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COORDS

HIGHER EDUCATION AFTER BOLOGNA

Challenges and Perspectives

CHAPTER 8

PROFILES OF MOBILITY STUDENTS

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In this chapter we present the figure of the international student and how they are perceived by the university institutions and the States. Specifically in the European Union, and based on the division of the European countries in the world-system as semi-peripheral, peripheral and central countries, we analyse the academic mobility data before and after the implementation of the Bologna process. Synchronically, we present the mobility student profiles of a university located at a central country and a semi-peripheral country, respectively the University of Groningen, in the Netherlands, and the University of Coimbra, in Portugal. The methodology used was the questionnaire and a correlational descriptive analysis. The student flows are identified with the colonial past, the neighbouring relations and the demand for central countries.

Introduction

Apart from the traditional roles of teaching and research, universities are currently under pressure to respond to local and transnational problems, in hopes of a prospective answer to still emerging problems. Universities are the product of a geopolitical web of knowledge at a global and local scale (Dale, 1998; Martins, 2005). Turned into companies and managed according to the market, they have a direct responsibility over the country's competitiveness, where innovation is not enough and the scientific outputs must have market value and must be tradable (Oliveira, 2000). In Sousa Santos' vision, "the world-system's central countries moved into a pluriversity knowledge, this being a contextual knowledge in a sense that the organizing principle of its production is its application" (Santos, 2005, p. 29). This means that universities are moving towards being Mode 2 institutions, as defined by Gibbons:

The thrust of the new mode of knowledge production is that research in many important area is cutting loose from the disciplinary structure and generating knowledge which so far at least does not seem to be drawn to institutionalise itself in university departments and faculties in the conventional way. At times, it often seem that research centers, institutes and 'think tanks' are multiplying and the periphery of universities, while faculties and departments are becoming the internal locus of teaching provision. (Gibbons, 1997, p. 7).

The large European universities of the central countries, such as the UK and Germany, try to follow a model that, among other measures, promotes an outreach, universities providing services and responding to the commercial needs. Universities in semi-peripheral countries, although they tend to follow the same paths as those in central countries, are limited exactly due

to the characteristics of their countries, because the connection between the market and the universities is fragile, the market is not demanding and thus they remain in the semi-periphery even in Mode 2. For the semi-peripheral institutions, repositioning in the world-system is seen as a solution to authenticate and validate their educational system (Gomes, 2005).

For some authors, like Perry & May, the excellence and relevance of knowledge can be framed, like Weberian ideal types, as analytical resources, in a contextualized or decontextualized manner:

> A decontextualized excellence where the knowledge production processes are separated from the context in which they are produced. The corollary of this perspective is the competitive relevance, where obtaining funding in industry of consultancy activities is seen as being equal to academic funding as an indicator of quality. The contextualized excellence emphasizes the indirect benefits of science and technology for certain spaces and places. Policies are centred around attracting equipment, staff, students or "world class" equipment – through the creation of favourable frameworks – and are based on assumptions over the indirect benefits arising from this. The relevance is contextual. (Perry & May, 2008, p. 112).

The decontextualized excellence is described as a neoliberal globalization of education, equally incorporated in the European political speech that calls on the convergence of a European Area of Higher Education and Research, initiated with the Bologna Process.

Given the educational transnational market, the European Union tried to protect itself, since last century's 80s, by harmonizing the higher education system through a top-down rule of localized globalism which formalized in the Bologna Process, the result of the Bologna Declaration. From its various objectives, we can highlight the competitiveness and the efficiency:

> Specifically, we must bear in mind the objective of increasing the European higher education system's international competitiveness. The vitality and efficiency of any civilization can be measured by how much its culture attracts other countries. We need to ensure that the European higher education system acquires a degree of attraction worldwide that is similar to the one achieved by our extraordinary cultural and scientific traditions. (Bologna Declaration, 19th June 1999).

Considering the European Union as a transnationalization agency, as an entity that can act in the various national arenas, the Bologna Process emerges as an example of educational policy transnationalization (Cortesão & Stoer, 2001), in which a supranational agency overlaps national policies, in a clear model of standardization, interdependence and imposition (Dale, 1999). The original idea of a network of European universities for knowledge sharing is not wrong in itself; what can be criticized is the mercantile vision given to that same knowledge. With the Bologna Process, the pillar of mobility was reinforced with the express pretension of increasing the European higher education system's international competitiveness. Within this framework, the European Union reinforced the mobility programs. The most famous of these programs is Erasmus, which is the result of the first well succeeded mobilities focused on teaching. There

was also the need to develop a number of rules shared by the European Union's countries, such as the ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) credits for academic recognition and accumulation of knowledge.

However, "the discrepancy between the values defended and the real practices must be understood as a result of the cultural reception processes which are specific to each country and dependent, among other aspects, on the relative position of a given State in the world as a whole" (Gomes, 2005, p. 66). The impositions arising from the Bologna Process, for example, were considered differently by each adhering country, due to each State's higher education structure and the legislation. As a whole, it reflects the different social production forms of each country, which vary according to the world-system position and the way in which society absorbs change. This way, the Bologna process rules that were meant to be harmonious resulted in different interpretations and led to implementation problems. In a study coordinated by Justyna Pisera (2010) and promoted by the *Erasmus Student Network*, PRIME 2010 (*Problems of Recognition in Making Erasmus*) 8,908 students of 26 countries were questioned and identified a number of issues as the major problems of the system: study program incompatibility, different calculation of credits, recognition of equivalences in classification scales, bureaucratic issues, lecturers' approach and lack information prior to mobility.

Mobility appears as a means and an end in itself of the European educational policies. Seen as a form of obtaining European citizenship, it aims at increasing the competitiveness factor as an attraction for the international student.

In this chapter, and understanding the importance of the international students in the various European Union countries, we propose to register de balance of the academic mobilities

within the European Union from 2000 to 2012, the pivotal year being the year of the Bologna Process (2007-2008). We also intend to analyse the flow asymmetry and interpret mobility patterns. In a more synchronic approach, we aim at identifying the profiles of students coming to the University of Coimbra, which is located in a semi-peripheral country, and the University of Groningen, located in a central country of the European Union. These universities were not chosen at random, they are institutions located in two medium cities, with a similar number of inhabitants, whose universities have a similar number of students and faculties. Each one is over four centuries old, Coimbra being the oldest, and both belong to common scientific cooperation networks.

1. The importance of international students

Universities have an important role as institutions in political decisions, because they coexist with other regulating axes from the State and the market. However, they are determinant in promoting the international students, and they can even be seen as catalysts for student mobility. International students are perceived as a reserve and a solution for the ageing population in Europe as well as the sharp decrease in State funding for universities. Much like replacement migration, the notion used by the United Nations in 2000 to characterize labour replacement migration, the international students are comparable to a replacement student, a solution for the decline in the number of national students.

But these are the students who can bring multiculturalism into the institutions, by somehow rejecting the implicit proposals of acculturation in their host countries. It is possible to find a

differentiated vision of university, as defended by some authors referring us to a comprehensive internationalization:

Comprehensive internationalization is a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility.

Comprehensive internationalization not only impacts all of campus life but the institution's external frames of reference, partnerships, and relations. The global reconfiguration of economies, systems of trade, research, and communication, and the impact of global forces on local life, dramatically expand the need for comprehensive internationalization and the motivations and purposes driving it. (Hudzik, 2011, p. 6).

This vision from Hudzik (2011) rests on the possibility of every student being exposed to internationalization by the comparison of contents as part of their curriculum, the internationalization being seen as skill incorporated in behaviours, offering all students the possibility of experiencing a period of mobility, active incorporation of curricular plans with different perspectives, promoting the integration of foreign students with the national students, all of this in a real commitment with the community. Notwithstanding the general tendency for educational isomorphism, one can see, even in the central countries, some hints of counter-hegemony, namely in those countries where citizenship is lived with awareness and whose curricula incorporate new topics, ethnic studies, less spoken language preservation and indigenous knowledge preservation, among others.

The Higher Education institutions have a larger or smaller degree of internationalization and adopt their political strategies in hopes of attracting international students. However, international students have changed. In general terms, the international students have transnationalized, i.e., over their lives they can combine various learning mobility plans in different moments and in more than one institution or country. Equally, the current form of communication within the IT era, as Castells (2002) would say, also contributes to its global dimension.

The search for education abroad, somehow enhanced by the search for degree legitimation abroad, carries with it part of the social stratification. Only students with a network of economic and social support can study abroad. Within these networks, families are identified as a basic reference, "parental influence is particularly strong among undergraduate students when they are choosing a destination country" (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2001, p. 12). The international students have transnationalized, i.e., they can gather diplomas abroad from more than one institution and this marks a new phase in the identity of these students. It is not rare to find students completing three courses of studies in three different countries. We currently witness the search for a diploma abroad or a period of mobility abroad as a way to enhance the curriculum vitae (Tarrant, 2011). Students are searching transnationally what they cannot find within borders, a new optimistic vision of education that can give them security and social mobility. Barron, Baum and Conway (2007) state that some students consider a diploma obtained abroad as more valuable, "… learning, living and working experience that is a major financial and time investment in the future of both individuals and society at large" (Barron et al, 2007, p. 97).

The new characteristics of the international student are based on the dimensions of the globalized world. The greatest differences

are the speed with which they move, the network connection and how they are seen by the type of globalization and by the host institutions. John Urry currently identifies twelve types of mobilities, including student mobility "discovery travel of student, au pair and the other young people on their 'overseas experience' where this can constitute a 'rite of passage' and which typically involves going overseas to civilizational centres" (Urry, 2007, p. 10).

This worldwide movement of students implies rather interesting economic values for various countries, making this phenomenon a segment of the market which is and will be explored by the host central countries and emerging in the semi-peripheral countries. We enter a transnational domain of mercantile university services where consuming education abroad enters the typology of GATS (*General Agreement on Trade and Services*) and consists of the provision of service through the transnational mobility of the consumer. This is currently the big slice of mercantile transnationalization at the universities.

Bhandari & Blumenthal (2011) reveal that the global mobility of students reaches 3.3 million per year, representing a 65% increase since 2000. These numbers reinforce the globalization aspect of this issue, and also the government action to search for this segmented market. In the UK alone, HESA (Higher Education Statistics Agency) reveals that "more recent statistics would suggest this figure has significantly increased and considers the value of educational services to currently stand at £ 10.3 billion" (Barron et al, 2007, p. 88). "An OECD recent study calculated that this business was worth 30 billion dollars in 1999" (Santos, 2005, p. 23). The universities have the following objectives: "not only dominate global university rankings, they produce the most research, control the key journal and other means of knowledge distribution, educate the top Ph.D. holders, employ

most postdocs, and are more attractive to the internationally mobile knowledge elites" (Altbach, 2013, p. 103).

The importance of this object of study is its new characteristics, the way in which it is perceived by the Higher Education institutions, how it is seen by the States and the transnational instances.

1.1. The International Students

The definition commonly accepted is linked to the one stated by UNESCO, "students that leave their country or territory of origin and move to another country or territory with the objective of studying" (UNESCO, 2009, p. 36). This definition associating mobility and study goes as far as appearing in the Portuguese legislation, specifically in the legal regime of entering, staying, exiting and moving away for foreigners in national territory, where the long term resident statute defines the higher education student as a national from a third State that has been accepted by a higher education establishment to attend, as their main activity, a full time study program with a view to obtaining an academic degree or a recognized higher education diploma, including preparation courses for those studies or research for obtaining an academic degree (Law no. 23/2007, 4th July).

Evidently, the duration of the stay exceeding one year can result in a criticism to the definition of student and their conceptual framework, pushing the concept to the area of migrations. However, it is expected that no paid activity is implied, which is a characteristic associated to the immigrant. Therefore, as indicated by Glover, "independent of their consecutive length of stay, international students may be classified as temporary residents in their study destination due to their extend stay. This temporary residence may stretch over several years, for

example, when students undertake a full degree or enrol in a second degree after finishing their first". (Glover, 2011, p. 181).

Two categories of international student were defined. The first one relates to the student who intends to obtain a diploma by the host university, therefore staying more than one year and defined as regular, often subjected to the same rules of conduct as the national students and to the payment of fees. The other category is related to the international student with a shorter term mobility, without the goal of obtaining a diploma, a student in mobility. Within the European Union, this mobility student is generally identified with the Erasmus program and is the object of its own legislation and the framework of education, training and youth of the European Commission.

1.2. Mobility Patterns Inside the European Union

Internationally, in the perspective of consuming education abroad, international students follow the same migratory flows as the peripheral countries into the central and semi-peripheral countries. McMahon, quoted by Mazzarol (2001),

> found a negative correlation between economic prosperity in sending countries and the volume of international students flows, perhaps because greater educational opportunity counteracts the effect of improved GDP per capita … a positive correlation was found between the size of host nation and the sending nation's economies. (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2001, p. 4).

The theory of world-systems with regards to student mobility is more centred around the forces acting around education

transnationalization, in the sense of capturing students as a result of economic globalization and the dynamics of the educational international markets. The *Observatory on Borderless Higher Education*[1]*,* quoted by Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) identifies the major receptors of international students: United States of America, United Kingdom and Australia. The countries appearing on top are indicated not only due to the English language but also because they easily adjust to the bureaucratic and visa requirements: "various developments have shown that international student and graduate visa schemes are increasingly used as integral parts of recruitment strategies and are receiving more attention in accordance with their perceived importance and strategic value" (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 24). The most attractive countries in the world, in terms of international education, alter their policies with regards to scholarships and consular visas.

Within the European Union, the countries were also articulated in the logic of the world-system as central, semi-peripheral and peripheral countries (Wallerstein, 1979). In the study of mobility flows and patterns, we observed the statistical data of mobility students from 2000 to 2012 and from there a descriptive analysis was carried out. In effect, "student and staff mobility is one of the central aims of the Bologna Process and has been promoted by all participants in the Process and enjoys unanimous support" (Harutyunyan & Bonete, 2010, p. 31). Notwithstanding this incidence in mobility, as we can see in Figure 1, 2 and 3, the total number of outgoing mobilities, i.e., the number of students exiting, per country, on a mobility program financed by the European Commission, is not very different pre and post Bologna.

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[1] The *Observatory of Borderless Higher Education* is a joint initiative of the Commonwealth Universities Association and the Universities of the United Kingdom.
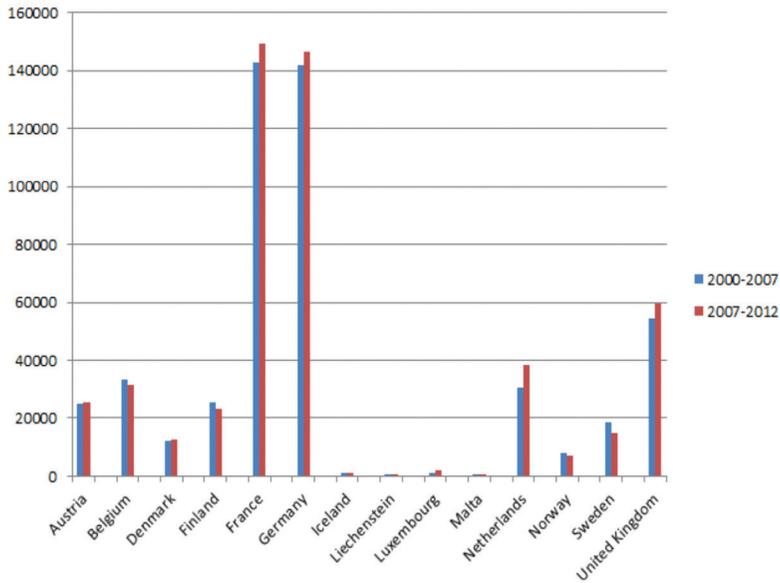
Figure 1. Outgoing flow of students coming from central countries

Source: European Commission, 2014

Within this group of countries, which includes the founding members of the European Union, we do not find significant differences in the outgoing student flow. The numbers are constant and we highlight France and Germany, who also correspond to the countries with a higher demographic density. The mobility in these countries is often reinforced by the use of the English language. These countries recognize the added value of internationalization for its citizens, the enormous advantages of the dialogue between cultures, and therefore they promote practices of mobilities, fomenting cultural participation, as is the case with the Philosophy of DAAD (German Service of Academic Interchange) in Germany.
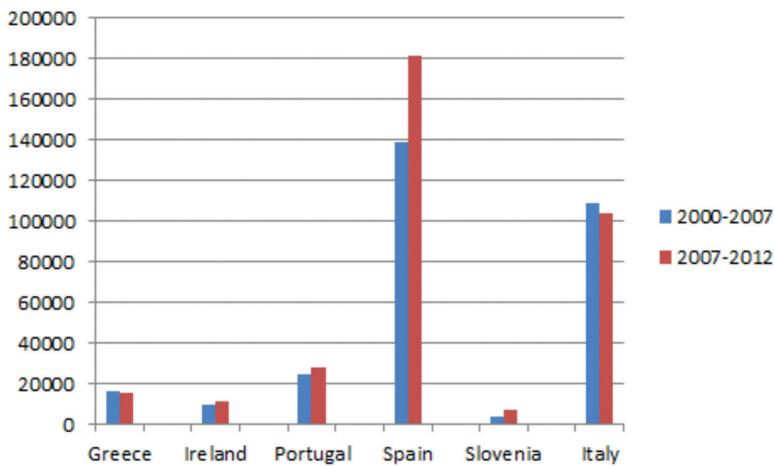
Figure 2. Outgoing flow of students coming from semi-peripheral countries
Source: European Commission, 2014

Spain clearly stands out as the country with the largest demographic density of the group, showing a significant impulse in outgoing mobility after the academic year of 2007-2008. In the remaining countries, with the exception of Italy, there was a slight increase.

These values must be analysed bearing in mind these countries' entry to the European Union, which happened in 2004 for Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia. Even though these countries only entered the European Union close to the pivotal year in our data collection, some of these countries were already participating in the Erasmus Program, as a condition
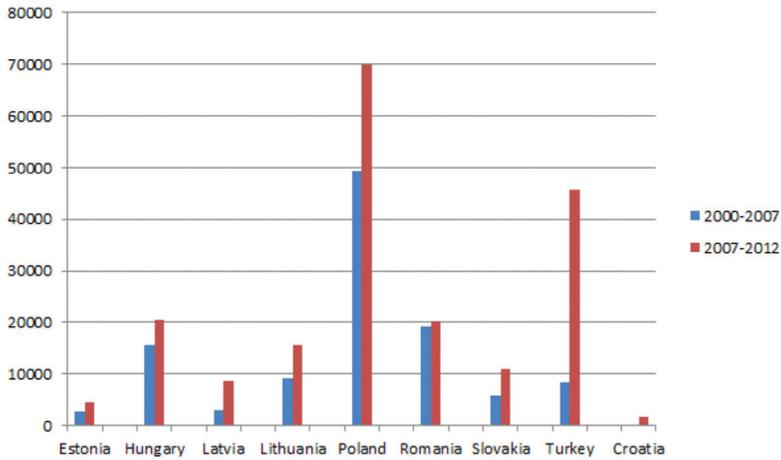
Figure 3. Outgoing flow of students coming from peripheral countries

Source: European Commission, 2014

of adhering country, which explains the maintenance of flows observed for example with Romania, which only entered the European Union in 2007.

If we consider that the student mobility programs, namely Erasmus, date back to 1987, in thirty years we can understand how the reality of mobility was implanted and promoted in the European society from early on, as well as the success of the project. Therefore, the number of students exiting, per country, in a mobility program financed by the European Commission does not differ significantly if we consider the period pre and post Bologna Process in the higher education institutions. In sum, although the global values are, in fact, higher after the
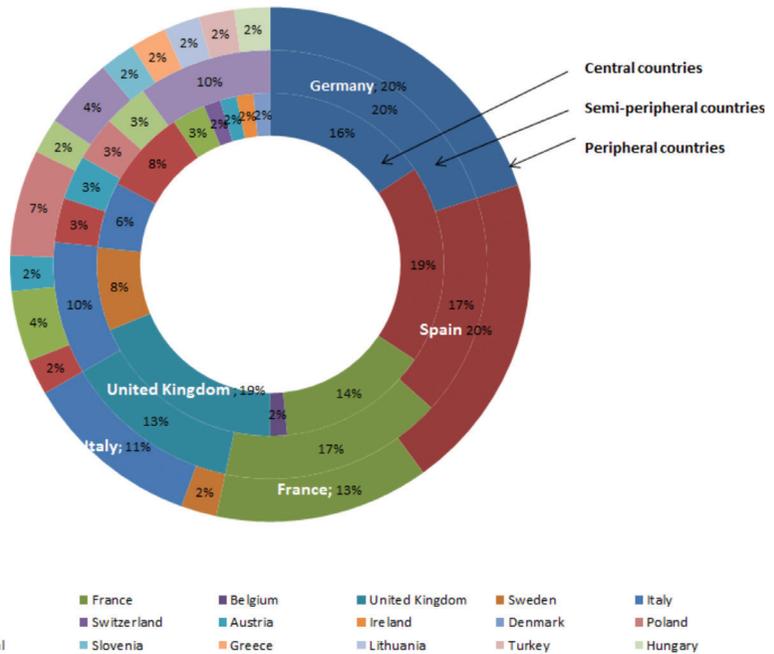
Figure 4. The 5 main host countries for outgoing students in 2011-2012

Source: European Commission, 2014

Bologna Process, 2007-2008, the only significant differences concern Spain and the group of peripheral countries. In the case of the peripheral countries, we can explain the flow increase with the entry to the European Union, and therefore the funding of the Erasmus Program.

Data reveals that the student flows are a well consolidated reality within the European Union, and Figure 4 shows us the mobility patterns.

Figure 4 shows that, within the European Union and in 2011-2012, the following countries stand out as hosts for students: Germany, Spain, France, United Kingdom and Italy. This pattern

is maintained independently of the students' country of origin, which shows a group of countries with a profile for hosting students. Academic mobility moves towards central countries with high ranking universities which are more academically productive and with a higher number of post-doctoral positions.

The promotion of student mobility by the European Commission is visible in educational programs promoting this, generally accompanied by funding and organized mainly in Erasmus+. Upon observing the student flows intra EU in 2000 to 2012, it can be noted that the actual number of outgoing mobilities increased, although not significantly. The main difference is in the type of flow, now integrating flows coming from peripheral countries. The Bologna Process did not globally result in a significant flow increase, but rather in an express pretention of harmonizing mobility procedures which resulted in the programs Socrates-Erasmus, followed by Lifelong Learning and the current Erasmus+.

Student profiles

Having identified the mobilities within the European Union, we will now focus more synchronically on the analysis of outgoing student flows into two higher education establishments - the University of Groningen, in the Netherlands, which represents a central country, and the University of Coimbra, in Portugal, a semi-peripheral country. Retrieving the traditional theories of Wallerstein (1979) in political studies, the Netherlands represent centrality and Portugal, by its social and economic indicators, occupies an intermediate, and therefore semi-peripheral, position.

The base-population of the sample will be the group of international students in both universities. We can immediately conclude that the number of international students in the

University of Groningen is higher, specifically the "regular" type. The University of Coimbra, although it has a lower total number of international students compared to the University of Groningen, has a higher number of mobility students. In terms of age groups, the samples are similar: the University of Coimbra has an average student age of 26.1 and the Dutch institution 25,0. We observe a higher percentage of female students in both institutions, which contributes to the higher education feminization rate. As far as the course of studies is concerned, the data from the first course is proportionate in both universities, but in the second and third courses, the University of Coimbra registers a higher number of students in relation to the University of Groningen. The Dutch institution has a higher number of students paying student fees.

With regards to the parents' educational level, we find a significant difference, with the Dutch institution registering a higher family educational capital within its students. The parents of the foreign students enrolled in the Portuguese institution reveal a lower educational level, the highest amount falling on primary education, both for the father and the mother in all courses of study. If we consider that the average age of these students is 26, the parents are probably around 50 to 60 years old, of working age but with an elementary educational level. Inversely, the University of Groningen's students of all courses of study reveal a higher percentage of parents with a higher degree, both father and mother. The family educational capital of Groningen's students is higher. This parent educational level data matches the central countries' indicators showing a higher educational level than the semi-peripheral countries.

The geographical origin of the international students comprising this sample is divided into forty countries for the University of Coimbra and forty seven for the University of Groningen. We

note the neighbourhood effect of Spain with regards to Portugal and of Germany with regards to the Netherlands. It is interesting to verify that a large number of students come from countries with a colonial past related to Portugal and to the Netherlands. If we look at some numbers in Coimbra, 47.6% come from Brazil, 44. 5, 4% from Angola, and 4.5% from Cape Verde. In the case of Groningen, 6.6% of the students come from Indonesia and 5.9% from the United States of America.

> The process of economic globalization creates cultural links between core capitalist countries ad their peripheries (…) In many case, the cultural links are longstanding, reflecting a colonial part in which core countries established administrative and educational systems that mirrored their own in order to govern and exploit a peripherical region (…) The diffusion of core country languages and cultural patterns and the spread of modern consumption patterns interact with the emergence of transportation /communication infrastructure to channel international migration to particular core countries. (Massey et al., 1998, p. 40).

This association with the colonial past is also indicated in the literature (Lee & Tan, 1984; and Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011).

In order to define the student profiles, an online questionnaire was carried out for the students at the University of Coimbra and at the University of Groningen, through a stratified sample proportional to the course of studies. The sample strata were equally divided into regular students, those defined as students that will obtain a diploma by the host university, and mobility students, those who will obtain their diploma with the home university. With the social and demographic data collected from

the 507 questionnaires completed, the statistical technician of Multiple Correspondence Analysis carried out the student profiling.

> The description of these groups can contemplate two analytical vectors: 1. Identifying the specificity of the association between the categories of the multiple variables analysed, in order to profile each group. 2. Observing the relative positioning of the various groups. The analysis of the distances between the groups shows the existence of association or opposition relations. (Carvalho, 2004, p.18).

We therefore gathered the following variables: family educational capital (educational level of the parents), home country (recodifying the countries into continents), course of studies, as well as the enrolment status, i.e., regular or mobility.

Given that the profiles can have different results in both universities, we collected the numbers separately and for both we identified two scales, based on the Multiple Correspondence Analysis: education and geographical origin. These scales were recorded as new variables, allowing new possibilities of tests. Two dimensions were identified in the case of UC, with excellent internal reliability indicators $\rho > .90$ following the model *Alpha Cronbach*, with education being 47.2% of the variance and the geographical origin 41.9% of the variance. By analysing the contribution of each variable for each scale, it was possible to identify the profiles of the students at University of Coimbra:

> UC 1: Mobility students coming from Europe, enrolled in the first course of studies, with a low family educational capital.

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UC 2: regular students, coming from South America or Asia, enrolled in the third course of studies, with a high family educational capital.

UC 3: regular students, coming from South America, enrolled in the first course of studies, with a low family educational capital.

With the University of Groningen, two scales were determined - education and geographical origin - and they represented very strong indicators of internal consistency ρ>.90 verified by the value of *Alpha Cronbach*, the first scale explains 51.5% of the variance and the second 43.9%. We will proceed with identifying the composition of the profiles of the international students in Groningen. Also three were identified:

RUG 1: Mobility students coming from Europe or North America, enrolled in the first course of studies, with a high family educational capital.

RUG 2: regular students, coming from Europe, Asia or South America, enrolled in the second or third course of studies, with a high family educational capital.

RUG 3: regular students, coming from Africa or Asia, enrolled in the third course of studies, with a high family educational capital.

Overall, the University of Groningen hosts more regular fee paying students looking to obtain a degree, especially in the second and third courses of studies. The University of Coimbra hosts more mobility students. In the profile of mobility, which includes the Erasmus students, data confirms the flow patterns amongst central countries, i.e., in the University of Groningen, these students are mainly coming from France, Spain, Germany,

Italy and the UK. With regards to the same profile, the University of Coimbra, and confirming its semi-peripheral status, has mobility students coming from Poland, Spain, Italy, Germany and Turkey.

2. Final comments

The international students might emerge, in a hegemonic plane, as a product of the global educational market, and, in that perspective, the consumption of education abroad carries with it the same social stratification, given that only an elite can access it. Therefore, it appears as an alternative answer to the State decapitalization of higher education, and this answer is clearer within the central countries fully assuming their statute as hosts and having international students as a segment of demand. In the semi-peripheral countries, specifically Portugal, the academic mobility balances between logics of State decapitalization, transnational requirements and private interests, and so the legal advances and setbacks reflect this semi-peripheral situation. Equally, this topic re-centres us in the Portuguese semi-periphery, given that it is a country sending students to central countries and trying to capture students from old colonies. Thus, the search for education abroad by consumer mobility has increased and spread to various countries, and it makes it a very attractive segment of the market. On the other hand, it responds to the problem of ageing population, namely in Europe, reflected in the decrease of national students in the higher education institutions.

However, in this massified demand for international education, something is changing in global terms, such as the increase of new funding initiatives by some countries, different geopolitical motivations, students opting for non-traditional destinations,

student retention policies in the traditionally sending countries, thus altering the very object of study as international student flows (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011). Additionally, there are new actors in the international arena, such as profit-making and non-for-profit organizations that can work as a booster to this segment of the market.

However, the international students can also be a product of a counter-hegemonic globalization, if we see it in this new perspective of knowledge ecology where students can positively confront their cultures in a selfless search, Hudzik's comprehensive internationalization (2011).

We encounter transnational communities of students, not in the sense of having a hybrid international student with two poles, a home and a host. The hybridism went further and reached the sense of transnationalization. Today it is easy to find examples of students passing through various countries in different courses of studies, which brings us to the similarity of brain circulation "more accurately describe the increasing multidirectional nature of international flow and the growing awareness that such mobility patterns or exchanges are mutually beneficial for sending and receiving countries, albeit in varying ways" (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011, p. 16).

Synchronically, we analysed the international students and identified three types of profiles for each institution, where we highlighted the separation between regular and mobility students. We noted that the mobility and regular students differ in terms of country of origin and family education capital. The profiles allow a clearer explanation of the differentiating characteristics of the student population and are important landmarks for new research on academic mobility.

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