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Review

Teaching and Learning on the Move: Israeli and Global Higher Education Policies and Trends

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Abstract

The twenty-first century has so far been marked by growing international alliances in academic teaching and learning. This trend toward internationalization is manifest in most higher education systems in the western world in a variety of ways. In this article we address several aspects of undergraduate students' mobility, or more specifically, mobility of students unrelated to research contexts. In contrast to the past, when non-research degrees tended to have a local or national nature, academic mobility is currently required in many professional and more general undergraduate degrees. There is a massive flow of undergraduate students who study outside their home countries in a broad range of international study programs, and large numbers of academic faculty who teach overseas. Academic mobility has reached unprecedented levels, growing from close to 50,000 individuals worldwide in the 1950s to 5 million in the 2000s. The internationalization and convergence of knowledge affect universities and their staff everywhere. In this article we review current trends and policies that enable and promote such mobility in Europe, the United States, and Australia, and examine mobility in Israel. Finally we discuss the challenges and risks of undergraduate academic mobility.

Keywords: Foreign exchange programs, Globalization, Higher education, Internationalization, Israel, Mobility

INTRODUCTION

Since the mid-twentieth century, the higher education system has been the subject of many changes including massification (Altbach, 2007; Teichler, 2009: Trow, 1973), the rise of the knowledge society (Bridges, Juceviciene, Jucevicius, Mclaughlin and Stankeviciute, 2014), demographic developments, economic growth and globalization (Enders, 2004), and increased global competition (Dobbins and Knill, 2014; Dobbins et al., 2011; Solanke, 2011), all of which have changed the face of higher education. The twenty-first century is already marked by growth in the international component of higher education, a trend known as internationalization, which involves an increase in the cross-border geographic spread of activities (Knight, 2008; Kreber, 2009; Teichler, 2009). In higher education systems, internationalization is manifest in the launch and assimilation of a variety of programs and policy styles of an international nature, such as foreign student exchange programs, establishment of academic extensions of academic institutions in foreign countries, English-language programs and degrees, programs for foreign students, and involvement in inter-institutional alliances and collaborations.

The research literature mainly tends to view internationalization as the higher education system's response to globalization (Altbach and Knight, 2007; Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, 2009; Cudmore, 2005; McCabe, 2001; Knight, 2008; Knight and De Wit, 1995;

Qiang, 2003), which has shaped and affected our reality through the global economy, information and communication technologies, the English language, and other forces that are beyond the control of academic institutions (Altbach et al., 2009). According to this view, globalization deeply affected the higher education system by compelling it to adopt an international approach in order to meet the requirements of the new world and prepare students to function in a global reality (Altbach et al., 2009; Enders, 2004; Hunter, White and Godbey, 2006). It has been argued that globalization and internationalization are indivisible, and one cannot be said to be an antecedent or outcome of the other. On this view, these forces are connected (Brandenburg and de Wit, 2011), and together constitute "the economic, political, and societal forces pushing twenty-century higher education towards greater international involvement" (Altbach and Knight, 2007, p. 290).

Whether we choose to address these forces separately or jointly, it is undeniable that globalization and internationalization are manifest in most higher education systems in the western world. Despite the different expressions in local, regional, and national contexts, it is possible to identify several shared trends. These include the rise in the significance of collaborative research; curriculum development and teaching and learning approaches of an international nature; an increase in the interconnectedness of the higher education corporation around the world (Ramirez, 2014); and mobility of people, programs, and institutions all over the world (Altbach et al., 2009). Of these diverse manifestations, in this paper we focus on mobility in undergraduate programs, that is, mobility that is unrelated to research projects or agendas. The research element in academia has also become mainly international in nature (Pherali, 2012), but while research was essentially a cross-border phenomenon in previous centuries (for a historic review see Knight and De Wit, 1995), non-research degrees have until recently tended to be local and national in nature. Today, academic mobility is the crowning glory of professional and general-knowledge degree programs as well. There is a massive flow of undergraduate students who study outside their home country (Brooks and Waters, 2009; Findlay, King, Smith, Geddes and Skeldon, 2012; Li and Bray, 2007), there is a broad range of international programs, and a large number of academic scholars teach overseas (Altbach et al., 2009; Bodycott and Walker, 2000; Pherali, 2012). Mobility in academia has reached an unprecedented scale – from 50,000 in the 1950s to close to 5 million in the 2000s (Bhandari and Blumenthal, 2013; Wells, 2014). Mobility and knowledge converge to affect the universities and their staff everywhere (Streitwieser, 2014). The current article reviews current trends in students' mobility and the policies that enable and promote such mobility, and right justification examines Israel's role in this global phenomenon in order to offer several conclusions.

Patterns in mobility in higher education – The statistics

The mobility of students and scholars in the academia has been a feature of higher education since the middle ages (Kim, 2009; Knight and De Wit, 1995) but it was only in the late 1990s that the number of students studying outside their home country grew exponentially (see Figure 1). For example, in 2000, there were 1.8 million international students in the world. This number increased to 2.8 million by 2007, and according to UNESCO, passed the 4.5 million mark in 2010 (OECD, 2013). The number of international students varies from place to place: In some areas, such as Europe and the United States, student mobility has become a key issue for higher education. In high-demand areas (see Figure 2), foreign students may account for up to one-fifth of the student population. Students' mobility is also accompanied by a significant rate of academic scholars who relocate for brief or extended periods to teach in institutions outside their home country (Pherali, 2002). Collaborations involving institutions, international scholarship and fellowship programs, increase the mobility of academic scholars who teach and conduct research outside their home country. In some cases, institutions in rich countries recruit instructors from poorer and less stable countries and offer them superior conditions for research and teaching (creating a situation known as "brain drain") (Altbach et al., 2009).

Mobility in academia is not limited to students and faculty: It also involves programs and institutions that operate in the international arena (Kehm and Teichler, 2007). Since the 2000s, a significant increase is evident in the number of extensions of parent institutions from western countries that operate in countries such as Dubai, Qatar, Singapore, and China (Dirlik, 2012). There is a broad range of inter-institutional cooperation agreements such as the agreement between the University of Nottingham in the UK and the Zhejiang Wanli Education Group University in China, which enables the operation of the Nottingham-Ningbo University in China. There are also isolated programs or focused study disciplines that institutions make available overseas, jointly by two or several collaborating institutions. The mobility and international flow of students is typically from the southern to the northern hemisphere and from east to west (Agarwal, Saidm, Sehoole, Sirozim and de Wit, 2007), while academic extensions and collaborative alliances proceed in the opposite direction. One reflection of this is the fact that almost one-half of all international students study in

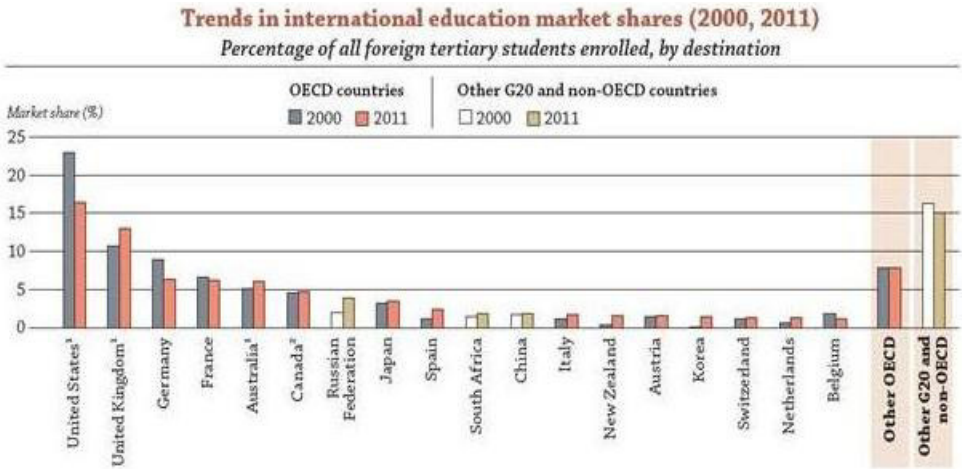

Figure 1. Percentage of international students registered in higher education institutions by country

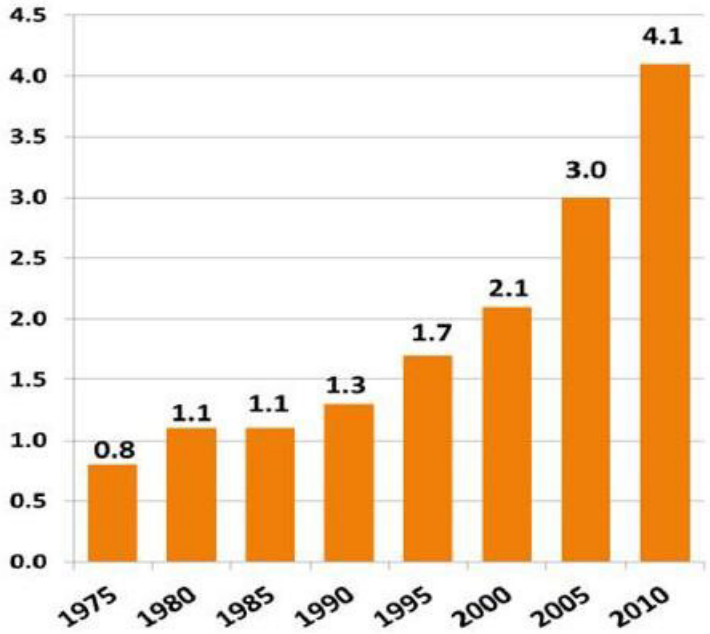

Figure 2. Increase in the number of students 1975-2010 (in millions). Source: Kritz, 2012.

the west, with 17% of the international students in the world studying in the United States (Altbach, 2004a), closely followed by the UK (with 13%), and Australia (6%), Germany (6%), and France (6%) (see Figure 3). Moreover, most international students prefer to study in English-speaking countries, which is reflected in the fact that three English-speaking countries — the United States, Australia, and the UK — control 36% of the market of international students.

Home countries of international students are mainly China, India, and Korea. Asian students account for 53% of all international students while European students account for 23% of all international students in the world, and these are mainly students from EU countries that are also OECD countries (OECD, 2010). Students from Africa account for an additional 12% of the world's foreign students, and students from the rest of the world account for the final 12%. This situation raises the question of why some countries attract more foreign students than other countries, and which strategies and decisions make it possible for a country to attract so many foreign students (see Figure 4). We also ask how those countries

Figure 3. Top 10 study destinations. Source: QS, 2014.

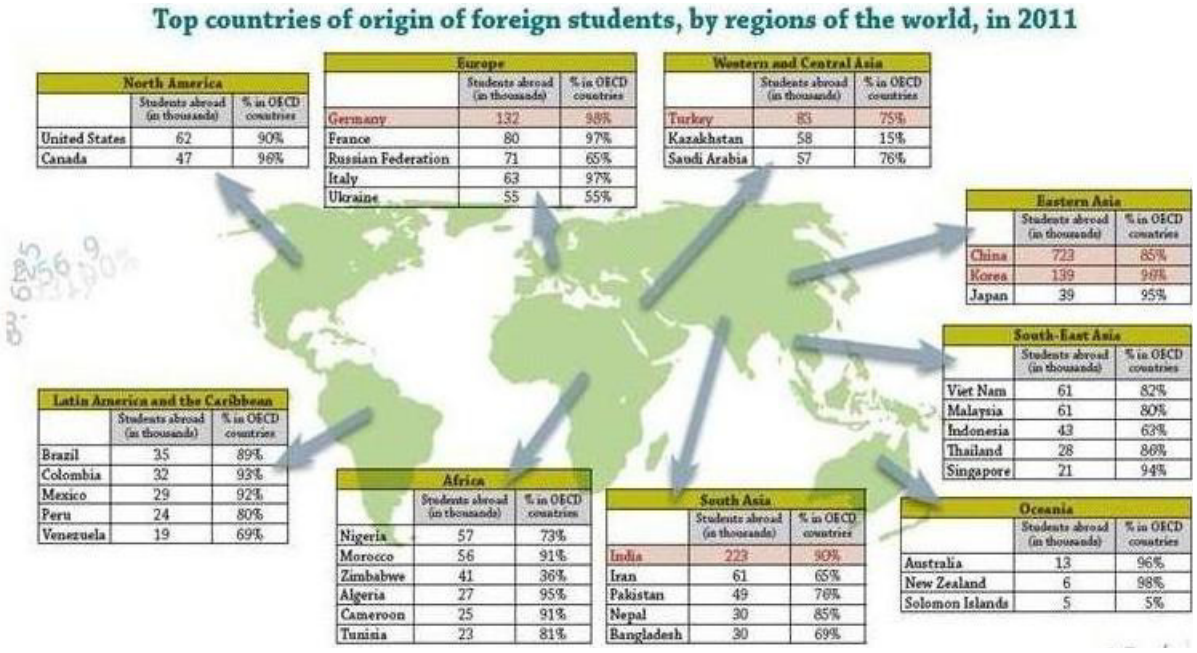

Figure 4. Top countries of origin of foreign students. Source: regions of the world, 2011.

encourage outward mobility, that is, how they encourage their own local students to study abroad for a semester or more.

Student mobility policy

Mobility is a focal theme in higher education policy in

Europe. In the late 1990s, European countries proclaimed their desire to extend the joint economic and industrial transnational space to the field of higher education as well. The overarching goal in creating such a space was to increase citizens' mobility and employability in a manner that strengthens the entire continent. In 1999, these ideas were institutionalized in a process known as the Bologna Declaration, which established the foundation for inter-state cooperation and the creation of the EHEA (European Higher Education Area). The Bologna process defined increased mobility of students, citizens, researchers, instructors, and administrative staff as its main goal. The Declaration stresses the need to make mobility the hallmark of the EHEA (van der Hijden, 2012). That year, 29 European countries signed the Declaration, and today 47 countries are signatories (CHE website, 2015).

The Bologna process introduced several changes in the target policy in order to enable academic mobility and establish uniform standards in higher education systems. The first step was the unification of qualification programs ("Overarching Framework of Qualification of the EHEA") in a manner that created a uniform set of three circles: bachelor degrees, master's degrees, and doctorate degrees. In the second phase, the CETS (European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System) was established such that each student can accumulate credits toward a degree in any academic institution of his or her choice. Credits are transferred to the student's parent institution and are recognized as part of the degree that the institution awards. This accumulation system allows students to move among institutions, experience learning in different places and become familiar with a variety of learning environments (Yamini and Ben Artzi, 2013). In addition, the system shifted to a system of comparable degrees (also known as the Bologna Appendix) in order to encourage competitiveness and employability and to develop relevant dimensions of higher education in Europe that encourage mobility in general, and specifically mobility of programs, inter-institutional collaborations, training, and research (Bologna Declaration, 1999).

The EU launched a flagship mobility-promotion program (Baron, 1993; Enders, 1998), including Erasmus (European Community Action Scheme), a scheme initiated in the early 1990s to promote cooperation, mobility, excellence, and competitiveness in EU countries. In 2004, Erasmus was extended as an international format under Erasmus Mundi, which currently includes advanced degree programs, scholarships, collaborations with foreign countries and institutions, and elements designed to bolster competitiveness. The program is open to all countries and organizations in the world (Student Union Report, 2010). Another program to reinforce mobility is Tempus (the Trans-European Mobility Scheme for University Studies), which is designed to strengthen ties with neighboring countries, including Eastern Europe, the western Balkans, Central Asia, and the Middle East. Tempus operates in three main areas: joint educational projects (JEPs) based on collaborations among institutions from the EU and from foreign countries; complementary structural measures (short-term projects to support policy reforms in the field of higher education), and individual grants awarded to faculty members for training and participation in professional and academic conferences (Student Union Report, 2010). Most researchers concur that the Bologna process, and especially its flagship programs (Huisman and van der Wende, 2004) achieved its aim of increasing academic mobility of Europeans (Baron, 1993; Enders, 1998; González, Mesanza and Mariel, 2011). In addition, standardization of higher education facilitated an improvement in academic learning, inter-cultural affinity, and knowledge transfers (Yamini and Ben Artzi, 2013). An expression of the success of the Bologna Process is the enormous growth in the number of foreign students who attended institutions in 32 European states since the process was launched: from 827,000 in 1999 to 1,507,000 in 2007 (Wächter and Ferencz, 2012).

The system of governance in higher education in Europe, which is informed by the Humboldtian and Napoleonic tradition (Dobbins et al., 2011), facilitated a significant and relatively rapid change. The states traditionally influenced the institutions of higher learning and their management, and placing mobility at the head of the continent's agenda by education policy leaders facilitated a top-down reform (Kozma, 2008).The Bologna process was the "opening shot" for a new era in higher education mobility. Opening borders and removing barriers in higher education in Europe forced other countries to meet the same standards and increase mobility and attract foreign students in order to remain relevant. However, due to differences in governance styles, program implementation varies and depends on the dominant values of each society. In the United States, where higher education institutions operate as for-profit companies and the state refrains from intervening, the change is more of a bottom-up process.

United States

Higher education institutions in the United States are involved in a broad range of initiatives and collaborations to offer cross-border programs and courses designed to attract foreign students. In contrast to the situation in Europe, these efforts are not directed by federal or state policy, but are rather initiatives of colleges, universities, and private institutions. Recruiting foreign students to undergraduate programs significantly increases an institution's budget as well as its prestige (Dirlik, 2012).

Institutions throughout the country compete fiercely for these students. Some states have adopted policy reforms that are imposed on public universities in order to increase the number of foreign students. For example, Colorado amended a law that limited the number of foreign students to one-third of the students in any institution, and this enabled a 23% leap in the number of foreign students enrolled in the state in a single year (Choudaha and Chang, 2012). Today, the most sought-after destinations in the US for foreign students are California, New York, Illinois, Washington DC, and Massachusetts.

Another element designed to increase mobility that was first launched in the United States was a program of free massive open online courses (MOOCs; Glance, 2013). These courses were first launched by Stanford University in 2011 through for-profit corporations such as Coursera and Udacity, and are currently offered by numerous prestigious universities including MIT, Princeton, Yale, and Harvard. Students' work is typically evaluated through multiple-choice questions on online software platforms, and students who successfully complete a course are awarded a certificate (Streitweiser, 2014). Although these courses are tuition free, the corporations generate revenues in diverse ways, such as through fees charged for exams and academic credits.

Management of higher education institutions is dominated by the market force model. This model, grounded in the capitalist approach, assumes that competition and free markets are the means for maximizing efficiency. Therefore universities compete for students and financial resources. According to this economic worldview, foreign students are yet another significant source for increasing the revenues of academic institutions. Foreign students contribute to increased revenues first and foremost through the tuition they pay. For example, in 2011, a 50% increase in the number of foreign students enrolled at Berkley University in California generated an additional USD 18 million in tuition revenues for the University over a four-year period. Second, foreign students contribute to institutions by adding to their prestige, as the proportion of foreign students is one of the elements that make up international rankings (Findlay et al., 2011). For example, for an institution to be considered a world-class university (Deem et al., 2008), at least 30% of the students and 30% of the faculty must be foreign. World ranking has become a significant element of students' attraction (Marginson, 2007a) and it gives institutions a competitive advantage in the saturated higher education market. In contrast to the past, when global rankings were of marginal importance, evidence shows that this cross-border means of comparison, despite its shortcomings, currently has a powerful impact on students and their families in their international education decisions (Streitweiser, 2014).

The American approach to higher education institution management views economic profit as a paramount value that reflects an institution's efficiency. Institutions operate independently through private initiatives to attract foreign students. Policies to promote foreign students and faculty are implemented at the institutional or state level at most, and arise from a belief that institutions must adapt to the changing circumstances of the global higher education market in order to compete successfully. As in other sectors, one element in this adjustment is involvement in the global world, which implies opening the institution's gates to students from around the world. Institutions are not only making active efforts to market and advertise their programs; they are also establishing overseas agencies to recruit students (Choudaha and Chang, 2012). The perceived prestige of US higher education, teaching in the English language, combined with institutional and state policies that encourage foreign enrollment, have transformed the United States into a world leader in its share of foreign students.

Another destination that is also sought after due to its English-language programs and supportive policy on educational immigration is Australia.

Australia

In Australia, similar to the United States, higher education is a significant industry that generates enormous revenues for the country. Foreign students account for one-quarter of the students in this continent. Higher education is the country's third most important export for the country's treasury (Marginson, 2007b), and revenues from foreign students account for 15% of the total revenues of Australian universities (Becker and Kolster, 2012). The economic significance of recruiting foreign students has placed mobility as an important topic on the agenda of the institutions and on the national-constitutional agenda. For example, Australia has officially assigned a higher education officer in a large number of its foreign embassies (especially in Asia). Higher education institutions in the country offer a broad range of programs and degrees that are based outside Australia, delivered through foreign extensions. In comparison, one-third of all Australian academic degrees are taught outside Australia. The Study in Australia 2010 campaign, for example, is directed at recruiting potential students from China, India, South Korea, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand (Becker and Kolster, 2012).

In recent years, the Australian government has adopted significant steps to improve supervision and regulation of higher education designed for foreign students. For example, the ESOS (Education Services for Overseas Students) Law, enacted in 2000 and amended in 2012, determined that all institutions that offer higher education to foreign students must re-register and meet

a series of criteria and standards. To facilitate inbound foreign students, beginning in 2011, Australia offered a broad range of exemptions for student visas, including permits for part-time employment. The state is investing great efforts to improve the foreign student support systems and to assimilate efficient recruitment strategies in high-demand states (Becker and Kolster, 2012).

In addition to the government's efforts to improve the mobility of international students studying in Australia, the government has a set policy on integrating and promoting the mobility of local students. In 2011, the Australian Department of Industry, Innovation, Science Research and Tertiary Education (DIISRETE) published a detailed guide on the strategies and practices that Australian universities should adopt in order to increase outward mobility. This 200-page guide includes detailed information on various steps necessary to promote the mobility of Australian students. Throughout, the guide stresses the fact that universities must make the necessary preparations at the strategic, planning, budget, and executive levels in order to successfully increase mobility rates of both students and faculty (DIISRTE, 2011) and that mobility should be part of each institution's comprehensive vision.

Israel

While student mobility policy is at a peak throughout the world, such policy is in its infancy in Israel. Despite strong international research ties between Israeli institutions and foreign higher education institutions, these ties generally involve students in graduate degree programs (Yamini and Ben Artzi, 2013). In 2007, Israel applied to join the Bologna Process, but was rejected. It has been argued that this effort to join stems more from political and diplomatic considerations and less from a recognition that the "Bologna process is the most important arena of activity in the map of higher education" (p. 191).

Despite the lack of uniform comprehensive policy to promote higher education mobility in Israel, there are small-scale local initiatives. The Council for Higher Education opened an office on Tempus in Israel, funded by the EU, which has injected over EUR 10 million into this project. Establishing the program in Israel reflects a desire to partake in the global mobility trend, but in practice few institutions participate in this program, which focuses mainly on collaborations between institutions and research projects (CHE, 2015). The Erasmus Mundi program also operates in Israel but it is limited to advanced degree programs. In 2015, the CHE published a call to academic institutions to join the Erasmus+ program, which offers students and faculty an opportunity to study and teach in institutions of higher education in Europe for periods ranging from three to twelve months for students, and from five days to two months for faculty. However, most of the mobility budget is earmarked for sending students and faculty to European institutions, while only 10% of the budget is allocated to the reception of European students and faculty in Israeli institutions.

Due to the lack of clear and uniform policy on promoting the mobility of undergraduate students in Israel, changes occur bottom-up, and the initiatives to promote mobility come mainly from the institutions themselves. For example, the Faculty of Law of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem offers student-exchange programs (funded by a private firm) to study in leading institutions in Europe, Asia, the United States, and Australia. These are one-semester programs and students earn credits for their studies (as part of their elective courses), and are not required to pay any additional tuition or fees. The Faculty of Law at Bar Ilan University offers student-exchange programs to outstanding students, allowing them to study one semester abroad at one of several institutions with which Bar Ilan has exchange agreements. Students may earn up to 12 credits on these programs, and these credits are counted by Bar Ilan as part of the students' law degree requirements. Haifa University offers outstanding students in all faculties participation in student-exchange programs in universities in Europe, the United States, Canada, Japan, or China. Undergraduate and graduate students can study one semester or year abroad and earn credits toward their Haifa University degree. Tel Aviv University also offers student-exchange programs for undergraduates, extending from the second semester of their second year of studies to the first semester of their final year. The programs are offered in all disciplines in dozens of countries and institutions around the world. Students remain registered at Tel Aviv University and pay full tuition to the institution and are exempted from any tuition payments to the host university. The Interdisciplinary Center Hertzliya offers students-exchange programs for undergraduate students in a broad range of fields, including psychology, government, computer science, business administration, law, economics, and communications. Studies are offered all over the world and require no additional tuition payments.

Furthermore, most higher education institutions operate international programs to attract foreign students. Tel Aviv University has an international school that offers several undergraduate programs in English in addition to single-semester and annual programs. The Hebrew University offers several semester or annual courses in English but notes that students are required to master Hebrew for most programs. Haifa University offers programs for foreign students but these are limited to graduate students. The Interdisciplinary Center Hertzliya offers several undergraduate programs in English as well as single-semester and annual programs. The Technion also offers single-semester programs in English for foreign students.

Table 1. How do patterns of mobility affect teaching and learning?

Policy	One of the goals of teaching is to prepare students to function in a global world. Therefore both faculty and students are required to participate in mobility as part of their study programs and professional development.
Greater internationalization in higher education programs	Increase in cross-border activities including development of programs with international character (student-exchange programs, opening academic extensions overseas; offering English-language programs and degrees; programs for foreign students; involvement in inter-institutional partnerships).
Educating students to appreciate the values of academic collegiality and collaboration	Encouraging joint research projects with foreign researchers and institutions
Bologna process	Establishes a foundation for inter-state collaboration in Europe. Its major goal is increasing the mobility of citizens, students, researchers, instructors, and administrative staff. The Bologna process facilitates academic mobility and establishes uniform standards for higher education systems, including mobility among institutions, experience gained in other institutions, and acquaintance with diverse learning environments.
Massification of learners	To compete in the global market of higher education, institutions must adapt to the changing world. These adjustments include global operations, which demand that institutions open their gates to students from all over the world. A broad range of initiatives and partnerships have been established to provide cross-border programs and courses that appeal to foreign students. Recruiting foreign students significantly contributes to institutions' budgets and prestige. Institutions compete fiercely over foreign students.
Increased global competition	International ranking has become a major factor of attraction for students, and provides a competitive advantage in the saturated higher education market. Despite the shortcomings of the ranking model, rankings have a strong influence on the decisions of students and their families regarding international education options.
The revolution in tools of teaching and learning	A conceptual change in how teachers teach, including increased use of information and communication technologies and development of curricula and approaches that have an international perspective.
The view of research and academic teaching as a resource	The dominant model in higher education management is the market forces model, which stems from the capitalist approach and assumes that competition and free markets are the means for maximizing utility. As a result, universities compete with each other over students and financial resources. According to this approach, foreign students are a significant source of income for academic institutions. Therefore institutions make active efforts to market and advertise their programs and have even established overseas agencies to recruit students. MOOCs are offered at no cost.
English-language programs and courses	Perceived prestige of US institutions, teaching in the English language, institutional and state policy all encourage foreign students.
Support systems	Efforts to improve support systems for foreign students. Universities must make strategic, planning, budgeting, and executive preparations, and incorporate mobility into their general institutional vision.

Foreign students represent a significant source of income for Israeli institutions, as they do for institutions worldwide. Tuition for two semesters ranges from USD 11,500 to USD 15,000, which is four times the tuition paid by Israeli students (Foreign Ministry website, 2015). Tertiary institutions in Israel have clearly begun to understand the economic but also the academic significance of promoting inward and outward mobility. Nonetheless, these remain local initiatives rather than a uniform policy that reflects prioritization of this issue on the national higher education agenda. (Table 1)

Higher education mobility – Challenges and risks

Globalization and internationalization have triggered record levels of mobility of students, programs, and faculty in the global academic world. This mobility poses several risks and challenges. The relative ease with which students move to and from institutions and programs around the world create potential incongruence between higher education systems, cultural norms, and labor markets in home and destination countries. Furthermore, in these new circumstances of mobility, neither party – the home country or the destination country – is able to monitor the quality, the ethics, or the conditions of the higher education (Altbach et al., 2009).

In view of the directions of mobility noted above, the rich western countries, and particularly the English-speaking countries, have a disproportionate impact on knowledge creation paradigms and on the determination of international criteria for scholarships, institutional management, and teaching and learning approaches. These institutions have a significant competitive advantage as they possess the funds, resources, and human resources that allow them to grow stronger, leaving other universities, and especially those in developing countries, significantly behind them. Moreover, the almost exclusive use of the English language enables access to most of the world's research and learning materials, but at the same time it limits access to the knowledge in countries where students and scholars do not have a strong command of this language (Altbach, 2004).

Students who realize opportunities for studying globally generally come from affluent population groups or at least high social status and privileged groups. For example, in most cases Israeli exchange students are required to cover the costs of their air fare. In this way, overseas education strengthens the strong and weakens the weak. To make global education truly available to all students, such that it becomes a structured element in higher education acquisition, institutions must address this challenge and offer significant financial aid to enable equality of opportunities.

In addition to these challenges, it is argued that the growing rate of higher education mobility also creates numerous threats to local systems, including "brain drain" (Altbach et al., 2004), commercialization of higher education, and loss of cultural identity in the poorer destination countries (Knight, 2006). In view of the mostly unilateral direction of foreign students, internationalization of higher education undermines a more equitable distribution of resources in the world. Capital and talent are attracted to wealthy countries and prestigious institutions, and citizens with the financial and academic capabilities leave weak countries in favor of strong countries. A 2004 study indicated that 80% of all Chinese and Indian students who study abroad do not return to their home country immediately after they complete their degree (Altbach et al., 2004).

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we discussed higher education mobility with the aim of exploring policy approaches and mobility patterns in and outside Israel. Research literature shows that mobility is the "next hot thing" in the world of higher education. As countries transformed into global and international societies, higher education systems around the world were inevitably affected. Ever since the middle ages, the international component of education has been an integral part of the world of research in higher education, but with the rising dominance of the global and technological world, this component has also trickled down to general and professional higher education including non-research programs. This trend is expected to continue to grow, and we can imagine that an international component will someday become a requirement for undergraduate degrees.

Several trends stand out: The current patterns point to inequality between destination countries (the major share of the foreign student market is controlled by a small number of countries) and in terms of the composition of foreign students. There are strong institutions that attract students, and there are students with the resources and/or talent that allow them to study overseas. Second, mobility policies vary around the world. In Europe, for example, mobility policy was originally an initiative of policymakers, while in the United States, local initiatives emerged in response to market demands. In Australia, institutional efforts to promote mobility are strongly supported by the government, which bolsters these trends.

In Israel, there is a limited awareness of the critical role of mobility in undergraduate studies. It is accurate to state that the initiatives of higher education institutions anticipate actions in this field by decision makers and policy makers, but a review of the available programs and their dissemination indicates that mobility opportunities are typically presented by institutions as a type of "bonus" offered to outstanding students, rather than an integral part of the training required for undergraduates in a global world. Ultimately, the differences in the assimilation and promotion of mobility policies arguably stem from the extent to which governments or educational institutions consider global education to be an essential and integral part of training individuals to live as citizens, humans, employees, and employers in a global world. Moreover, this is an inevitable process and it can only be expected that institutions and countries that fail to adjust to the changing world will be left behind.

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