- Level of international visibility and cooperation activity.

The invitation to participate in the Survey was in the end extended to 1,670 institutions, which represents 41% of the total universe mentioned above of 4,081 institutions (Brunner, 2016).

#### **5. INSTRUMENT DESIGN**

The content of the Survey was designed considering the following aspects:

- The particularities and unique characteristics of tertiary education (TE) in the region.

- The inclusion of all the strategies that make up a comprehensive or integral internationalization process.

It should be mentioned that some questions were included from the IAU surveys in order to make comparisons and thus enrich the analysis and interpretation of the results.

For collecting the information, an electronic questionnaire<sup>3</sup> was devised on the web platform QuestionPro; it was available in Spanish, English and Portuguese at the following link: <http://encuestainternacionalizacionalc.questionpro.com/>

## 6. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The Survey was launched in March 2016 by sending personalized e-mail invitations to the representatives of the major TEI associations in the region.<sup>4</sup>

The second phase involved sending invitation letters directly to the TEIs with broad recognition for their internationalization activities and programs in the region that had not yet answered the Survey.

In the third phase, a directory of the TEIs of the region was compiled, with information of the people in charge of internationalization, and an email was sent to them via the QuestionPro platform with an invitation to answer the questionnaire.

The Survey was also promoted on interest lists, on the official Facebook page ([www.facebook.com/obiret/](http://www.facebook.com/obiret/)) and at different academic events in which the OBIRET team took part.

During the entire time the Survey was available, participants could send in questions, comments and concerns to an e-mail address that was made available to them. Likewise, because some TEIs reported having technical difficulties with their internet service and could not fill out the Survey online, or because they wanted to receive all the questions beforehand to consult with the different areas of their institution, they were sent the entire questionnaire in PDF format.

The deadline to fill out the Survey was June 30, 2016. From August to October, e-mails were sent to the TEIs that logged on to the Survey but did not complete it, in order to request their collaboration in completing the survey on behalf of their institution. The Survey was officially concluded on October 22, 2016. It should be noted that the requested data correspond to the 2014-2015 academic year.

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3 The complete version of the questionnaire is included in the *Annexes* section of this report.

4 The complete list of the participating TEIs is included in the *Annexes* section of this report.

## **7. PROCESSING OF THE COLLECTED DATA**

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software and the Microsoft Excel program.

It is important to point out that the analysis of the collected data considered only the complete responses by the institutions. Moreover, in some cases two or more responses were recorded for the same institution, and the following process was implemented to include only one response per institution:

- In cases where the same person answered the Survey more than once, an e-mail was sent to verify which of the institution's answers to include in the study.
- In cases where two or more different people answered the Survey, the one given by the person in charge of the internationalization process at the institution was included.

## **8. PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY**

From the sample of 1,670 TEIs that were invited to participate in the Survey, a total of 377 complete responses were received from twenty-two different countries in the region, which represented a response rate of 23%. This compares to 141 institutions from the Latin American and Caribbean region that took part in the last IAU survey in 2014, which means that this survey represents a 167% increase in participation.

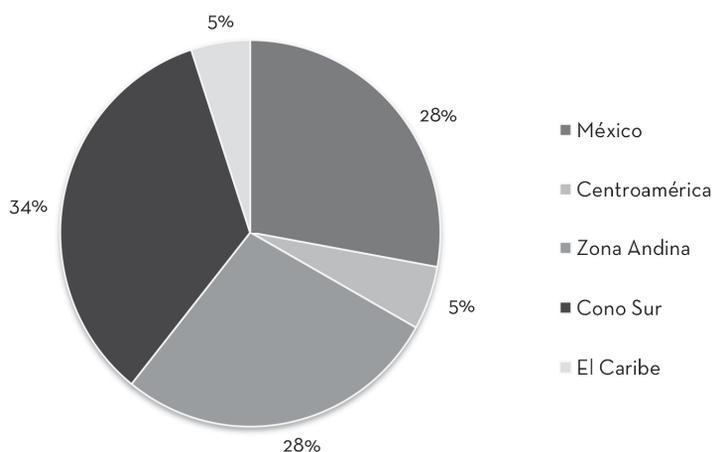
The countries that submitted the most responses, in descending order of importance, were Mexico, Brazil, Colombia and Argentina. This coincides with the size of the tertiary education system in each country and with their activism in the region's internationalization process (see Table 1).

Table 2 shows that the Southern Cone subregion submitted the most responses (34%), followed by Mexico and the Andean subregion (28%).

**TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS BY SUBREGION IN LAC**

SUBREGION	NUMBER OF TEIs	% OF TEIs
<b>MEXICO</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>CENTRAL AMERICA</b> (Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama)	<b>20</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>ANDEAN REGION</b> (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela)	<b>104</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>SOUTHERN CONE</b> (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay)	<b>129</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>THE CARIBBEAN</b> (Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Granada, Guyana, French Guiana, Haiti, Jamaica, the Bahamas, Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, St. Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago)	<b>19</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>377</b>	<b>100</b>

**FIGURE 1. DISTRIBUTION BY SUBREGIONS OF LAC**



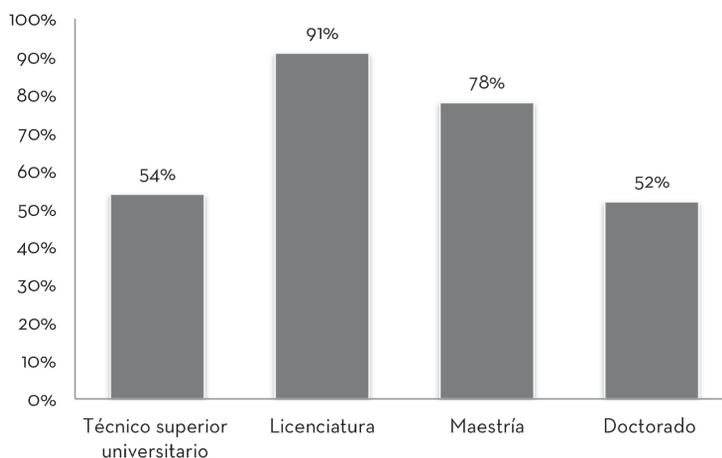
Mexico, Central America, Andean Region, Southern Cone, the Caribbean

## 9. PROFILE OF PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS

### 9. 1. Institutional profile by educational levels offered

91% of the participating institutions offer undergraduate programs, 78% include master's degrees, 54% offer programs at the university upper technical level, and a slightly smaller, but still significant number, offers PhD programs (52%). 28% of the institutions offer all four levels, while 48% offer academic programs from the undergraduate to the PhD level (Figure 2).

FIGURE 2. INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE BY EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OFFERED



University upper technical, Undergraduate, Master's degree, PhD

### 9. 2. Institutional profile by type and focus

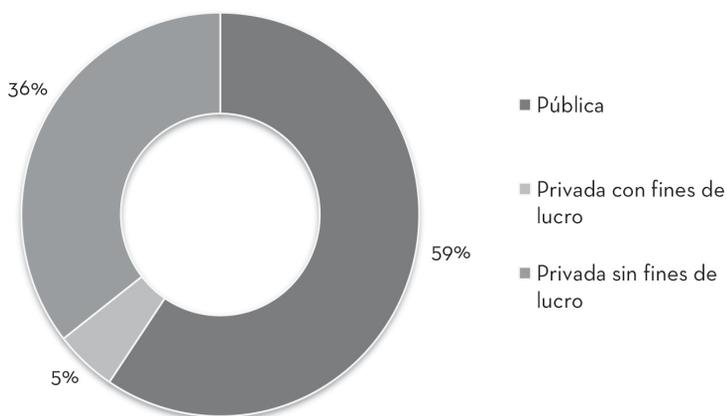
Most of the responses came from the public sector, despite the fact that Brunner (2016) reports that 33% of the region's TIEs are public and 67% are private. 59% of responses came from public TIEs, compared to 41% from private institutions, of which 36% were classified as non-profit institutions and 5% as for-profit institutions (Figure 2).

Figure 4 shows the distribution of the TIEs by country and profile. The cases of Costa Rica and Guatemala stand out, as their participation came exclusively from private institutions; in Jamaica, Honduras, Puerto Rico and Trinidad and Tobago, on the other hand, only public institutions answered the survey.

In the cases of the larger educational systems, such as Brazil's, most of the responses came from public institutions. In Colombia's case, most responses came from the private sector, and Mexico's participation involved mostly public institutions. Both situations are logical: Colombia has a higher percentage of private institutions (70.64%), while in Mexico enrollment is higher in the public sector (69.4% compared to 30.6% in the private sector)

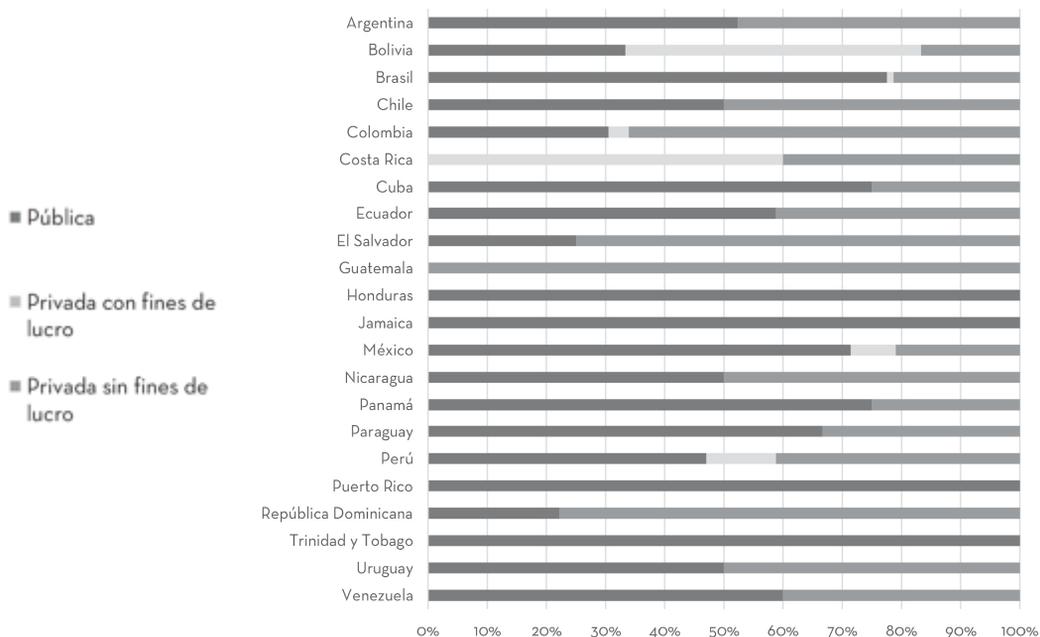
(Brunner, 2016). In the case of Brazil, the institutions with the most international visibility and knowledge production are generally public institutions.

**FIGURE 3. PROFILE OF THE INSTITUTIONS**



Public, For-profit private, Non-profit private

**FIGURE 4. DISTIRBUTION OF INSTITUTIONS BY COUNTRY AND PROFILE**



...Brazil... México... Panamá... Perú... Dominican Republic... Trinidad and Tobago  
 Public Private for-profit Private non-profit

With respect to the institutional focus, most institutions claimed to focus on both teaching and research (78%). Only 20% claimed to focus fundamentally on teaching. A small percentage (2%) claimed to focus mainly on research (Figure 5). Figure 6 shows the distribution by type of institution; it can be seen that the institutions that focus fundamentally on research are public. Most public universities focus on both teaching and research. For-profit private institutions focus in equal proportions on teaching and a combination of teaching and research. On the other hand, non-profit private institutions focus mainly on teaching and research. Thus it is public institutions that focus on research, while private institutions tend to focus mainly on teaching. This represents the regional reality, in which the production of knowledge takes place fundamentally in the public sector.

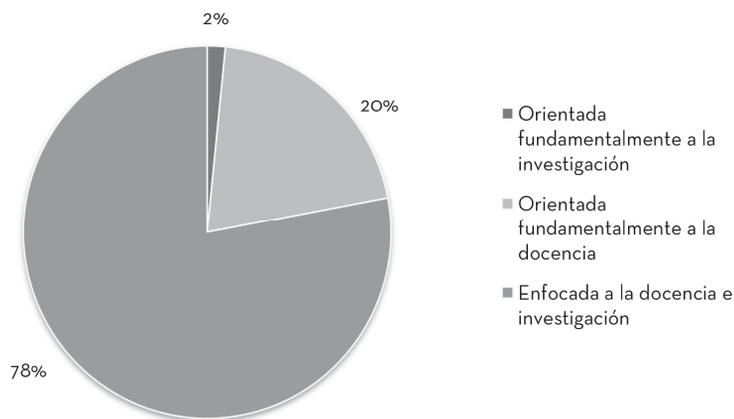
### 9. 3. Number of academics

Most of the participating institutions (63.7%) have between one and 1,000 academics (professors and researchers) on their faculty. 28.4% reported having between 1,000 and 5,000 professors and researchers. Only one institution reported over 50,000 academics.

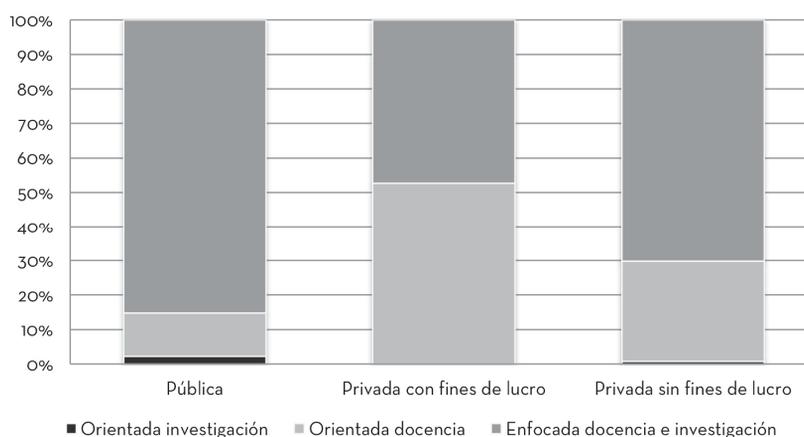
### 9. 4. Institution size

As for student enrollment in tertiary education during the 2014-2015 academic year, 35.5% of the participating institutions have between one and 1,000 students enrolled in all levels, while 27.1% have a total enrollment between 1,001 and 5,000 students; five institutions claimed to have a student body of over 100,000 students, three of them public and two private.

**FIGURE 5. INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE BY FOCUS OF THE PARTICIPATING INSTITUTION**



Focused fundamentally on research – Focused fundamentally on teaching – Focused on both teaching and research

**FIGURE 6. DISTRIBUTION OF THE INSTITUTIONS BY TYPE AND FOCUS**

Public – Private for-profit – Private non-profit

Focused on research – Focused on teaching – Focused on teaching and research

With respect to type of institution, 64% of the participating public institutions have between one and 5,000 students, while 86% of the for-profit private institutions reported an enrollment between one and 1,000 students. In the case of non-profit private institutions, 82% have between one and 5,000 students enrolled in their educational programs.

#### 9. 5. Business groups devoted to tertiary education

Of all the institutions that participated in this study, ten belong to a corporation or group of educational companies; the corporations mentioned are listed in Table 3.

**TABLE 3. CORPORATIONS OR BUSINESS GROUPS MENTIONED**

NAME OF CORPORATION OR BUSINESS GROUP	NUMBER OF AFFILIATED TEIs
LA SALLE RED DE UNIVERSIDADES MX	3
VANGUARDIA EDUCATIVA (VANEDUC)	1
GRUPO SER EDUCACIONAL	1
INSTITUCIONES SALESIANAS DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR-RED IUS	1
APOLLO GLOBAL	1
GRUPO EDSON QUEIROZ	1
LAUREATE INTERNATIONAL	1
ALIANZA PARA LA EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>10</b>

These findings show that the most frequent institutional profile among the institutions that participated in this Survey has the following characteristics:

- Public institution.
- Focused on teaching and research.
- Most academic offerings at the undergraduate level.
- Faculty of between one and 1,000 professors and researchers.
- Student body of between one and 5,000 students.
- Does not belong to a corporation or educational business group.



## SECTION II

# CONTEXT





## **I. LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: ECONOMY AND SOCIETY**

Currently, the region of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) has a population of 618 million inhabitants, accounting for 8.5% of the world's population. It is estimated that by 2030, the population will increase to 711 million, with an annual growth rate of 1.1%, which is lower than that of less developed regions (2.3%), but higher than the average of the countries that belong to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (0.7%) (United Nations Development Programme, 2015). The region's contribution represents 7.2% of the world economy (The World Bank, 2016), with three Latin American countries accounting for two thirds of the region's GDP: Brazil – the ninth largest economy in the world-, Mexico – the thirteenth largest –, and Argentina – the twenty-fourth largest.

Economic development in LAC over the past forty-five years (1969-2014) has been insufficient (3.8%) compared to that achieved by other emerging or developing regions in East Asia and the Pacific (7.8%), South Asia (4.9%) and the Middle East and Africa (3.9%).<sup>5</sup> However, between 2002 and 2008, there was a period of stable growth (5%) in the region, fueled by an increase in the global demand for the region's basic products. This period of economic expansion came to an abrupt end in 2009 with the onset of the worldwide financial crisis, the decline of international trade and the drop in foreign investment, a process that hit bottom in 2015 when LAC's economy shrank (-0.5%) while the rest of the world's regions had already recovered their growth (2.6%). In 2016, the region started posting moderate growth (1.1%).

These developments demonstrate that LAC's vulnerability to world market variations, to international financial volatility, and to the flow of foreign capital results from the region's condition as a producer of commodities with little added value. This structural weakness has a negative effect on LAC's ability to create infra structure and form highly specialized human capital, since the countries of the region have been forced on several occasions to reduce their education budget.

The region's low work productivity is another factor that affects growth, especially over the last decade, just the opposite of what has happened in high-growth countries such as China and South Korea, and even commodity exporters such as Australia. It is estimated that LAC's productivity represents only one third of that of the United States of America (OECD, 2016b). One of the causes

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<sup>5</sup> Only Sub-Saharan Africa (3.0%) and the non-developed areas of Eastern Europe and Central Asia (2.4%) had development rates lower than LAC's.

of this shortcoming is the gap between the education that students receive in the region's tertiary education systems and the skills and competencies that their productive sectors require. Latin American employers have more difficulties than businesspeople in other regions finding the highly qualified human resources they need (OECD, 2015). This skill deficit shows that tertiary education (TE) in the region does not meet the current needs of the economy (Ferreira, Avitabile, Botero, Haimovich, & Urzúa, 2017).

Other factors affecting LAC's productivity can be identified by examining different indicators. For example, the Knowledge Economy Index in LAC (5.11) is significantly lower than that of North America (8.8) and Europe (7.47), although it is closer to the global average (5.12) and higher than that of the Near East and North Africa (4.74), South Asia (2.84) and Africa (2.55) (The World Bank, 2012). The Global Competitiveness Index is another relevant indicator, with Chile ranking 33rd, Mexico 57th, Brazil 81st, and Argentina 104th (World Economic Forum, 2016).

These indexes clearly show that LAC does not yet have the capacity to compete in areas of the world economy that imply high added value. This only reinforces the region's dependence as a producer of commodities. LAC has a per-capita income of 8,631.00 USD (OECD, ECLAC, 2014) – which puts the region within the medium-high income range,<sup>6</sup> as a result of being an economy that relies on the intensive use of low-skilled labor and the exploitation of its natural resources. This condition gives the region a degree of relative economic and social stability, but limits its potential to move up to the high-income range, since this would require large investments, high rates of generation of knowledge and innovation, the rule of law, and highly specialized human capital. This condition has been called the middle income trap (OECD, 2016a). South Korea and Singapore are among the few countries that have managed to overcome this condition.

With regard to the social conditions in the LAC region, it has a Human Development Index of 0.748, which is similar to that of Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Although it ranks above Western Asia and the Pacific (0.710), the Arab States (0.686), South Asia (0.607) and Sub-Saharan Africa (0.518), 28% of the region's population, i.e., 175 million people, live in conditions of poverty, and 12.4% (75 million) in extreme poverty (ECLAC, 2015). LAC also holds the dubious distinction of being the region with the greatest inequalities in the world (Bárcena, 2016), ahead of Sub-Saharan Africa (Solt, 2009).

LAC has made strides towards the consolidation of a middle class with a daily per capita income between USD 10.00 and 50.00, as this population sector grew from 21% in 2000 to 35% in 2014. Furthermore, the population with a daily income below USD 4.00 decreased from 43% in 2000 to 23% in 2014. By contrast, the vulnerable sector of the population, with a daily income of between USD 4.00 and 10.00, increased from 34% in 2000 to 39% in 2014.

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<sup>6</sup> Above the Middle East and North Africa (USD 4,584.00), Sub-Saharan Africa (USD 1,636.00), and South Asia (USD 1,527.00).

These data lead to the conclusion that the development of LAC's higher education sector, due to its role in the acquisition of cognitive skills, the generation of knowledge and innovation, and the improvement of social conditions, must constitute one of the key strategies for achieving the structural change that the region requires. The following analysis briefly presents the situation of the region's tertiary education sector.

## **2. TERTIARY EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN**

In the year 2000, the region's TE sector began a period of expansion driven by specific public policies, investments, new development strategies, and a favorable economic environment. Fifteen years later, the results have been a mix of both significant progress and complex challenges that call for rethinking public policies and the structure of the national educational systems (Ferreyra, et al., 2017).

In absolute figures, the results include an enrollment of over 21 million students. The relative indicators also reflect important achievements: student coverage increased from 21% in 2000 to 44.7% in 2015. In fact, since 2010, LAC has moved into third place in student coverage rate, after the regions of North America and Western Europe (76%) and Central and Eastern Europe (66%). This has positioned LAC as the leader of developing regions (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2017; Ferreyra, et al., 2017). The student coverage in each country varies considerably. Cuba (95%), Chile (88.58%), Argentina (82.42%) and Venezuela (78%) stand out, while Brazil (49.20%) and Peru (40%) show progress. The case of Mexico is noteworthy for having a level of coverage that is much lower (30%) than its level of development (Brunner & Miranda, 2016).

There are differences among countries in terms of student participation in public and private TE institutions. In Argentina, Venezuela, Cuba, and Mexico, most students are enrolled in public institutions, while in Brazil, Chile, and Peru, most students attend private TE institutions.<sup>7</sup> At the regional level, 50% of TE students attend private institutions, which constitutes the largest percentage of private university participation in the world (Brunner & Miranda, 2016).

With regard to equality in TE, the university participation of the poorest quintile of the population is very limited in the cases of Colombia (19.4%), Peru (16.8%), Mexico (15.6%) and Brazil (5.4%). By contrast, the university participation of the students in the highest quintile of the population, the most affluent sector, is notably high in Chile (67.7%), Peru (62.7%), Colombia (59.3%), Argentina (53.1%), Brazil (50.3%) and Mexico (46.0%). These numbers reflect the level of inequality that exists in the region, as well as the lack of opportunities for the sectors of the population with the lowest income.

Student enrollment is concentrated at the undergraduate level (82%), with very few PhD students (1%), which contrasts with North America and Western Europe (3%),

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The increased coverage in Colombia has been achieved thanks to joint efforts from both sectors.

East Asia and the Pacific (4%) and the Arab States (3%). Furthermore, a significant portion of students graduate from law, administration and social science programs, as in the cases of Colombia (47.12%) and Mexico (40.60%). The exceptions are Cuba, where nearly a third of students graduate from health programs (29.7%), and Chile, with a significant proportion of students graduating from education and health programs (36%) (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2012).

This concentration of students in just a few educational programs is one of the factors that lead to unemployment and underemployment for graduates; the rates are very high in Mexico (24.8%) and Colombia (24.4%). By contrast, there is a scarcity of graduates in key areas for innovation, productivity and development, such as the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM): the contrast is stark between the proportion of graduates from STEM fields in LAC (18%) and China (48%).

One of the keys for TE development is the number of faculty members with a PhD. In LAC, the number of academics with this level of studies is very low, as shown by the cases of Argentina (10%), Cuba (10%), Mexico (7%), Colombia (7%), Ecuador (4%), and Peru (3%). However, there has been significant progress in Brazil (27%) and Chile (26%) (Brunner & Miranda, 2016).

The Tertiary Education systems in LAC are highly differentiated by institution type. These include emblematic national universities, state universities, technological institutes, professional schools, macro-universities, medium-sized and small institutions with a reduced number of students, and research centers, among others, both in the public sector, with 1,394 TEIs, and the private sector, with 2,826 TEIs (Brunner & Miranda, 2016).

The quality assurance and accreditation systems, for their part, are in the process of development, and some Latin American countries have already consolidated them (Lemaitre & Zenteno, 2012).

In LAC, TE graduation rates are lower than in other regions. For example, graduates from the first cycle (undergraduate level) in Chile (31.4%), Colombia (18.6%), Mexico (22.4%) and Argentina (12%) are below the average of OECD countries (36.3%). This is due to the desertion rates that result from educational programs aimed at professional specialization from the beginning, with numerous graduation requirements and a duration of five or more years, which contrasts with the curricular structures of other regions such as North America and Europe (Ferreyra, et al., 2017).

Research in LAC is undertaken mainly at the large universities, but only five of these were included on the 2016 Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU): the Universidade de São Paulo, which is ranked in the group of 101-150; the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, positioned in the group of 201-300; the Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, in the group of 301-400; the Universidade Estadual de Campinas, in the same group; and the Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, positioned in the group of 401-500. LAC still lacks the critical human capital needed for research, with the exception of Brazil, which has 106,359 active researchers; however, this Latin American country only has a rate of 1.35 researchers per 1,000 members of the economically-active population, still far below the rate of 7.96 in the United States of America (Red de Indicadores de Ciencia

y Tecnología Interamericana, 2016). The region's contributions to knowledge, which are measured by the number of articles registered on the Science Citation Index, are meager: Brazil (18.5), the most successful case, is still below Canada (39.25) and Spain (46.31).<sup>8</sup> LAC also lags in terms of innovation, accounting for just 2% of the world's patents, as opposed to Asia, the region with the most patents (58%).

International TE student mobility is among the lowest in the world (5.2%), behind Sub-Saharan Africa (7.0%) and ahead of Central Asia (5.0%). In terms of foreign exchange students coming to LAC, the region receives a lower percentage of world mobilization (2.2%) than all other regions except Central Asia.

**TABLE 4. INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY**

REGION	OUTBOUND MOBILITY			INBOUND MOBILITY		
	#	%	% ENROLLMENT	#	%	% ENROLLMENT
EASTERN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	1 208 061	27.8	1.8	771 162	17.8	1.4
NORTH AMERICA AND WESTERN EUROPE	639 764	14.7	1.5	2 417 856	55.8	5.6
CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE	427 342	9.7	1.8	513 153	11.8	1.5
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA	408 162	9.4	1.2	53 257	1.2	0.1
ARAB STATES	391 977	9.0	3.1	307 373	7.0	2.7
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	299 991	7.0	4.9	134 137	3.0	1.7
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN	227 819	5.2	0.9	96 682	2.2	0.3
CENTRAL ASIA	219 683	5.0	5.8	39 080	0.9	2.1
NOT SPECIFIED	509 901	11.7	0	0	0	0
<b>WORLD (TOTAL)</b>	<b>4 332 700</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>4 332 700</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2.0</b>

Source: UNESCO-UIS (2015).

In this section, it must also be pointed out that, among the regions of the world, the brain drain from LAC to OECD countries, which is measured by the emigration rate of the population with an undergraduate degree, ranks second (7.4%), only behind Africa (10.8%) and above the world average (5.4%). The region's highest emigration rate belongs to Guyana (92.7%), followed by Haiti (73.9%), Jamaica (46.3%), Cuba (20.2%), El Salvador

<sup>8</sup>

Indicators adjusted to population size.

(19.6%), Guatemala (17.2%), Honduras (13.8%), the Dominican Republic (11.9%), Colombia (10.5%), Ecuador (8.3%), Mexico (6.0%), Argentina (5.6%) and Brazil (2.4%) (OECD, 2013).<sup>9</sup>

In conclusion, in spite of the progress made over the last two decades, TE in LAC clearly requires new public policies aimed at diversifying the student population, significantly increasing research and innovation, promoting the acquisition of cognitive and social skills for students, professionalizing academic faculties, and promoting internationalization.

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<sup>9</sup> Data as of 2011.

SECTION III  
**RESULTS AND ANALYSIS**





## I. BENEFITS AND RISKS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

### I. I. Benefits of internationalization for the institution

56% of the institutions that participated in the survey consider that the main benefit of internationalization for their institution falls under the heading of “Developing students’ international profile.”<sup>10</sup> This coincides with tertiary education institutions (TEIs) around the world, which indicate that the main benefit of internationalization has to do with “Increasing students’ international awareness.” Likewise, TEIs at the global and regional level agree about the second most important benefit of internationalization: “Improving the quality of teaching and learning” (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

**TABLE 5. MAIN BENEFITS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR THE INSTITUTION**

#	MAIN BENEFITS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR THE INSTITUTION
1	DEVELOPING STUDENTS' INTERNATIONAL PROFILE
2	IMPROVING THE ACADEMIC QUALITY OF THEIR EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS
3	STRENGTHENING THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CURRICULUM
4	STRENGTHENING RESEARCH AND KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION
5	ENHANCING THE INSTITUTION'S INTERNATIONAL PRESTIGE/PROFILE
6	INCREASING AND DIVERSIFYING REVENUE

Participants also pointed out other benefits:

- Providing life opportunities for their students.
- Strengthening their intercultural perspective and respect for other points of view.
- Working in regional and international thematic networks.
- Supporting institutional accreditation.

- Measuring students’ performance and educational quality.
- Enhancing employability.
- Attracting international students and professors.

### I. 2. Risks of internationalization for the institution

Most of the institutions in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), as well as institutions worldwide, believe that the main risk of internationalization is that “International opportunities only benefit affluent students.” Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that LAC scored higher in this category of the survey (45%, in contrast with 31% worldwide) (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

This result reflects a higher concern for inequality, and probably echoes the fact that LAC is the most unequal region in the world (Jiménez, 2015). TEIs of LAC consider that the second and third most critical risks of internationalization involve “Inequality between partners” and “Benefits mainly an elite subset of academics,” respectively, while at the global level, the second risk is perceived to be the “Difficulty of regulating locally the quality of foreign programs.”

**TABLE 6. MAIN RISKS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR THE INSTITUTION**

#	MAIN RISKS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR THE INSTITUTION
1	INTERNATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FAVOR AFFLUENT STUDENTS
2	UNEQUAL BENEFITS BETWEEN PARTNERS
3	BENEFITS MOSTLY AN ACADEMIC ELITE
4	PREVALENCE OF THE CENTER-PERIPHERY PARADIGM
5	EXCESSIVE COMPETITION AMONG INSTITUTIONS
6	OVEREMPHASIS ON INTERNATIONALIZATION AT THE EXPENSE OF OTHER INSTITUTIONAL PRIORITIES

### I. 3. Risks of internationalization for the country

52% of the institutions of LAC consider “Brain drain” to be the biggest risk of the internationalization of higher education for the countries involved, in contrast with the global perception, which ranks this risk fifth; the biggest risk perceived worldwide is the “Commercialization of education” (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). It is worth pointing out that the global IAU survey in 2003 reported that the biggest risk of internationalization was the “loss of identity” for the countries involved. This contrast in results between these two surveys reflects an evolution of the region’s concerns: they worry less about their identity and more about having a well-prepared and internationally-competitive workforce.

*Brain drain* from the university-educated population is a sensitive topic in LAC, since the region holds the second position in this category worldwide (7.4%), only below Africa (10.8%) and above the global average (5.4%). The second and third risks for LAC are “Increase in inequality among TEIs of the same country” and “Commercialization of education.” Worldwide, the second and third risks are “Unequal distribution of the benefits of internationalization” and “Increase in inequality among institutions of the same country.”

**TABLE 7. MAIN RISKS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR THE COUNTRY**

#	MAIN RISKS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR THE COUNTRY
1	BRAIN DRAIN
2	INCREASE IN INEQUALITY AMONG TEIs OF THE SAME COUNTRY
3	COMMERCIALIZATION OF EDUCATION
4	INCREASE IN SOCIAL INEQUALITY
5	LOSS OF CULTURAL IDENTITY

## 2. EXTERNAL FACTORS THAT PROMOTE INTERNATIONALIZATION AT THE INSTITUTION

41% of the institutions consider “Government policy” to be the main factor that encourages internationalization at their institution.

**TABLE 8. MAIN EXTERNAL FACTORS THAT ENCOURAGE THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE INSTITUTION**

#	MAIN FACTORS THAT ENCOURAGE THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE INSTITUTION
1	GOVERNMENT POLICY
2	REGIONAL POLICIES
3	AVAILABILITY OF INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION
4	SEARCH FOR ALTERNATIVE FUNDING SOURCES
5	PRODUCTIVE SECTOR DEMAND
6	GLOBAL UNIVERSITY RANKINGS

These results are entirely consistent with the global results reported in the 4<sup>th</sup> Global Survey of the IAU (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). However, one notable difference is that our region ranked the “Productive sector demand” in the fifth position, while the rest of the world ranked it second. This reflects a distinctive characteristic of LAC, as there is still very little collaboration between the universities and the productive sector, in part due to an indifference to innovation in the latter.

This situation could explain the gap in LAC between the academic formation of students and the skills and abilities that the business sector demands, since it would seem that Latin American employers have more difficulty than businesspeople of other regions in finding the qualified human resources they need (OECD, 2015). This skill deficit suggests the existence of a certain disconnect between the higher education sector and economic needs. An estimated 36% of the companies in LAC have difficulty finding employees with the necessary skills, as opposed to 17% reported in OCDE countries and 2.6% in China (Ferreyra, *et al.*, 2017).

### 3. OBSTACLES TO INTERNATIONALIZATION

#### 3. 1. Institutional obstacles

At the institutional level, 52% of the participating TEIs consider “Insufficient financing” to be the main obstacle to their internationalization process, which coincides with the global trend reflected in the IAU survey (49%). However, the “Lack of proficiency in foreign languages” on the part of students and academics, which is prevalent in LAC, appears in the second position in our Survey. The lack of proficiency in foreign languages has been repeatedly pointed out in international reports on our region.<sup>11</sup>

**TABLE 9. MAIN INSTITUTIONAL OBSTACLES TO INTERNATIONALIZATION**

#	MAIN INSTITUTIONAL OBSTACLES TO INTERNATIONALIZATION
1	INSUFFICIENT FUNDING
2	LACK OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AMONG STUDENTS AND ACADEMICS
3	ADMINISTRATIVE AND BUREAUCRATIC DIFFICULTIES
4	INSUFFICIENT INFORMATION ON INTERNATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES
5	LACK OF STRATEGY OR A PLAN TO GUIDE THE PROCESS

<sup>11</sup>

The second and third positions on the IAU survey are “Limited experience of academics and staff” and “Inflexible curriculum to participate in international programs”, respectively.

### 3. 2. External obstacles

Likewise, 38% of institutions consider “Lack of funding” to be the main external obstacle to making progress in their internationalization process, but ranking second in LAC is the “Lack of national programs to promote internationalization,” while the rest of the world has “Language barriers and difficulties in recognizing qualifications.” This reflects the region’s concern with the lack of public policies on internationalization.

On this point, it is important to mention a recent study conducted by the British Council (Ilieva & Peack, 2016) on government support for TEIs’ internationalization policies, in which the participating countries from LAC (Mexico, Brazil and Colombia) all ranked near the bottom of the list, while Asian countries such as China, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam were ranked near the top.

**TABLE 10. MAIN EXTERNAL OBSTACLES TO INTERNATIONALIZATION**

#	MAIN EXTERNAL OBSTACLES TO INTERNATIONALIZATION
1	LIMITED PUBLIC FUNDING FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION
2	LACK OF NATIONAL POLICIES AND PROGRAMS TO SUPPORT INTERNATIONALIZATION
3	DIFFICULTIES IN RECOGNIZING STUDIES AND TRANSFERRING ACADEMIC CREDITS
4	VISA RESTRICTIONS IMPOSED BY OTHER COUNTRIES ON OUR STUDENTS AND ACADEMICS
5	DIFFICULTY IN FINDING FOREIGN PARTNERS
6	VISA RESTRICTIONS IMPOSED BY OUR COUNTRIES ON FOREIGN STUDENTS AND ACADEMICS

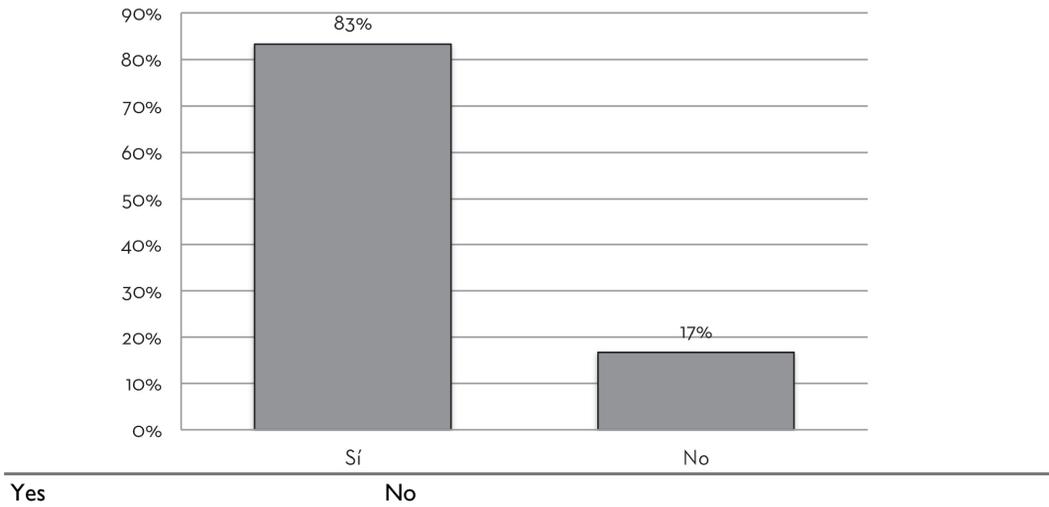
## 4. MISSION AND INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

### 4. 1. International dimension of the mission and/or institutional development plan

An institution’s ability to implement a comprehensive internationalization process requires the incorporation of the international dimension into its mission, vision, institutional development plan (IDP), and its overall policies regarding teaching, curriculum, research, publication, outreach and human development. It is important to emphasize the difference between a real institutional internationalization policy and isolated internationalization activities undertaken primarily by individual academics.

83% of the survey’s participants indicated that their internationalization strategy is mentioned in their institutional mission and/or IDP (Figure 7).

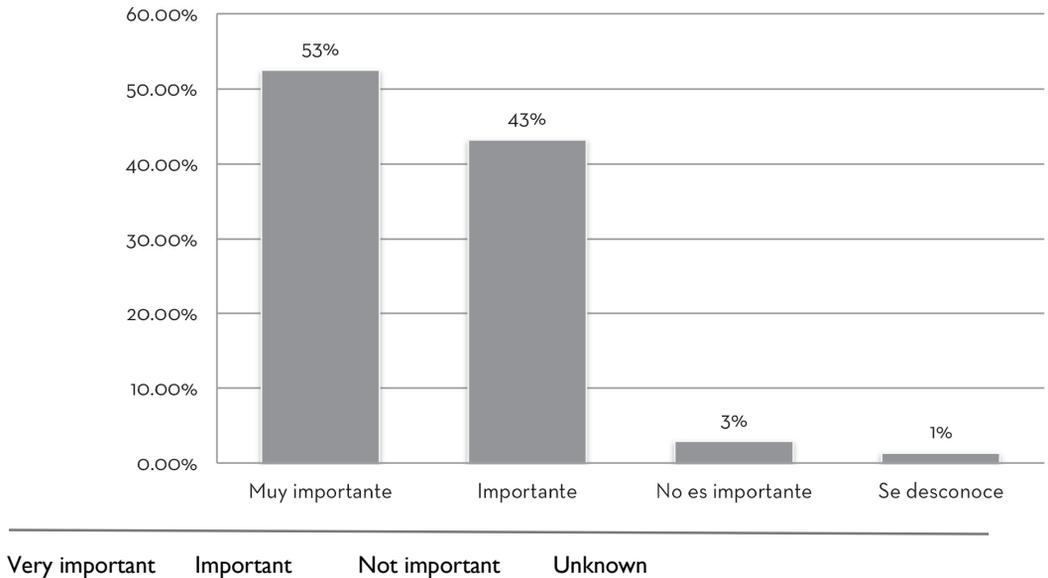
**FIGURE 7. MENTION OF INTERNATIONALIZATION IN THE INSTITUTIONAL MISSION**



**4. 2. Importance given to internationalization by educational authorities**

53% of the participating TEIs perceive their institutional authorities as considering internationalization to be “very important”; 43% “important”, and 3% to be “not important” (Figure 8). In comparison, the 4th Global Survey of the IAU reported that 69% of participants perceived their authorities as considering internationalization to be “very important”, which means that the region ranks far below (16%) the global average (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

**FIGURE 8. IMPORTANCE GIVEN TO INTERNATIONALIZATION BY INSTITUTIONAL AUTHORITIES**



While it is true that in LAC there are categories that require urgent attention, such as the broadening of coverage, equality, the improvement of educational quality and relevance, the professionalization of faculties, and the increase in the production of knowledge, among others, this is equally true for other regions of the developing world. However, our region seems to overlook the potential of internationalization as a high-level strategy to accelerate these processes, which contrasts with other emerging regions such as Asia, or even Africa.

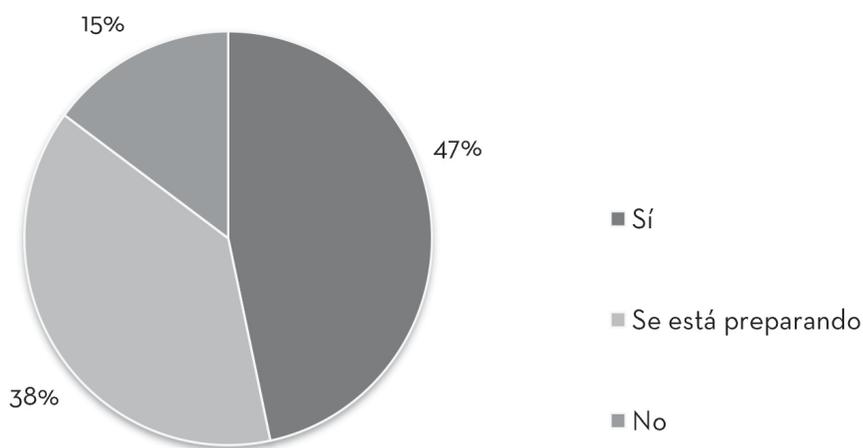
## 5. STRATEGIC PLAN FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION

### 5. I. Strategic internationalization plan at the institutional level

A viable internationalization policy within an institution requires a realistic, detailed plan of operation that includes specific objectives and goals in order to accurately identify the human and financial resources needed to achieve them, as well as the creation of conditions to monitor progress and difficulties that arise.

47% of participants reported having an institutional internationalization plan that included specific strategies, objectives and goals; 38% reported being in the process of developing a plan, while 15% reported not having a plan at all. This is consistent with the 17% of participants that indicated that internationalization is not included in their mission or IDP (Figure 7).

FIGURE 9. STRATEGIC INSTITUTIONAL INTERNATIONALIZATION PLAN



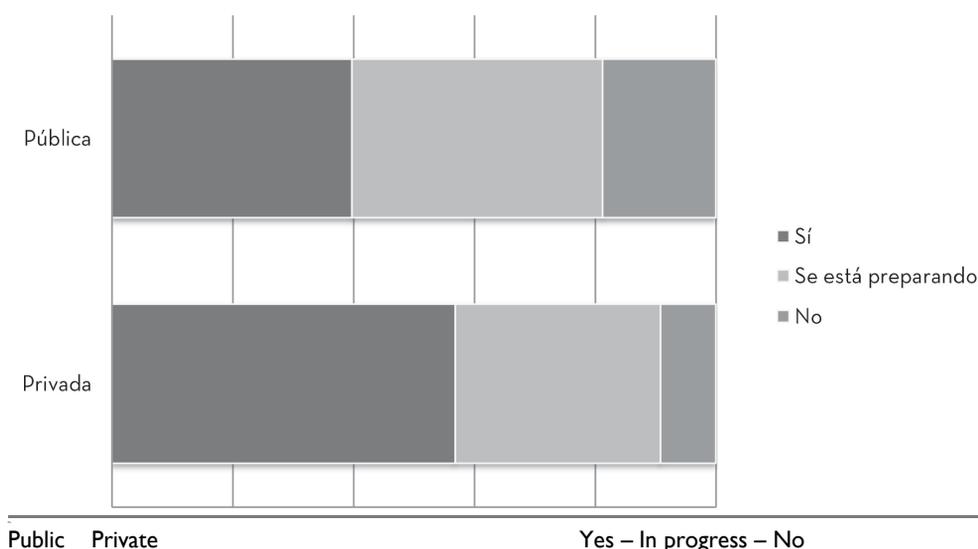
Yes, In progress, No (from top to bottom)

At the global level, according to the IAU survey, 53% of TEIs have an internationalization plan, 22% “are working on one” and 8% do not have such a plan (Egroun-Polak & Hudson, 2014), which means that our region lags a bit in this regard.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that while 83% of the institutions report having internationalization in their mission or IDP, over half of them have not translated it into an operating plan.

It is also worth mentioning that a breakdown of the results between private and public institutions shows that 57% of private TEIs have developed an internationalization plan at the institutional level, as opposed to 40% of public institutions (Figure 10).

**FIGURE 10. STRATEGIC INSTITUTIONAL PLAN FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**

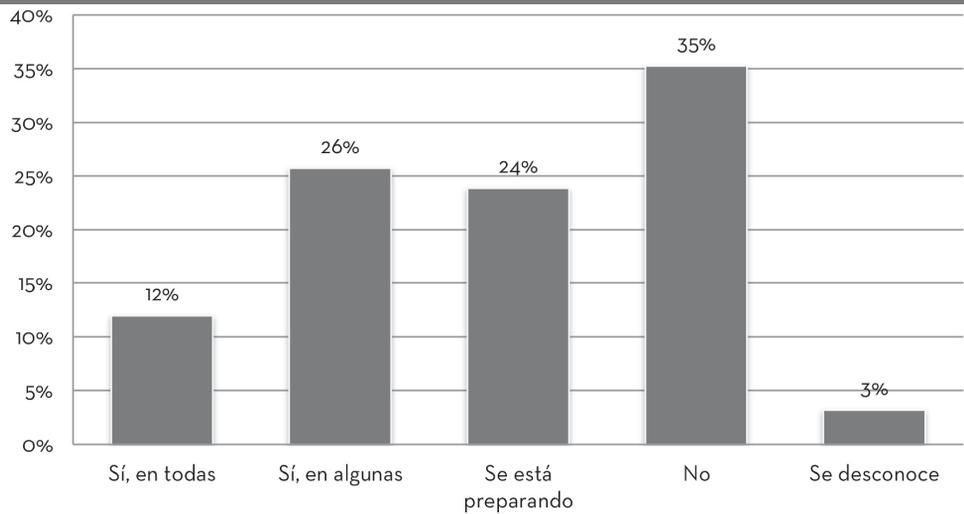


### 5. 2. Strategic interationalization plan at the level of academic units

12% of the participating institutions reported that their academic units have formulated a specific plan for internationalization; 26% indicated that some of their academic units have such a plan, while 24% indicated that they are in the process of developing a plan. But most (35%) confirm that their academic units do not formulate strategic internationalization plans (Figure 11).

This does not just indicate a high degree of centralization in the internationalization strategy within the institution, it also shows a lack of participation of the academic units in the decision-making process on matters of institutional policy, as well as limited coordination among the different actors involved. These factors limit the viability of a comprehensive internationalization process. As Hudzik (2011) points out, it is important to have specific internationalization plans in each academic unit.

**FIGURE 11. STRATEGIC INTERNATIONALIZATION PLANS WITHIN ACADEMIC UNITS**



Yes, in all of them – Yes, In some of them – In progress – No -Unknown

The breakdown by sector again shows that private institutions more often have academic units with a plan for internationalization (44%), compared to (33%) of public institutions. Most private institutions also report having an internationalization plan at the institutional level (Figure 12). In the private sector, 19% of TEIs reported having a plan for internationalization implemented in all their academic units, compared to 7% in the public sector; 25% of private institutions reported having plans for internationalization in some academic units, compared to 26% in the public sector.

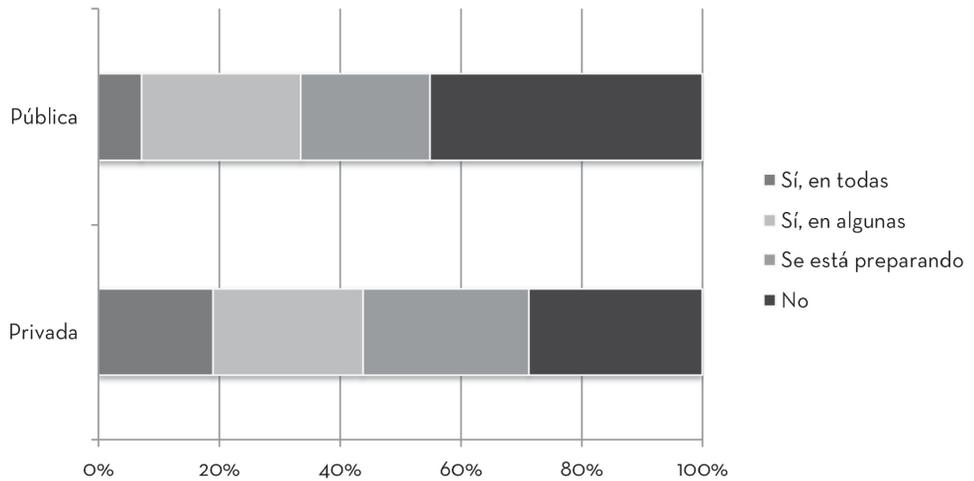
## **6. BUDGETING FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION**

### **6. 1. Resources for internationalization activities**

80% of the participating institutions reported having resources to implement internationalization activities. The three main sources of these resources are presented, in order of importance, in Table 11.

The answers given by the participating TEIs show a difference in behavior between the public and private sectors, in terms of the ability to procure external sources of funding, as shown in Table 12.

**FIGURE 12. STRATEGIC INTERNATIONALIZATION PLAN IN ACADEMIC UNITS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



Left column: Public – Private

Right column: Yes, in all – Yes, in some – In progress – No

**TABLE 11. MAIN SOURCES OF FUNDING FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES**

#	MAIN SOURCES OF RESOURCES FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES
1	INSTITUTIONAL BUDGET
2	EXTERNAL PUBLIC FUNDING, INCLUDING GOVERNMENT SUBSIDIES AND PROGRAMS
3	INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND PRIVATE FUNDING

**TABLE 12. MAIN SOURCES OF FUNDING FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**

#	PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS	PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS
1	INSTITUTIONAL BUDGET	INSTITUTIONAL BUDGET
2	EXTERNAL PUBLIC FUNDS, INCLUDING GOVERNMENT SUBSIDIES AND PROGRAMS	FUNDS OBTAINED FROM OTHER INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES (PROVIDING SERVICES, ORGANIZING COURSES, ETC.)
3	FUNDS FROM ORGANIZATIONS AND PRIVATE INTERNATIONAL FUNDS	EXTERNAL PUBLIC FUNDS, INCLUDING SUBSIDIES AND PROGRAMS FUNDS FROM ORGANIZATIONS AND PRIVATE INTERNATIONAL FUNDS

These results reveal a weakness of the public sector in terms of its capacity to procure external funding. On the other hand, the private sector obtains resources by recruiting foreign students who pay tuition, as well as by providing educational services, such as open education, distance teaching, local language courses, etc. This observation has been made in previous studies, which suggests that the situation has not evolved significantly in the last few decades (Gacel-Ávila, 2000b, p. 122).

## **7. HUMAN RESOURCE POLICY**

### **7. 1. Registry of academics with degrees obtained abroad**

60% of the participating institutions report having the information on how many of their faculty members obtained some type of academic degree abroad, 18% report not having a registry of such information, and 22% report not knowing this information.

These findings serve as an indicator of how a significant proportion of TEIs lack, on the hand, the databases required for their internationalization processes, and on the other, an institutional strategy to make good use of academics who received their education abroad and could aid their internationalization processes.

### **7. 2. International experience in hiring, promotion and contract renewal policy**

56% of the participating institutions report taking international experience into account when hiring, promoting and renewing the contract of their academic personnel. However, a significant portion of them (44%) do not look at experience in international activities when promoting or advancing academics in their careers. Public institutions tend to take this factor into account less frequently, as 65% of private institutions claim that they consider it, compared with 50% of public institutions.

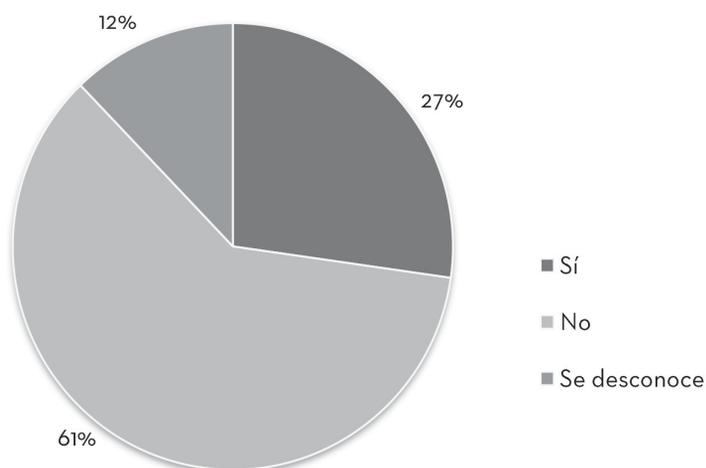
From these results, it can be seen that 42% of TEIs that include internationalization in their mission and/or IDP do not take their academics' international experience into account during the hiring or promoting processes, or when renewing their contract. Likewise, 38% of the institutions that report that their authorities consider internationalization to be "very important" give no weight to academics' international experience in their career development.

This result coincides with a study conducted by the European Union-Latin America and the Caribbean Foundation (EU-LAC) and the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences in Spain (Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, FLACSO Spain), which emphasizes that "teacher mobility has very little, if any, recognition in terms of professional training: we observed that although an academic stay in another country does grant 'prestige,' it is not valued in hiring or promotion procedures" (Sánchez & Hernández Nieto, 2016, p. 176).

### 7. 3. Scheme of sabbaticals abroad

International sabbaticals offer academics an opportunity to update and deepen their knowledge in their areas of research, as well as to collaborate with international colleagues and establish new networks. However, 61% of the participating institutions reported not having a program offering their academics international sabbaticals.

**FIGURE 13. SCHEME OF INTERNATIONAL SABBATICAL STAYS FOR ACADEMICS**



Yes – No - Unknown

## 8. INTERNATIONALIZATION OFFICE

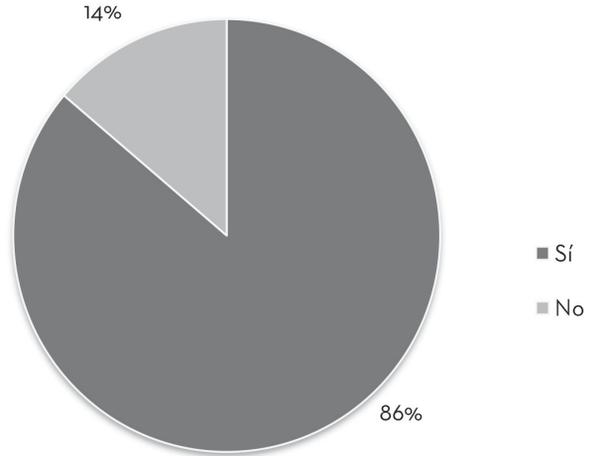
### 8. 1. Existence of an internationalization office at the institutional level

86% of TEIs reported having an internationalization office (IO) (Figure 14), which coincides with the percentage of institutions that reported having internationalization mentioned in their mission/IDP (Figure 7).

### 8. 2. Level of the internationalization office within the organizational structure

Although the establishment of an IO constitutes an essential element of the internationalization process, its hierarchy within an institution's organizational structure is also crucial to ensure the efficiency and viability of institutional strategies. In LAC, only 31% of IOs are positioned on the highest tier of the hierarchy (in other words, at the level of a vice-president/vice-rector/secretary/general coordinator).

**FIGURE 14. INTERNATIONALIZATION OFFICES WITHIN THE INSTITUTION**



Yes - No

Most of the institutions (52%) placed their IO on the second tier of the hierarchy, and 16% reported having it on the third tier of their organizational structure. This information strongly contrasts with the 60% of institutions around the world that place their internationalization offices on the highest tier (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010).

This result at the regional level coincides with the study conducted by the Mexican Association for International Education (Asociación Mexicana para la Educación Internacional, AMPEI), which concluded that 23% of IOs are on the first tier, 71% on the second, and 6% on the third tier (Gacel-Ávila & Bustos Aguirre, 2017).

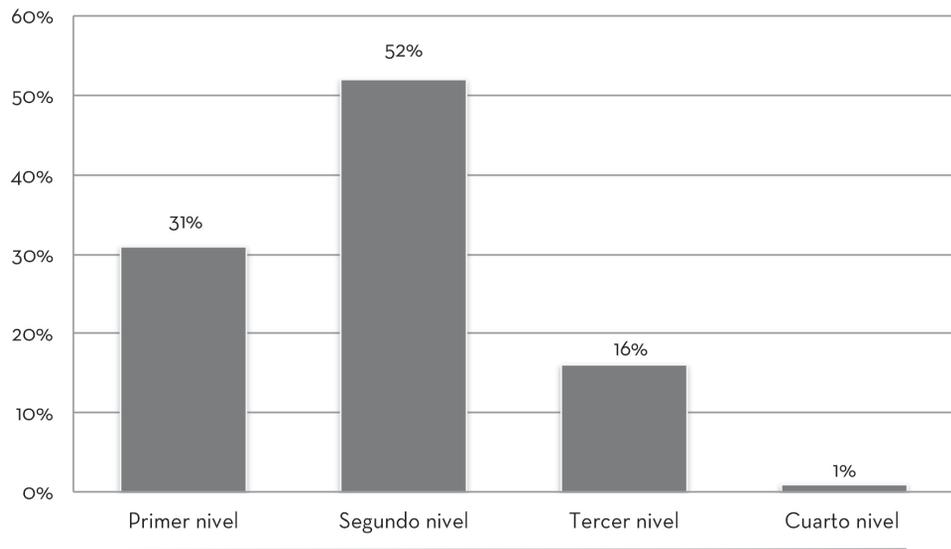
These data suggest that IOs are not given enough representation, autonomy and weight in the institutional organizational chart to play their strategic role. This aspect has been pointed out before in earlier studies (Gacel-Ávila, 1997; Gacel-Ávila & Marmolejo, 2016).

The breakdown by sector shows that 32% of IOs in the public sector are on the highest hierarchical tier, versus 29% of IOs in the private sector. 49% of public institutions and 56% of private institutions put their IOs on the second tier.

### **8. 3. Size of the internationalization office**

With regard to the number of people working at IOs, 72% of institutions reported having a work team made up of between one and five employees; 15% have teams of between six and ten; 10% between eleven and twenty; 2% between twenty-one and fifty; while 0.6% reported having over fifty people working in their internationalization offices. The average number of employees working in an IO in the region, therefore, is six. The breakdown by sector shows an average of four employees at private institutions and seven at public institutions.

**FIGURE 15. LEVEL OF THE IO WITHIN THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE**



First tier - Second tier - Third tier - Fourth tier

#### **8. 4. Profile of the head of the internationalization office**

Most of the heads of IOs (60%) are women. 45% of all heads of office have a master's degree, 31% hold a PhD, and 14% an undergraduate degree. Therefore, 76% of the heads of IOs in LAC have graduate studies and fulfill academic functions, which favors the design of good program strategies.

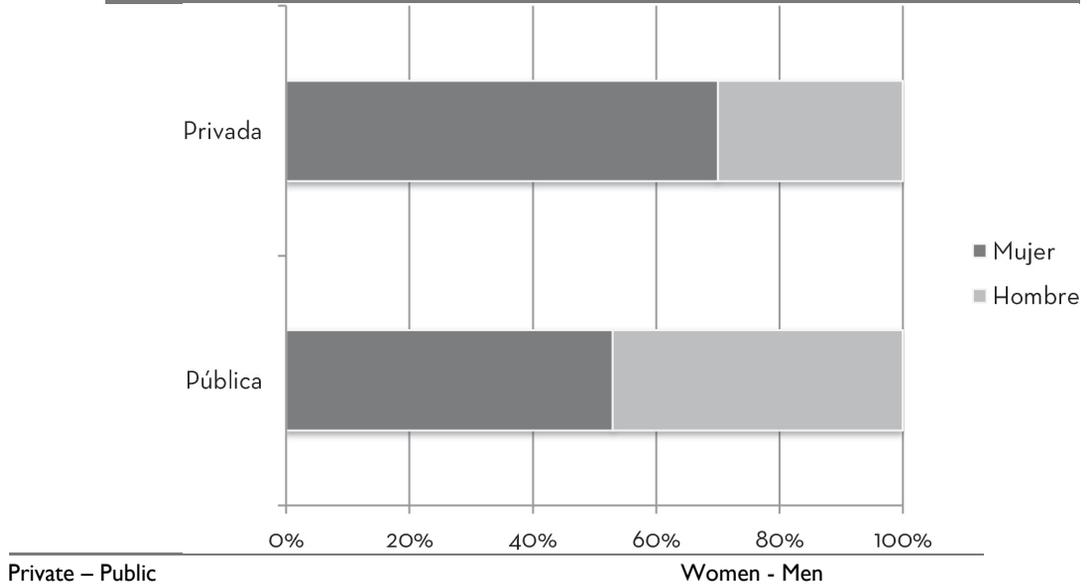
By type of institution, in the public sector 39% of the heads of office have a PhD, compared with 21% in the private sector. On the other hand, 56% of heads of office at private institutions have master's degrees, as opposed to 36% at public institutions. Finally, the percentage of heads of office with an undergraduate degree is very similar in the public and private sectors (14% and 15% respectively).

In terms of seniority at the position, most of the heads of IOs (36%) have held the position for one or two years; 29% for four to ten years; 18% from two to four years; 11% for over ten years; and 4% for less than a year. Thus, the average seniority of heads of IOs in the region is 5.6 years (Figure 17).

In the case of public institutions, the average years of seniority for heads of internationalization offices is 4.4 years, while heads of office at private institutions have an average seniority of 6.8 years. In the case of the public sector, this figure is consistent with the average seniority of a rector's management team (between three and six years).

Furthermore, the proportion of men and women holding the position of head of IO at public institutions is fairly well balanced: 53% and 47% respectively, while in the public sector, the proportional difference is greater: 70% are women and 30% are men.

**FIGURE 16. BREAKDOWN BY GENDER OF HEADS OF OFFICE AND BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**

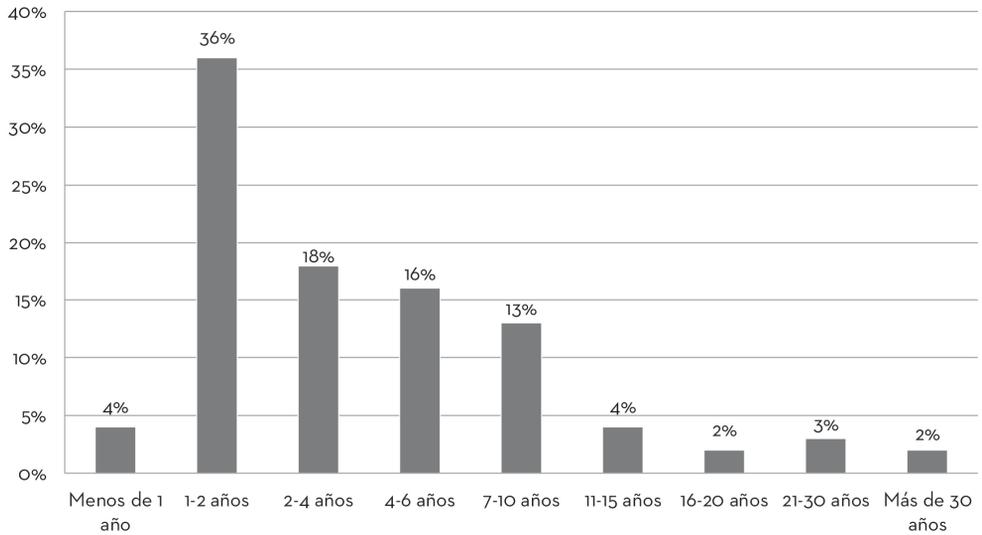


Professionalization in the management of the internationalization process constitutes a key element for its consolidation and feasibility; the above data clearly show a great weakness of the region in this regard. This situation has been pointed out in multiple reports (Gacel-Ávila, 2000a; Gacel-Ávila & Marmolejo, 2016), as every transition of power, especially in the public sector, often implies the overhaul of all management teams, including those of IOs.

This has the potential of causing a lack of continuity in work plans, even changes in the level of importance and the orientation of internationalization efforts. The data suggest that institutional managers tend to underestimate the importance of having an experienced staff for internationalization management, even though this factor could increase the visibility and feasibility of their internationalization strategies (Gacel-Ávila & Marmolejo, 2016).

This phenomenon, identified in several studies on the region, bewilders foreign institutional managers, as they are always searching for partners with a high level of professionalism and enough experience to ensure the continuity of agreements and working relationships. For example, this situation is pointed out in a study on international cooperation between the European Union and Mexico, which reports the worry on the part of European partners due to the high degree of instability and the lack of professionalized personnel working at the international offices of Mexican institutions (ECORYS, CHEPS, ESMU, 2011). Unfortunately, the data of this survey show a lack of significant progress on the matter.

**FIGURE 17. SENIORITY OF THE HEADS OF THE IO**



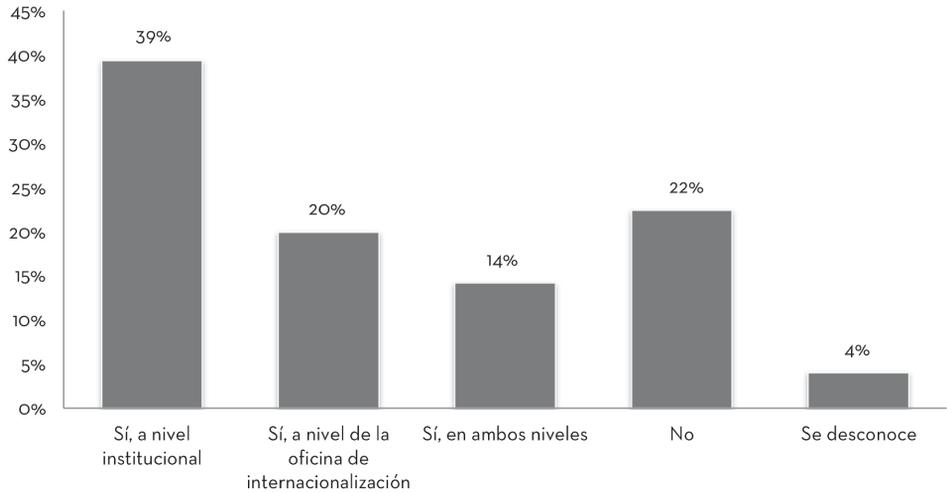
Less than a year, 1-2 years, 2-4 years, 4-6 years, 7-10, years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 21-30 years, Over 30 years

### **8. 5. Operating budget for the internationalization office**

Only 20% of the respondents report the existence of an independent budget for their IO; 39% report having a budget at the institutional level, 14% at both levels, and 26% report having no operating budget. It should be emphasized that an IO without its own operating resources is significantly limited in its capacity to promote and coordinate internationalization activities. This shows that most of the institutions have not made adjustments to their organizational structures in order to provide the necessary means for their IO, which constitutes an essential condition for the viability of the process.

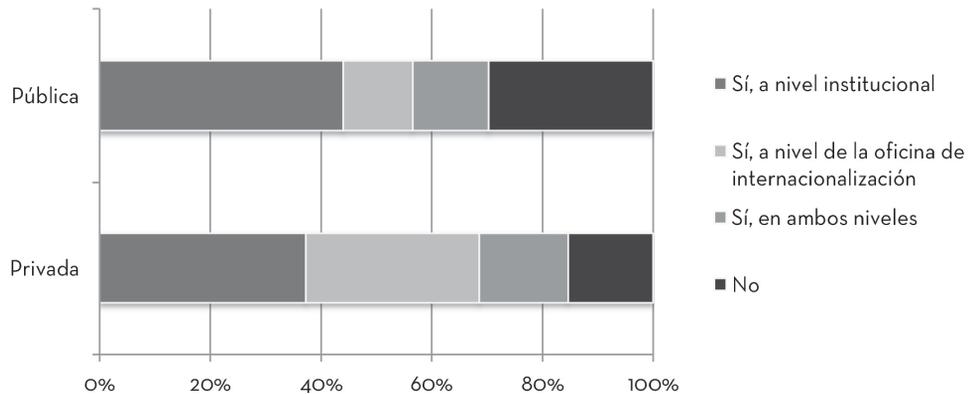
On this point, the data once again point to differences in behavior between the public and private sectors, as 31% of private TEIs report having a budget at the IO level, in contrast with 12% of public institutions (Figure 19).

**FIGURE 19. OPERATING BUDGET OF THE IO**



Yes, at the institutional level – Yes at the level of the internationalization office – Yes, at both levels – No – Unknown

**FIGURE 19. OPERATING BUDGET OF THE IO, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



Yes, at the institutional level – Yes at the level of the internationalization office – Yes, at both levels – No

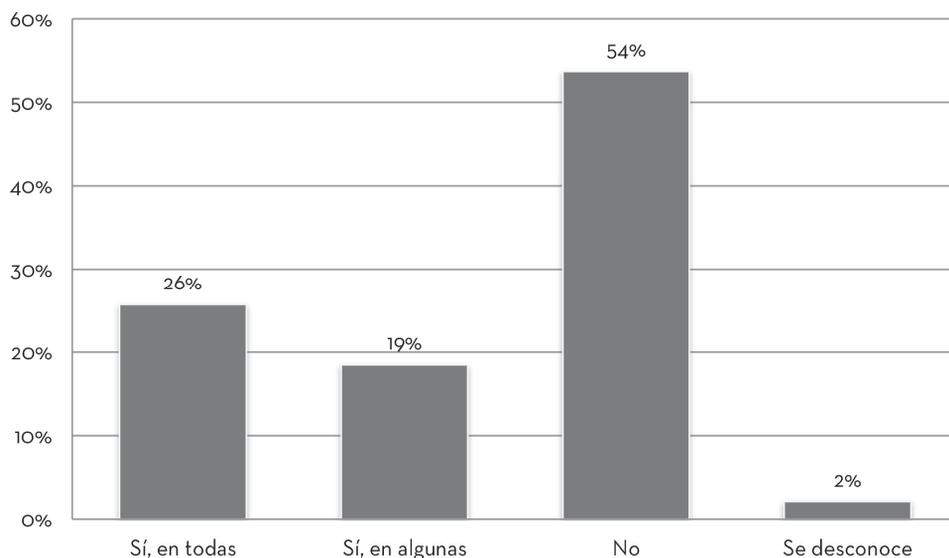
## 8. 6. International management structures at the level of academic units

Only 26% of TEIs report having a management structure for their internationalization process at the level of all of their academic units, while 19% reported having such structures in some of their units. This means that most (54%) do not have people in charge of the internationalization process at the level of the academic entities (divisions, faculties, schools, departments, etc.). This could be related to the fact that only 12% of the institutions have a separate strategic plan for each academic unit.

In general terms, this situation suggests an overcentralization in the management of internationalization activities, which undermines the viability of a comprehensive

internationalization process. The recommendation is that the process be led at the different levels of responsibility of the institution (at the central administration level as well as at the level of its academic sections).

**FIGURE 20. PEOPLE IN CHARGE OF INTERNATIONALIZATION WITHIN THE ACADEMIC UNITS**



Yes, in all

Yes, in some

No

Unknown

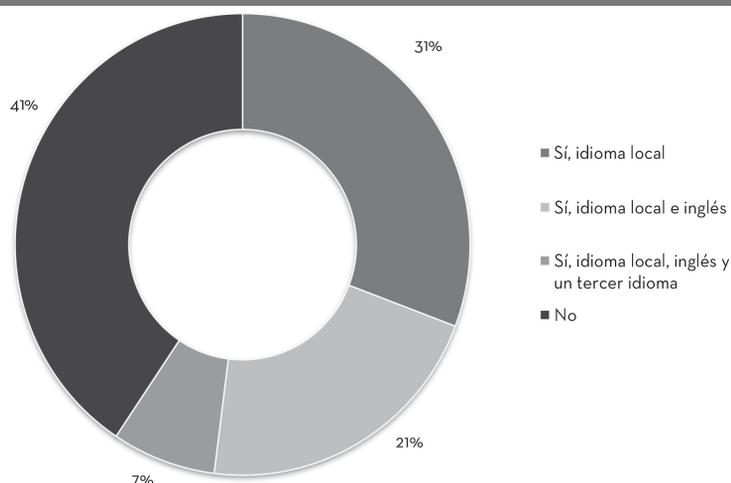
## 9. COMMUNICATION STRATEGY

### 9. I. Website

For universities, external communication with potential partners and internal communication with the members of their academic communities constitute basic tools to promote internationalization activities. 59% of the participating institutions report having an exclusive website for its IO, and 41% report not having one. Of the 59% with a website, 21% have it available in both the local language and in English, while 7% include a third language as well. 31% of the institutions have an exclusive internationalization website that is available only in the local language.

This detail reveals a weakness in the infrastructure of most of the IOs of the region, which also indicates a lack of institutional strategy to manage external affairs in terms of international visibility and promotion, as well as a lack of internal strategies to disseminate cooperation opportunities among the members of the university community. In both cases, this lack of communication strategy suggests a reactive attitude towards international cooperation, instead of the proactive attitude required for a comprehensive internationalization strategy.

FIGURE 21. EXCLUSIVE IO WEBSITE



(Top to bottom) Yes, in the local language – Yes, in the local language and in English – Yes, in the local language, in English, and in a third language – No

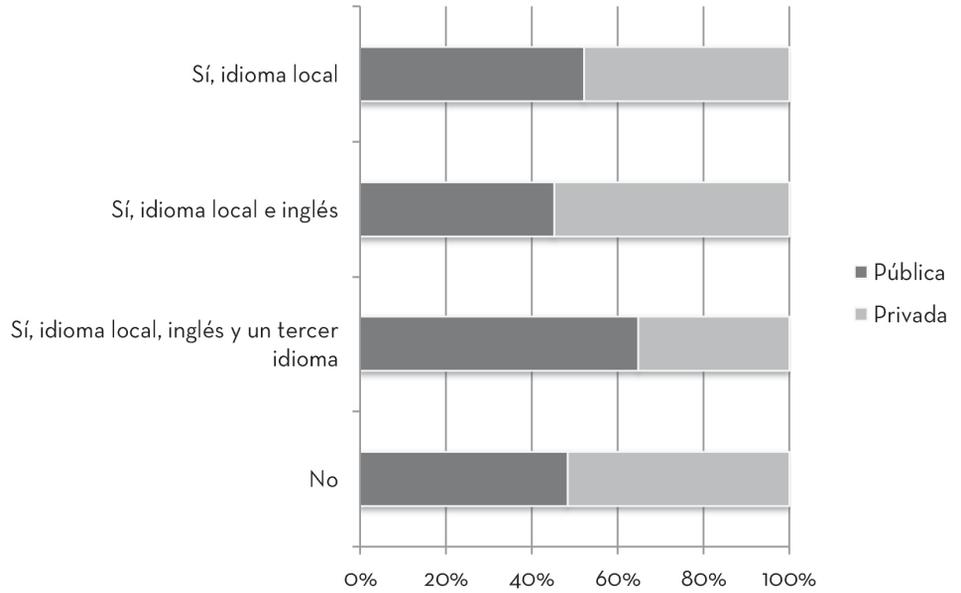
A breakdown by sector shows that 32% of public institutions have an exclusive website for their office in the local language, as opposed to 29% of private institutions. 19% of public TEIs have their website available in the local language and in English, while 24% private TEIs have a website with these features. On the other hand, while 9% of public institutions have their website available in the local language, in English, and in a third language, the percentage of private institutions with websites that meet these characteristics is 5%. The percentage of private institutions that do not have an exclusive website for their IO is higher (42%) than in the public sector (39%).

## 10. PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

The three associations with the most affiliated institutions from LAC are, in order of importance, the Union of Universities of Latin America and the Caribbean (Unión de Universidades de América Latina y el Caribe, UDUAL), the Inter-American University Organization (Organización Unversitaria Interamericana, OUI) and the Association of International Educators (NAFSA). Moreover, the Brazilian Association for International Education (FAUBAI) and the Montivideo Group University Association (Asociación de Universidades Grupo Montevideo, AUGM) also have a significant number of affiliated members, which reflects a meaningful coverage in their region.

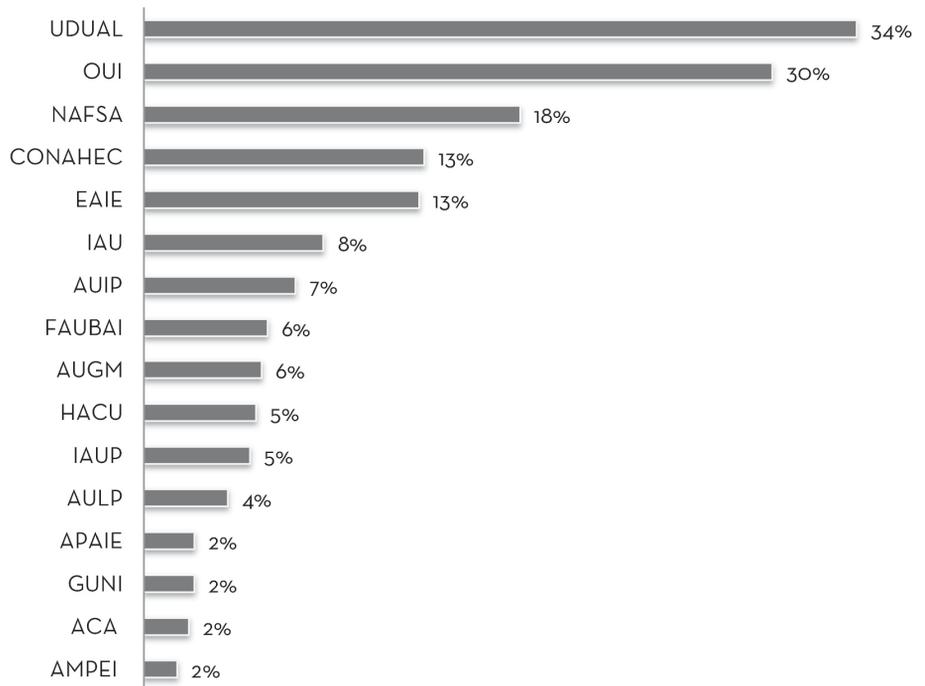
There is limited regional affiliation with the Asia-Pacific Association for International Education (APAIE); this is linked to the low level of collaboration that LAC has established with Asian countries, as shown in the following sections.

**FIGURE 22. EXCLUSIVE IO WEBSITE, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



(Left-hand margin, top to bottom) Yes, in the local language – Yes, in the local language and English - Yes, in the local language, in English, and in a third language – No  
 (Right-hand margin) Public – Private

**FIGURE 23. AFFILIATION WITH INTERNATIONAL AND ACADEMIC COOPERATION ASSOCIATIONS**



## **11. PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FAIRS AND EVENTS**

Participating in international education fairs and events constitutes an important strategy for promoting the internationalization process and institutional visibility, networking with potential partners, and following up on working plans with current partners. It also offers IO personnel an opportunity for professional updating, in terms of learning about the latest offers of international cooperation.

However, most institutions in LAC (59%) do not participate in any events of this nature, which once again suggests a reactive and passive internationalization process.

With respect to the international fairs with the most participation of institutions from LAC, 35% attend the NAFSA event (21% with a stand and 14% without one), 23% participate in the event of the European Association for International Education (EAIE) (11% with a stand and 12% without one), while only 5% participates in the APAIE event (2% with stand and 3% without one).

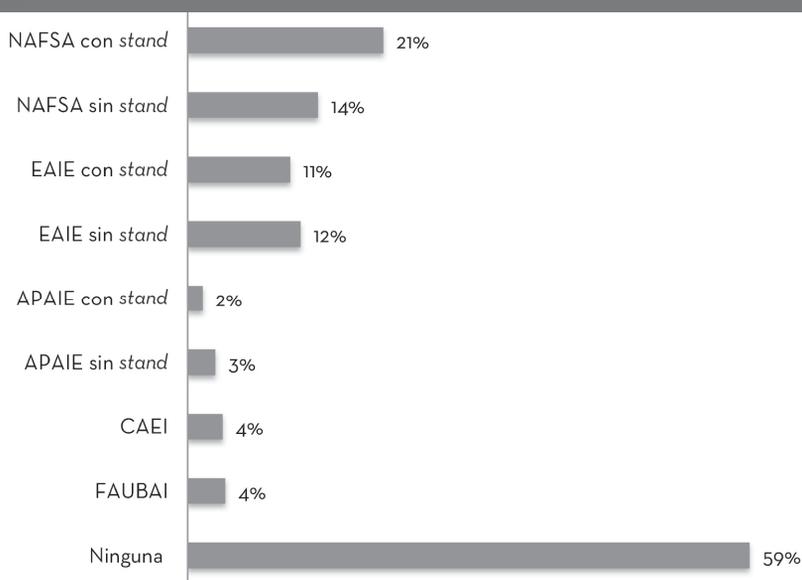
The broad presence at the NAFSA fair can be explained in part by pointing out that many TEIs participate in the national pavilions, which have the support of their country's Governments or the national university associations, as in the case of the institutions from Brazil, Colombia, Chile and Mexico.

Nevertheless, these findings also evidence a certain strategic inconsistency, as most of the collaboration efforts in LAC occur with Europe, as shown in section 13 (academic collaboration agreements): the ratio of collaboration efforts with Europe is 3 to 1 in relation to North America. This situation is also demonstrated in Table 13, which has Europe in first place of the priority regions for internationalization among institutions from LAC. Therefore, their participation in this type of events should focus mainly on Europe (i.e., the EAIE).

## **12. MAIN INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES**

Most IO-coordinated internationalization activities involve "Student mobility" (97%), "Academic mobility" (88%) and "Participation in international cooperation projects for development" (68%). On the other hand, the data indicate low levels of involvement in the internationalization of curriculum, and scant efforts in managing and funding international projects and in recruiting foreign students.

**FIGURE 24. PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FAIRS AND EVENTS ABROAD**



With and without a stand – None

**FIGURE 25. MAIN INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES**



(Top to bottom) Student mobility – Academic mobility – Participation in international cooperation projects for development – Development of joint or dual-degree programs with foreign institutions – Internationalization of curriculum – Offering courses in the local language for foreigners – Managing and funding international research projects – Offering academic programs abroad – Recruiting foreign tuition-paying students – Distance or online courses for foreign students)

## 13. ACADEMIC COLLABORATION AGREEMENTS

### 13. 1. Priority regions for internationalization

The five most important regions for the internationalization of institutions from LAC are listed in Table 13.

**TABLE 13. PRIORITY REGIONS FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION**

#	REGION
1	WESTERN EUROPE
2	LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN
3	NORTH AMERICA
4	ASIA
5	EASTERN EUROPE

There is notable discrepancy with respect to the 4th Global Survey of the IAU, which obtained its data in 2013, as it concluded that North America and Europe ranked first in the list of priority regions for internationalization in LAC (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). In this same survey, Europe was the top-priority geographic region in the world for internationalization, while LAC was not deemed a priority for internationalization by any other region, and only ranked second for LAC itself and North America (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

### 13. 2. Priority LAC subregions for internationalization

The top-priority subregion of destination in LAC for TEIs of the region is the Southern Cone, mainly Argentina, Brazil and Chile, followed by the Andean Region, mainly Colombia, Ecuador and Peru. Finally, Mexico is ranked as the third-priority subregion (Table 14).

**TABLE 14. TOP-PRIORITY SUBREGIONS OF LAC FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION**

#	SUBREGION
1	SOUTHERN CONE
2	ANDEAN REGION
3	MEXICO

### 13. 3. Number of academic collaboration agreements

The two regions that have entered into the most agreements with Latin American and Caribbean TEIs are LAC itself and Western Europe, followed by North America, Asia, Eastern Europe and Oceania. On the other hand, LAC collaborates the least with the regions of Africa and the Middle East. The average number of collaboration agreements signed by the participating institutions is twenty-seven agreements with Western Europe, nine with

North America, three with Asia, two with Eastern Europe, and less than one agreement on average with the rest of the regions. Thus, collaboration with Europe is three times greater than with North America.

At the level of subregions, the Southern Cone is the subregion with the most academic collaboration agreements, followed by Mexico, the Andean Region, and finally, the Caribbean and Central America, which coincides with the list of priority regions for internationalization.

### **13. 4. LAC countries with the most collaboration agreements**

The 5 LAC countries with which the participating institutions have the most collaboration agreements are Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Mexico, and Brazil (Table 15).

**TABLE 15. LAC COUNTRIES OF LAC WITH WHICH THE MOST ACADEMIC COLLABORATION AGREEMENTS HAVE BEEN SIGNED**

<b>#</b>	<b>LAC COUNTRIES</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>ARGENTINA</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>COLOMBIA</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>CHILE</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>MEXICO</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>BRAZIL</b>

## **14. INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CURRICULUM**

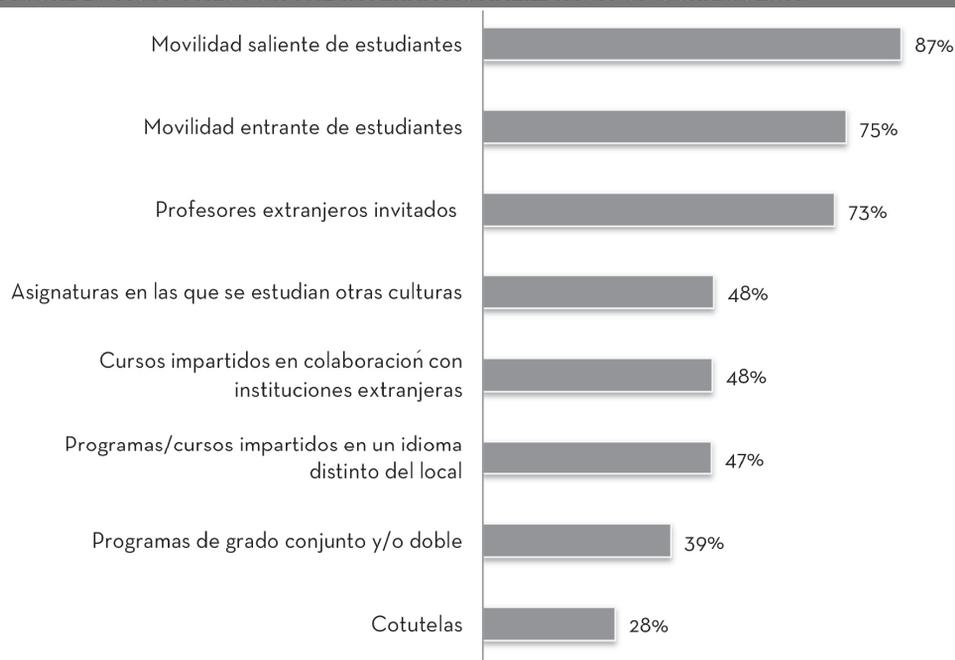
### **14. 1. Institutional policy for the internationalization of curriculum**

Most of the institutions (51%) report not having an institutional policy for the internationalization of curriculum, versus 49% that do report having one. In the case of the private sector, the percentage that mention having one is 56%, as opposed to 45% in the public sector.

### **14. 2. Activities for internationalizing curricular**

The most frequent activity for internationalizing curriculum in participating institutions is “Outbound student mobility” (87%), followed by “Inbound student mobility” (75%) and “Inviting foreign professors to conduct academic activities at the institution” (73%). Internationalization activities at home are, by far, the least developed in the region, with 39% for dual-degree programs and 28% for co-advisories, to cite two examples.

**FIGURE 26. ACTIVITIES FOR THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CURRICULUM**



(From top to bottom) Outbound student mobility – Inbound student mobility – Foreign guest professors – Courses that study other cultures – Courses taught in collaboration with foreign institutions – Programs/courses taught in a foreign language – Joint and/or dual-degree programs – Co-advisorships

### **14. 3. Virtual mobility**

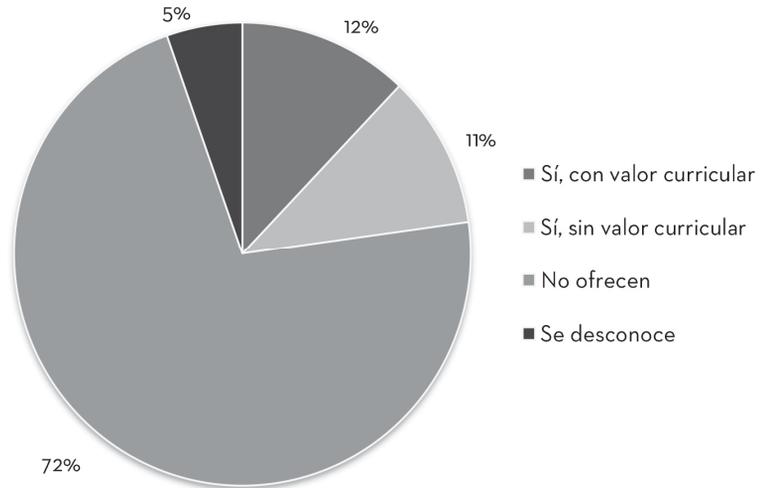
An overwhelming majority (82%) of the participating institutions do not offer academic programs with virtual mobility; only 18% do.

### **14. 4. Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC)**

MOOCs represent an innovative modality of online teaching that is growing steadily, which is why this study found it relevant to look into the offerings in the region. According to the findings, 72% of the TEIs report not offering this type of course, while 12% report offering MOOCs with curricular value, and 11% without curricular value.

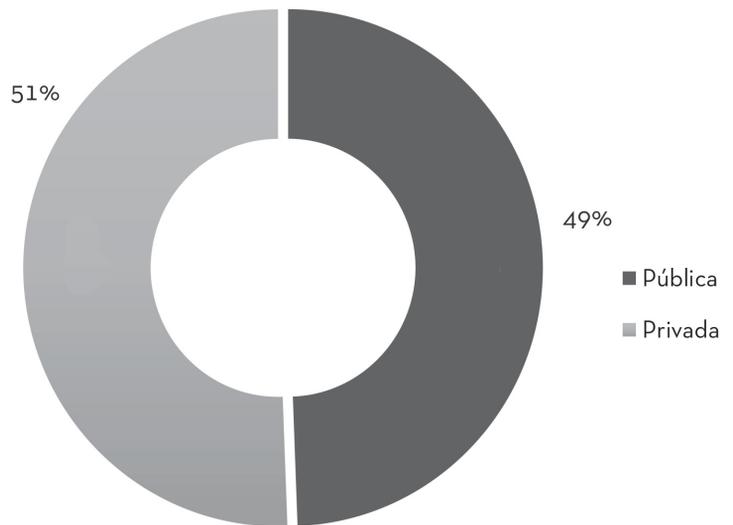
As Figure 28 shows, of the TEIs that do offer MOOCs, 49% are public and 51% are private institutions.

**FIGURE 27. MOOC OFFERINGS**



(From top to bottom) Yes, with curricular value – Yes, without curricular value – No offerings – Unknown

**FIGURE 28. MOOC OFFERINGS BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



Public – Private

#### **14. 5. Course offerings abroad**

Only 5% of the participating institutions report offering degree programs abroad, while 7% offer other types of programs, such as summer and extensions courses.

#### 14. 6. Main obstacles to the internationalization of curriculum

According to the participating institutions' experience and perspectives, the main obstacle to curricular internationalization is "Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties," such as the transfer of credits, differences in academic calendars or rigid institutional regulations, followed by the "Lack of interest or inadequate formation of academic staff," "Lack of policy," and "Curricular inflexibility."

**TABLE 16. MAIN OBSTACLES TO THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CURRICULUM**

#	MAIN OBSTACLES TO THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CURRICULUM
1	ADMINISTRATIVE OR BUREAUCRATIC DIFFICULTIES
2	LACK OF INTEREST OR INADEQUATE FORMATION OF ACADEMIC STAFF
3	LACK OF POLICY
4	CURRICULAR INFLEXIBILITY

Other obstacles included a limited budget, language barriers for teachers and students, the organizational culture, institutional indifference, lack of government policies, and lack of trained personnel.

#### 15. JOINT AND/OR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS<sup>12</sup>

##### 15. 1. Institutional statistics

Collaborative academic programs have become one of the most innovative internationalization strategies, but also one of the most difficult to implement and consolidate. In the case of LAC, 39% of the institutions that participated in this Survey report offering joint and/or dual-degree programs in collaboration with foreign universities. Of these, 14% offer joint-degree programs and 34% offer dual-degree programs. Of all the institutions that offer collaborative programs, 51% are public and 49% are private. However, more public institutions took this Survey, so a breakdown by sector shows that the percentage of private TEIs that offer this type of program is greater (47%) than that of public institutions (34%), revealing a significant difference between the two sectors.

<sup>12</sup>

*Dual degree programs* are developed by two or more TEIs in collaboration. Graduates receive equivalent degrees or diplomas from each of the TEIs involved. *Joint-degree programs* are developed by two or more TEIs in collaboration. Graduates receive only one degree or diploma, which is endorsed by the TEIs involved.

In the third IAU survey (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010), the institutions of LAC that reported having joint and dual-degree programs accounted for 29% and 34%, respectively, which shows that the region has not made headway in this area. In fact, the proportion of joint-degree programs has dropped considerably (from 29% to 14%).

The low percentage of institutions offering these programs again shows that LAC is the least developed region in this regard, as the global average reported by IAU was 41% in the joint-degree category and 44% in the dual-degree category (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010). LAC therefore ranked behind Africa (54% and 27%, respectively) and the Middle East (48% and 32%, respectively).

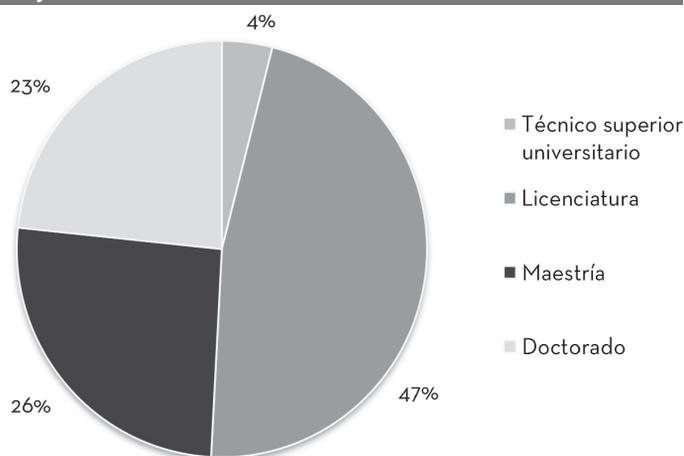
## 15. 2. Distribution of collaborative programs

61% of collaborative programs are dual degrees, as opposed to 39% that are joint degrees. Dual-degree programs outnumber joint programs, due most likely to the difficulties involved in designing a common study program between institutions that operate under different academic and regulatory models, not to mention the obstacles that could arise in terms of international recognition.

## 15. 3. Collaborative programs by educational level

As shown in Figure 29, most joint degree programs in the region are offered at the undergraduate level (47%), followed by master's degree programs (26%), and PhD programs (23%). The least common joint degree programs are offered at the university upper technical degree level.

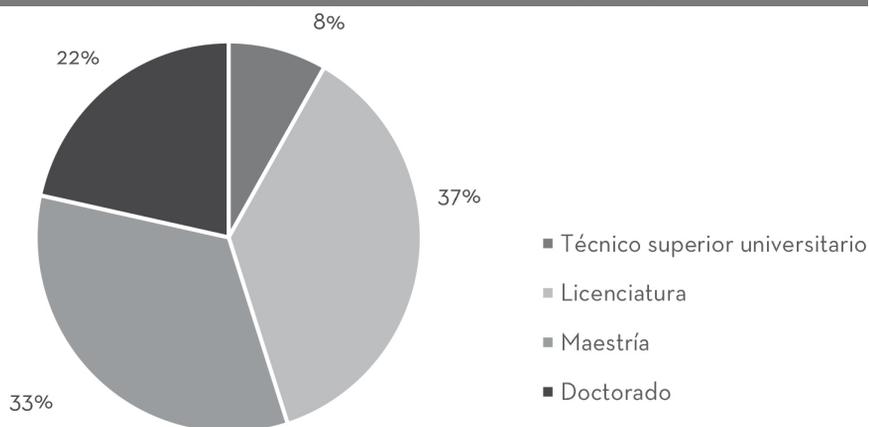
**FIGURE 29. DISTRIBUTION OF JOINT-DEGREE PROGRAMS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**



University upper technical degree – Undergraduate degree – Master's degree - PhD

In the case of dual-degree programs, most (37%) are offered at the undergraduate level; 33% are offered at the master's degree level, followed by PhD programs (22%) and university upper technical degrees (8%) (Figure 30).

**FIGURE 30. DISTRIBUTION OF DUAL DEGREE PROGRAMS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**



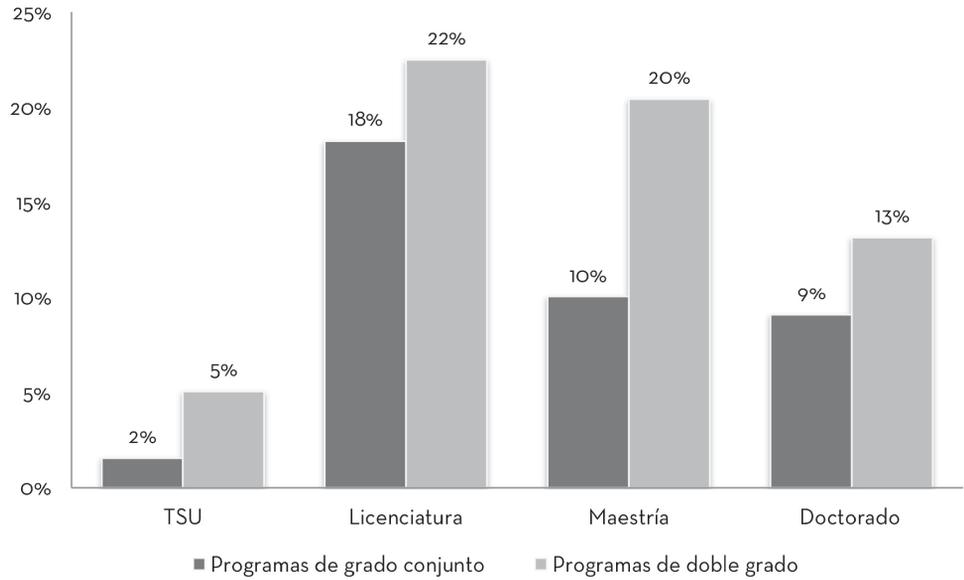
University upper technical degrees – Undergraduate degrees – Master's Degrees – PhDs

Figures 29 and 30 show that joint-degree programs are offered more frequently at the undergraduate level, while dual degrees are organized at both undergraduate and master's degree levels. In the case of PhDs, there is a similar trend for both types of programs.

Figure 31 shows the distribution of both types of programs by educational level. Figures 31 and 32 show that at the university upper technical degree level, most collaborative programs are dual degrees offered by public institutions; at the undergraduate and master's degree levels, most collaborative programs are dual-degree programs offered by the private sector, while in the case of PhDs, most programs are offered by public institutions in both modalities: joint-degree and dual-degree programs.

Figure 32 also shows that private institutions have a preference for dual-degree programs over joint-degree programs at the undergraduate and master's degree levels. On the other hand, the public sector offers more dual and joint-degree programs at both the PhD and university upper technical degree levels. For the private sector, offering a dual degree with a foreign institution is a way to achieve more prestige and visibility, and to attract a larger number of students. Public institutions, on the other hand, are often overwhelmed by the pressures of access and expansion, and are more interested in offering both types of programs as a tool to generate graduate-level skills (at the master's degree and PhD levels) (Gacel-Ávila, 2009).

**FIGURE 31. DISTRIBUTION OF BOTH TYPES OF COLLABORATIVE PROGRAMS, BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**

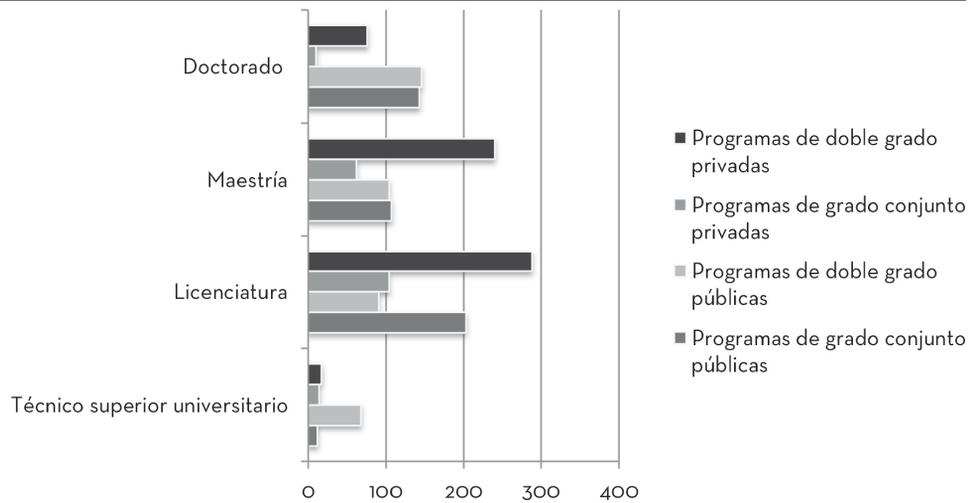


University upper technical – Undergraduate – Master’s – PhDs

Joint-degree programs

Dual-degree programs

**FIGURE 32. PROGRAMS AND LEVELS OFFERED ACCORDING TO TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



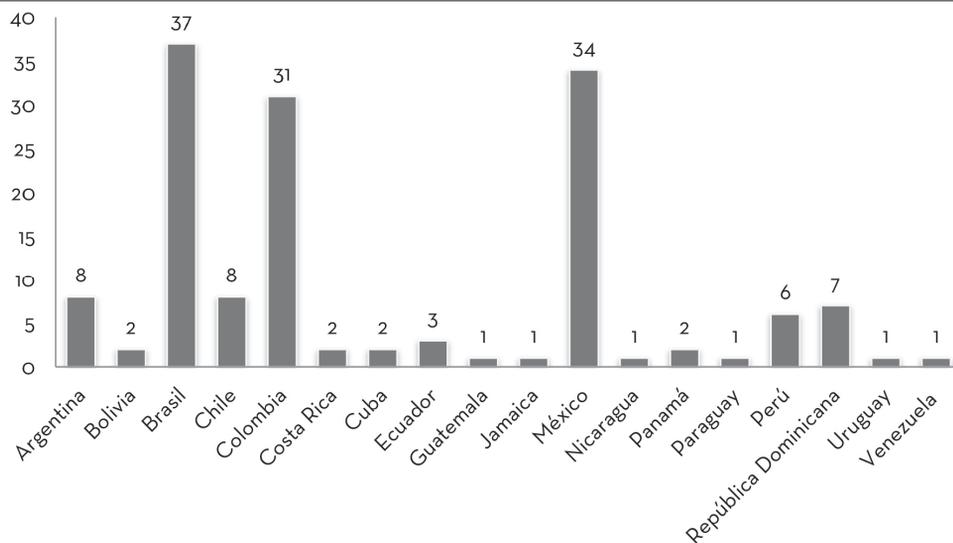
(Left-hand side) PhD – Master’s – Bachelor’s – University upper technical

(Right-hand side) Private dual-degree programs – Private joint-degree programs – Public dual-degree programs – Public joint-degree programs

### 15. 4. Geographic distribution of institutions with collaborative programs

The greatest number of institutions that offer collaborative programs are from, in decreasing order of importance, Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Argentina and Chile. The Dominican Republic and Peru also stand out in terms of the number of institutions that offer this type of program.

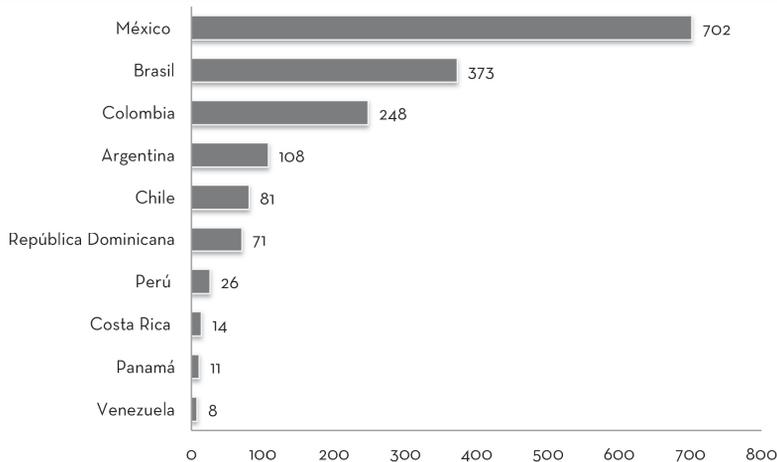
**FIGURE 33. GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF TEIs OFFERING JOINT AND/OR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS**



...Brasil... México... Panamá... Perú... República Dominicana...

With regard to the number of programs offered, Mexico leads the region, followed by Brazil, Colombia, Argentina, Chile, the Dominican Republic and Peru.

**FIGURE 34. GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF COLLABORATIVE PROGRAMS IN THE REGION**



México... Brasil... República Dominicana... Perú... Panamá

## 15. 5. Partner countries in collaborative programs

LAC's partner countries for joint-degree programs are listed in order of importance in Table 17.

**TABLE 17. COUNTRIES WITH WHICH TEIs IN THE REGION HAVE SET UP JOINT-DEGREE PROGRAMS**

#	PARTNER COUNTRY FOR JOINT-DEGREE PROGRAMS
1	SPAIN
2	FRANCE
	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
3	MEXICO
4	ARGENTINA
	BRAZIL
	COLOMBIA
	PORTUGAL
5	GERMANY
	ITALY

As for dual-degree programs, LAC's main partners are listed in order of importance in Table 18.

**TABLE 18. COUNTRIES WITH WHICH TEIs IN THE REGION HAVE SET UP DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS**

#	PARTNER COUNTRY FOR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS
1	FRANCE
2	SPAIN
3	ITALY
4	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
5	GERMANY

The data above agree with a study conducted by Gacel-Ávila (2014), which showed that French and Spanish universities are the main partners of TEIs in LAC. Likewise, in Gacel-Ávila (2009) France, Spain, the United States, Mexico and Germany proved to be the main partners for joint and dual-degree programs.

Table 19 shows the countries that collaborate with TEIs in LAC to set up collaborative programs, listed in order of importance

**TABLE 19. COUNTRIES WITH WHICH TEIs IN THE REGION COLLABORATE TO SET UP JOINT AND/OR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS**

<b>COUNTRY OF TEIs WITH JOINT AND/OR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS</b>	<b>PARTNER COUNTRY 1</b>	<b>PARTNER COUNTRY 2</b>	<b>PARTNER COUNTRY 3</b>
<b>ARGENTINA</b>	<b>FRANCE</b>	<b>BRAZIL, GERMANY, ITALY</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>
<b>BOLIVIA</b>	<b>UNITED STATES OF AMERICA</b>	<b>FRANCE, ARGENTINA, NORWAY</b>	
<b>BRAZIL</b>	<b>PORTUGAL</b>	<b>FRANCE</b>	<b>ITALY</b>
<b>CHILE</b>	<b>GERMANY, FRANCE</b>	<b>ITALY</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>
<b>COLOMBIA</b>	<b>FRANCE</b>	<b>SPAIN, ITALY</b>	<b>BRAZIL</b>
<b>COSTA RICA</b>	<b>MEXICO, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, SOUTH AFRICA, SRI LANKA, ISRAEL, GHANA</b>		
<b>CUBA</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>		
<b>ECUADOR</b>	<b>BELGIUM, FRANCE, GERMANY</b>		
<b>GUATEMALA</b>	<b>SPAIN, EL SALVADOR, NICARAGUA</b>		

**TABLE 19. COUNTRIES WITH WHICH TEIs IN THE REGION COLLABORATE TO SET UP JOINT AND/OR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS (CONTINUED)**

<b>JAMAICA</b>	<b>CANADA, FRANCE, MARTINICA</b>		
<b>MEXICO</b>	<b>FRANCE</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>	<b>UNITED STATES OF AMERICA</b>
<b>NICARAGUA</b>	<b>UNITED STATES OF AMERICA</b>		
<b>PANAMA</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>	<b>UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, NICARAGUA, CUBA, CHILE</b>	
<b>PARAGUAY</b>	<b>ARGENTINA</b>	<b>COLOMBIA, BOLIVIA</b>	
<b>PERU</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>	<b>BELGIUM, ITALY, PORTUGAL, FRANCE, BRAZIL</b>	
<b>DOMINICAN REPUBLIC</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>	<b>UNITED STATES OF AMERICA</b>	<b>FRANCE</b>
<b>URUGUAY</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>		
<b>VENEZUELA</b>	<b>SPAIN, COLOMBIA</b>		

### **15. 6. Disciplinary or collaborative areas of the collaborative programs**

The disciplinary or professional areas of the joint and dual-degree programs have been classified according to the latest edition of the Frascati Manual of the OCDE, which includes the following six areas (OCDE, 2015): a) Natural Sciences, b) Engineering and Technology, c) Medical and Health Sciences, b) Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences, e) Social Sciences, and f) Humanities and the Arts.<sup>13</sup>

Figure 35 shows that the greatest number of joint-degree programs in Latin American and Caribbean institutions are offered in the areas of Social Sciences and Engineering and Technology.

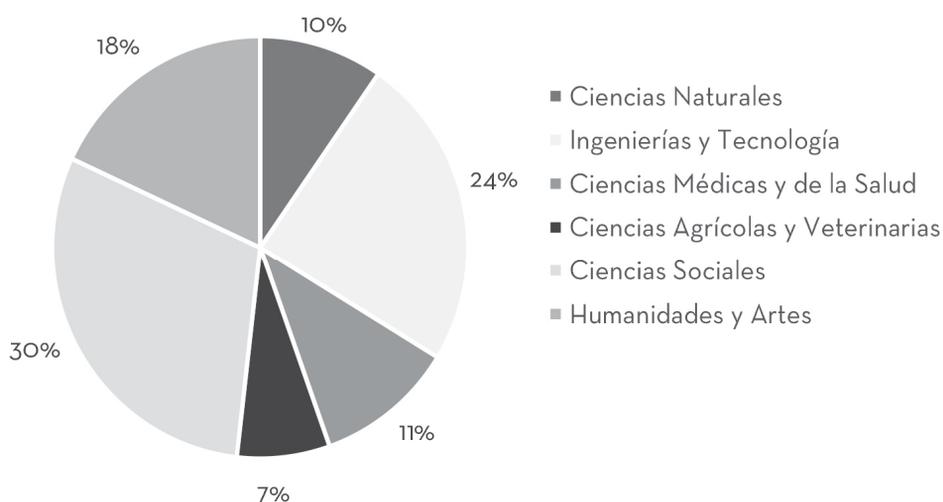
It is worth mentioning that according to the IAU survey of 2014, most of the growth of joint-degree programs in the last three years has occurred in professional programs such as medicine, engineering, business and education (45%), followed by natural and applied sciences (20%), social sciences (17%) and arts and the humanities (12%).

<sup>13</sup>

The specific thematic areas defined by the OCDE and readdressed in this Survey appear capitalized.

Likewise, dual-degree programs in LAC have been set up primarily in the Social Sciences and Engineering and Technology, while collaborative academic programs in Veterinary and Agricultural Sciences are the least frequent in both modalities. According to the IAU survey mentioned above, most of the growth of dual-degree programs in the last three years has occurred in professional programs such as medicine, engineering, business and education (51%), followed by natural and applied sciences (19%), social sciences (14%), and the arts and humanities (9%).

**FIGURE 35. DISCIPLINARY OR PROFESSIONAL AREAS OF JOINT-DEGREE PROGRAMS**

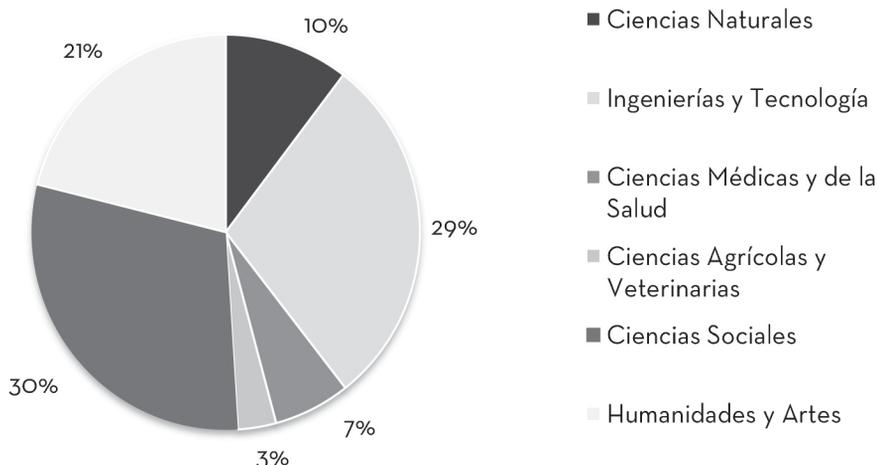


(Top to bottom) Natural Sciences – Engineering and Technology – Medical and Health Sciences – Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences – Social Sciences – Humanities and the Arts

These results are consistent with the studies on LAC of Gacel-Ávila (2009; 2014), which show that most of the programs in the region are in engineering, business and administration, and the social sciences.

In other words, the results show that most collaborative programs in LAC are offered in two disciplinary areas: Engineering and Technology, on the one hand, and the Social Sciences on the other. In conclusion, LAC has followed the international trend in which Engineering and Technology constitute the disciplinary area that concentrates the largest number of collaborative programs. The importance given to the field of Social Sciences could be explained by the fact that the greatest number of programs in the region are offered in this field.

**FIGURE 36. DISCIPLINARY OR PROFESSIONAL AREAS OF DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS**



(Top to bottom) Natural Sciences – Engineering and Technology – Medical and Health Sciences – Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences – Social Sciences – Humanities and the Arts

## 16. LANGUAGE TEACHING POLICY

### 16. 1. Institutional policy on language teaching

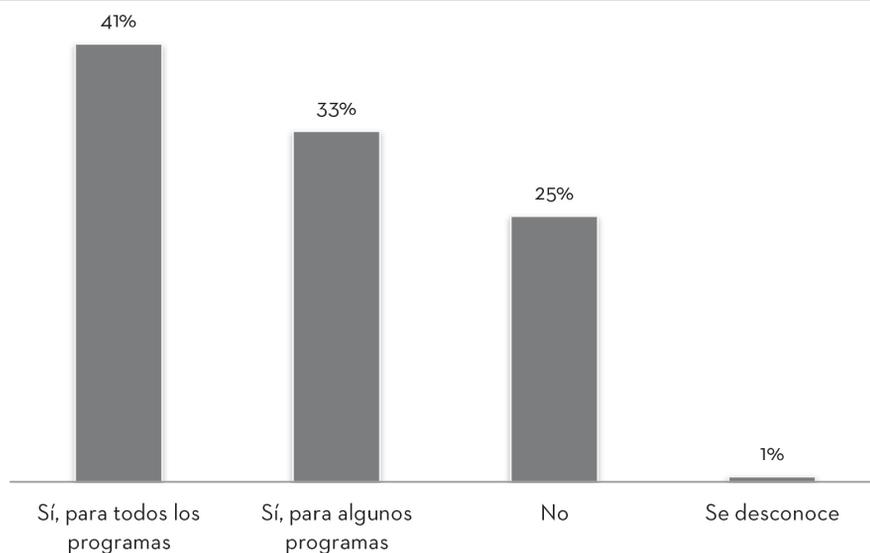
79% of the participating institutions report having an institutional policy on language teaching, while 21% reported not having one. Both the private and public sectors show the same trend in this category (80% and 79%, respectively).

### 16. 2. Foreign language proficiency as an admission and graduation requirement

41% of the participating institutions reported that proficiency in other language(s) is an admission or graduation requirement for all their educational programs, while 33% reported it was a requirement for some educational programs, and 25% reported not having foreign language requirements for their candidates and students (Figure 37).

This last category raises alarms, as it shows that an important portion of institutions in LAC are not interested in their students' acquiring one of the most basic skills for the new century: proficiency in a second language.

**FIGURE 37. LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AS AN ADMISSION/GRADUATION REQUIREMENT**



Yes, for all programs – Yes, for some programs – No – Unknown

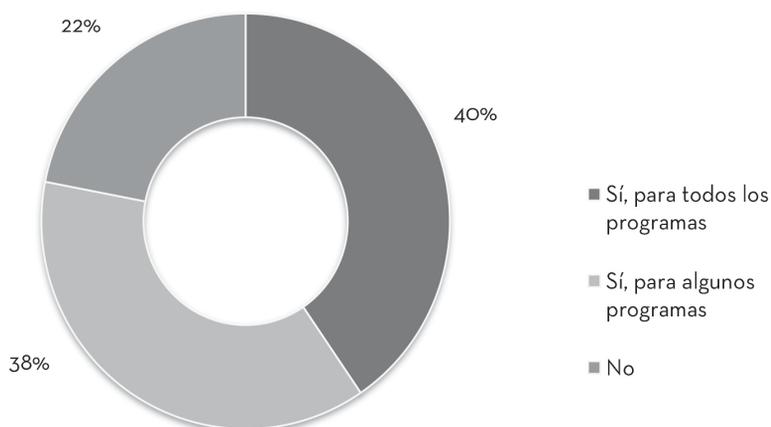
### **16. 3. Languages as a mandatory course in study plans**

Language courses are mandatory in all the educational programs of 40% of the participating institutions, which coincides with the percentage of institutions that have established language proficiency as an admission or graduation requirement in their educational programs (41%). On the other hand, 38% of the participating institutions indicate that language courses are mandatory in some of their educational programs, while 22% report that language courses are not mandatory, which coincides with the percentage of institutions that have not established second-language proficiency as an admission/graduation requirement for their educational programs.

### **16. 4. Specialized centers for local language teaching**

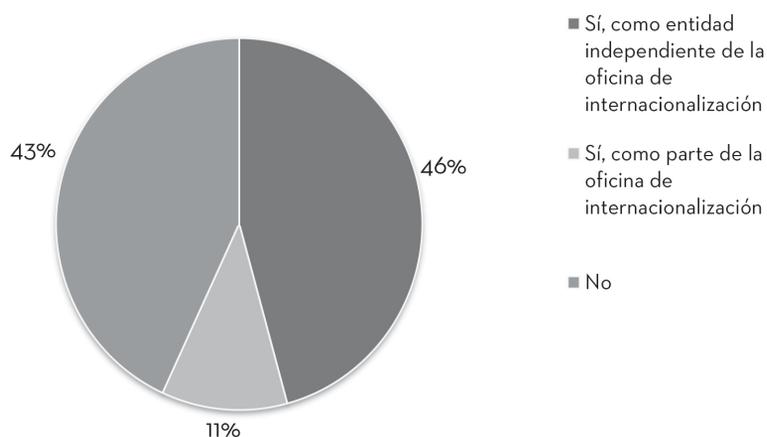
57% of the participating institutions report having specialized centers for foreign students to learn the local language. Despite the fact that most of these units are part of broader internationalization strategies, especially to host international students, only 11% of the TEIs indicate that these centers are under the management of the IO, while most of them (46%) are independent entities.

**FIGURE 38. MANDATORY LANGUAGE COURSES IN STUDY PLANS**



(Top to bottom) Yes, for all programs – Yes, for some programs – No

**FIGURE 39. SPECIALIZED CENTERS FOR LOCAL LANGUAGE TEACHING**



(Top to bottom) Yes, operating independently from the internationalization office – Yes, as part of the internationalization office – No

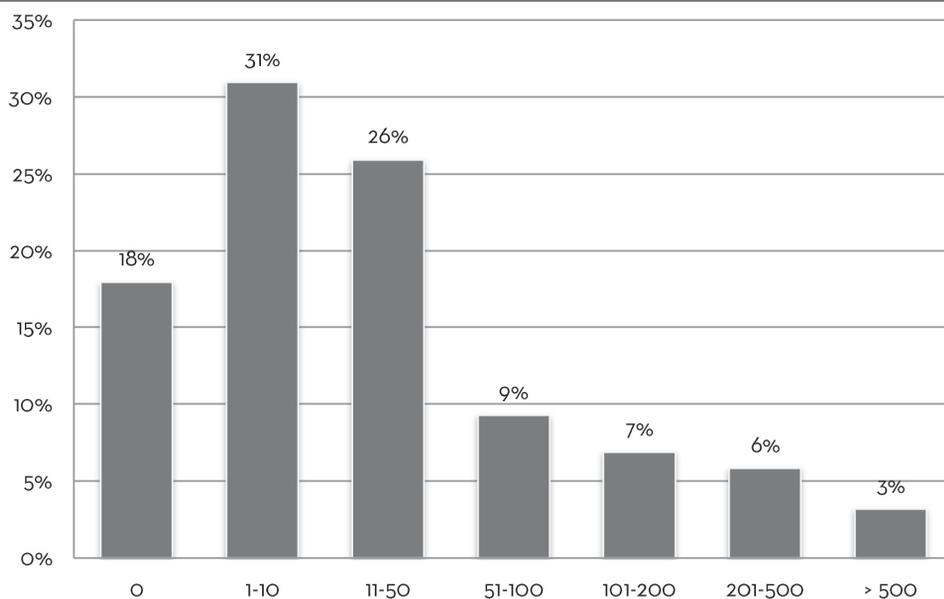
## 17. ACADEMIC MOBILITY

### 17. I. Outbound mobility

31% of the participating institutions indicated that the number of academics that engaged in academic activities abroad during the 2014-2015 academic year ranged between one and ten; 25% indicated that they had between eleven and fifty; while 3% reported having over 500 academics in the these circumstances.

Therefore, the average number of academics from Latin American and Caribbean universities that engaged in academic activities abroad during said academic year was seventy-four per institution, with 28,814 academics in total, which represents 4.7% of the total number of teachers and researchers that the surveyed TEIs reported as part of their academic faculties.

**FIGURE 40. ACADEMICS FROM THE TEIs WHO ENGAGED IN ACADEMIC ACTIVITIES ABROAD IN 2014-2015**



In this regard, it is important to mention that academic mobility has its limitations inasmuch as it is accessible primarily to a small minority, since institutional programs in this category are generally reserved for full-time faculty with a graduate degree who do research.

Full-time academics only represent between 20% and 30% of the academic faculties in the public sector, and an even lower percentage in the private sector. Because of this, most academics who are paid by the class are not eligible for institutional support for mobility, which keeps them from working on their international profile and taking an active part in the internationalization process, which in turn limits the internationalization of curriculum and, therefore, the institution's graduate profile (Gacel-Ávila, 2016).

The data show that public TEIs provide more financial support for academic mobility, with an average of 110 academics receiving support, as opposed to the sixty-nine reported by the private sector in the same year. A number of reasons could explain this difference: the public sector has a higher proportion of full-time academics; most research is conducted in the public sector; and in many higher education systems in

the region only the public sector is eligible to receive government funding for mobility, as in the case of Mexico.

### 17. 1. 1. Countries of destination

The countries of destination for Latin American and Caribbean academics who engage in mobility are listed in order of importance in Table 20.

**TABLE 20. PREFERRED DESTINATIONS FOR OUTBOUND ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN LAC**

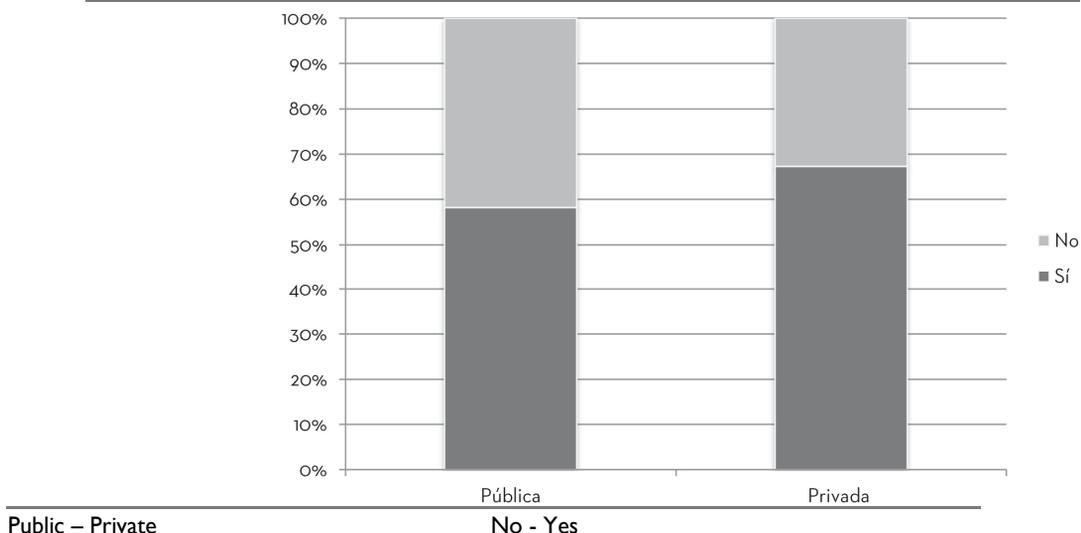
#	MOST POPULAR COUNTRIES FOR LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN ACADEMICS ENGAGING IN MOBILITY
1	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
2	SPAIN
3	MEXICO
4	ARGENTINA
5	FRANCE
6	BRAZIL
7	CHILE
8	COLOMBIA
9	PORTUGAL
10	GERMANY

### 17. 1. 2. Support for academic mobility

62% of the participating TEIs reported having a scholarship or financial support program for their academics' mobility. The proportion of TEIs from the private sector that report having this type of program seems to be higher (67%) than that of the public sector (58%) (Figure 41). Given that most academic exchange programs occur in the public sector, this could indicate that a significant portion of the funding for academic mobility in the public sector comes from government funds.

In conclusion, it can be seen that a significant portion (34%) of the institutions that report including internationalization in their mission and/or IDP do not have a financial support program in place for the mobility of their academics.

**FIGURE 41. PROGRAMS TO SUPPORT ACADEMIC MOBILITY, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



## 17. 2. Inbound mobility

33% of the institutions hosted between one and ten foreign academics in the 2014-2015 academic year; 23% hosted between eleven and fifty, while three universities hosted over 500.

On the basis of these data, the average number of foreign academics hosted per institution in the region was seventy-five during the academic year in question, which represented a total of 28,463 foreign academics. This shows a balanced dynamic between inbound and outbound mobility.

### 17. 2. 1. Countries of origin

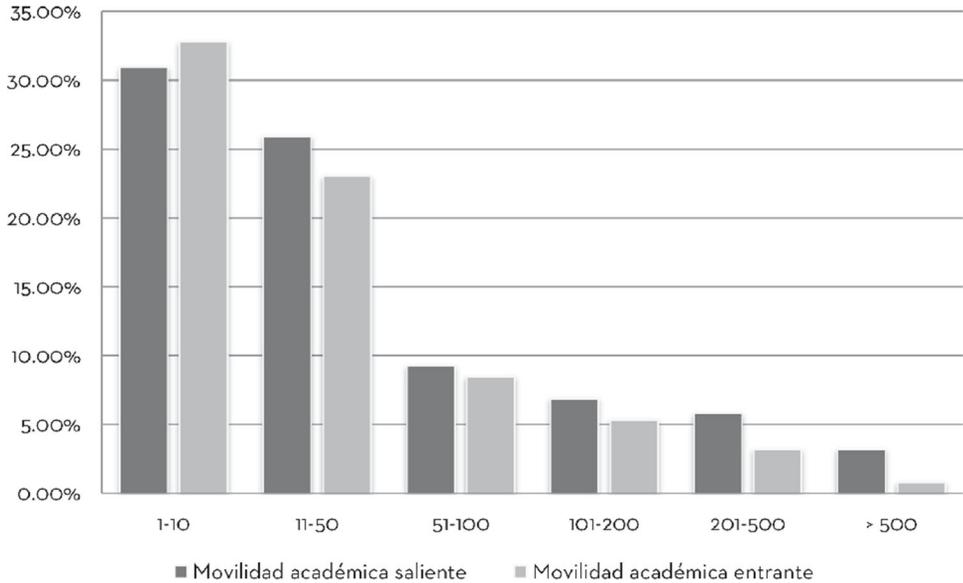
The countries of origin of these foreign academics are listed in decreasing order in Table 21.

**TABLE 21. COUNTRIES WITH THE MOST ACADEMIC MOBILITY TO LAC**

#	COUNTRIES WITH THE MOST ACADEMIC MOBILITY TO LAC
1	SPAIN
2	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
3	ARGENTINA
4	MEXICO
5	COLOMBIA
6	BRAZIL
7	FRANCE

**TABLE 21. COUNTRIES WITH THE MOST ACADEMIC MOBILITY TO LAC (CONT.)**

#	COUNTRIES WITH THE MOST ACADEMIC MOBILITY TO LAC
8	CHILE
9	GERMANY
10	PORTUGAL

**FIGURE 42. FLOW OF INBOUND AND OUTBOUND ACADEMIC MOBILITY (2014-2015)**

Outbound academic mobility – Inbound academic mobility

Table 22 shows a comparison between inbound and outbound academic mobility.

**TABLE 22. INBOUND AND OUTBOUND ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN LAC**

#	COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION FOR OUTBOUND ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN LAC	COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN FOR INBOUND ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN LAC
1	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	SPAIN
2	SPAIN	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
3	MEXICO	ARGENTINA
4	ARGENTINA	MEXICO
5	FRANCE	COLOMBIA
6	BRAZIL	BRAZIL
7	CHILE	FRANCE
8	COLOMBIA	CHILE
9	PORTUGAL	GERMANY
10	GERMANY	PORTUGAL

This comparative table shows that even though the United States of America is the most popular country of destination for Latin American and Caribbean academics, Spain is the country that sends the most academics to our region. This reaffirms the imbalance in the flow of academics between the United States of America and LAC, which coincides with the case of student mobility (see: annex 19 of this Survey, starting on p. 88).

## **18. INTERNATIONALIZATION OF RESEARCH**

The international dimension has been an intrinsic characteristic of scientific activity since its beginnings. However, the society of knowledge has triggered a major intensification of academic exchange in recent decades, as well as of institutional and national efforts to increase academic mobility, financial support for research projects, and the international visibility of the production of knowledge.

### **18. 1. Funding of collaborative research projects**

Most of the participating TEIs (56%) report not having an institutional program to financially support collaborative research projects, compared with 33% of the institutions that do report having one. Given the low production of knowledge in the region, which represents less than 5% of the production worldwide, these data reveal a deficiency in this area (Scimago, 2016).

### **18. 2. Scientific articles published in indexed journals**

In recent decades, the publication of scientific articles in international indexed journals has become a symbol of prestige for researchers and their institutions, as well as an input for the global university rankings in some countries. Consequently, and in response to these trends, institutions have begun implementing policies to promote the production of knowledge and the visibility of the scientific work of their researchers.

In this context, 65% of the participating institutions report having programs to promote the publication of scientific articles in indexed journals, which implies that a significant percentage of institutions have not implemented such a program. Moreover, 15% of the heads of IO do not know whether their institution even has a program for this purpose, which seems to indicate that the internationalization of research is a strategy that these offices seldom pursue. It also suggests a lack of indicators and institutional information banks on this activity.

A breakdown by country shows that in the countries with the most production of knowledge in the region, namely Brazil, Mexico and Argentina, the percentage of institutions that have implemented a policy for the promotion, production and dissemination of knowledge is 79%, 69% and 65% respectively.

### 18. 3. International patents

International patents are one result of the scientific work of researchers, which is why this survey included questions about the number of international patents obtained in the last five years. 86% of the participating institutions report not knowing the information or not having international patents. On the other hand, fifteen institutions (4%) report having one international patent in recent years, while twenty-three (6%) report having obtained between two and nine international patents.

### 18. 4. Obstacles to the internationalization of research

The participating institutions mention the obstacles to the internationalization of research that are listed in Table 23.

**TABLE 23. MAIN OBSTACLES TO THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF RESEARCH**

#	MAIN OBSTACLES TO THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF RESEARCH
1	LACK OF FUNDING
2	ADMINISTRATIVE OR BUREAUCRATIC DIFFICULTIES
3	ACADEMICS' LACK OF EXPERIENCE, KNOWLEDGE OR INTERNATIONAL PROFILE
4	ACADEMICS' LACK OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY
5	ACADEMIC PERSONNEL'S LACK OF INTEREST OR TRAINING

Other obstacles mentioned by the institutions included:

- A lack of networking culture at the international level.
- Institutional priorities and low weight given to collaboration.
- The perspective of the Rector's Office on research activity.

## 19. STUDENT MOBILITY

### 19. 1. Outbound student mobility

#### 19. 1. 1. Statistics

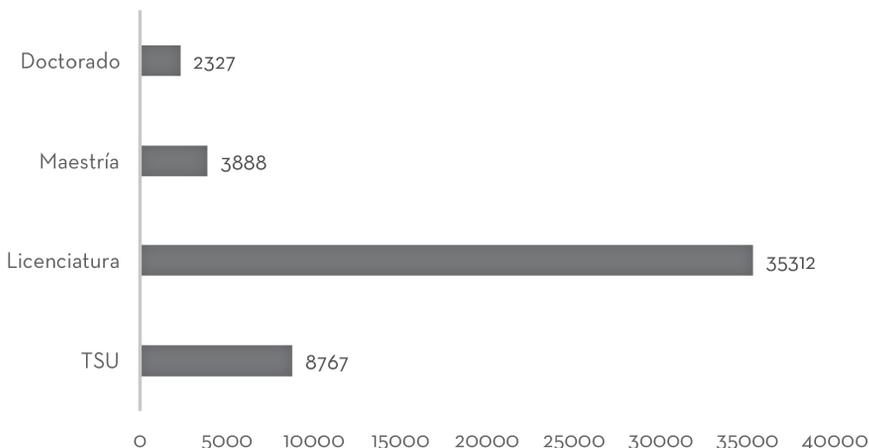
Most of the students who go on exchange programs are enrolled at the undergraduate level (70%), followed by university upper technical students (17%) and master's degree students (8%). PhD students have the lowest number of exchange students in the region (5%).

#### 19. 1. 2. Types of mobility

The type of international student mobility that is most frequently promoted by TEIs in the region is the category of "Taking courses" (85%), followed by "Professional

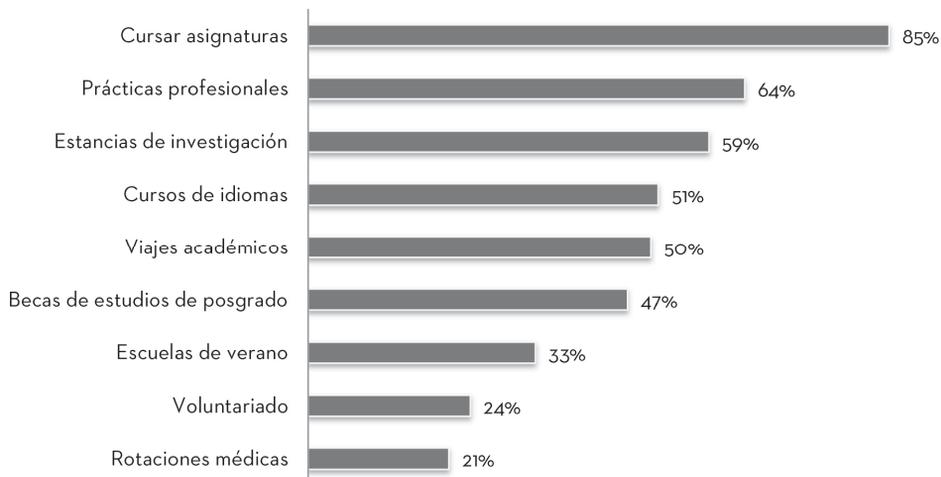
internships” (64%) and “Research stays” (59%). On the other hand, medical rotations (21%) constitute the type of international mobility that is least promoted by TEIs in the region.

**FIGURE 43. OUTBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**



PhD – Master’s Degree – Undergraduate – University upper technical

**FIGURE 44. TYPES OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY PROMOTED BY THE INSTITUTION**



Taking courses – Professional internships – Research stays – Language courses – Academic trips – Graduate scholarships – Summer schools – Volunteer work – Medical rotations

### **19. I. 3. Preparing students for an international experience**

Students should be prepared for an international stay through talks and advisory sessions on the cultural and academic differences they will encounter. In the case of our region, 83% of the institutions report that they prepare their students for an international academic experience.

### **19. I. 4. Regions of destination**

The most important region of destination for Latin American and Caribbean students is Western Europe, followed by LAC itself and North America.

**TABLE 24. FIVE MOST IMPORTANT REGIONS OF DESTINATION FOR OUTBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY, ACCORDING TO DEMAND**

<b>#</b>	<b>MOST POPULAR REGIONS OF DESTINATION FOR STUDENTS FROM LAC</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>WESTERN EUROPE</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>NORTH AMERICA</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>THEIR OWN COUNTRY</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>EASTERN EUROPE</b>

### **19. I. 5. Subregions of destination in LAC**

The most popular subregion for exchange students in LAC is the Southern Cone, mainly Argentina, Brazil and Chile, followed by the Andean Region, and Mexico in third place. 4.5% of TEIs mentioned that none of the subregions are chosen by their students as a destination.

### **19. I. 6. Countries of destination**

The most popular countries for students in the region to go on an exchange programs are listed in Table 25.

**TABLE 25. COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION FOR OUTBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY FROM LAC**

<b>#</b>	<b>COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION FOR STUDENTS FROM LAC</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>SPAIN</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>UNITED STATES OF AMERICA</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>ARGENTINA</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>FRANCE</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>MEXICO</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>CHILE</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>BRAZIL</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>GERMANY</b>
<b>9</b>	<b>CANADA</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>COLOMBIA</b>

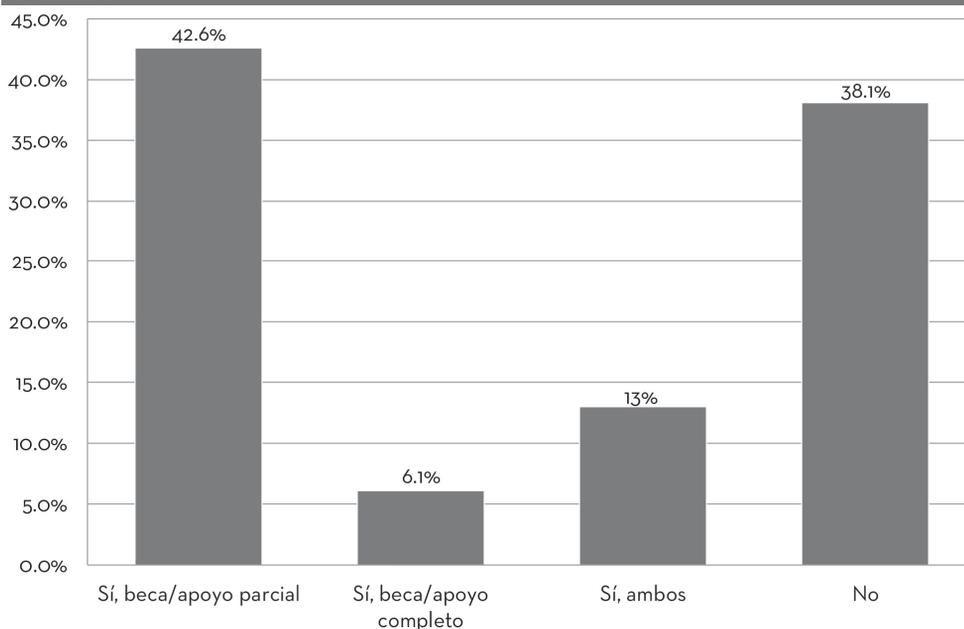
## 19. I. 7. Outbound mobility in relation to enrollment

Of the total student body reported by the participating institutions for the 2014-2015 academic year, only 0.3% of Latin American and Caribbean students at the undergraduate and upper technical university degree levels undertook a mobility stay. In the case of the master's degree and PhD levels, only 0.03% of the students in the region took part in an academic exchange program or research stay. The latter figure is worrisome, as it suggests that future researchers are being educated without an international profile.

## 19. I. 8. Financial support

62% of the participating institutions offer a scholarship or financial support program for student mobility. However, only 6% offer full scholarships or support; 43% offer partial scholarships or support; and 13% offer both types of support (partial and full). 38% of the institutions offer no type of support whatsoever to their students. This percentage also coincides with the institutions that have not implemented a scholarship or financial support program for their academics (38%).

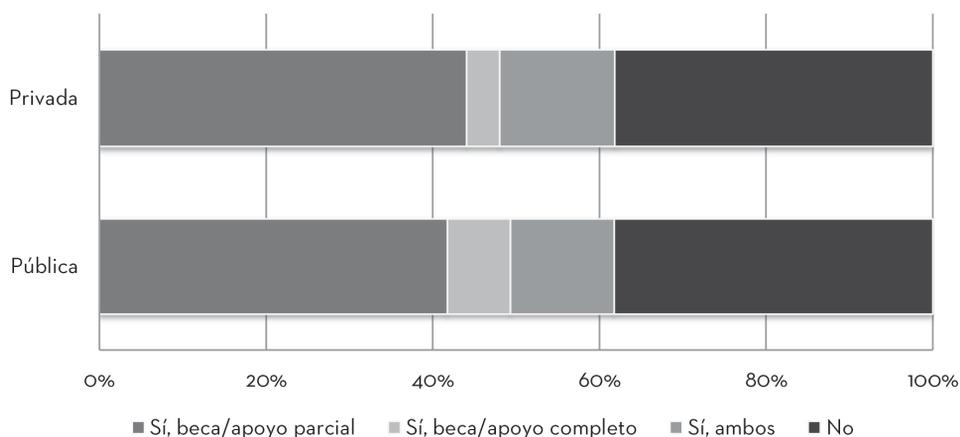
**FIGURE 45. SCHOLARSHIP OR FINANCIAL SUPPORT PROGRAMS FOR STUDENT MOBILITY**



Yes, partial scholarship/support – Yes, full scholarship/support – Yes, both – No

A breakdown by institution type (private or public) shows that all the participating TEIs offer scholarships or financial support for student mobility in a very similar proportion, as shown in Figure 44.

**FIGURE 46. SCHOLARSHIP OR FINANCIAL SUPPORT PROGRAMS FOR STUDENT MOBILITY, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



(Left-hand side) Private – Public (bottom) Yes, partial scholarship/support – Yes, full scholarship/support – Yes, both – No

## 19. 1.9. Obstacles to outbound mobility

The main obstacle to student mobility in the region, according to the perception and experience of the participants in this Survey, was the “Lack of language proficiency on the part of students,” followed by “Administrative and bureaucratic difficulties,” “Students’ family and/or job commitments,” “Low level of student interest or participation” and “Curricular inflexibility.”

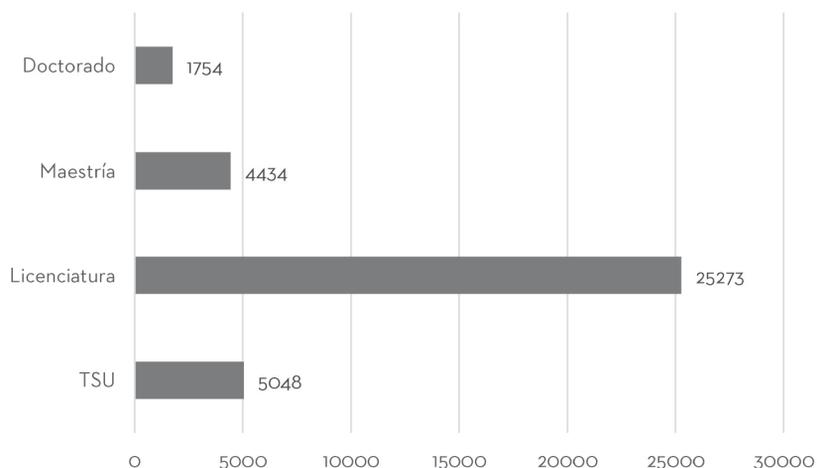
**TABLE 26. MAIN OBSTACLES TO OUTBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY**

#	MAIN OBSTACLES TO OUTBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY
1	LACK OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY ON THE PART OF STUDENTS
2	ADMINISTRATIVE OR BUREAUCRATIC DIFFICULTIES
3	STUDENTS’ FAMILY AND/OR JOB COMMITMENTS
4	LOW LEVEL OF STUDENT INTEREST OR PARTICIPATION
5	CURRICULAR INFLEXIBILITY

## 19. 2. Inbound student mobility

### 19. 2. 1. Statistics

Like in the category of outbound mobility, most of the inbound mobility students are enrolled at the undergraduate level (69%), with a non-significant percentage (14%) of university upper technical degree students, followed by master’s degree students (12%). The PhD level has the lowest number of inbound exchange students (5%).

**FIGURE 47. INBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY, BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**

PhD – Master’s degree – Undergraduate – University upper technical degree

## 19. 2.2. Regions of origin

Most inbound exchange students come from the LAC region itself, followed by Western Europe and North America.

**TABLE 27. REGIONS OF ORIGIN OF INBOUND EXCHANGE STUDENTS**

#	REGIONS OF ORIGIN OF INBOUND EXCHANGE STUDENTS
1	LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN
2	WESTERN EUROPE
3	NORTH AMERICA
4	THEIR OWN COUNTRY
5	EASTERN EUROPE

## 19. 2.3. Countries of origin

Table 28 lists the countries of origin of inbound exchange students, in descending order of importance.

**TABLE 28. COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN OF STUDENT MOBILITY TO LAC**

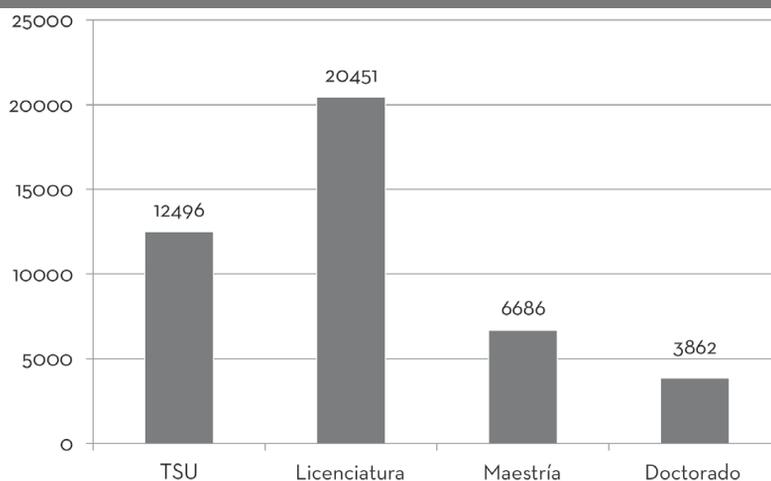
#	COUNTRIES WITH THE MOST INBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY TO LAC
1	SPAIN
2	MEXICO
3	COLOMBIA
4	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
5	GERMANY

**TABLE 28. COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN OF STUDENT MOBILITY TO LAC (CONTINUED)**

#	COUNTRIES WITH THE MOST INBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY TO LAC
6	FRANCE
7	ARGENTINA
8	BRAZIL
9	CHILE
10	PERU

#### 19. 2. 4. Inbound students pursuing a degree

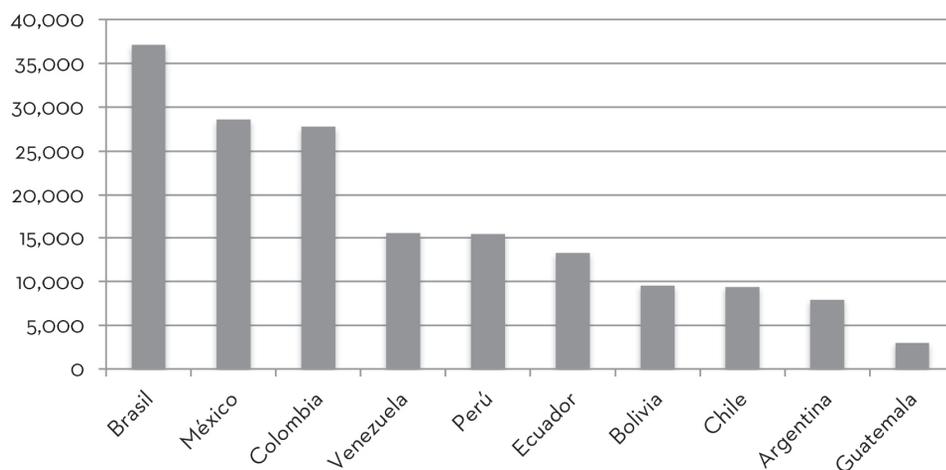
The undergraduate level has the most inbound students that are pursuing a degree in the region, followed by the university upper technical level, master's, and PhD.

**FIGURE 48. INBOUND EXCHANGE STUDENTS PURSUING A DEGREE, BY ACADEMIC LEVEL**

University upper technical – Undergraduate – Master's - PhD

According to UNESCO (2015), a large number of students from Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru choose to study in a country within LAC, and Cuba is one of the most popular destinations for students in the region. An estimated 17,000 foreign students from the region live in Cuba, compared to 5,000 who live in Brazil and approximately 2,000 who live in Argentina and Chile.

At the global level, according to UNESCO-UIS (2017), the total number of students from LAC studying abroad has almost doubled in recent years, going from 109,642 in 1999 to 227,819 in 2014. 41% of these students are from Brazil (37,093), Mexico (28,588) and Colombia (27,774), followed by Venezuela (15,550), Peru (15,433), Ecuador (13,256), Bolivia (9,511), Chile (9,359), Argentina (7,900) and Guatemala (2,981).

**FIGURE 49. NUMBER OF INBOUND EXCHANGE STUDENTS FROM LAC**

Brazil – Mexico... Peru...  
Source: UNESCO-UIS (2015).

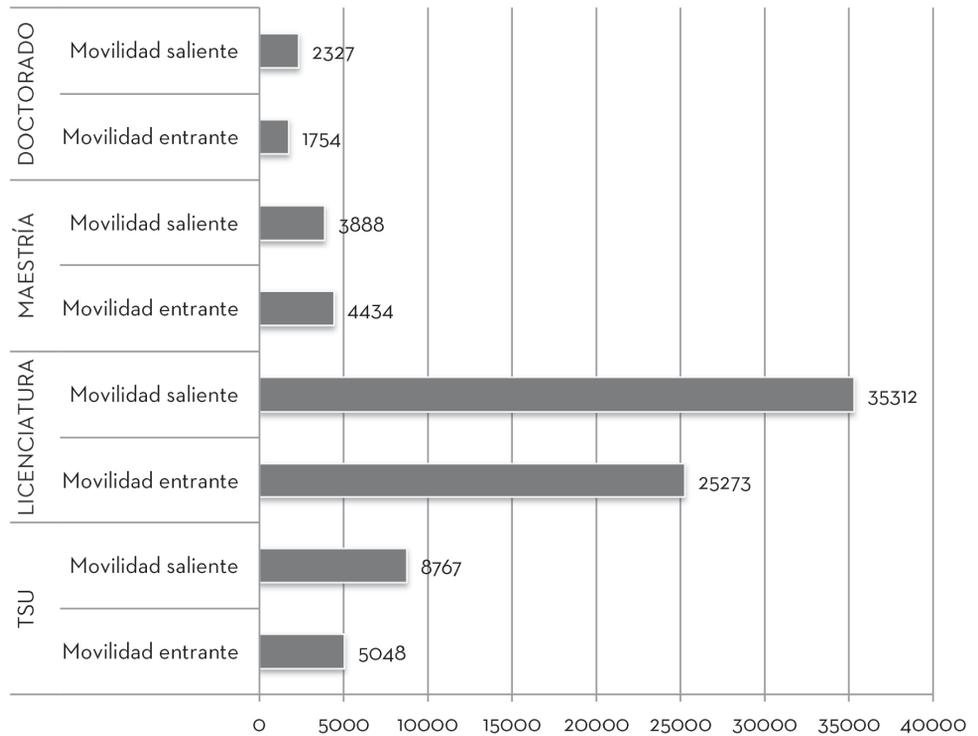
Despite this great effort, the statistics show that, at the global level, LAC is the developing region with the fewest students abroad (5.2%), ranking behind Africa (7%) and South Asia (9.4%) (UNESCO-UIS, 2012). The region also receives the fewest international students (1.8%) (OECD, 2014) and has the lowest rate of mobility in relation to enrollment (0.9%) (UNESCO-UIS, 2015) (See: Table 4).

### **19. 3. Balance between inbound and outbound student mobility**

According to the figures reported by the participating institutions, there are more outbound students than inbound students at all educational levels, with the exception of the master's degree level (Figure 50).

This situation could be related to a student mobility deficit at the interregional level, probably due to deficient promotion strategies or the lack of appeal of LAC's higher education systems for students from outside of the region. The fact that there are more inbound exchange students at the master's degree level can most likely be explained by the number of students from LAC itself traveling to countries within the region with intergovernmental scholarships.

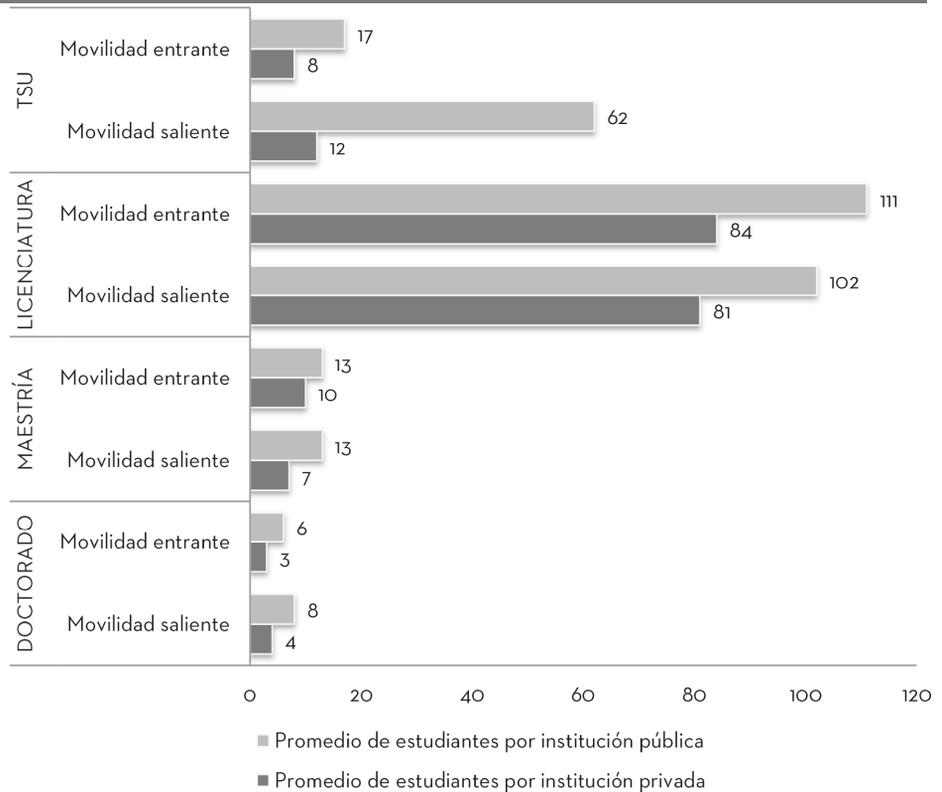
**FIGURE 50. OUTBOUND AND INBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY, BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**



A breakdown by sector (public and private) shows that 0.23% of students from public institutions undertook a mobility stay in the year in question, at all educational levels, compared with 0.13% from private institutions.

The average number of inbound exchange students at public TEIs is 147 students per institution, compared with an average of 185 local students going abroad. In the private sector, the average number of inbound exchange students is 105 per institution, compared with 104 local students going abroad, on average.

**FIGURE 51. AVERAGE NUMBER OF EXCHANGE STUDENTS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



(Bottom: Average number of students per public institution – Average number of students per private institution)

## 20. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION AND INDICATORS

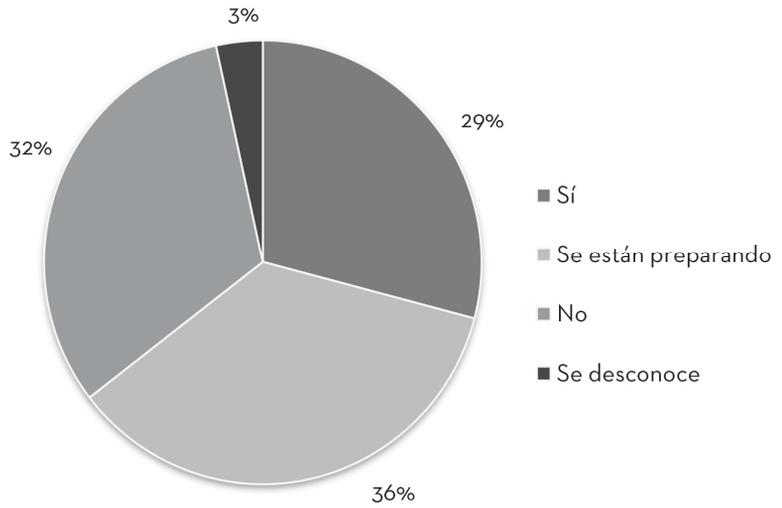
### 20. I. Evaluation system and indicators for internationalization

A minority of TEIs (29%) report having an indicator-based evaluation system to monitor their internationalization process. 36% report being in the preparation stages for these procedures, and 32% report no such system.

This information contrasts greatly with the results of the IAU survey, in which 67% of the participating institutions reported having designed and implemented a monitoring and evaluation system for their internationalization process (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). This situation highlights the fact that even though 83% of the participating institutions claim to have an internationalization policy in place, it is not linked to evaluation and quality assurance procedures.

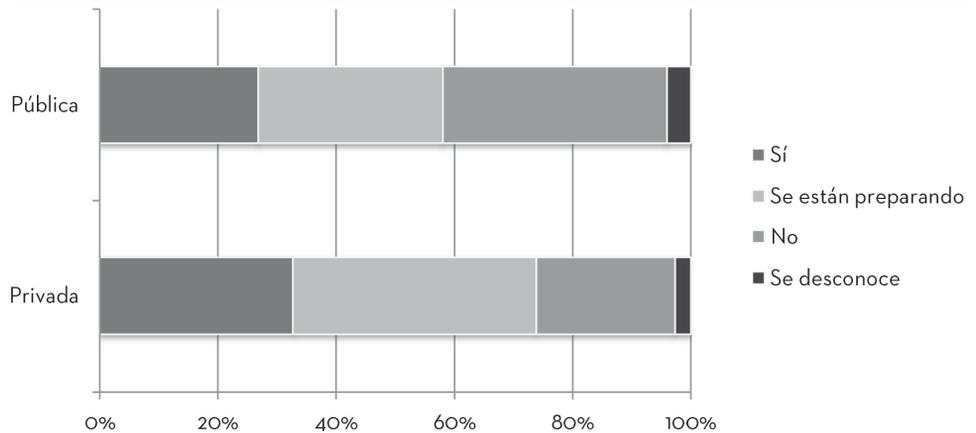
The breakdown by institution type shows that 33% of private TEIs have developed this type of system, in contrast with 27% of public institutions (Figure 53).

**FIGURE 52. EVALUATION SYSTEM AND INDICATORS FOR THE INTERNATIONALIZATION PROCESS**



Yes - In the development stages – No – Unknown

**FIGURE 53. EVALUATION SYSTEM AND INDICATORS FOR THE INTERNATIONALIZATION PROCESS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



(Left-hand side) Public – Private (Right-hand side) Yes - In the development stages – No – Unknown

## 20. 2. Institutional procedures to evaluate mobility programs

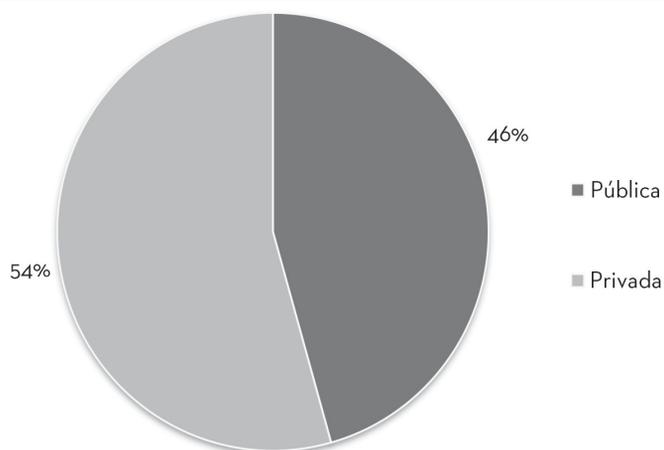
Most of the participating institutions (60%) have not established procedures to evaluate the impact of their academics' mobility stays. 30% of the participating TEIs claim to have an academic mobility evaluation program, while 45% report having procedures in place for student mobility. Therefore, the benefits of these internationalization strategies, for both the institution and the individuals involved, have not been identified precisely, which could undermine arguments in favor of the internationalization process.

## 21. UNIVERSITY PRESENCE ABROAD

### 21. I. Liaison office abroad

12% of the participating institutions report having a liaison office abroad. The distribution by sector is shown in Figure 54, with a higher percentage of private institutions (54%) than of public institutions (46%) having such an office.

**FIGURE 54. LIAISON OFFICE ABROAD, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION**



Public, Private

### 21. 2. Campuses abroad

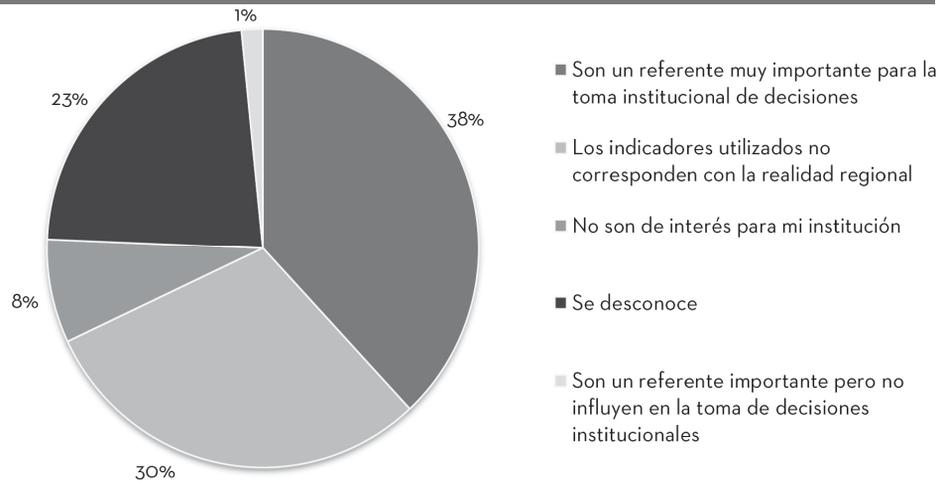
2.9% of the participating institutions report having campuses abroad, of which 73% were private and 27% were public institutions.

Those of the Universidad Nacional Abierta y a Distancia (Colombia), the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México and The University of West Indies provide examples of the characteristics and functions of campuses abroad.

## 22. GLOBAL RANKINGS FOR UNIVERSITIES

38% of the participating institutions feel that global rankings are an important factor in the institutional decision-making process, while 30% report that they are not accurate indicators of the regional reality. 23% report not knowing their institution's position on the issue, and finally, 8% report no interest on the part of their institution.

**FIGURE 55. INSTITUTION'S POSITION WITH REGARD TO RANKINGS**



Yes, they are very important for the institution's decision-making process – The indicators are not an accurate depiction of the regional reality – They are of no interest to my institution – Unknown – They are an important factor but do not influence the institution's decision-making process.

SECTION IV  
**MAIN FINDINGS**





This section presents a summary of the main findings obtained from the participation of tertiary education institutions (TEIs) in this Survey.<sup>14</sup>

- The main **benefits of internationalization** are, in order of importance, “Developing students’ international profile,” “Improving the academic quality of educational programs,” “Strengthening the internationalization of curriculum,” “Improving research and knowledge production,” and “Increasing the institution’s international prestige/profile.”
- The main **risks of internationalization for institutions** are, in order of importance, “International opportunities only favor affluent students,” “The inequality in benefits in collaborative relations”, “Unequal benefits between partners,” “The prevalence of the center-periphery paradigm,” “Excessive competition among institutions”, and “Overemphasis on internationalization at the expense of other institutional priorities.”
- With regard to the main **risks of internationalization for the country**, “Brain drain” was ranked first in the region, which contrasts with the global average that ranked this risk fifth on the list, while considering “The commercialization of education” as the main risk of internationalization (ranked third in Latin America and the Caribbean – LAC -). The other most important risks for LAC were: “Increase in inequality among TEIs of the same country,” “Increase in social inequality,” and “Loss of cultural identity.”
- The main **external factors that encourage internationalization** are: “Government policy,” “Regional policies,” “Availability of international cooperation,” “Search for alternative resources of funding,” “Productive sector demand,” and “Global university rankings.” It is worth pointing out that the region ranked “Productive sector demand” in fifth place, in contrast with the global average, which ranked this factor in second place.

- The main **internal obstacles to internationalization** were, in order of importance, “Insufficient funding,” “Lack of language proficiency on the part of students and academics” (ranked higher than in other regions), “Administrative and bureaucratic difficulties,” “Lack of information about international opportunities,” and “Lack of strategy or plan to guide the process.”
- The main **external obstacles to internationalization** included, in order of importance, “Limited public funding for internationalization,” “Lack of national policies and programs to support internationalization,” “Difficulties in recognizing studies and transferring academic credits,” “Visa restrictions imposed by other countries on our students and academics” and “Visa restrictions imposed by our country on foreign students and academics.” In comparison with the global average, our region gives greater weight to the lack of public funding and the lack of national policies and programs to support internationalization.

## ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

- **83%** of the region’s TEIs report that internationalization is included in their **mission and/or institutional development plan (IDP)**. **53%** of the institutions consider internationalization to be **“very important,”** in contrast with 69% of institutions worldwide. **47%** have an **institutional plan for internationalization** in place and with specific objectives and goals; 38% report that such a plan is in the development stages, while 15% report not having such a plan, in contrast with 53%, 22% and 8% respectively at the global level (Egroun-Polak & Hudson, 2014).
- Only **12%** of the TEIs report **having a plan for internationalization** at the level of **academic units** (19% in the private sector and 7% in the public sector).
- Of the **83%** of the TEIs that report including **internationalization as a strategic objective** in their IDP, **over half have not translated it** into a detailed **operating plan**.
- **80%** of the TEIs report **having a budget for internationalization activities**, with their main **sources** being the institutional budget, external public funding and, finally, funding from international or private organizations. The private sector stood out for being more active in procuring external funding.
- With regard to **human resource policy**, 56% of the participating institutions (65% in the private sector) report **considering international experience** in the institutional policies to **hire, promote and renew the contracts of their academic personnel**; in other words, 44% of the institutions do not take

international experience and activities into account when advancing the academic career of their faculties. 61% of the institutions do not have a program in place for their academics to take international sabbaticals. Only 60% report knowing how many of their academics have obtained a degree abroad, while 40% report not knowing or compiling such information.

- **42% of the participating institutions** that include internationalization in their **mission and/or IDP**, and **38%** of those that report that their authorities consider “internationalization as a very important priority” **have not established a human resource policy that promotes the international profile** of their academics, a crucial factor in the consolidation of the internationalization process.
- A minority of the participating institutions (**29%**) report having a **quality-assurance, evaluation and monitoring system** for their internationalization process; **36%** report that such a system is **in the development stages**, while **32%** report **not having** such a system in place. This situation contrasts strongly with the results at the global level, where 67% have designed and implemented a monitoring and evaluation system for their internationalization process (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). A breakdown by sector shows that 33% of TEIs in the private sector have such a system in place, as opposed to 27% of public institutions.
- **83%** of the TEIs stated that they have an **internationalization policy, but they do not link it to an evaluation and quality-assurance procedure.**
- **86%** of the TEIs from LAC report having an **internationalization office (IO)**. Of these IOs, **31%** are on the **highest tier** within the institutional hierarchy, as opposed to 60% that are on that tier worldwide (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010). Consequently, most IOs in LAC (52%) are on the second tier, and 16% on the third. Most of the institutions (54%) indicate that they have not set up management and follow-up structures at the level of academic units. Only 26% indicate that they have people in charge of internationalization activities in all of their academic units, and 19% have them in just some of their units.
- **72%** of IOs report having a **staff of between one and five people.**
- With regard to the **profile of the heads of IOs**, most of them (**60%**) are **women with graduate studies** (45% with master’s degrees). There are more heads of office with PhDs in the public sector (39%) than in the private sector (21%). In the public sector, the proportion of men and women that manage IOs is 53% and 47% respectively, while in the private sector, the proportion is 70% women and 30% men.

- With regard to the **seniority of the heads of IOs**, most of them (**36%**) have held the position for only **one or two years**; **29%** have held it for **four to ten years** and **18%** for **two to four years**. The **average seniority in the region** is **5.6 years**. The results show that the heads of office in the private sector averaged more seniority, with an average of 6.8 years, compared with 4.4 years in the public sector (the average length of a rector's period).
- In summary, there are **important differences between the public and private sectors**. IOs in the public sector have a higher level in the organizational hierarchy than those of the private sector; 53% of the heads of office in the public sector are men, in contrast with 70% of women in the private sector. In addition, IOs in the public sector have larger staffs (an average of seven employees, in contrast with four in the private sector), while the heads of IOs in the private sector last longer in the position than in the public sector (seven versus four years).
- With regard to **financial resources**, a minority of the **IOs (20%)** report having a **budget** (31% in the private sector and 12% in the public sector), while 26% report having no budget. Only **33%** of the TEIs obtain **funding from alternative sources** (54% in the private sector, versus 19% in the public sector).
- With regard to the **institutional structures and policies to communicate and disseminate** the internationalization process, only 59% of the participating TEIs report having a website exclusively for their IO. Of this percentage, only 21% have this website available in both the local language and in English, while 31% have a website that is exclusively in the local language. At 41% of the TEIs, the IO does not have a website.
- Most of the TEIs (**59%**) **do not participate** in any **international education events**. The greatest number of TEIs from LAC that do participate in international events attend the fair organized by the Association of International Educators (NAFSA) (21% participate with a stand), followed by the European Association for International Education (EAIE) (23%; 11% with a stand). Only 5% participate in the meeting organized by the Asia-Pacific Association for International Education (APAIE), 2% with a stand.
- The different categories of this survey show notable differences between the behavior of the private and public sectors: 57% of the private TEIs have developed an institutional internationalization plan, compared with 40% of the public TEIs. 19% of the private TEIs have formulated an internationalization plan for each academic unit, in contrast with 7% in the public sector. Private institutions are also more successful in obtaining external funding, and more private institutions have established quality assurance and monitoring systems to follow up on their internationalization process.

## PROGRAM STRUCTURES

- The **IOs' main activities** are, in order of importance: student mobility, academic mobility, and participating in cooperation projects. A low level of involvement is observed with the internationalization of curriculum, as well as little initiative to obtain international funding and recruit international students.

## ACADEMIC COLLABORATION AGREEMENTS

- The **top-priority regions of the world** for collaboration are, in order of importance: Western Europe, LAC and North America, followed by Asia and Eastern Europe. Within the region, the Southern Cone, mainly Argentina, Brazil and Chile, represents the most popular subregion, followed by the Andean Region, mainly Colombia, Ecuador and Peru, and then Mexico.
- The **regions** with which Latin American and Caribbean TEIs have signed **the most collaboration agreements** are LAC itself, followed by Western Europe, North America, Asia, Eastern Europe and Oceania. The regions with the **fewest academic collaboration agreements** with LAC are Africa and the Middle East.
- The **average number of collaboration agreements** for the participating institutions was twenty-seven with LAC and Western Europe, nine with North America, three with Asia, two with Eastern Europe, and less than one agreement with the rest of the regions.
- It is notable that the collaboration between educational institutions from Europe and LAC is three times greater than between LAC and North America.
- With regard to **intra-regional collaboration**, the countries of LAC that have the most academic collaboration agreements with the participating institutions are Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Mexico and Brazil.

## THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CURRICULUM

- Most of the institutions (51%) report **not having a policy for the internationalization of curriculum**.
- Among the **activities for the internationalization of curriculum**, the most frequent among participating institutions was “Outgoing student mobility” (87%), followed by “Inbound student mobility” (75%) and “Inviting foreign professors to engage in academic activities at the institution” (73%).

- **72%** of the participating institutions **do not offer massive open online courses (MOOC)**, while **82% do not offer the modality of virtual mobility**.
- The participating institutions report that the **obstacles to the internationalization of curriculum** were administrative or bureaucratic difficulties, such as the transfer of credits, differences between academic calendars, inflexible institutional regulations, and the lack of institutional policies.

## **JOINT AND/OR DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS**

- **39%** of the TEIs report **offering joint and/or dual-degree programs** in collaboration with foreign institutions; 14% offer joint-degree programs and 34% offer dual-degree programs.
- A breakdown by sector shows that the percentage of private TEIs offering this type of programs is larger (47%) than that of the public sector (34%).
- Compared to the results of the 2014 IAU survey, which showed an average of 41% of TEIs worldwide offering joint degrees and 44% offering dual degrees, LAC still lags behind in this regard, and has shown no progress in recent years.
- **61%** of the **collaborative programs** offer **dual degrees**, as opposed to 39% that offer joint degrees.
- Most of the **joint-degree programs (47%)** are offered at the **undergraduate level**, followed by master's degree programs (26%) and PhD programs (23%). In the case of dual-degree programs, most of them (37%) are offered at the undergraduate level, followed by 33% at the master's level, and 22% that are PhD programs.
- At the university upper technical degree level, most of the collaborative programs are dual degrees and are offered by public institutions.
- At the undergraduate and master's degree levels, most of the collaborative programs are dual degrees offered by the private sector.
- Most collaborative PhD programs are offered by public institutions, both joint-degree and dual-degree programs.
- Private institutions favor dual-degree over joint-degree programs at the undergraduate and master's degree levels. On the other hand, the public sector offers more dual-degree and joint-degree programs at the PhD and university upper technical degree levels.
- The greatest number of institutions offering collaborative programs are, in decreasing order, in Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Argentina and Chile. The Dominican Republic and Peru also stand out for their relatively high number of institutions offering this type of program. Mexico leads the list in the

number of programs offered, followed by Brazil, Colombia and Argentina.

- The countries that collaborate the most with LAC in joint-degree programs are, in order of importance, Spain, France, the United States, Mexico, Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Portugal, Germany and Italy.
- In the case of dual-degree programs, LAC's major partners are, in order of importance, France, Spain, Italy, the United States and Germany.
- The greatest number of joint-degree programs at Latin American and Caribbean institutions are offered in the fields of Social Science and Engineering and Technology. Likewise, dual-degree programs in the region have opened primarily in these same fields.<sup>15</sup> The field of Veterinary and Agricultural Sciences has the fewest collaborative programs in the region, in both modalities.

## INSTITUTIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING POLICY

- **79%** of the participating institutions report **having an institutional language teaching policy** in place.
- **41%** report that **proficiency in a foreign language(s)** is an admission and/or graduation **requirement** for all their academic programs, while 33% report that this applies only to some of their academic programs.
- **25%** report that **they do not require** candidates and students to **become proficient in a foreign language**.
- Only **40%** of the participating TEIs have **mandatory language courses**.
- **57%** of the institutions report **having a specialized center** to teach the local language to foreign students, of which 11% indicate that this center is subordinate to their IO, while 46% report that it is an independent entity.

## ACADEMIC MOBILITY

- In terms of **outgoing mobility**, **31%** of the participating institutions report that the **number of their academics that engaged in academic activities abroad** during the 2014-2015 academic year ranged from **one to ten**; 25% of report between eleven and fifty and 3%, over 500.
- The **average number of academics** that engaged in **activities abroad** during the same school year was **seventy-four**, for a total of 28,814, which represents 4.7% of the total faculty members reported by the participating TEIs.

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The disciplinary or professional areas of joint and dual-degree programs have been classified according to the latest edition of the *Frascati Manual* of the OCDE, which includes six areas of knowledge (OCDE, 2015). As in the manual, this paper capitalizes the words representing these OCDE disciplinary areas.

- A breakdown by institution type shows that public institutions had an average of 110 academics engaged in mobility activities, while the average for private institutions was sixty-nine.
- **62%** of the participating TEIs report having a **scholarship or financial support program for academic mobility** (67% of private TEIs and 58% of public institutions).
- **34%** of the TEIs that include internationalization in their mission and/or IDP do not offer financial support for their academics to undertake academic mobility.
- The **countries of destination for academics** from LAC are, in order of importance, the United States, Spain, Mexico, Argentina, France, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Portugal and Germany.
- In terms of **inbound mobility**, the **number of hosted foreign academics** in 2014-2015 was, for 33% of the participating TEIs, between one and ten individuals; 23% received between eleven and fifty, and three institutions received over 500 academics. Thus, the average number of academics received was seventy-five during the academic year in question, and the regional total was 28,463.
- The **countries of origin of the foreign academics** were, in decreasing order, Spain, the United States, Argentina, Mexico, Colombia, Brazil, France, Chile, Germany and Portugal.

## INTERNATIONALIZATION OF RESEARCH

- **56%** of the participating TEIs report **not having an institutional program to promote international research projects**. Only 33% report having one.
- The **main obstacles to the internationalization of research** reported were, in order of importance, “Lack of funding,” “Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties,” “Little experience and knowledge, or low international profile of academics,” “Lack of language proficiency on the part of academics” and “Low level of interest or training of academic personnel.”
- **65%** of the TEIs report having a **program in place to promote the publication of scientific articles in indexed journals**.
- In terms of **patents obtained**, **86%** of the TEIs report **not knowing the information or not having international patents**. Only 4% report having at least one international patent in the last five years, while 6% report between two and nine international patents.

## OUTBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY

- **Most of the outbound students** (70%) are enrolled in undergraduate programs, followed by 17% in university upper technical degree programs, 8% in master's degree programs and 5% in PhD programs.
- With regard to **total enrollment** reported in this Survey for the 2014-2015 academic year, only 0.3% of the students from LAC **engaged in academic mobility** at the undergraduate and university upper technical degree levels, while in the case of graduate programs, the percentage was only 0.03% of all students.
- **85%** of the students on exchange programs **took undergraduate courses**, 64% did professional internships, 59% did research stays, and 21%, medical rotations.
- The **regions of destination** for students from LAC are, in order of importance, Western Europe, LAC, North America, their country of origin, and Eastern Europe.
- The main **countries of destination** are Spain, the United States, Argentina, France, Mexico, Chile, Brazil, Germany, Canada and Colombia.
- **62%** of the TEIs have a **scholarship or financial support program for student mobility**. Only 6% grants full scholarships or support; 43% offer partial scholarships or financial support and 13% offer both types (partial and full).
- **38%** of the participating institutions **do not offer** their students **any type of support for international mobility**.
- The **main obstacle to student mobility** falls under the category of "Lack of language proficiency among students," followed by "Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties," "Students' family and/or job commitments," "Low level of interest or participation among students" and "Curricular inflexibility."

## INBOUND STUDENT MOBILITY

- 69% of the region's **inbound students**, both those coming for short-term stays and those pursuing a degree, are **enrolled** in undergraduate programs, while 14% are enrolled in university upper technical degree programs, 12% in master's degree programs, and 5% in PhD programs.
- **Inbound mobility students** come from, in order of importance, LAC itself, followed by Western Europe, North America, the same country, and Eastern Europe.

- With regard to the countries, inbound exchange students come from, in order of importance, Spain, Mexico, Colombia, the United States, Germany, France, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Peru.
- In terms of intraregional mobility, most inbound mobility comes from the Southern Cone, especially from Argentina, Brazil and Chile.

## FLOWS OF OUTBOUND AND INBOUND MOBILITY

- Most **exchange students (70%)**, both inbound and outbound, are enrolled in **undergraduate programs**.
- A comparison of the statistics of outbound and inbound mobility shows that the **region sends more students than it receives**.
- There is a difference between sectors: while the private sector has achieved a certain balance between outbound and inbound students, the public sector has not, sending more students than it receives.

## LIAISON OFFICES ABROAD

- **12%** of the participating institutions report **having a liaison office abroad** (54% in the private sector, as opposed to 46% in the public sector).
- **2.9%** of the participating institutions report **having a campus abroad** (73% in the private sector and 27% in the public sector). However, most of them are offices that primarily conduct activities that could be classified as *cultural dissemination activities* (language courses, courses on culture, etc.).

## GLOBAL UNIVERSITY RANKINGS

- Only **38%** of the participating TEIs consider these rankings to be “An important factor for institutional decision-making,” while the rest indicate “They are not an accurate description of the regional reality,” “They do not know their institution’s position on the matter” or “They are of no interest to their institution.”

SECTION V  
**FINAL CONSIDERATIONS**





While some national reports have been written on the internationalization trends in the different countries of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), the studies on the region as a whole are very few. Of these, the most important have been the publication of the World Bank (BM) (de Wit, *et al.*, 2005) and the different editions of the global survey on internationalization of the International Association of Universities (IAU) (Knight, 2003; 2006; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010;2014).

This survey is the first of its kind, as it was designed for the specific context of LAC and the region as a whole. Its purposes are to take a careful look at the different characteristics of the internationalization process in LAC ten years after the aforementioned WB report, as well as to make a comparison with the global trends detected by the Global survey on the internationalization of higher education of the IAU.

In summary, the main findings of both the WB report and the IAU surveys highlighted the fact that, although the region has multiplied its international activities since the nineteen nineties, these activities have generally been based exclusively on individual initiatives and isolated actions that are marginal to institutional development policies; they are not among the institutional priorities. The internationalization process needs carefully-crafted, institutionalized, professionalized organizational structures; the reality is that it is being managed without planning or evaluation, basically in reaction to contingencies.

In other words, these studies concluded that the process of internationalization in LAC has not followed the guidelines set forth in the concept of comprehensive internationalization (see definition in Hudzik, section III of the present document); that institutions need to consolidate their institutional capacity, especially in terms of their organizational structures (institutional policies, planning, financing, evaluation and management of internationalization activities) as well as their program structures (broadening student and academic mobility and offering stronger support for the internationalization of research and international cooperation).

This section will also include an assessment of the situation ten years after the WB report.

As in the case of other regions around the world, the main benefit of internationalization for the tertiary education institutions (TEIs) of LAC is that it leaves their graduates better prepared for the global context, in both social and professional terms, and contributes to the improvement of higher education in the region.

However, when it comes to risks for the institutions, the region highlights above all the worry that internationalization programs will primarily benefit students that belong to an

economic elite, as well as the larger institutions with access to more resources; another concern is the reinforcement of the center-periphery paradigm around the world.

As for the risks for the countries, the biggest concern of the LAC region, again more pronounced than in any other region, is brain drain, which contrasts with the biggest perceived risk of only a few years ago: the loss of cultural identity.

With regard to the factors that drive the internationalization process, one particularity of our region is that institutions perceive less involvement of the productive sector than in other regions, as productive sector demand was ranked fifth, in contrast with the global average, which ranked this factor second. This situation reflects the limited collaboration that prevails in LAC between the productive and academic sectors, which in part reflects an indifference to innovation among Latin American businesspeople.

In terms of the obstacles to internationalization, the region coincided with the global trend, reporting as the main obstacles insufficient financial resources and lack of proficiency in foreign languages on the part of students and academics. What distinguishes LAC, however, is that it perceives lack of proficiency in foreign languages on the part of students and academics as a bigger obstacle than the other regions of the world do.

Because of the above, the lack of proficiency in foreign languages must be seen as a gap that is specific to our region. And although the region has made efforts in the last two decades to remedy this situation, the problem persists and significantly delays the participation of academics and students in internationalization programs, scholarships, and international cooperation activities.

A solution to this problem calls for, on the one hand, wider-ranging public policies, and on the other, instruction starting at the basic levels of the educational system. To achieve this, the ministries of education of the entire region must expand their foreign language teaching programs and improve the quality of their teachers, programs, and methods. Like the WB report, this Survey urges the Governments of LAC to make a stronger commitment to the internationalization of the sector and to promote more energetically national policies that provide the framework for the necessary institutional processes. Government programs are characterized by a lack of continuity and insufficient financial resources. The region needs to promote national and regional policies, as well as regulatory frameworks, to promote student and academic mobility, collaboration in research, quality assurance and recognition of degrees and academic stays abroad.

In this sense, a study conducted by the British Council in twenty-six countries of different regions of the world (Ilieva & Peak, 2016) showed that the three countries from this region that participated in the study, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico, obtained the lowest score of all emerging countries, along with countries such as Ethiopia, Botswana, Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa, in terms of government policies for the promotion of internationalization. In contrast, other emerging countries such as Malaysia, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Thailand and Vietnam obtained the highest scores.

In matters of organizational policies and strategies, this Survey shows that the region has made progress in several aspects. Most TEIs have now included internationalization among the strategic objectives of their institutional development plans (IDPs), and have established appropriate management structures for internationalization activities.

However, the region sets itself apart from other regions in the world in the following aspects: 1) there are fewer institutional authorities that consider internationalization to be a very important factor (53% against 69% globally); 2) although 47% of the TEIs include internationalization as a priority in their development plans, most of them (52%) report not having formulated the corresponding operating plans, and only 12% report including their academic units in the planning and programming of the internationalization process. Because of this, of the 83% of the TEIs that include internationalization as a strategic objective in their IDPs, over half of them have yet to translate it into a detailed operating plan.

In terms of funding, although most TEIs have increased their budgets to support internationalization, there is still a significant percentage of institutions (20%) that claim to include internationalization as a strategic objective in their IDPs but do not make specific budget allocations to promote and sustain it.

In terms of human development, the promotion of the internationalization process requires institutional policies that value international experience and programs that reward academics' participation in international activities. This study shows that only half of the TEIs consider the international dimension in their hiring, promotion and contract renewal policies for academic personnel. Most of them (60%) do not offer academics the opportunity to take sabbaticals at international institutions and do not keep records of their academic personnel's international profile and experience.

In this regard, the recommendation is that LAC should show more decision in promoting policies to take advantage of their own international human resources and support their participation in projects that would allow them to consolidate the institutional process of internationalization. It is contradictory that 42% of the TEIs have included internationalization as a priority in their IDPs, and 38% state that internationalization is very important, but at the same time they have failed to formulate human resource policies that actively promote the development of their academics' international profile.

Another category that has been neglected in the region is quality assurance, as only a minority of the participating institutions (29%) have established an evaluation and monitoring system to follow up on their internationalization process. This result differs greatly from the global indicators, which show that most TEIs (67%) have set up these types of systems and procedures.

In 2005, the WB report stated:

There seems to be a disconnect between the statements made about internationalization as a key strategy for improving the quality of teaching and research, and the fact that institutional and national quality assurance policies [...] do not yet take internationalization into account as an important indicator of progress (Gacel-Ávila, Jaramillo, Knight, & de Wit, 2005, p. 361).

Today, evaluation procedures take the international dimension into consideration more and more, in areas such as student and academic mobility, but they seldom ask about it in curricular structure and content or in research.

In terms of the coordination of the internationalization process and the management of international activities and programs, this Survey reveals that internationalization offices have moved up in the institutional hierarchy and have managed to expand their staff, as a result of a stronger presence of the internationalization strategy on the institutional agenda. Currently, most internationalization offices (IOs) are located on the second tier of their institution's organizational chart, as opposed to the third and fourth tiers reported in the WB report (Gacel-Ávila, et al., 2005 p. 265). However, a comparison with results from elsewhere in the world, where most IOs are located on the top tier, shows that the region is still lagging in this regard.

Furthermore, as the 2005 WB report also showed, turnover in IOs is very high, especially in the public sector, where IO heads hold their position for an average of four years. This raises concerns, because the lack of professionalization in IOs undermines their viability and efficiency in conducting internationalization activities. It should be noted that in the private sector, IO heads tend to hold their position longer (average of seven years), which suggests more professional management than in the public sector.

Furthermore, only a few IOs (20%) have a specific budget to promote internationalization activities, which reduces the potential of the institutions to promote and coordinate the process.

Even though external communication with potential partners and internal communication with the members of the university community constitutes a basic and fundamental tool for ensuring a proactive and comprehensive internationalization process, only half of the region's TEIs have a website to promote their internationalization process, with over 40% of the institutions reporting not having one. But there is an even larger deficiency: of the websites that exist for this purpose, most of them are available only in the local language; only a small percentage have the website available in English.

And even though participating in international education fairs and events is a key strategy for promoting the internationalization process, international visibility, contacts with potential partners, and the updating of skills for IO employees, among others, most heads of IOs (59%) do not participate in any international education events.

All of these findings reflect the conclusions of the 2005 WB report:

Internationalization is frequently mentioned in the speeches and official statements of educational authorities [...]. In spite of this recognition, there is still a lack of explicit policies on the matter. Very few institutions have developed broad policy initiatives on the process of internationalization; at best, the internationalization strategy is expressed in the institutional development plan. Few institutional documents describe the process of internationalization thoroughly, or its fundamental principles, priorities, objectives, programs, regulations, and quality evaluation and planning procedures [...] (Gacel-Ávila, et al., 2005, p. 360).

International activities seem to be managed and organized on the margins. They are not integrated into the core of institutional development or into the main thrust of the institution's substantive functions [...]. TEIs do not yet plan their own international activities systematically, with objectives based on their needs, requirements and financial resources in the short, medium and long term (Gacel-Ávila, et al., 2005, p. 361).

It is worth mentioning that the results of this Survey show differences between the private and public sectors. In the private sector there is more planning, quality assurance and monitoring of the internationalization process, as well as a higher level of professionalization in the management structures and personnel working in the IOs.

With regard to program strategies, i.e., the structures that integrate the international dimension into academic programs, the following paragraphs summarize the main trends that were detected.

In matters of academic collaboration, European TEIs are the main partners of the institutions in the region, followed by LAC itself, North America, and Asia. The level of collaboration between TEIs of LAC and Europe is three times greater than with North America. This trend was similar to the results of the 2005 WB report and Gacel-Ávila (2014).

However, it is important to point out the significant increase in intraregional collaboration in the last few years, due to a greater number of intraregional programs, such as the Pacific Alliance (*Alianza del Pacífico*), the Exchange and Academic Mobility Program (*Programa de Intercambio y Movilidad Académica, PIMA*) and Macrouniversities, to mention a few. Likewise, students and academics are showing greater interest in academic exchange programs in Latin American and Caribbean countries.

In LAC, the most attractive destination for mobility and cooperation is the Southern Cone, specifically Argentina, Brazil and Chile. These countries are followed by Mexico, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador and Peru.

As the WB reported, the internationalization of the curriculum continues to be the most overlooked strategy, according to this Survey. Mobility programs receive the most attention, but the integration of the international dimension into the curricular structure and academic programs is neglected. Furthermore, there are very few guest professors that contribute to the internationalization of teaching. Finally, virtual mobility as a method for non-mobile students to experience internationalization is practically non-existent, the same as in the WB report (Gacel-Ávila, et al., 2005, p. 359).

In terms of the organization of joint or dual-degree programs, this Survey reports no progress in this area compared to past years. 39% of the participating TEIs report offering this type of program (47% in the private sector and 34% in the public sector), as opposed to the global average of 44%. Thus, compared to global trends, the region continues to lag, ranking below regions such as Africa and the Middle East, according to the results of the IAU survey (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

61% of the dual degrees at the undergraduate level, the modality with the fastest growth, are offered in the fields of Social Sciences and Engineering and Technology.<sup>16</sup> The private sector leads the way in dual-degree programs offered at the undergraduate and master's degree levels, while the public sector is ahead in both types of collaborative programs (joint and dual degrees) at the PhD and university upper technical degree levels.

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The disciplinary or professional areas of joint and dual-degree programs have been classified according to the last edition of the *Frascati Manual* of the OCDE, which includes six areas of knowledge (OCDE, 2015). These disciplinary areas are capitalized here, following the OCDE's convention.

The most active TEIs in the region in this aspect are in Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Argentina and Chile; the most active partner countries of the region are Spain, France, the United States, Germany, Portugal and Italy; within LAC, the most active partners in collaborative programs are Brazil, Mexico, Colombia and Chile.

In foreign language teaching, as mentioned before, the TEIs report significant efforts to improve the level and quality of language teaching; however, it persists as one of the categories in which the region lags, with 41% of the TEIs not requiring a specific level of language proficiency from their students to graduate. As a result, more than in any other region, language proficiency constitutes one of the biggest limitations to the consolidation of internationalization in LAC and of the profile of university graduates, which without a doubt hobbles the region in terms of competitiveness at the global scale.

The public sector is more proactive in terms of academic mobility, but only 62% of TEIs offer their academics support for their academic trips or stays. It is again contradictory that even though 34% of the institutions claim that internationalization is a priority for their institutional development, they have not made explicit budget allocations to support academic mobility for the purpose of enhancing their international profile, and in that way, internationalizing their curriculum and research.

The most popular destinations for Latin American and Caribbean academics are the United States, European countries such as Spain, France, Germany and Portugal, and countries within the region, including Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Chile. On the other hand, visiting academics come mostly from Europe (Spain, France, Germany and Portugal), followed by the United States and countries within the region (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico).

Although it is undeniable that student mobility has increased remarkably in recent years, the rate as a proportion of total enrollment was, according to this Survey, 0.3% in undergraduate programs and 0.03% in graduate programs.

The most popular regions of destination for Latin American and Caribbean students are, in order of importance, Western Europe, LAC, North America, and Eastern Europe. The most popular countries of destination are Spain, the United States, Argentina, France, Mexico, Chile, Brazil, Germany, Canada and Colombia.

62% of the participating TEIs offer partial financial support for their students to carry out exchange programs. The main obstacles to student mobility are lack of proficiency in a foreign language, administrative difficulties, family and/or job commitments, and curricular inflexibility.

In terms of incoming student mobility, most are undergraduate students from the region itself, from countries of the Southern Cone, such as Argentina, Brazil and Chile, as well as Mexico and Colombia. Following them in importance are students from Western Europe (Spain, Germany and France), North America (the United States) and Eastern Europe.

The Survey detected an imbalance between incoming and outgoing student mobility: our region sends more students than it receives. Although the private sector does achieve a balance between incoming and outgoing students, this is not the case in the public sector, as public universities send more students than they receive.

Regarding the internationalization of research, most of the TEIs (56%) report not having an institutional policy to promote it systematically, and they also lack sources of funding to support the participation of researchers in international cooperation projects.

When it comes to international patents, 86% of the participating institutions report not knowing the information about their own institution, and only 4% report having an international patent in the last five years.

On the other hand, 12% of the participating institutions report having a liaison office abroad (54% in the private sector versus 46% in the public sector).

Finally, most of the TEIs consider that global university rankings do not constitute an important reference for institutional decision-making or that they are not an accurate description of the regional reality.

**In conclusion**, this survey shows progress in the region's internationalization efforts, especially by the participating TEIs. Internationalization is now a priority on the agenda of institutional development, and management structures have been adjusted accordingly. There has been a significant increase in the number of internationalization programs and activities, especially in terms of the international formation of human resources at the graduate level, undergraduate student mobility, and faculty mobility, including academics' participation in international networks. Intra-regional cooperation has also made significant headway, and important efforts have been made to implement programs aimed at improving the level of foreign language proficiency.

However, the positive side of these results must not distract us from the fact that in order to achieve a comprehensive internationalization process, as the concept is defined in this document, our region needs to improve significantly in certain aspects, which we will attempt to summarize below.

Our region needs more public policies to provide the framework, facilitate, and promote the process of institutional internationalization, as stated in the British Council report mentioned earlier. It also requires more involvement from the business sector.

Declaring internationalization an institutional priority implies implementing a series of adjustments and reforms to the institution's day-to-day work and practices, such as integrating the international dimension into the regular institutional planning, budget, and evaluation systems; and creating operating plans for internationalization in alignment with institutional priorities, with clear identification of the financial and human resources required to ensure their feasibility and the establishment of the corresponding evaluation and monitoring procedures. Furthermore, if the participation of the academic sector is critical to the internationalization process, then policies must be formulated to promote and reward academics' involvement in internationalization activities, and databases must be created to keep track of the international experience of the academics that could spearhead this process, as it is essential for TEIs in the region to take advantage of their own resources and the means at their disposal.

Another urgent task is to improve our communication and international visibility strategies at the national, regional, and institutional levels in order to enhance the appeal of our higher education systems.

With regard to the management structures for international activities, there has been an upgrade in terms of their position in the institutional hierarchy; nevertheless, these

structures have not achieved the level of recognition they enjoy in other regions of the world. It is also important to promote a higher level of professionalization of the staffs working in the internationalization offices, by favoring experience over continuous turnover of personnel in response to the shifts in successive administration, as the lack of experience in IOs undermines the feasibility and efficiency of the process.

Management must also become more participatory, and ensure the involvement of the different actors from the university community. It is important to note that only a minority of the participating institutions have set up decentralized offices at the level of academic units.

As for the internationalization of the curriculum, more efforts are required to establish international academic programs for the students who do not have the chance to study abroad, which could be achieved by implementing innovative collaborative programs with international TEIs (dual-degree and virtual mobility programs), as well as by incentivizing foreign language proficiency among students and academics. The internationalization of research should be promoted more systematically and with greater investment of resources, so that our region can make more relevant contributions to the production of knowledge.

For all of these reasons, the process of internationalization of higher education in LAC could be characterized as more reactive than comprehensive. For this process to contribute more significantly to the transformation and improvement of the region's educational sector, it must assume the international dimension through public and institutional policies that ensure the institutionalization of the corresponding programs and structures in all university activities and at the three levels of the educational process: the micro level (the teaching-learning process in the classroom), the meso level (curricular structure and content) and the macro level (the formulation of institutional policies on teaching, research, and dissemination). Only then will our region reap the benefits of the internationalization and globalization of the educational sector, with the goal of perceptibly improving our educational systems, our international competitiveness, and consequently, the quality of life of our populations.

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# ANNEXES





## **I. INVITED ASSOCIATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS**

### **UNESCO-IESALC**

Asociación Brasileña de Educación Internacional (FAUBAI)

Asociación de Universidades Grupo Montevideo (AUGM) Asociación de Universidades e Instituciones de Investigación del Caribe (UNICA)

Asociación Dominicana de Rectores de Universidades (ADRU)

Asociación Mexicana para la Educación Internacional (AMPEI)

Asociación Venezolana de Rectores Universitarios (AVERU)

Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo (CINDA)

Consejo Interuniversitario Nacional de Argentina (CIN)

Consejo Nacional de Rectores de Costa Rica (CONARE)

Consejo de Rectores de Panamá (CRP)

Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Chilenas (CRUCH)

Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Privadas Argentinas (CRUP)

Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano (CSUCA)

Ministerio de Educación de Cuba

Organización Universitaria Interamericana (OUI)

Proyecto INCHIPE

Proyecto Learn Chile

Red Colombiana para la Internacionalización de la Educación Superior (RCI)

Unión de Universidades de América Latina y el Caribe (UDUAL)

## **2. PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS (BY COUNTRY)**

### **Argentina**

1. Fundación Universidad de Belgrano
2. Instituto Universitario de Ciencias de la Salud-Fundación H.A. Barceló
3. Instituto Universitario del Gran Rosario
4. Universidad Abierta Interamericana
5. Universidad Católica de Salta
6. Universidad Católica de Santa Fe
7. Universidad de Congreso
8. Universidad de Flores
9. Universidad del Salvador
10. Universidad ISALUD
11. Universidad Nacional de Avellaneda
12. Universidad Nacional de Córdoba
13. Universidad Nacional de José C. Paz
14. Universidad Nacional de la Pampa
15. Universidad Nacional de la Plata
16. Universidad Nacional de Moreno
17. Universidad Nacional de Quilmes
18. Universidad Nacional del Litoral
19. Universidad Nacional del Nordeste
20. Universidad Nacional del Noroeste de la Provincia de Buenos Aires
21. Universidad Nacional del Sur

### **Bolivia**

1. Escuela Militar de Ingeniería
2. Universidad del Valle
3. Universidad Mayor de San Simón
4. Universidad Privada de Santa Cruz de la Sierra
5. Universidad Privada Domingo Savio
6. Universidad Tecnológica Privada de Santa Cruz

## **Brazil**

1. Centro Federal de Educação Tecnológica Celso Suckow da Fonseca
2. Centro Federal de Educação Tecnológica de Minas Gerais
3. Centro Universitário das Faculdades Associadas de Ensino de São João da Boa Vista
4. Centro Universitário Salesiano de São Paulo-UNID de Lorena (Liceu Coração de Jesus)
5. Centro Universitário Franciscano
6. Centro Universitário Municipal de Franca
7. Centro Universitário Senac
8. Faculdade de Economia, Administração e Contabilidade de Ribeirão Preto
9. Fundação Centro Universitário Estadual da Zona Oeste
10. Fundação Mineira de Educação e Cultura
11. Fundação Universidade Federal da Grande Dourados
12. Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre
13. Fundação Universidade Federal de Uberlândia
14. Fundação Universidade Federal do abc
15. Grupo Educacional unis
16. Grupo Ser Educacional
17. Instituto Federal do Acre
18. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia do Ceará
19. Instituto Federal Fluminense
20. Instituto Federal de Pernambuco
21. Instituto de Ensino e Pesquisa
22. Instituto Federal da Bahia
23. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia do Maranhão
24. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia Sul-rio-grandense
25. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia do Triângulo Mineiro
26. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia de Goiás
27. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia de Mato Grosso
28. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia do Rio de Janeiro
29. Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia do Rio Grande do Sul
30. Instituto Federal Farroupilha
31. Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul
32. Universidade Federal de São Carlos
33. Universidade Católica do Salvador
34. Universidade Comunitária da Região de Chapecó
35. Universidade de Caxias do Sul
36. Universidade de Fortaleza
37. Universidade de Pernambuco
38. Universidade de Rio Verde
39. Universidade de Santa Cruz do Sul

40. Universidade do Estado da Bahia
41. Universidade do Estado de Mato Grosso
42. Universidade do Estado de Minas Gerais
43. Universidade do Estado de Santa Catarina
44. Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro
45. Universidade do Estado do Rio Grande do Norte
46. Universidade do Vale do Itajaí
47. Universidade do Vale do Paraíba
48. Universidade Estadual do Norte do Paraná
49. Universidade Estadual de Alagoas
50. Universidade Estadual de Campinas
51. Universidade Estadual de Feira de Santana
52. Universidade Estadual de Goiás
53. Universidade Estadual de Londrina
54. Universidade Estadual de Maringá
55. Universidade Estadual de Montes Claros
56. Universidade Estadual de Ponta Grossa
57. Universidade Estadual de Santa Cruz
58. Universidade Estadual do Ceará
59. Universidade Estadual do Centro-Oeste
60. Universidade Estadual do Mato Grosso do Sul
61. Universidade Estadual do Norte Fluminense Darcy Ribeiro
62. Universidade Estadual do Oeste do Paraná
63. Universidade Estadual do Paraná
64. Universidade Estadual do Piauí.
65. Universidade Estadual do Rio Grande do Sul
66. Universidade Estadual do Sudoeste da Bahia
67. Universidade Estadual Paulista
68. Universidade Federal da Integração Latino Americana
69. Universidade Federal de Goiás
70. Universidade Federal de Lavras
71. Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais
72. Universidade Federal de Ouro Preto 74.
73. Universidade Federal de Pelotas
74. Universidade Federal de Pernambuco
75. Universidade Federal de Roraima
76. Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
77. Universidade Federal de Santa Maria
78. Universidade Federal de São João del-Rei
79. Universidade Federal de Viçosa
80. Universidade Federal do Amazonas

81. Universidade Federal do Pampa
82. Universidade Federal do Pará
83. Universidade Federal Fluminense
84. Universidade Feevale
85. Universidade Metodista de São Paulo
86. Universidade Municipal de São Caetano do Sul
87. Universidade Regional do Noroeste do Estado do Rio Grande do Sul
88. Universidade São Francisco

## **Chile**

1. Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile
2. Universidad Adolfo Ibáñez
3. Universidad Católica de Temuco
4. Universidad Central de Chile
5. Universidad de Chile
6. Universidad de La Frontera
7. Universidad de Magallanes
8. Universidad de Talca
9. Universidad de Tarapacá
10. Universidad del Desarrollo
11. Universidad San Sebastián
12. Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana
13. Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana de Santiago de Chile
14. Universidad Viña del Mar

## **Colombia**

1. Colegio Mayor de Nuestra Señora del Rosario
2. Corporación Educativa del Litoral
3. Corporación Tecnológica de Bogotá
4. Corporación Universidad de la Costa
5. Corporación Universidad Piloto de Colombia
6. Corporación Universitaria Comfacauca
7. Corporación Universitaria del Caribe
8. Corporación Universitaria Empresarial A. Von Humboldt
9. Corporación Universitaria Latinoamericana
10. Corporación Universitaria Regional del Caribe
11. Corporación Universitaria UNITEC
12. Corporación Unificada Nacional
13. Dirección Nacional de Escuelas de Policía

14. Escuela de Administración y Mercadotecnia del Quindío
15. Fundación Colombo Germana
16. Fundación Universidad de Bogotá Jorge Tadeo Lozano
17. Fundación Universitaria Católica Lumen Gentium
18. Fundación Universitaria Horizonte
19. Fundación Universitaria Konrad Lorenz
20. Fundación Universitaria Los Libertadores
21. Fundación Universitaria María Cano
22. Institución Universitaria de Envigado
23. Instituto Tolimense de Formación Técnica Profesional
24. Pontificia Universidad Javeriana Cali
25. Universidad Antonio Nariño
26. Universidad Autónoma de Manizales
27. Universidad Autónoma de Occidente
28. Universidad Católica de Colombia
29. Universidad Católica de Manizales
30. Universidad CES
31. Universidad de Antioquia
32. Universidad de Caldas
33. Universidad de Ciencias Aplicadas y Ambientales
34. Universidad de Córdoba
35. Universidad de La Guajira
36. Universidad de La Sabana
37. Universidad de Manizales
38. Universidad de Medellín
39. Universidad de Pamplona
40. Universidad de Sucre
41. Universidad del Cauca
42. Universidad del Tolima
43. Universidad del Valle
44. Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas
45. Universidad EAFIT
46. Universidad El Bosque
47. Universidad Francisco de Paula Santander
48. Universidad La Gran Colombia
49. Universidad La Gran Colombia Seccional Armenia
50. Universidad Libre Seccional Cali
51. Universidad Manuela Beltrán
52. Universidad Nacional Abierta y a Distancia
53. Universidad Nacional de Colombia
54. Universidad Pedagógica Nacional

55. Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana Seccional Palmira
56. Universidad Santo Tomás Tunja
57. Universidad Simón Bolívar
58. Universidad Tecnológica de Bolívar
59. Universidad Tecnológica de Pereira

### **Costa Rica**

1. Universidad Bíblica Latinoamericana
2. Universidad de San José
3. Universidad de Ciencias Médicas
4. Universidad Empresarial de Costa Rica
5. Universidad Técnica Nacional

### **Cuba**

1. Instituto de Ciencia Animal
2. Universidad de Camagüey Ignacio Agramonte Loynaz
3. Universidad de Granma
4. Universidad de Pinar del Río “Hermanos Saíz Montes de Oca”

### **Dominican Republic**

1. Instituto Global de Altos Estudios en Ciencias Sociales
2. Instituto Tecnológico de las Américas
3. Instituto Tecnológico de Santo Domingo
4. Pontificia Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra
5. Universidad Abierta para Adultos
6. Universidad APEC
7. Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo
8. Universidad Central del Este
9. Universidad Iberoamericana

### **El Salvador**

1. Universidad de El Salvador
2. Universidad Don Bosco
3. Universidad Pedagógica de El Salvador Dr. Luis Alonso Aparicio
4. Universidad Tecnológica de El Salvador

### **Ecuador**

1. Escuela Politécnica Nacional
2. Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral
3. Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, FLACSO
4. Universidad Casa Grande
5. Universidad Católica de Santiago de Guayaquil

6. Universidad Central del Ecuador
7. Universidad de Cuenca
8. Universidad de Especialidades Espíritu Santo
9. Universidad de Investigación de Tecnología Experimental Yachay
10. Universidad Internacional del Ecuador
11. Universidad Politécnica Estatal del Carchi
12. Universidad Regional Amazónica IKIAM
13. Universidad Técnica del Norte
14. Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo
15. Universidad Tecnológica Ecotec
16. Universidad Tecnológica Equinoccial

## **Guatemala**

1. Universidad del Valle de Guatemala
2. Universidad Rafael Landívar

## **Honduras**

1. Universidad Pedagógica Nacional Francisco Morazán

## **Jamaica**

1. University of the West Indies

## **Mexico**

1. Alianza para la Educación Superior
2. Benemérita Universidad Autónoma Puebla
3. Centro de Estudios Cristóbal Colón, A. C.
4. Centro Universitario UTEG
5. El Colegio de Michoacán, A. C.
6. El Colegio de Sonora
7. Escuela Bancaria y Comercial, S. C.
8. Facultad Libre de Derecho de Monterrey
9. Instituto de Ciencias Jurídicas de Puebla
10. Instituto de Estudios Superiores del Bajío
11. Instituto Tecnológico de Apizaco
12. Instituto Tecnológico de Chetumal
13. Instituto Tecnológico de Chihuahua
14. Instituto Tecnológico de la Cuenca del Papaloapan
15. Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali
16. Instituto Tecnológico de Tapachula
17. Instituto Tecnológico de Tepic
18. Instituto Tecnológico de Zacatepec
19. Instituto Tecnológico Superior de Huetamo
20. Instituto Tecnológico Superior de Irapuato
21. Instituto Tecnológico Superior de la Sierra Norte de Puebla

22. Instituto Tecnológico Superior de Zapopan
23. Instituto Tecnológico Superior de Zapotlanejo
24. Instituto Tecnológico Superior Zacatecas Sur
25. Instituto Tecnológico y de Estudios Superiores de Occidente
26. Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores de Ecatepec
27. Universidad Abierta y a Distancia de México
28. Universidad Anáhuac
29. Universidad Anáhuac Puebla
30. Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes
31. Universidad Autónoma de Baja California
32. Universidad Autónoma de Chiapas
33. Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez
34. Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila
35. Universidad Autónoma de la Ciudad de México
36. Universidad Autónoma de La Laguna, A. C.
37. Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León
38. Universidad Autónoma de San Luis Potosí
39. Universidad Autónoma de Sinaloa
40. Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas
41. Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán
42. Universidad Autónoma del Carmen
43. Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Hidalgo
44. Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México
45. Universidad de Ciencias y Artes de Chiapas
46. Universidad de Colima
47. Universidad de Guadalajara
48. Universidad de Monterrey
49. Universidad de Occidente
50. Universidad de Quintana Roo
51. Universidad del Centro de Estudios Superiores de Cortázar
52. Universidad del Centro de México
53. Universidad del Claustro de Sor Juana, A. C.
54. Universidad del Noreste, A. C.
55. Universidad Estatal de Sonora
56. Universidad Hipócrates
57. Universidad Iberoamericana León
58. Universidad Internacional
59. Universidad Interserrana del Estado de Puebla Ahuacatlan
60. Universidad Juárez del Estado de Durango
61. Universidad Kino, A. C.
62. Universidad La Salle Chihuahua
63. Universidad La Salle Pachuca
64. Universidad La Salle Victoria
65. Universidad La Salle, A. C.

66. Universidad Latinoamericana
67. Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
68. Universidad Panamericana Guadalajara
69. Universidad Panamericana Ciudad de México
70. Universidad Politécnica de Aguascalientes
71. Universidad Politécnica de Chihuahua
72. Universidad Politécnica de Francisco I. Madero
73. Universidad Politécnica de Juventino Rosas
74. Universidad Politécnica de la Región Ribereña
75. Universidad Politécnica de la Zona Metropolitana de Guadalajara
76. Universidad Politécnica de Lázaro Cárdenas Michoacán
77. Universidad Politécnica de Sinaloa
78. Universidad Politécnica de Tapachula
79. Universidad Politécnica del Estado de Guerrero
80. Universidad Politécnica del Estado de Morelos
81. Universidad Popular Autónoma del Estado de Puebla
82. Universidad Regiomontana, A. C.
83. Universidad Tecnológica de Altamira
84. Universidad Tecnológica de Chetumal
85. Universidad Tecnológica de Escuinapa
86. Universidad Tecnológica de Guaymas
87. Universidad Tecnológica de Jalisco
88. Universidad Tecnológica de La Babícora
89. Universidad Tecnológica de La Babícora Unidad Académica Madera
90. Universidad Tecnológica de la Zona Metropolitana de Guadalajara
91. Universidad Tecnológica de León
92. Universidad Tecnológica de Manzanillo
93. Universidad Tecnológica de Querétaro
94. Universidad Tecnológica de Salamanca
95. Universidad Tecnológica de Tabasco
96. Universidad Tecnológica de Tula-Tepeji
97. Universidad Tecnológica del Norte de Aguascalientes
98. Universidad Tecnológica del Poniente
99. Universidad Tecnológica del Sur de Sonora
100. Universidad Tecnológica del Sur del Estado de Morelos
101. Universidad Tecnológica del Suroeste de Guanajuato
102. Universidad Tecnológica El Retoño
103. Universidad Vasco de Quiroga
104. Universidad Veracruzana
105. Universidad Virtual del Estado de Guanajuato

## **Nicaragua**

1. Universidad Católica Redemptoris Mater
2. Universidad Nacional Agraria
3. Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Nicaragua, Managua
4. Universidad Tecnológica La Salle

## **Panama**

1. Universidad Autónoma de Chiriqui
2. Universidad de Santander
3. Universidad Especializada de las Américas
4. Universidad Tecnológica de Panamá

## **Paraguay**

1. Universidad Central del Paraguay
2. Universidad Nacional de Asunción
3. Universidad Nacional de Itapúa

## **Peru**

1. Instituto de Educación Superior Pedagógico Público “Víctor Andrés Belaunde” de Jaén
2. Instituto de Educación Superior Tecnológico Público “Argentina”
3. Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú
4. Universidad Católica Los Ángeles de Chimbote
5. Universidad Científica del Perú
6. Universidad Femenina del Sagrado Corazón
7. Universidad Nacional de Jaén
8. Universidad Nacional de Juliaca
9. Universidad Nacional de San Cristóbal de Huamanga
10. Universidad Nacional de San Martín
11. Universidad Nacional José Faustino Sánchez Carrión
12. Universidad Nacional Mayor de San Marcos
13. Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia
14. Universidad Privada Antenor Orrego
15. Universidad Privada de Tacna
16. Universidad Ricardo Palma
17. Universidad Señor de Sipán

## **Puerto Rico**

1. Universidad de Puerto Rico en Aguadilla
2. Universidad de Puerto Rico en Bayamón
3. Universidad de Puerto Rico recinto Arecibo

## **Trinidad and Tobago**

1. University of Trinidad and Tobago
2. University of the West Indies, Trinidad y Tobago

## **Uruguay**

1. Universidad de la República
2. Universidad Católica del Uruguay Dámaso Antonio Larrañaga

## **Venezuela**

1. Asociación Cooperativa Coopmultimedios
2. Centro de Investigación Educativa Fundacrecer Monagas
3. Colegio Universitario Hotel Escuela de los Andes Venezolanos
4. Universidad del Zulia
5. Universidad Pedagógica Experimental Libertador

### **3. COMPLETE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE**

#### **1ST REGIONAL SURVEY OF INTERNATIONALIZATION TRENDS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN**

##### **A) RESPONDENT'S IDENTIFICATION**

Name  
Surname  
Telephone  
Email

##### **B) INSTITUTIONAL INFORMATION AND PROFILE**

- 1.
- 2.

Official name of the institution

Country

What educational levels does the institution offer? (Select all levels that apply)

University upper technical (AA/AS)

Bachelor's Degree (BA/BSc, 1st cycle)

Master's Degree (2nd cycle)

PhD (3rd cycle)

4. Of the following options, which best describes your institution? (Select one option)
- Public
  - Private/for-profit
  - Private/non-profit
5. Which option best describes your institution's focus? (Select one)
- Focused fundamentally on research
  - Focused fundamentally on teaching
  - Focused on teaching and research
6. How many academics does your institution have (professors and researchers)?
7. What was your tertiary education (only) enrollment for the 2014-2015 academic year? (If you had no enrollment at a given educational level, indicate "0".)

	NUMBER
<b>UNIVERSITY UPPER TECHNICAL (AA/AS)</b>	
<b>BACHELOR'S DEGREE (BA/BSC, 1ST CYCLE)</b>	
<b>MASTER'S DEGREE (2ND CYCLE)</b>	
<b>PhD (3RD CYCLE)</b>	

8. Does your institution have a campus abroad? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No

9. Does your institution belong to a corporation or business group engaged in tertiary education? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
10. Indicate the name of the corporation or business group that you belong to.

**C) MISSION AND INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

11. Is internationalization mentioned in the mission statement and/or strategic plan/institutional development plan? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
12. In your opinion, what level of importance do the authorities of your institution give to internationalization? (Select one answer)
- Very important
  - Important
  - Not important
  - Unknown

**D) STRATEGIC INTERNATIONALIZATION PLAN**

13. Has an institutional internationalization plan been formulated, with strategies, objectives and goals? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - In process
  - No
14. Does each academic unit have its own internationalization plan, with strategies, objectives and goals? (Select one answer)
- Yes, all academic units
  - Yes, some academic units
  - In process
  - No
  - Unknown

**E) INTERNATIONALIZATION OFFICE**

15. Does your institution have liaison or internationalization offices abroad? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No

16. Does your institution have an internationalization office at your institution? (Select one answer)
  - Yes
  - No
17. On what tier is your institution's internationalization office situated? (Select one answer)
  - First tier of the institutional hierarchy (Vice President/Vice Rector/ General Secretary/Administrative Secretary/General Coordinator)
  - Second tier (subordinate to the first level of the institutional hierarchy)
  - Third tier (subordinate to the second level of the institutional hierarchy)
  - Other (specify)
18. How many people work in the internationalization office?
19. Indicate the sex of the person in charge of the internationalization office.
  - Female
  - Male
20. Indicate the level of studies of the person in charge of the internationalization office.
  - Bachelor's Degree
  - Master's Degree
  - PhD
  - Other (specify)
21. How long has the current head of the internationalization office held the position?
22. Does the head of the internationalization office perform academic functions, or has s/he done so? (Select one answer)
  - Yes
  - No
  - Unknown
23. Select the activities in which your institution's internationalization office is involved (Select all that apply)
  - Student mobility
  - Faculty mobility
  - Internationalization of the curriculum
  - Management and funding of international research projects
  - Recruitment of tuition-paying foreign students
  - Offering educational programs abroad
  - Offering local language courses for foreigners
  - Teaching distance or online programs for foreign students
  - Development of joint or dual programs with foreign institutions

- Participation in international cooperation programs for development
  - Others (specify)
24. Does the internationalization office have an exclusive web page? (Select one answer)
- Yes, only in the local language
  - Yes, in the local language and in English
  - Yes, in the local language, in English and in a third language
  - No
25. Please provide an organizational chart of your institution's internationalization office (as attachment to your email message)
26. Does the internationalization office have an operating budget? (Select one answer)
- Yes, at the institutional level
  - Yes, at the level of the internationalization office
  - Yes, both levels
  - No
  - Unknown
27. What is your annual operating budget? (In US dollars (usd). If you do not know the amount, enter "0")
28. Does your institution have resources to implement internationalization activities? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
29. Select the three main sources of resources for implementing internationalization activities at your institution (where 1 is the most important source)
- Institutional budget
  - Revenue from tuition paid by foreign students
  - Revenue from other internationalization activities (sale of services, organization of courses, etc.)
  - External public funding, including subsidies and/or programs
  - Funding from private international organizations and funds
  - Private national funds
  - Other sources (specify)
30. Are there people in charge of internationalization in the academic units? (Select one answer)
- Yes, in some
  - Yes, in all
  - No
  - Unknown

31. What international academic cooperation associations does your institution and/or its authorities belong to? (Select all options that apply)
- Organización Universitaria Interamericana (OUI)
  - Unión de Universidades de América Latina (UDUAL)
  - Association of International Educators (NAFSA)
  - European Association of International Education (EAIE)
  - Asia-Pacific Association of International Education (APAIE)
  - International Association of Universities (IAU)
  - International Association of University Presidents (IAUP)
  - Academic Cooperation Association (ACA)
  - Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI)
  - Asociación de Universidades Grupo Montevideo (AUGM)
  - Consortium for North American Higher Education Collaboration (CONAHEC)
  - Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU)
  - None
  - Others (specify)
32. Does your institution participate in international education fairs and events abroad? (Select all options that apply)
- NAFSA with *stand*
  - NAFSA without *stand*
  - EAIE with *stand*
  - EAIE without *stand*
  - APAIE with *stand*
  - APAIE without *stand*
  - No
  - Others (specify)

#### **F) LANGUAGE TEACHING POLICY**

33. Does your institution have an institutional language teaching policy?  
(Select one answer)
- a. Yes
  - b. No
  - c. Unknown
34. Is foreign language proficiency an admission/graduation requirement for your educational programs? (Select one answer)
- a. Yes, for all educational programs
  - b. Yes, for some educational programs
  - c. No

d. Unknown

35. Are languages a mandatory course within your institution's study plans?  
(Select one answer)
- Yes, for all educational programs
  - Yes, for some educational programs
  - No
36. Does your institution have specialized centers for teaching the local language to foreigners? (Select one answer)
- Yes, as an entity that is independent from the internationalization office
  - Yes, as part of the internationalization office
  - No

### **G) ACADEMIC COLLABORATION AGREEMENTS**

37. Select the five most important regions for internationalization (where 1 is the most important region)
- Africa \_\_\_\_\_
  - Asia \_\_\_\_\_
  - Western Europe \_\_\_\_\_
  - Eastern Europe \_\_\_\_\_
  - Latin America and the Caribbean \_\_\_\_\_
  - Middle East \_\_\_\_\_
  - North America (except Mexico) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Oceania \_\_\_\_\_
38. Within the Latin American region, what are the three top-priority geographical areas for your institution's internationalization? (where 1 is the highest-priority subregion)
- Mexico \_\_\_\_\_
  - Central America (Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua y Panama) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Andean Zone (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru & Venezuela) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Southern Cone (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay & Uruguay) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Caribbean (Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Granada, Guyana, French Guiana, Haiti, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, St. Kitts and Nieves, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, St. Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago) \_\_\_\_\_

39. Indicate the number of your institution's current academic collaboration agreements by region (do not count agreements with institutions from your own country. If you have no agreements with a certain region, enter "0")

<b>AFRICA</b>	
<b>ASIA</b>	
<b>WESTERN EUROPE</b>	
<b>EASTERN EUROPE</b>	
<b>LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN</b>	
<b>MEXICO</b>	
<b>CENTRAL AMERICA (BELIZE, COSTARICA, EL SALVADOR, GUATEMALA, HONDURAS, NICARAGUA AND PANAMA)</b>	
<b>ANDEAN ZONE (BOLIVIA, COLOMBIA, ECUADOR, PERU &amp; VENEZUELA)</b>	
<b>SOUTHERN CONE (ARGENTINA, BRAZIL, CHILE, PARAGUAY &amp; URUGUAY)</b>	
<b>CARIBBEAN (ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA, BARBADOS, CUBA, DOMINICA, GRANADA, GUYANA, FRENCH GUIANA, HAITI, JAMAICA, BAHAMAS, PUERTO RICO, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, ST. KITTS AND NEVIS, ST. VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES, ST. LUCIA, TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO)</b>	
<b>MIDDLE EAST</b>	
<b>NORTH AMERICA (EXCEPT MEXICO)</b>	
<b>OCEANIA</b>	

40. Mention the five countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, in order of importance, with which your institution has the most international collaboration agreements (excluding your own country)

#### **H) INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM**

41. Does your institution have an institutional policy for the internationalization of the curriculum? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
  - Unknown
42. From the following list, identify the activities that your institution undertakes to internationalize the curriculum (select all options that apply)
- Outbound student mobility
  - Inbound student mobility
  - Foreign guest professors

- Courses on other cultures
  - Programs/courses taught in a language other than the local one
  - Co-advisories
  - Courses taught in collaboration with foreign institutions
  - Others (specify)
  - None
43. Is your institution involved in offering higher education abroad? (Select one answer)
- Yes, courses that do not lead to a degree (continuing education, certification courses, etc.)
  - Yes, complete academic programs
  - Yes, both
  - Yes, other types of programs
  - No
  - Specify the types of programs:
44. Does your institution offer massive open online courses (MOOCs)? (Select one answer)
- Yes, with curricular value
  - Yes, without curricular value
  - No
  - Unknown
45. Does your institution offer joint and/or dual-degree programs with foreign institutions? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
46. How many joint and/or dual-degree programs does your institution offer and at what educational levels? (Indicate the number of programs at each educational level)
47. With which countries has your institution set up joint and/or dual-degree programs? (Use as many lines as necessary)
48. In what disciplinary or professional areas does your institution offer joint and/or dual-degree programs with foreign institutions? (Select all the options that apply)

	<b>JOINT-DEGREE PROGRAMS</b>	<b>DUAL-DEGREE PROGRAMS</b>
<b>NATURAL SCIENCES</b>		
<b>ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY</b>		
<b>MEDICAL SCIENCES</b>		
<b>AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES</b>		
<b>SOCIAL SCIENCES</b>		
<b>HUMANITIES</b>		

49. List in order of importance the most important institutional obstacles to the internationalization of the curriculum (where 1 is the most important obstacle)
- Indifference or lack of information of academic personnel \_\_\_\_\_
  - Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties (e.g., impossibility to transfer credits, differences in academic calendars, inflexible rules, etc.)
  
  - Inflexible curriculum \_\_\_\_\_
  - Lack of policy \_\_\_\_\_
  - Other obstacles (specify)

#### **I) INTERNATIONALIZATION OF RESEARCH**

50. How many academics from your institution engaged in academic activities abroad in the 2014-2015 academic year?
51. How many foreign academics did your institution host in the 2014-2015 academic year?
52. Mention, in order of importance, the five countries of the world with the most inbound and outbound mobility of academics (excluding your own country)
53. Mention, in order of importance, the three countries in Latin America and the Caribbean with the most inbound and outbound mobility of academics (excluding your own country)
54. Does your institution have information on the number of its academics who have earned an academic degree abroad?
- Yes
  - No
  - Unknown
55. Indicate the number of academics who have earned an academic degree abroad
56. Does your institution have a program or mechanisms to promote the publication of scientific articles in indexed journals?
- Yes
  - No
  - Unknown
57. Indicate the number of publications by your academic personnel in international journals in the 2014-2015 academic year

58. Indicate the number of international patents obtained by your academic personnel in the last five years
59. Does your institution have a scholarship or economic support program for faculty mobility? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
60. At your institution, is international experience considered for the hiring, promotion and contract renewal of academic personnel? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
61. Does your institution have a scheme of international sabbaticals for academic personnel? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
  - Unknown
62. Is there an institutional program of funding for international research projects? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
  - Unknown
63. What are the three most important obstacles to the internationalization of research (where 1 is the most important obstacle)?
- Lack of funding \_\_\_\_\_
  - Low level of interest or participation of academic personnel \_\_\_\_\_
  - Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties (e.g., resource management, lack of support personnel, difficulties in managing agreements, lack of technical equipment) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Lack of language proficiency among our institution's faculty \_
  - Inexperience, lack of knowledge or international profile among academics
  - Other obstacles (specify)

## J) STUDENT MOBILITY

64. What modalities of international mobility does your institution promote?  
(Select all options that apply)

- Taking courses
- Research stays
- Professional internships
- Volunteer work
- Medical rotations
- Language courses
- Summer schools
- Academic trips
- Graduate study scholarships
- Other (specify)

65. Are students prepared for an international academic experience (information events, training in intercultural communication, pre-departure orientations, language reinforcement courses, etc.)?

- Yes, for some mobility students
- Yes, for all mobility students
- No

66. Indicate the five most important regions, according to demand, for inbound student mobility (drag the buttons to the box to order the options, where 1 is the region in the highest demand)

- Africa \_\_\_\_\_
- Asia \_\_\_\_\_
- Western Europe \_\_\_\_\_
- Eastern Europe \_\_\_\_\_
- Latin America and the Caribbean \_\_\_\_\_
- Middle East \_\_\_\_\_
- North America (except Mexico) \_\_\_\_\_
- Oceania \_\_\_\_\_
- Your own country \_\_\_\_\_

67. Indicate the five most important regions, according to demand, for outbound student mobility (where 1 is the region in the highest demand)

- Africa \_\_\_\_\_
- Asia \_\_\_\_\_
- Western Europe \_\_\_\_\_
- Eastern Europe \_\_\_\_\_
- Latin America and the Caribbean \_\_\_\_\_
- Middle East \_\_\_\_\_

- North America (except Mexico) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Oceania \_\_\_\_\_
  - Your own country \_\_\_\_\_
68. Indicate the most popular subregion(s) in Latin America and the Caribbean for inbound and outbound student mobility (select all the options that apply)
- Mexico
  - Central America (Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama)
  - Andean Zone (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela)
  - Southern Cone (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay)
  - Caribbean (Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Granada, Guyana, French Guiana, Haiti, Jamaica, Bahamas, Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, St. Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago)
  - None
69. Does your institution have a scholarship or economic support program for student mobility? (Select one answer)
- Yes, partial scholarship/support
  - Yes, complete scholarship/support
  - Yes, both
  - No
70. Does your institution have virtual mobility programs for students? (Select one answer)
- Yes
  - No
71. Indicate the number of students engages in inbound and outbound mobility in the 2014-2015 academic year (indicate the number at each level)
72. Mention, in order of importance, the five countries in the world with the most inbound and outbound student mobility (excluding your own country)
73. Mention, in order of importance, the three countries in Latin America and the Caribbean with the most inbound and outbound student mobility (excluding your own country)
74. Indicate the number of foreign students enrolled at your institution in the 2014-2015 academic year who are pursuing a degree (indicate the number at each educational level)
75. What are the five main institutional obstacles to student mobility? (where 1 is the most important obstacle)

- Low level of student interest or participation \_\_\_\_\_
- Academics discourage mobility or make it difficult \_\_\_\_\_
- Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties (e.g., impossibility to transfer credits, differences in academic calendars)
- Lack of language proficiency among our institution's students \_\_\_\_\_
- Inflexible curriculum \_\_\_\_\_
- Limited number of agreements and spaces \_\_\_\_\_
- Students' family and/or job commitments
- Other obstacles (specify)

#### **K) PERFORMANCE EVALUATION AND INDICATORS**

76. Does your institution have an evaluation system and indicators for the internationalization process? (Select one answer)

- Yes
- In process
- No
- Unknown

77. Does your institution have a program to evaluate the results of faculty mobility? (Select one answer)

- Yes
- No
- Unknown

78. Does your institution have a program to evaluate the results of student mobility? (Select one answer)

- Yes
- No

#### **L) BENEFITS AND RISKS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION**

79. Indicate, in order of importance, the benefits of internationalization for your institution (drag the buttons to the box to order to options, where 1 is the most important benefit)

- Develop students' international profile \_\_\_\_\_
- Strengthen the internationalization of the curriculum \_\_\_\_\_
- Improve the academic quality of the educational programs \_\_\_\_\_
- Strengthen research and knowledge production \_\_\_\_\_
- Enhance the institution's international prestige/profile
- Increase and diversify income \_\_\_\_\_
- Other benefits (specify)

80. Order, by importance, the risks of internationalization for your institution (where 1 is the most important risk)
- International opportunities favor affluent students\_\_\_\_
  - Unequal benefits between partners \_\_\_\_\_
  - Prevalence of center-periphery paradigm \_\_\_\_\_
  - Overemphasis on internationalization at the expense of other priorities \_\_\_\_\_
  - Excessive competition among institutions \_\_\_\_\_
  - Benefits accrue mostly to an academic elite (full-time and international experience) \_\_\_\_\_
  - Other risks (specify)
81. Order, by importance, the main risks of internationalization for your country (where 1 is the most important risk)
- Brain drain \_\_\_\_\_
  - Increase in inequality among institutions from the same country
  - Increase in social inequality \_\_\_\_\_
  - Loss of cultural identity \_\_\_\_\_
  - Commercialization of education \_\_\_\_\_
  - Other risks (specify)
82. Order, by importance, the external factors that encourage the internationalization of your institution (where 1 is the most important external factor)
- Governmental policy (national/state/provincial/municipal)
  - Regional policies (ej.: Mercosur, Pacific Alliance, etc.)
  - Productive sector demand \_\_\_\_\_
  - Search for alternative sources of funding \_\_\_\_\_
  - Availability of international cooperation \_\_\_\_\_
  - University rankings \_\_\_\_\_
  - Other external factors (specify)
83. What are the five main institutional obstacles to internationalization? (where 1 is the most important institutional obstacle)
- Insufficient information on international opportunities
  - Insufficient funding \_\_\_\_\_
  - Limited institutional leadership/vision \_\_\_\_\_
  - Lack of strategy or plan to guide the process \_\_\_\_\_
  - Lack of organizational structure/an office in charge of internationalization \_\_\_\_\_
  - Low level of interest or participation among students \_\_\_\_\_

- Low level of interest or participation among academic personnel\_\_
- Administrative or bureaucratic difficulties (e.g, impossibility to transfer credits, differences in academic calendars) \_\_\_\_\_
- Lack of language proficiency among our institution's students and faculty \_\_\_\_\_
- Other institutional obstacles (specify)

84. Order, by importance, the most important external obstacles to internationalization at your institution (where 1 is the most important external obstacle)

- Visa restrictions imposed by our country on foreign students and academics\_\_\_\_\_
- Visa restrictions imposed on our students and academics by other countries\_\_\_\_\_
- Difficulty in recognizing studies and transferring academic credits\_\_\_\_
- Difficulty in finding foreign partners \_\_\_\_\_
- Limited public funding for internationalization

- Lack of national policies and programs that support internationalization \_\_
- Other external obstacles (specify)

85. What is your institution's position with regard to global university rankings (Select one answer)

- They are a very important reference for institutional decision-making
- The indicators used are not an accurate description of the regional reality
- They are of no interest to my institution
- Unknown
- Other (specify)

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AND THE CARIBBEAN. AN  
ASSESSMENT*

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**I**nternationalization is one of the leading trends in tertiary education around the world, as it adapts to meet the needs of a global, multicultural and highly competitive society. In Latin America and the Caribbean, internationalization has been undertaken without systematic information about its process of implementation. The results of the *1st Regional Survey of Internationalization Trends in Tertiary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean*, which are presented in this book, address this need by offering a regional overview that identifies the trends, strengths, risks, obstacles and limitations of the internationalization process in the region.

JOCELYNE GACEL-ÁVILA

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