Innovative and Inclusive Internationalization:
Proceedings of the WES-CIHE Summer Institute
June 20–22, 2018
Boston College

Laura E. Rumbley and Hans de Wit, Editors
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Laura E. Rumbley
Hans de Wit
(Editors)
CIHE Perspectives

This series of studies focuses on aspects of research and analysis undertaken at the Boston College Center for International Higher Education.

The Center brings an international consciousness to the analysis of higher education. We believe that an international perspective will contribute to enlightened policy and practice. To serve this goal, the Center produces *International Higher Education* (a quarterly publication), books, and other publications; sponsors conferences; and welcomes visiting scholars. We have a special concern for academic institutions in the Jesuit tradition worldwide and, more broadly, with Catholic universities.

The Center promotes dialogue and cooperation among academic institutions throughout the world. We believe that the future depends on effective collaboration and the creation of an international community focused on the improvement of higher education in the public interest.

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FOREWORD

It is our great pleasure to present here a new issue of CIHE Perspectives, a series of studies focusing on aspects of research and analysis undertaken and coordinated by the Boston College Center for International Higher Education (CIHE). This tenth issue in the series is the result of a cooperation between World Education Services (WES), with headquarters in New York, and CIHE, and is based on the WES-CIHE Summer 2018 Institute on Innovative and Inclusive Internationalization in Higher Education.

The Institute draws its inspiration from the increasing importance of internationalization in higher education, with all of its attendant challenges and opportunities. A primary challenge facing international education is its fundamental exclusiveness. Internationalization is becoming an increasingly more commercial and elitist endeavor, primarily focused on the flow of international students, scholars, and programs around the world, to the benefit of a small and privileged subset of stakeholders. The inequity created by this phenomenon calls for a revised, more innovative and inclusive approach to internationalization. To this end, the Summer Institute works to create a platform for students, scholars, and practitioners to discuss ways to make this happen. In particular, the Summer Institute aims to contribute to the development of a new generation of international education scholars/practitioners, who can bring new ideas, concepts, strategies, and initiatives to the forefront.

Worldwide, there are several opportunities for academic discourse on international higher education, as well as conferences and professional development programs for practitioners. But there are few opportunities specifically designed for students to present and discuss their research in a small, interactive, international setting with other students, scholars, and practitioners. The WES-CIHE Summer Institute creates such an opportunity, through an agenda that combines lectures, paper presentations, and panel discussions, as well as space for individual interaction between participants. In 2018, fifteen students and young professionals from over ten countries and five continents were invited to present their papers at the first Summer Institute, based on a review of submitted proposals. Notably, through the generosity of WES, each student participant was provided with scholarship support to cover the Institute’s registration fee, travel expenses, and/or local accommodation in Boston for the event.

The students were invited to summarize their papers in essays of approximately 1500 words. This publication is the result of their work, together with three essays written by participating lecturers, as well as two additional essays of students of the Master’s and Certificate Programs in International Higher Education at Boston College. The collective result of their research provides meaningful insight into internationalization of higher education as perceived and studied by the next generation. They address research around new directions in internationalization, transnational education, study abroad, international students, as well as internationalization and technology, and present institutional, national, and regional perspectives on internationalization.

The purpose of CIHE Perspectives is to serve as a resource for policy and research, but also to stimulate debate and interaction on key issues in international and comparative higher education. From our perspective, questions of innovation and internationalization certainly feature among those key issues, and this collection of essays, in our view, contributes meaningfully to the goal of advancing conversations in these important areas.
CIHE thanks WES for its support to the Summer Institute and for making this publication possible. We are looking forward to the next edition of the WES-CIHE Summer Institute, scheduled for June 19–21, 2019.

We also thank the authors for their contributions, Hélène Bernot Ullerö for the final text editing, Silje Immerstein for her co-organization on the WES side, and Salina Kopellas for the layout and design work.

We hope you enjoy the insights provided by this new generation of students and young professionals in internationalization of higher education.

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Innovative and inclusive internationalization (Streitwieser & Ogden, 2016), there is potential for the practitioner-to-scholar pathway to hamper innovation in this field of research. For practitioners who are considering a research project, it is not surprising that the most likely topics of enquiry relate to those aspects of international education in which they have professional experience (for example, study abroad or the international student experience). Furthermore, with growing numbers of enrollments in taught master’s courses in international higher education, the field is witnessing a proliferation of minor research projects that, unsurprisingly, appear to focus on the lived experience of practitioners. As a consequence, among the cohort of new research students in international higher education, a growing proportion is likely to hold a master’s qualification and to have undertaken some prior research related to their professional practice.

Too Much of a Good Thing

Despite the value of the practitioner-to-scholar pathway for boosting enrollments in research degrees, it may nevertheless lead to impoverishment in the fields of enquiry. Prior studies have shown that international education research is concentrated on a small number of countries and on a narrow range of topics (Proctor, 2016). For example, it is predominantly focused on the Anglophone world and centers around students and their international mobility.
From a geographic perspective, keyword analysis from the IDP Database of Research on International Education (reflecting research and studies published between 2011 and 2013) has shown that the six most popular countries or regions for investigation were Australia, the United States, United Kingdom, China, Europe, and Canada. Just under 10 percent of research over that period of time was centered on Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America and the Caribbean combined. Similarly, analysis of the 21 most commonly used keywords reinforced that the principal focus of this research was on international students in higher and postsecondary education, with a secondary focus on internationalization and study abroad/student mobility (for domestic students). Year-on-year trends also pointed to continued growth in the use of these particular keywords.

Bibliometric studies (Kosmützky & Krücken, 2014; Kuzhabekova, Hendel, & Chapman, 2015) lend support to these findings, as does a recent text-mining analysis of the title and abstracts of the 406 articles published in the *Journal of Studies in International Education (JSIE)*—commonly understood to be the leading journal in the field—between its foundation in 1997 and the first issue of 2016 (Bedenlier, Kondakci, & Zawacki-Richter, 2018). In mapping four distinct phases in the development of research on international education, Bedenlier et al. (2018) identify two major strands over time—first, on the applied aspects of managing internationalization at the institutional level, and second, on the perspectives and experiences of the actors involved. They also underscore the role which JSIE may have (albeit unwittingly) played in reinforcing Anglo-Saxon and Western European understandings of internationalization, noting that “research and practice need to self-critically question understandings and approaches to internationalization with regard to their contribution to inequality and dependency between higher education systems and consolidation of Western dominance” (Bedenlier et al., 2018, p. 128).

Certain responses to the current concentration of international education research on the West and on various well-worn topics are already evident. Bedenlier et al. (2018, p. 128) highlight the growing inclusion over time of contributions from Asian countries in JSIE. Similarly, the Routledge Internationalization in Higher Education Series features a 2017 volume, *The Globalization of Internationalization: Emerging Voices and Perspectives* (De Wit, Gacel-Avila, Jones, & Jooste, 2017), specifically targeted at redressing the predominance of English-speaking and Western European paradigms in international education research. In the same series, *The Future Agenda for Internationalization in Higher Education: Next Generation Insights into Research, Policy, and Practice* (Proctor & Rumbley, 2018) seeks to investigate those dimensions of the internationalization of higher education which are known to be under-researched, and invites emerging researchers and analysts to pose new questions.

**Tangible Solutions**

So, as the field gradually shifts to fill some of the gaps, how can we further encourage the next generation of research students to opt for innovative topics of enquiry that investigate dimensions of the internationalization of higher education about which less is known? Three recommendations may offer ideas.

First, it is proposed that the network of higher education research centers around the world (see Rumbley et al., 2014) document and share information about the current landscape of research on international higher education and the internationalization of higher education, highlighting gaps and pointing to lines of innovative enquiry. This work will guide not only prospective research students, but also research supervisors drawn from other disciplines, recognizing the interdisciplinary nature of the field.

Second, active encouragement should be provided to prospective research students to look beyond their practitioner experience (as relevant) in the search for a research topic. Given that the identification of a research question can be shaped by many influences, this should include advocacy by the existing research community, as well as clearly documented information about potential lines of en-
inquiry (as per the first recommendation above).

Third, a financial incentive could be established to encourage the selection of a research topic in an area of higher education internationalization that is known to be underresearched. This could be in the form of a small travel grant, set up and administered by a consortium of higher education research centers, and funded either by those centers or through external sponsorship. The existence of a travel grant of this nature, not to mention its active promotion, would shine a spotlight on the need for innovation in internationalization research and therefore stimulate a different set of reflections among prospective research students.

Recognizing the need for innovation in research on the internationalization of higher education, these three recommendations lay out a clear plan for how to stimulate new ideas in the field. They impact equally on new researchers, their supervisors, and the global network of higher education research centers and, if implemented, will help to drive innovation into the next generation of research projects in this growing field.

References


When studying neoliberal and capitalistic approaches to higher education, we can see higher education institutions (HEIs) becoming more similar to one another. This homogenizing effect was first studied among institutions with comparable environmental conditions; however, global pressures and disciplinary mechanisms, such as global rankings, have shifted this trend and currently institutions in very different geopolitical contexts try to imitate normalized structures of higher education. These mainstream normalized structures are not universal; they are part of a global imaginary that is rooted in Western, colonial, and neocolonial ideologies. Hence, adopting knowledge, models, and frameworks of what success should look like is problematic when these are not adapted to the institution’s (and the country’s) context, history, and environment.

In the case of internationalization of higher education, these mainstream structures tend to follow Anglo-American models that have been described as “comprehensive” or “pervasive.” These models highlight the importance of internationalization as a process that needs to be embedded in all the substantive functions of HEIs. While this is important, literature and practice lack a focus on a common thread that is needed to align all the diverse international activities with the very essence of each institution’s mission. Despite the multiple rationales that institutions might have for taking part in international endeavors, a common thread to align these goals on should be clearly identified. When this leitmotif is also consciously oriented toward a greater common good—beyond the individual gains enablers and participants of internationalization programs—the international strategy becomes more relevant to the institutional mission.

If internationalization is defined as “the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of postsecondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society” (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015, p. 29), then comprehensive internationalization seems to have a larger focus on the functions and delivery than on the purpose and the meaningful contribution part of the definition.

One HEI could have a very thorough strategy, comprised of several types of programs, inclusive of the various actors within the institution, but that is oriented toward specific purposes like revenue generation or prestige.

### The Need for Purposeful Internationalization

Under the current global imaginary, which has placed the West as the center and aspiration of development (Stein & Andreotti, 2017), internationalization of higher education could be reinforcing former hegemonies and current inequalities. What seems to be missing from many institutions’ internationalization strategies is the conscious alignment of an institution’s mission and its internationalization strategy, with the common thread of seeking a greater public good. The latter is defined here as purposeful internationalization. It is crucial, then, that further research about higher education internationalization, move to a poststructural and postcritical ap-
proach; one that deconstructs the assumptions that have grounded previous research. More research is needed focusing on how some of the means to achieve internationalization have been detracting it from its ultimate goals and purposes. Besides the \textit{how}, HEIs need to start asking themselves the \textit{why} of their daily internationalization activities. At the institutional level, this shift needs to be oriented toward establishing international strategies and programs that constitute a “respectful [emphasis added] exchange of academic and cultural knowledge and ideas” by using frameworks based on values, justice, and social responsibility for the “sustainable future of local and global societies” (Patel & Lynch, 2013, p. 223).

First Steps: “Glonacal Agency Heuristic”

One proposed framework to study purposeful internationalization strategies is an adaptation of Marginson and Rhoades’ (2002) “glonacal agency heuristic.” This heuristic helps reveal the influence that actors have at the global, national, and local levels and the amount and type of agency they exercise on—or are subjected to—by their partners. It was developed to explain how the global, national, and local dimensions intersect and interact for both the organizational agencies in the internationalization process and the agency exercised by individuals or collectivities.

All these elements are visually represented with three hexagons on three intersecting planes (resembling the three dimensions: global, national, and local), where the vertices represent both the exercised human agency and the organizational agencies themselves that exist at each of the three levels. All the vertices are connected by what could be represented as a vector, since both its magnitude (referred to by the authors as \textit{strength}, p. 292) and direction (in this case a two-way direction, referred to as \textit{reciprocity}, p. 291) affect the way they interact. Each of the three planes have layers and conditions within them that represent the cultural, social, political, and even colonial ties and power disparities between, for example, institutions in the Global South and their partners abroad in the Global North.

This heuristic should be further expanded to address some of its shortcomings. This model—on neoinstitutional theory—acknowledges the individual agency of the people within the institution but it focuses much more on the environment and its forces, and on a much broader macro-level of analysis; that is to say, it focuses more on structure. In contrast, other models inspired by “old institutionalism” center themselves more on values and socialization, and are much more interested in individual interactions, power, and conflicts; that is to say, agency. By combining these two visions in an inhabited institutions approach (Hallett & Ventresca, 2006), we could study HEIs and their internationalization strategies as places where people assign meaning to their actions at both a local and immediate level as well as at an extra-local level. We could learn, through in-depth case studies, how the “glonacal” environment, the institutions themselves, and the people within them, can create an internationalization approach that might challenge the current global imaginary and the mainstream Anglo-American/Western construct of internationalization.

Getting to Purposeful Internationalization: The Space between the Vertices

Therefore, building upon the “glonacal” heuristic, special attention needs to be placed on the space that exists between the vertices. Since, in this model, each vertex represents an \textit{actor} in the internationalization process, we can state that they all have \textit{intentions} to establish an international partnership and that those intentions are not neutral. These intentions might be openly stated or not (embedded in the policies, practices, procedures, mission statements, strategic plans, etc.) They might also be present but \textit{unseen}; for example, unstated self-presentation visible only through underlying messages in day-to-day interactions, websites, marketing materials, etc. When those intentions are confronted, they engage in the space that is created among them, a space that indigenization scholar Willie Ermine (2007) has defined as the \textit{ethical space of engagement}. He frames this space by applying ethics because of the natural morality embedded in the
interaction with the Other.

Thus, by using this framework to observe the dynamics that occur when institutions establish partnerships abroad to enact their internationalization strategies, we would be able to gain a better understanding of the extent to which institutions in a country from the Global South can reframe their internationalization strategies in ways that defy the mainstream Anglo-American/Western models of internationalization. This framework could be used to understand if and how “the goods” and “the public” in the public good aspiration of internationalization are different in the Global North and the Global South, and to what extent the enactment of an institution’s internationalization strategy aligns with its social mission of seeking a greater public good.

References
The public is calling universities in the twenty-first century to prepare graduates who can compete and collaborate with people who are different from themselves. Adams and Carfagna (2006) argue that the most important characteristic needed to solve global twenty-first century problems is the ability to approach problems as a global citizen. How are universities preparing students for that? How are they merging the local with the global? Researchers argue that working on the “intersection of internationalization and multicultural education provides creative opportunities for faculty, staff and administrators to prepare students to cooperate and compete in a multicultural and global workplace” (Olson, Evans & Shoenberg, 2007, p. 11). The learning in this intersection helps institutions to prepare students to better understand contemporary issues such as globalization of technology, global warming, and migration patterns. It can also equip a more diverse group of students with international skills and knowledge.

Although both fields—international education and multicultural education—share values, approaches, and learning outcomes, the literature suggests that there has been a historical divide between the two fields (Olson, Evans & Shoenberg, 2007). Internationalization and multicultural education contribute to students’ education, and each field benefits the other when they are in dialogue. For instance, international administrators enrich internationalization when they take into consideration issues of race, socioeconomic class, gender, and religion, while multicultural education becomes stronger when it incorporates global perspectives. As a result, students benefit from an education that includes more “complex thinking and analysis” and a wider view of the “social, political, and cultural diversity” (Olson, Evans, & Shoenberg, 2007, p.16) of the world in which they will live.

Gaps Abound

Among US universities studied for this project, gaps between international offices (IOs) and multicultural centers (MCs) are more common than intersections, due to organizational factors. In fact, although the potential for collaboration is high, this study exemplified Cortes’ (2002) assertion that IOs and MCs are “natural, if often unaware, partners” (p. 111) because cooperation, for the most part, does not exist.

One of the most salient reasons for this lack of cooperation is the different reporting lines within the university to which these offices are obligated—either to academic or globally focused divisions or units, on one hand, and student affairs, on the other. These dynamics are reflective of the siloed nature of academia. Reporting to different divisions results in a lack of communication and awareness of each other’s staff and work, difficulties to access each other’s budgets, and a misalignment of strategic directions. Indeed, the paths of staffs at these two offices may rarely overlap, depriving them of the opportunity to get to know each other as individuals and have conversations about needs that they can meet by joining resources.

Another factor in the lack of cooperation is the differences in staffing patterns. MCs tend to have small staffs, in this study ranging from two to nine individuals. This makes it difficult to be creative and to add work that is outside of an already large scope of responsibilities. The comparatively larger IO staffs (in this study, ranging from two to 32 individ-
uals) are very specialized, producing the same effect or result. Resource inequities contribute to a sense of competition between the two entities. In the sample of universities for this study, international offices were found to be three times larger than multicultural centers in terms of staffing. The difference in staffing between the two types of offices is large, taking into account that, in many instances, multicultural centers also serve the entire campus, not just a specialized subset of the university community. Although the literature does not speak to inequities in staff, it does address inequities in other resources.

The Power of Individuals
Meanwhile, the intersections between MCs and IOs seem to happen when individual directors and/or staff members have the opportunity to interact, learn about each other’s work, and devise creative ways to bridge the gaps for their students. These collaborations are generally not part of the job descriptions for either office, and appear to happen only because of the interest of the individuals involved. Sometimes, the impetus for collaboration comes from the students who are already collaborating themselves or who share physical spaces, be it in the context of clubs or services.

Where We Should Be Headed
Hill (2007) argue that collaboration between international educators and multiculturalists can help them improve their practice. One of the strongest examples of best practice that emerged from this study demonstrated that departments need the flexibility to develop partnerships that help leverage each other’s resources to produce creative solutions. The resulting projects become sustainable when the institution fosters entrepreneurship and facilitates incubators for programs that then get absorbed by appropriate departments. These partnerships benefit the students and contribute to the professional development of the staff. The study also showed that in order for a unit to function as an intercultural space, it needs to be conceptualized as such from its inception and the concept needs to be embedded in the DNA of the institution to really be effective. A large number of projects can be initiated as a result of the collaboration between IOs and MCs, which become apparent once the two units start working together. Examples here include using the expertise of MCs to guide conversations with international students about racism, or to prepare underrepresented students on identity issues as they plan to study abroad; or using the expertise of IOs to bring a global perspective to discussions of power, privilege, and oppression in a more domestic or local context.

IOs and MCs both contribute to global learning, but usually only from their distinctive silos. When they come together, the work becomes more creative and relevant and the students are the winners. The findings show that international offices mostly contribute to building the skills of students in the area of cross-cultural learning, while multicultural centers foster attitudinal development. However, for global learning to occur, students will need to participate in both international and multicultural activities, which few students do—and those few who might are left to integrate the learning on their own.

Evidence from this study shows that gaps and intersections do exist between internationalization and multicultural education in at least some universities, and elements of good practice also exist, which may be useful to other institutions. It appears that collaborations between IOs and MCs are few but possible, and when they happen, they benefit the practice of the staff involved, contribute to increasing the intercultural skills of the students, and help to prepare the global citizens that the world needs in the twenty-first century.

References
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ccording to China’s ministry of education (MoE), transnational higher education (TNHE) programs hosted in Chinese universities are required to import at least one third of their curriculum from the foreign partner universities. This policy, known as the “One Third Curriculum Policy,” includes four rules: 1) the imported foreign courses shall account for at least one third of all courses in the program; 2) the imported foreign specialization core courses shall account for at least one third of all core courses in the program; 3) the number of the specialization core courses delivered by the teaching staff of the foreign partner universities shall account for at least one third of all courses in the program; 4) the academic hours of the specialization core courses delivered by the teaching staff of the foreign partner university shall account for at least one third of all academic hours in the program.

Despite the MoE’s good intentions, it is widely acknowledged that the policy is difficult to implement in local Chinese universities (e.g., Hou, Montgomery, & McDowell, 2014). However, little evidence to date is available to explain systematically why this curriculum policy implementation has been ineffective. To investigate this problem, the study on which this article is based aims to ascertain multilevel factors impeding the effective implementation of the “One Third Curriculum Policy” in TNHE programs hosted at local Chinese universities (i.e., nonprestigious universities administrated by local governments). The overarching research question is: What are the barriers, and how do these barriers impede the effective implementation of the “One Third Curriculum Policy” in TNHE programs hosted at local Chinese universities?

Twelve Impeding Factors

This multiple case study involves four public universities administrated by a provincial government in China. Qualitative content analysis of documents, student questionnaires, and semistructured staff interviews reveal disparate practices of TNHE curriculum policy implementation in local contexts. A total of 12 impeding factors emerge as the most prominent barriers to the TNHE curriculum policy implementation at the local Chinese universities. This article reports major findings in relation to one barrier, as outlined below.

Insufficient level of foreign language proficiency among students

According to staff interviewees, the implementation of the “One Third Curriculum Policy” was impeded by the students’ low level of foreign language proficiency. This factor was evident in the students’ difficulties in understanding the imported foreign courses taught by visiting foreign teachers, and in their low rates of passing international languages tests (e.g., TOEFL, TOPIK, and TestDaF) to pursue foreign degrees. Three primary causes for the stu-
dents’ low level of foreign language proficiency emerged from data analysis: low entry requirements of the TNHE programs; problematic foreign language teaching; and a lack of motivation on the part of students to learn foreign languages.

**Three primary causes**
First, due to higher costs than for domestic programs, the four universities chose to lower the entry requirements of their TNHE programs in order to enroll enough students. As a result, the programs admitted students with a *gaokao* (national higher education entrance examination) score lower than the score required for domestic programs. A lower *gaokao* score, especially in a foreign language subject, does not necessarily mean that the student is performing poorly. But it may indicate a starting point where students are less academically qualified or prepared to take courses taught by foreign teachers. Consequently, these students would need additional and effective learning support from the beginning of their programs.

However, learning support for students was found to be insufficient and ineffective at the four universities, because the teaching in the TNHE programs is largely problematic. For example, local Chinese teachers use traditional syllabi designed for domestic programs with a grammar–translation teaching approach, while foreign teachers are advised to, or prefer to use official guidelines and workbooks for international foreign language tests, which focus more on listening and speaking skills. These two approaches develop ostensibly different language skills in students and thus could be expected to complement each other. However, both student and staff interviewees comment that the two approaches are not integrated due to a lack of coherence and consistency in content and pedagogy. As a result, students are not effectively supported to develop well-rounded foreign language skills.

The third obstacle is a lack of motivation to learn foreign languages among the students. As many as 52.2 percent of the students report no intention to study abroad or to obtain a foreign degree. This means that more than half of the students in this study are not attracted by overseas study opportunities or a foreign degree offered by the program. As such, a question arises: What motivates these students to apply for TNHE programs? The foremost motivation reported by students is the programs’ lower entry requirements, allowing them to study in a better Chinese university with a lower *gaokao* score. In other words, the students’ real intentions are not to study a foreign language and acquire a foreign degree, but to take advantage of their family’s wealth and the programs’ lower entry requirements to access better educational resources in a better Chinese university.

**Serious Consequences**
The three factors reported above have resulted in a dominance, in TNHE programs at local Chinese universities, of students who are less qualified and less motivated, and who have a low level of foreign language proficiency. This in turn affects the effectiveness of the delivery of the imported foreign courses in TNHE programs, as required by the “One Third Curriculum Policy.” These findings yield important implications for TNHE education and research.

First, without a sufficient foreign language proficiency or an intention to earn a foreign degree, students are likely to be less motivated to complete the foreign curricular elements of the TNHE programs. This may pose great challenges to both local and foreign teachers in motivating and engaging these students in learning. Second, students from socioeconomically disadvantaged backgrounds, especially those from remote rural areas, are more likely to avoid costly TNHE programs in China. The dominance of socioeconomically advantaged students may contribute to a reputation of TNHE in China as a “rich kids’ game,” adding insult to the existing injury of stratification and inequality in Chinese higher education (Yeung, 2013). If no shift from quantity to quality is made, as Altbach and de Wit (2018) call for, TNHE in China may ultimately be “on life support” (p. 2). As a possible solution, practitioner and scholarly efforts are needed to explore innovative and inclusive learning supports that improve foreign language proficiency among students and transform them into highly qualified...
and motivated TNHE learners.

References


The International Micro-Campus: An Evolution to Transnational Education Models

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Within the realm of crossborder education, we find traditional study abroad-sojourner types of programs, and, more recently, the delivery of an institution’s curriculum abroad in the form of an international branch campus (IBC). Even though student and faculty mobility is perhaps the most visible component of internationalization, there is a tendency in some regions of the world to shift from moving people to moving programs and education providers (Knight, 2012). Examples of education providers moving abroad include the traditional opening of a branch campus overseas, establishing a center or a teaching site, and merging with a foreign institution to create a new independent entity, among others.

By implementing such transnational strategies, institutions hope to improve their education-related reputation, diversify their student and faculty populations, and generate new revenue streams (Girdziuskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). However, such models still do not address the rising costs of education and the inequality gap, as millions of young adults in developing countries continue to lack access to higher education. IBCs have received ample criticism in the past for seeming to operate more as revenue seeking operations than as contributors to the public good. Institutions that establish an IBC tend to miss integrating a full internationalization experience in the IBC curriculum and fall short in terms of prioritizing the developmental needs of the host country (Farrugia & Lane, 2013). Furthermore, scholars also urge that those establishing IBCs need to “overcome neocolonialism” by being more thoughtful about the content they deliver and by more clearly justifying why particular content is being taught (Siltaoja, Juusola, & Kivijärvi, 2018, p. 17).

**The Micro-Campus Model**

To bridge the aforementioned gap and to
counteract some of the criticism against IBCs, the University of Arizona (UA) in the United States has developed an innovative model for transnational education, which UA refers to as a micro-campus. Each micro-campus represents a unique partnership with distinctive characteristics but with a common base, from where both partners can start adapting, depending on the local context. Overall, each micro-campus is a physical space (classrooms, offices, and student lounges) allocated to UA on the campus of a higher education institution (HEI) outside the United States, where participating students enroll in a dual-degree program. During the first half of their degree, students enroll as any other students at the partner institution, paying tuition set by their local institution and selecting classes for programs offered by their institution. For the second half of their degree, students pay a premium on the tuition (totaling around US$9,000 per academic year) and take classes in a coteaching model that uses curriculum from UA. Students still graduate in two or four years (for a master’s or bachelor’s degree, respectively), but with two degrees.

With this approach, and contrary to a typical IBC, the provider (in this case, UA) does have a physical presence abroad but without the need to build a brick and mortar campus. This approach is more respectful of the local higher education ecosystem, by complementing the local academic offer instead of creating a more competitive and stratified market. It also represents cost savings for both institutions since the local partner can develop the curriculum for new programs by focusing only on the first half of the degree, with UA delivering its programs abroad at a lower cost than having to maintain a full campus. Also, contrary to a typical dual-degree program, the students do not necessarily have to travel abroad to eventually earn degrees from both the local and nonlocal institutions (although they can if they wish). This scenario is less expensive for the students and their families and helps the local institution to maintain its enrollment. Once the network of micro-campuses grows, students will be able to transfer to other sites, paying approximately their current tuition and without worrying about credits being transferrable or the availability of relevant courses.

This model offers a more equitable partnership when compared to other North–South partnerships: revenue is equally shared and curricula from both institutions are acknowledged and taught—and therefore, internationalized. The nonlocal institution (in this case, UA) offers students the opportunity of an international education and an international degree, without the immediate consequence of brain drain. There are also opportunities for capacity building at the local institution since UA offers local faculty the opportunity to enroll in advanced degrees in the United States with a tuition waiver.

**Early Stocktaking**

At the moment, four UA micro-campuses (at Ocean University in China, American University of Phnom Penh in Cambodia, Princess Sumaya University of Technology in Jordan, and Sampoerna University in Indonesia) are in operation and at least ten more are expected to be launched in the next year. With an interest in assessing this model and capturing the perceptions of those working closest with it, the Center for the Study of Higher Education collected data at the first two sites in China and Cambodia through a survey and interviews with students, faculty, and staff involved in the set-up process and daily operations.

While our student data reveal that a vast majority are satisfied overall with the quality of the education they are receiving, students in China and Cambodia report different motivations for enrolling in a dual-degree program. The students in China are enrolling because they want to learn more about a specific major, whereas Cambodian students believe that having an American degree may lead to a better job.

Faculty and staff report finding the model innovative and having the agency to make a positive contribution to the landscape of higher education with their participation in the micro-campus. When asked about areas for improvement, faculty and staff report wanting more training on the various digital platforms available, and that communication
between host and partner institutions needs to be continually improved to create a more sustainable model.

**Recommendations**

The micro-campus model is still at an early stage of implementation; however, so far, it is a promising model of transnational education. We feel that it has the potential to become a project for capacity building in regions where specific academic programs need to be further developed. For that to happen, a good analysis of the strengths and opportunities of both partners needs to be conducted to guarantee that micro-campuses deliver on their intended purpose: to create greater access to higher education.

However, even though the model contemplates charging tuition at local market rates, that rate could be more accurately defined as local “premium” market rate, and is normally out of reach for most students. In addition, so far, micro-campuses have been established mostly in partnerships with private institutions that are already enrolling an elite subgroup of the population. Therefore, as this model seeks to fulfill a promise of “establish[ing] one of the world’s most affordable, accessible, and expansive global networks for higher education” (University of Arizona, 2017), micro-campuses will need to become places where access is granted by merit rather than as a result of the socioeconomic status of the students. This would ensure that students living at the margins of a community also have a chance at this particular kind of higher education. As a land-grant university, UA has a “common good” mission of providing its community with access to higher education and generating applied research for the advancement of the community. The micro-campus model represents an alternative to expand the concept of community beyond the political and natural borders of states and nations, by bringing together HEIs in several countries to provide greater access to tertiary education.

**References**


Educational Pathfinders? North American and European Transnational Undergraduate Students in China

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China is now beyond the halfway point of “The Outline of China’s National Plan for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020),” which puts forward an open policy in the area of education. Much attention has been given to the changes brought about by this ambitious initiative. Broadly speaking, the higher education sector’s opening up policy is considered to have supported the nation’s adaptation to internationalization trends and encouraged active participation in international exchanges in the areas of politics, economy, and culture. More specifically, the policy has led to an exponential increase in the number of inbound international students to China, with a 40 percent increase between 2010 and 2014, for the purpose of attending both degree and nondegree programs. According to the British Council (2015), China will continue to compete with the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia as one of the world’s leading destinations for globally mobile students. Indeed, China is the only non-English speaking, non-Western European country among the world’s most popular study abroad destinations.

What Are We Missing in ISM Research?

Despite its rapidly changing role in the landscape of international higher education, China is still unequally represented in the extant literature. Research on international student mobility to date has predominantly been concerned with movements from East Asia to the major destination countries, particularly English-speaking nations. Such mobility is often associated with the pursuit of English-taught programs and Western modes of education (Brooks & Waters, 2011). In contrast, educational migration from countries with highly sought-after advantages to a newly emerging destination such as China is a relatively recent phenomenon. Consequently, there is a marked imbalance in the current literature on international student mobility, as this literature primarily defines Asian countries as a source of international students rather than a destination for such students. More importantly, Western educated international students’ motivations for, and outcomes of, study abroad in China have never been thoroughly examined. Correspondingly, the short-term study experiences of non-Western students in the global North have often been overlooked in the literature (Prazeres, 2017). Such imbalance in the literature makes it difficult to present a clear argument for the relative value of international higher education and its links with subsequent employment and/or mobility (Waters, 2012).

Therefore, reflection on underresearched internationally mobile youth may provide potential value to other contexts. In academic terms, this study provides an excellent opportunity to generate new insight into relatively unorthodox, yet rising student population flows, which have much in common with migration trends in the global labor market. In terms of practical implications, the research may be beneficial for numerous stakeholders, including, but not limited to, institutions and policymakers working on international higher education and international student mobility. Furthermore, results of this research not only carry implications for educational migration flows to China, but also serve as a mirror reflecting the broader issues of brain drain, brain gain, and brain circulation by suggesting a perspective on how international higher education
bearevalued differently in different social contexts and geographical locations.

The Research

My doctoral research aims to offer a critical exploration of narrative claims of transnational students from Anglophone and European countries who pursue English-taught undergraduate degrees in an unorthodox study abroad destination. In particular, it highlights the ways in which transnational students in China make sense of their motivations, decisions around their study abroad destination, and (non)educational experiences. This inquiry then explores three subquestions that guide the understanding of the overarching question:

• What are the motivating factors and considerations that inform the decision to study for a degree program in China? In other words, what factors enable international students from European and Anglophone countries to “eschew” education from their home country or other English speaking/European countries in favor of education in an unconventional destination?

• What educational and noneducational experiences do international students from European and Anglophone countries obtain, intentionally or unintentionally, by studying in China?

• What are the perceived roles of an international branch campus as a social space for legitimating and/or enabling such motivations and experiences? In other words, how do transnational students make meaning of their institutionally staged space of education and interact with others within and outside of it, and how do they materially create power relations?

The study draws on ethnographic data collected at a US university’s branch campus in China. The data were collected through preinterview questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with 33 North American and European transnational students. In particular, this study reports the specific themes participants drew on to legitimate their educational choices and experiences, including the unorthodoxy of their study abroad destination, their engagement in “real” life in China, and their everyday interactions with both local and expatriate people.

Key Findings and Considerations

Overall, by placing the participants’ narrative accounts within the powerful discourse of neoliberal globalization and the context of higher education internationalization, this study demonstrates how these accounts reinforce and/or undermine some taken-for-granted assumptions and dominant representations of international students in the existing literature. This study found that although the small group of Western students in China who were the focus of the research do not adhere to the stereotype of “international students,” they tend to make sense of their motivations and experiences based on notions of sameness and difference. While many students reported that the decision to study in China was nonstrategic and somewhat impulsive, the analysis shows that there is a single dominant image of a *bona fide* cosmopolitan international student, which they try to “become.”

In addition, being white is a major theme underlying the North American and European students’ experiences in China. Although racial privilege is a main type of privilege identified and explicitly articulated by almost all participants, this concept is also related to a broader privilege of mobility associated with Western nationality, English proficiency, and disposable income. Put differently, such privilege is not necessarily based on lighter skin complexion. Other nonwhite participants in this study, although to a different degree, seemed to have “acquired” whiteness through their affluence, association with Western culture, and through being enrolled at an elite US school.

Finally, observing participants’ social media content revealed the ways in which international students make sense of the physical environment of transnational education. In particular, the research documents the explicit claim itself, as well as nuanced account of stories, on how power relations are manifest and embedded in their daily interaction with others.
Compared to their counterparts at four-year institutions, US community college students participate in study abroad at much lower rates. Recent reports indicate that students enrolled in the two-year community college sector comprise only around 2 percent of students studying abroad, while they make up approximately 30 percent of total enrollments in US higher education (Institute of International Education, 2017; National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Although the number of community college students studying abroad has increased over time, this sector faces significant financial and administrative barriers to building and maintaining education abroad programs (Zhang, 2011). International opportunities through community colleges are particularly important for students whose post-secondary education experiences are limited to these institutions. Despite the growing importance of interactions with the world beyond US borders, study abroad remains marginalized at many two-year institutions. Raby (2008) suggests that community colleges that do not include study abroad in educational offerings risk inadequately preparing students for the global economy, where international literacy represents a necessary skill.

This study examines the role that institutional context plays in community college students’ access and choice to participate in study abroad programs, a topic that to date has not been examined extensively in the literature. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between institution-level indicators, such as an institution’s student-to-faculty ratio and demographic composition, and the percentage of students studying abroad. In brief, this study’s analysis accounts specifically for several institutional characteristics that may be more relevant at two-year institutions, including the percentage of students aged 25 or older and the percentage of part-time students in attendance. More extensive details concerning the study’s data and analysis can be found in a forthcoming publication (Whatley, 2018), and the reader is referred there for additional information. This study’s results have important implications for institutional decision-makers at community colleges who aim to increase students’ participation in experiences abroad. These implications are the

References
focus here.

**Research Findings**

This study’s primary findings derive from a hurdle regression model, which predicted study abroad participation in two stages. The first stage focused on the likelihood of an institution reporting that students studied abroad, while the second stage examined the percentage of students studying abroad. This second stage accounted statistically for the considerable number of community colleges reporting no student participation in study abroad. Analysis relied on data from the Institute of International Education’s (2017) Open Doors report for study abroad participation information and data from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System for institutional characteristics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016).

In the hurdle model’s first stage, significant predictors of students studying abroad were the percentage of the student body comprised of non-US residents, the percentages of both black and Asian students in the student body, and location in a town or rural area rather than an urban area. The average effect of a percent increase in the nonresident student population was an approximate 2 percent increase in the likelihood of students studying abroad. A percent increase in the black student population was associated with an approximate 0.3 percent decrease in the likelihood of study abroad participation, while a percent increase in the proportion of Asian students was associated with an approximate 0.4 percent increase in this likelihood. Compared to community colleges located in urban areas, those in both towns and rural areas were approximately 18 percent and 8 percent, respectively, less likely to report that their students participated in study abroad. In the hurdle model’s second stage, both the percentage of the student body comprised of part-time students and the student-to-faculty ratio were significant predictors of the percentage of students studying abroad. A 1 percent increase in part-time enrollment was associated with a decrease of approximately 0.2 of a percentage point in study abroad participation, while a one-unit increase in the student-to-faculty ratio was associated with a similarly sized decrease.

**Implications for Community College Professionals**

The findings of this study have implications for community college administrators and other professionals who work to establish and maintain study abroad programming at these institutions. The finding that an increase in non-US resident students at an institution positively relate to study abroad is likely indicative of an institution’s internationalization efforts more broadly. That is, institutions that expand their focus to bring in more international students may also, whether purposefully or not, direct their US students toward study abroad opportunities. Significant findings, associating certain race/ethnicity compositions and geographic locations with differences in the likelihood of an institution reporting that students study abroad, suggest a certain stratification in study abroad opportunity. Results regarding race/ethnicity may indicate that community colleges play an outsized role in providing access to international education among Asian American students, while this is not the case for black students. Changes in the organizational and bureaucratic structures of community colleges are likely necessary to provide education abroad opportunity to students attending institutions enrolling larger proportions of black students. Concerning geographic location, results indicate that students attending schools in urban areas likely benefit from increased access to study abroad opportunities. In order to foster increased levels of study abroad among institutions located in less urban environments, namely towns or rural areas, direct communication with local employers and other entities in the community concerning their international skill needs could prove useful. As such, faculty and staff at these institutions could develop education abroad programs that at the same time help the institution advance its mission to serve the local community.

The negative relationships between the percentage of students studying abroad and both the percentage of students attending part-time and the student-to-faculty ratio in the second stage of this
study’s statistical model also suggest a context wherein certain groups of students are better able to access international education opportunities. This first finding indicates that institutional decision-makers may need to reinvigorate efforts to design flexible study abroad programs aimed at students with more rigid schedules. The latter finding suggests a situation wherein students attending institutions that are able to direct more resources toward hiring additional faculty and lowering the student-to-faculty ratio are at an advantage compared to students attending other institutions. In this case, and in the absence of additional financial resources necessary to lower the student-to-faculty ratio, administrators might modify faculty training and professional development materials to include attention to students’ international engagement over the course of their studies. Such attention to international aspects of students’ academic careers may be especially relevant among underrepresented student groups, who may rely on faculty for information about international education more than their more advantaged counterparts.

While these salient findings are important for community college faculty and administrators alike, several of the nonsignificant findings of this study are just as interesting and important. For example, gender composition was not a significant predictor of study abroad participation. Similarly, the percentage of the student body receiving Pell funding, a variable often used as a proxy for socioeconomic status, was not a significant predictor of study abroad. Such results suggest that community colleges may be a place where opportunities to participate in international education are more readily available to students belonging to some underrepresented groups. Although future research is needed to corroborate these results, they are promising in that they point to the community college as a potential site for the democratization of international education opportunity at US institutions of higher education.

References


Diversity and Inclusion in Education Abroad Proactive Encouragement and Support for LGBTQ Students in one US State

Nahoko Nishiwaki

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Student mobility is one of the major discussion topics in the field of internationalization of higher education (Perez-Encinas & Rodriguez-Pomeda, 2018). The number of study abroad students from the United States has been increasing since 1990 and has reached approximately 325,000 in 2015–2016, a 3.8 percent increase from the previous year (Institute of International Education, 2017). Although a large majority of US students still do not study abroad, studying abroad has become a common educational experience at American colleges and universities. Many universities work to develop policy, curriculum, programs abroad, and services to educate their students to become global citizens or marketable professionals in a globalized workforce. Universities are required to ensure that their international programs are available and accessible to the full population of students. However, there are still underserved populations of students in international education, including ethnic and racial minority students, students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, students who do not claim traditional gender identities, and students with particular physical and learning disabilities.

This study aims to contribute practice-based knowledge to the scholarship of inclusion of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer or questioning (LGBTQ) students in international education by examining current practices and practitioners’ experience and their perspectives on inclusion of LGBTQ population in study abroad at US higher education institutions. Through desk research and interviews with practitioners at selected higher education institutions, the study: 1) examined how much and what sort of online resources have actually being offered at higher education institutions to promote LGBTQ students’ participation in programs abroad; 2) summarized the current practices of service and support for LGBTQ students’ participation in international programs and discussed the effectiveness of these efforts; and 3) observed the experience of study abroad practitioners and identified challenges and opportunities in their practice.

The desk research (conducted in 2018) revealed that 16 institutions, among 105 accredited Massachusetts universities and colleges, offer some sort of study abroad resources specifically targeting LGBTQ students. The 16 institutions that include study abroad resources for LGBTQ students on their websites consist of three public institutions and 13 not-for-profit private institutions. The predominant representation of private institutions is representative of the higher education landscape in Massachusetts, where approximately 70 percent of the institutions are private. Two institutions among the 13 not-for-profit private institutions have religious affiliations, specifically Roman Catholicism. These institutions are all four-year universities and colleges, and no community colleges are represented among the 16 institutions.

Online Resources

“Diversity,” “identity,” and “inclusion” are the three key terms commonly used in the headings and sub-
headings on these study abroad websites. The majority of the study abroad websites use “diversity” in a combination with “identity” and “inclusion.” A few websites use “culture” with “identity”—such as “identity and cultural resources” and “cultural and social identity resources.” Resources for LGBTQ students are presented under these headings, along with resources addressing students with disabilities, students with multicultural identities, students of color, matters of religion and spirituality abroad, women studying abroad, men studying abroad, first generation students, student athletes, economically disadvantaged students, nontraditional students, heritage-seeking studying abroad students, students following special diets, etc.

The contents of the resources for LGBTQ students studying abroad vary in quantity and scope among the 16 institutions. These contents fall under six categories: 1) introductory paragraph(s); 2) event and support systems at the institution; 3) program and location selection; 4) life abroad; 5) returning home; and 6) additional resources or links to external websites. For LGBTQ students studying abroad, the 16 institutions offer at least one category of content from each of these six categories.

Support Systems and Programming
Among the 16 institutions, eight study abroad advisors from eight universities agreed to participate in interviews. The data collected from these participants indicate that, besides online resources for LGBTQ students, these institutions have implemented various support systems and services in their advertising, advising, and programming for LGBTQ students, yet the trajectory and progress of practice at each institution varies. Some institutions have been working on enhancing diversity and inclusion in study abroad for more than a decade and have built quite comprehensive strategies. Other institutions have started within the last few years with small steps and ideas for future improvements.

The interviewed advisors described multiple ways in which they plan and program events for LGBTQ students, including LGBTQ returnee panels and peer advising, LGBTQ-inclusive information sessions and predeparture orientations, and breakout sessions for LGBTQ students. This indicates that there are roughly two ways to approach LGBTQ students at these institutions: standardizing general LGBTQ-inclusive event planning and programming, and marketing or reaching out specifically to the LGBTQ population.

Among the institutions included in the interview portion of this study, covering LGBTQ-related information and topics in their programming (general information sessions, predeparture orientation, study abroad fair, etc.) is a common practice for ensuring a standard approach to create an LGBTQ-inclusive environment in study abroad. However, a few study abroad advisors mentioned that students who come from the majority culture might not be aware of how their identity might be impacted abroad and observed how majority identity students have somehow disengaged with the identity-related topics (e.g. LGBTQ-related topics) discussed in their predeparture orientations.

Facilitating and Inhibiting Factors
The findings of the study identify certain factors and conditions that may affect current practice or its progress. These factors include the following resources: 1) the study abroad office has at least one professional (e.g., a study abroad advisor) who is willing to take a leading role in improving service for LGBTQ students; 2) the institution has an LGBTQ resource center or an LGBTQ student organization on campus; 3) the study abroad office has a connection to the campus LGBTQ center or LGBTQ student organization; 4) the campus climate is welcoming enough for LGBTQ students to attend LGBTQ targeted programming (e.g., information sessions, predeparture orientations), to speak about identity-related topics in a one-on-one advising sessions, and for study abroad advisors to address the topic at information sessions or orientation.

One positive aspect of the findings was that half of the practitioners who were interviewed in this study were the ones who started developing study abroad online resources for LGBTQ students on their website. This suggests that practitioners
are instrumental in starting the conversation within the context of their own institutions to develop advising, marketing, services, and support for this potentially underserved and overlooked population in the context of study abroad.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings and discussion, this study concludes with the following recommendations to further improve the services and environment around LGBTQ students’ participation in study abroad programs at their home and host institutions:

- Create an accessible and inclusive study abroad website for all students as an advising tool or a platform to which study abroad advisors can direct students at home institutions.
- Use technology for LGBTQ-targeted events and orientation sessions so that interested students can attend remotely and without risk of revealing their identity at home institutions.
- International student advisors at the host institutions should be mindful of the possible challenges and needs of international LGBTQ students on campus.

Finally, further research on the experience of LGBTQ students abroad should be undertaken to identify the challenges and opportunities that they encounter in specific destination countries and how they establish their identity at the study abroad location. Specific field-based research would be more beneficial than research in the broader context of “abroad.” This would build new knowledge for practitioners at both sending and receiving institutions to better educate LGBTQ students for their safety and emotional wellbeing, to help them achieve their goals through study abroad, or even to explore the possibility of designing travel abroad programs to support identity development among students.

**References**


Swimming against the Tide: Strategies for Combating Declining International Enrollment at US Higher Education Institutions

Cindy Le and Paul Schulmann

Our research sought to answer three main questions: How has the US political climate affected international student mobility among respondents? How are admissions officers planning to cope with declining international enrollment? What international enrollment management strategies are most effective?

Key Insights
What we learned from the survey confirmed, in part, what others have reported:

- More than half of the WES survey respondents saw a decrease in international student applications from the 2016–2017 to the 2017–2018 application cycle at their institution.
- Half of the respondents saw a decrease in the total number of enrolled international students from the 2016–2017 to the 2017–2018 application cycle.
- Forty-five percent of institutions anticipate a decrease in international enrollment for the upcoming 2018–2019 academic year.
- Intensive English programs, in particular, saw large declines, with 72 percent of institutions experiencing a decrease in applications.
- All regions except the Northeast saw a greater decrease in international student applications and enrollment than an increase.
Applications from China decreased the most (54 percent), followed by the Middle East and North Africa (50 percent), and India (47 percent).

Most respondents (71 percent) told us that the political environment is a cause of their international recruitment challenges. Many noted other factors at play, including rising tuition costs, increased competition from institutions around the globe, and more.

For all the negative news, we were also surprised and heartened by some of our findings. For example, more than a quarter (28 percent) of respondents reported a year-over-year increase in international applications between 2016–2017 and 2017–2018. Notably, the proportion of respondents (51 percent) who reported being optimistic about international enrollments in 2018–2019 was slightly greater than the proportion who reported being pessimistic (49 percent).

Our research also helped us understand what many institutions are doing to soften the impact of declines in international student enrollments and to plan for the future of international admissions and recruitment. Broadly speaking, US HEIs are seeking to adapt their enrollment management strategies, as well as provide a welcoming environment for international students. They are also continuing to focus on the long-term and the positive, both in messaging directed at potential enrollees and applicants, and in planning future recruitment strategies.

**Recommendations**

Despite the daunting international student recruitment landscape, there are still multiple strategies US HEIs can employ. Broadly speaking, these approaches involve adapting international enrollment management strategies, providing a welcoming environment for international students, and communicating positive messaging. Building on our research findings, we recommend that institutions take the following steps:

**Diversify recruitment targets**

International enrollments from any one country are prone to large fluctuations, and the last year has seen a softening of enrollment numbers among Chinese and Indian students. These drops are significant, given that China and India have been reliable top senders by substantial margins for several years. Diversifying the international enrollment funnel is probably always wise; at this juncture, it is imperative.

**Emphasize a welcoming environment**

The national #YouAreWelcomeHere campaign is one way that multiple institutions have banded together to demonstrate solidarity and show support for international students. Eighty-six percent of survey respondents found the campaign effective in helping to reassure international students that the political climate on campus remains distinct from the nation’s as reflected in the media.

**Provide support and resources**

Prearrival support can help international students navigate the visa process, help parents manage safety concerns, and highlight available support services in the surrounding community as well as on campus. Also critical is ensuring that international students on campus have easy access to up-to-date information about immigration and visa policies.

**Engage in virtual and social media outreach**

Our research suggests that HEIs are forgoing more traditional recruitment methods such as overseas travel in favor of newer and less expensive approaches, such as social media. Virtual and social media outreach can be used to develop relationships with students, inform them of developments in immigration and visa policy that may affect their student status, and more.

**Engage the alumni network for recruitment**

Alumni can be instrumental in attracting prospective international students. For their upcoming application cycle, 66 percent of our respondents said they planned to engage more with recent international alumni.
Address students’ financial concerns
Nearly half of our respondents (45 percent) cited the rising cost of tuition as a challenge to recruiting international students. Although providing scholarships or lowering tuition may not always be possible, institutions can provide advice to help international students understand, manage, and mitigate some of the financial costs of their education.

Develop and maintain partnerships that can either provide alternative routes to recruitment or facilitate entry
Community colleges can create a cost-effective pipeline of international students who, after graduating, seek a four-year degree (Loo, 2016). Secondary schools, which host over 80,000 international students (Farrugia, 2017), can provide a venue for backyard recruiting.

Relationships with staff at foreign embassies, ministries, and government education agencies can help ensure a high institutional profile among potential recruits. To ensure ready access to help with I-20 forms and other visa issues, cultivating relationships with staff at the US Department of Homeland Security’s Student and Exchange Visitor Program (SEVP) can be useful.

Conclusion
With the vast majority of HEIs citing the current political environment in the United States as a key influence in international student enrollment declines, institutions are feeling acute and damaging effects: The majority of HEIs failed to meet their international enrollment goals, and applications from the top-sending source countries have declined. Over a third of institutions are pessimistic about their future international enrollment.

However, many more remain optimistic and are prepared to alter their recruitment strategies to continue attracting international students. In light of the current political climate, colleges and universities should not only work to assure international students that they are welcome and provide them with adequate resources, they should also avoid becoming overly reliant on any one country as source country. If HEIs are able to provide a welcoming environment for international students and widen their recruitment efforts, they will be able to build a solid foundation and community for international students—regardless of future paradigm shifts.

References
Sources of Financial Stress

Financial burdens stem from rising costs of tuition, surcharges, and hidden extra costs upon arrival. These make international students feel vulnerable, insecure, and exploited. These costs include mainly out-of-state tuition, fees, mandatory health insurance, and living expenses. At most public universities in the United States, international students pay out-of-state tuition rates because they are categorized as nonresident aliens. As they are not able to gain in-state residency, the cost disparity grows bigger compared with their American counterparts. Lack of financial knowledge is problematic, as is their ineligibility for financial aid, scholarships, and internship opportunities. Their lack of familiarity with university billing systems and the US banking system also causes financial stress. Restricted job prospects due to their legal status as international students limit them from a range of professional experience. This, in turn, limits their opportunities for finding jobs after graduation, which makes them stress about whether the costs of investing in a college education in the United States will truly pay off.

International Students and Universities: Different Perceptions

According to a 2014 research project conducted by the National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (NAFSA: Association of International Educators), the top three reasons for dissatisfaction reported by international undergraduate students relate exclusively to financial aspects: access to jobs or internships (37 percent), affordability (36 percent), and availability of scholarships (34 percent). This research supports the important role that financial stress plays in students’ dissatisfaction, and thus is worthy of attention. In this respect, the purpose of this study is to address a gap in the literature regarding sources of financial stress and to examine how financial stress shapes the experiences and intentions to stay of international students. To answer these questions, this study employed a qualitative phenomenological approach to investigate the sources of financial stress and to understand how this stress influences undergraduate international students’ intentions to stay as a lived experience of their college life.

Sources of Financial Stress

Financial burdens stem from rising costs of tuition, surcharges, and hidden extra costs upon arrival. These make international students feel vulnerable, insecure, and exploited. These costs include mainly out-of-state tuition, fees, mandatory health insurance, and living expenses. At most public universities in the United States, international students pay out-of-state tuition rates because they are categorized as nonresident aliens. As they are not able to gain in-state residency, the cost disparity grows bigger compared with their American counterparts. Lack of financial knowledge is problematic, as is their ineligibility for financial aid, scholarships, and internship opportunities. Their lack of familiarity with university billing systems and the US banking system also causes financial stress. Restricted job prospects due to their legal status as international students limit them from a range of professional experience. This, in turn, limits their opportunities for finding jobs after graduation, which makes them stress about whether the costs of investing in a college education in the United States will truly pay off.
According to Open Doors 2016 data from the Institute of International Education (IIE), 81.2 percent of undergraduate international students rely primarily on personal or family funds to pay for their college education. Therefore, the presumed notion that international students are financially well off is prevalent on college campuses. However, these students are not immune from financial problems. Not being able to pay the total amount of tuition fee due to currency fluctuation can cause enormous financial stress. Furthermore, the international students in this study felt intensively obligated not to waste any funds and to meet family expectations, given the sacrifices made at home on their behalf. Fear of failing also play an important role in motivating them to do well and complete their education. Interviewees noted, “It will be a total shame for my family if I go back without my degree.”

**International Student Retention**

How do international students persist after experiencing such barriers and stress? What is their coping mechanism to keep moving forward to graduation? Self-efficacy, known to increase goal performance and confidence, is particularly important among college students (DeWitz & Walsh, 2002). International students tend to show high self-efficacy, prioritizing their studies in order to reach their educational goals. In this study, self-efficacy for academic performance was the most important component of persistence despite of all the barriers faced. Self-efficacy associated with social integration tended not to correlate close to students’ decisions to persist at their institutions. However, their self-perception as international students negatively influenced their ability to perform to full capacity because they showed high levels of concern, anxiety, and frustration. They felt that their capabilities were likely to be underestimated.

Some aspects of one’s financial situation, including the economic situation in one’s home country, fluctuating currency conversion rates, and the financial circumstances of one’s family, are external and uncontrollable. This causes self-imposed stress because students attempt to exercise great control over their particular financial behavior, trying to learn how to adapt to external controls. Coping strategies are rather passive practices in terms of not responding aggressively to their stress. For example, behavioral reactions include crying and talking to friends and family members back home. International students in this study tended to show more avoidance behaviors than engagement behaviors, attempting to avert or ignore the stressors.

**What Can Be Done?**

To ease the financial burden that international students and their families inevitably face, institutions must seek to allocate more financial aid in the form of scholarships—not merely partial fee waivers—or by granting in-state tuition rates to high-performing international students.

Much literature highlights that social support provides a powerful resource to help college students cope. Many international students tend to seek support from friends, families back home, and compatriots on campus. Inadequate socialization, in particular insufficient interaction with faculty, academic advisors, staff, and local friends, can jeopardize the international students’ sense of belonging and their intention to persist.

The international students in this study considered themselves “invisible” within institutional policies and practices. Their perceptions of the institution were influenced by their own identity and experiences associated with how they saw themselves within the campus environment. All the members of the university community must acknowledge the challenges and limitations that international students face and, accordingly, create services to ensure that needs are met. Instead of letting international students struggle with financial problems on their own, relevant personnel in higher education (e.g., university policy makers, faculty, and staff) should understand the fundamental characteristics of their concerns and difficulties and then help them persist and excel.

Ultimately, this study highlights the necessity of reevaluating the limits and restrictions that international students deal with every day in college life. US higher education institutions should ease their financial burden by genuinely acknowledging these
issues and taking concrete actions to assist the students.

References


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Coping with Grief in International Education: Supporting Students through Family Illness/Loss

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The number of international students in the United States has been growing over the years, reaching over 1.07 million in 2016–2017; compared to ten years ago, this shows an increase of 85 percent (IIE, 2017). There has been much focus on strategies for international student recruitment among colleges and universities that are aiming to diversify their campus environment and secure new financial resources. However, what is equally important for host institutions is to understand the unique needs of these students, in order to create and develop services that enable them to thrive in their new learning environment.

International Student Support Needs at Home and Abroad

Some of the widely acknowledged acculturative challenges for international students include, but are not limited to, language barriers, differences in academic systems, building social relationships with peers in the host country, and financial issues (Mori, 2000). These are main obstacles that international students face in the host country. While it is important to identify and develop campus resources to support international students through challenges experienced after they start their new lives on campus, what is currently missing is a focus on issues that can happen outside the host country. Specifically, this article focuses on the topic of family illness/loss, which can pose a prolonged impact on international students’ well-being across time and place.

A chronic/terminal illness or the death of a family member can profoundly change the student’s experience of international education. “Transnational grief” is one of the understudied risks in sustaining international education, perhaps due to the difficulties in quantifying the number of affected students and the negative implications it may cast on recruitment initiatives. Nevertheless, it would be significant for host institutions to prepare support systems or intervention measures if they aspire to integrate international students into their community.

Why and How Grief Matters

While there is a lack of research on grief among international students, previous research has identified the following impacts of bereavement on college students in the United States (Battle et al., 2013):

- **Impact on academic performance**: Grieving students tend to suffer from a deterioration in their ability to concentrate. This can cause difficulties for students to manage rigorous academic workloads.

- **Impact on social well-being**: Bereaved students experience a sense of isolation, as they tend to be...
lieve that their experience is abnormal and incomprehensible by their peers, discouraging them from engaging socially with campus life.

- **Impact on personal development**: College students are typically at a stage in their development when they are trying to seek autonomy by detaching themselves from their parents/guardians. When a family loss happens at this time in life, they can feel guilty for pursuing personal goals away from home.

In the case of international students, these factors can be amplified for the following reasons. First, international students who are not used to American academic culture may face additional challenges in coping with academics, in terms of differences in language and types of assignments. Also, they may hesitate to reach out to their faculty to negotiate deadlines out of fear of negative implications on their academic record, or out of unwillingness to disclose family issues to outsiders. Second, international students can experience a sense of alienation, especially when trying to recreate a social network in the host country. Third, because their situation differs from that of local students in terms of additional financial burdens and physical distance away from home, family illness/loss may lead them to doubt the feasibility of continuing their education abroad.

**Supporting Grieving International Students**

Several factors that can make prevention and intervention difficult when trying to help grieving international students. One of the factors lies in the lack of transparency in the way family members communicate negative news to the student. Even though it has become more convenient, at least technically, for students and their families to communicate across borders with the advent of social networking sites and other tools, timely communication can be difficult without a mutual commitment to keep each other up-to-date. This matters particularly in the event of family issues, because parents/guardians may prioritize the academic success of their children over domestic issues back home. In order to ensure that their children focus on their schoolwork to obtain an internationally acknowledged degree essential for their future, parents/guardians may tend to withhold bad news. Furthermore, parents/guardians may be reluctant to talk openly about family illness/loss, because it could cost substantial time and money for students to fly back and forth between home and their host country.

In order to encourage international students and their families to keep each other updated during the student’s academic experience abroad, it would be helpful to devise proactive measures, such as holding a predeparture discussion among international students and their families, a representative from the host institution, and other related personnel regarding possible risks and ways to find support. Sharing mutual awareness among the parties may prevent miscommunication or delayed action in response to emergencies faced by international students. In addition, it is critical for staff and faculty to prepare the necessary support system for international students and their families when a crisis arises.

Finally, intercultural understanding is essential in ensuring that support services are accessible and effective for international students. For instance, research shows that, compared to American students, international students tend to underutilize counseling services on campus, mainly due to stigma and as a result of not having enough rapport with local counselors (Mori, 2000; Lin & Pendersen, 2007). For counseling services, recent research states that not only multicultural, but multinational competencies are fundamental to build relations with international students; this is because international students are a “minority among minorities” in the United States, and may grapple with issues that are not always similar to other minority students (Lin & Pendersen, 2007, p. 285–286). This perspective is not only applicable to counseling but also to faculty, student services, and other professionals who work with international students.

College is usually a period in life when students seek independence; yet interdependence is one of the gifts that can be offered through campus life, as well. If the academic community aspires for all students to pursue their degrees without fear or guilt, a collaborative effort to shed some light on the silent
grief of international students would make the learning environment more inclusive of diversity. Such initiatives would allow students to not bear their burden alone, enabling them to have an experience of international education that would resonate positively across their lifetime.

References


INTERNATIONALIZATION AND THE PROMISE OF TECHNOLOGY

Virtual Internationalization to Increase Access to International Experience
Elisa Bruhn

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The internationalization at home (IaH) movement has left its mark on the internationalization discourse: The necessity of extending access to an international experience beyond the mobile few is now widely recognized (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). Projects and programs facilitating intercultural experiences domestically, and others that use difference and diversity as learning opportunities, are common around the world. Beyond that, transnational education (TNE) has spread globally: Institutions and programs have become “mobile” and extend their activities across countries. The trends of IaH and TNE have diversified the discourse in the field, which is no longer dominated exclusively by (physical) student mobility. Information and communications technology (ICT) and digital learning practices have pushed online and distance education into the mainstream of higher education and further diversified the landscape of internationalization. Expanding access has been one of the key rationales for IaH, TNE, and online distance education from the start (Beelen & Jones, 2015; British Council & DAAD, 2014; Stöter, Bullen, Zawacki-Richter, & von Prümmer, 2014; Zawacki-Richter, Müskens, Krause, Alturki, & Aldraiweesh, 2015). Moving forward, the potential of so-called virtual internationalization to widen access to an international experience to non-traditional students and disadvantaged parts of the population in these three contexts becomes important to explore.

Conceptualizing Virtual Internationalization
Based on Jane Knight’s definition of international-
Virtual internationalization as follows: Virtual internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of introducing an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the delivery, purpose, or functions of higher education with the help of information and communications technology (ICT) (Bruhn, 2017, p. 2).

ICT-supported internationalization is thus understood as a form of internationalization in its own right, encompassing different levels and dimensions of higher education. Hence, virtual internationalization is a broader concept than virtual mobility, a term that refers to curricular internationalization only.

**Increasing Access to International Experience via ICT**

Inequality of access to higher education is pervasive in developed and developing countries alike. Further, students whose mobility is limited by their socioeconomic background, a full-time job, family commitments, or a disability, are less likely to take part in an exchange program or a full degree abroad, and therefore have limited access to an international experience.

The first area of potential for virtual internationalization is IaH. Among the most visible approaches in this area are virtual mobility projects such as collaborative online international learning (COIL), a technique pioneered by the State University of New York (SUNY), which connects students on campus with peers abroad via online exchange programs. Virtual mobility can also be realized via formats such as virtual internships, virtual field trips, or international e-service learning. Efforts to internationalize the curriculum with ICT can also extend to using relevant digital materials, including open educational resources (OER) and massive open online courses (MOOCs) from abroad. Beelen and Jones (2015) found that “indeed, technology-based solutions can ensure equal access to internationalization opportunities for all students” (p. 64).

The second area of potential is TNE, i.e., learning undertaken by students in a different country than that of the awarding institution. TNE is particularly attractive to nontraditional students: A survey by the British Council and DAAD (2014) found that students enrolled in TNE are statistically older than those in “regular” higher education, and that 27 percent work full-time (p. 64). Respondents considered TNE to be “a positive and affordable alternative to taking the full foreign degree programme abroad” (p. 36), while rating an international outlook as the most positive attribute of TNE. Recently, blended forms of delivery have prospered within branch campuses and in partner-supported delivery, and have clearly extended the possibilities of TNE: Examples include virtual online lectures in an inverted classroom setting, videoconferencing to connect students with a lecturer from the home campus, or e-tutoring and collaborative projects to link students transnationally. Thus, ICT offers possibilities to bridge geographical distances and to supplement TNE on campus with an authentic international experience.

Transnational programs can be delivered both at physical locations abroad and via distance education. While online education is not the only form of distance education, I focus on this mode of delivery for the purpose of this article. Due to the virtual nature of online distance education, geographical borders lose relevance and virtual TNE offerings proliferate. Yet, institutional aspirations of virtual campuses enrolling thousands of international students have for the most not proven realistic, because, in the virtual space, there are still clear barriers to borderless higher education — be they linguistic, cultural, political, or financial. Nevertheless, collaborative online offerings, including joint and dual degrees, are flourishing. As online and distance degrees, like TNE, generally attract nontraditional students—lifelong learners especially (Stöter et al., 2014), we can assume a potential to broaden access to an international experience for these groups by offering online education transnationally. This can be done via TNE, with courses specifically tailored to an international clientele; in traditional, domestic distance-degree programs, which enroll increasing numbers of international students; or in alternative credential offerings (MOOCs, MicroMasters®, etc.).
the providers of which presumably do not care much where in the world their students reside.

If online distance TNE can be part of the internationalization discourse, what about domestic online and distance education as an area of potential for IaH? Zawacki-Richter et al. (2015) have shown that e-learning and distance education increase access to higher education among nontraditional student groups. In fact, full-semester online studies at a foreign university for distance students have been discussed, for instance, in the CAMPUS NET initiative. Other programs, such as Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange, embrace innovative initiatives directed at both online distance and on-campus education providers. Its funding lines allow for the development of virtual exchange projects, advocacy training, and interactive open online courses, also specifically targeting nontraditional students, including refugees. As these students increasingly participate in domestic higher education in many countries, refugees and nonrefugees alike can benefit from integrative programs that foster knowledge, skills, and intercultural sensitivity for all involved. Evidently, the Erasmus+ label for such initiatives is deceptive to some extent: Contrary to the CAMPUS NET initiative, full-semester online studies at a foreign university are not among the sponsored projects. Instead, the program demonstrates that virtual exchange does not need to attempt to clone physical mobility, but that ICT opens up possibilities that did not exist in the past. This way, such programs can complement comprehensive internationalization in on-campus and distance education, as well as in nonformal contexts.

Limitations and Conclusion

Several factors need to be taken into consideration when further exploring the potential of virtual internationalization to expand access to an international experience in IaH, TNE, and online distance education. These include the digital divide, which limits the extent to which disadvantaged parts of the population have access to digital media, and therefore, to forms of virtual internationalization. Second, we need to make sure that digital offers are of high quality, culturally sensitive, and affordable. For instance, while we have seen that TNE tends to be cheaper than a full degree abroad, it is generally more expensive than education offered by local providers, which diminishes the equalizing effect of TNE (British Council & DAAD, 2014). Third, virtual internationalization should not be a “consolation prize” for students who cannot afford physical degree or credit mobility.

Virtual internationalization can increase access to an international experience as seen in three different dimensions: IaH, TNE, and online distance education. The concept of virtual internationalization may serve as a conceptual framework to further develop this potential, and to advance the internationalization of higher education.

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Globalization has clearly transformed the landscape of higher education worldwide. Increasingly, universities and colleges internationalize to increase their global competitiveness and better prepare their students for work and life in a globalized world. While it is commonly agreed that international experience is beneficial to the students’ personal and professional development, the percentage of mobile students remains as low as 10 among four-year undergraduate students in the United States. Meanwhile, male students, students from racial and ethnic minorities, students from low socioeconomic status, and students in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) are underrepresented when it comes to pursuing international education experiences (Soria & Troisi, 2014). Therefore, internationalization at home integrating technology is considered to be an accessible, affordable, and flexible alternative to study abroad, which may change the landscape of higher education internationalization. To recognize and promote this innovative model of internationalization, the American Council on Education (ACE) granted awards and special recognition to 11 projects in 2013 and published a report featuring the prize winners, Bringing the World into the Classroom: ACE Award to Recognize the Innovative Use of Technology to Promote Internationalization (ACE, 2010).

By collecting information from online sources, analyzing relevant project documents, and conducting interviews of six faculty and staff members who participate(d) in creating and running these award-winning projects, this study explored the development of collaborative online international learning (COIL) projects; identified the characteristics of such projects among award winners in terms of their mission, curriculum, pedagogy, and methods of communication; and discussed the potential for COIL to be an alternative to study abroad.

The Development of COIL
Integrating the use of technology into the international learning process can be traced back to the 1990s in Europe, with the use of so-called pen pals and computer-supported collaborative work built upon connections established in studying abroad programs. In recent years, technology has not only been leveraged as a content-delivery vehicle, but also as a means to connect faculty and students at institutions of higher learning all over the world as partners to create globally networked learning environments (Rubin & Guth, 2015).

To date, there is no agreed-upon term to identify these projects and practices. In Europe, such practices are more commonly known as virtual mobility or virtual exchange (as opposed to physical mobility). The Center for Collaborative Online International Learning (the COIL center) was established at the State University of New York (SUNY) Purchase College in 2006. As such, the term COIL has become more recognizable in the context of North America. De Wit (2013) believes that the term COIL better describes this innovative approach to internationalization by putting more emphasis on the internationalization at home movement through “collaboration” and less on “mobility.”

COIL Project Features and Rationales
The projects explored in this study cover a wide
range of fields, including language study, cultural exchange, communication, education, global studies, business, engineering, genetics, proteomics, genomics, and more. In these projects, online international collaboration is integrated into courses in which students can enroll in the same way that they register for any other courses. Some of the projects have been created as international collaborative degrees, where students from different countries meet online for lectures, discussion, and projects. Synchronized sessions have usually been facilitated by videoconferencing, using platforms such as Skype and Zoom, while nonsynchronized elements have been made possible by online discussion forums, social media, and recorded videos. Although these projects are known by different names, each fits the distinctive features of a COIL project identified by de Wit (2013): it is a collaborative exercise of faculty and students; it makes use of online technology and interaction; it has a potential international and intercultural dimension; and it is integrated into the learning process.

There have been various rationales for creating the projects. The first important goal has been to cultivate students’ intercultural competence, highlighted as follows by an interview participant: “We need to bring the world to the students, and bring the students to the world” (Interviewee B, personal communication, May 31, 2018). Skills development for the labor market appears to be another rationale, as indicated by another interviewee: “When I proposed the project in 2003 and 2004, there was a lot of work that was going on offshore, and what we felt was that our students were not ready for that world” (Interviewee D, personal communication, June 2, 2018). Last, some have also fulfilled COIL’s role in expanding the teaching capacity of their institution: “There are so many specializations in the sciences and no one in the university could know all … faculty from all over the world have to educate the next generation together” (Interviewee E, personal communication, June 13, 2018).

Can COIL Be an Alternative to Studying Abroad?
Although COIL and study abroad are recognized as being two different ways of providing exposure to a foreign environment, the models can complement one another. Cultura, run by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the COIL program in Kansai University (Japan), have proved that studying abroad can be an element of COIL projects, and that COIL projects can better prepare students for studying abroad. Meanwhile, COIL does provide the immobile majority of students with chances to get engaged in international learning and it is possible for students to learn more through the online platform than by travelling abroad if the class is well designed and delivered. A participant, for example, described the advantages of online discussion on cultural issues: “They [the students] really are in touch with the foreign students, and discuss issues in depth that I don’t think they would necessarily discuss if they are abroad” (Interviewee A, personal communication, May 22, 2018).

Despite these promising prospects, however, there are several challenges. Apart from time differences and technology difficulties, which can complicate operating a successful COIL project, a lack of institutional support is one major drawback for the development of such projects. For faculty, running a COIL project is time consuming, “A class like this, I would say, is at least 50 percent more work than the regular classes” (Interviewee A, personal communication, May 22, 2018). However, the institutional merit system lags behind in some cases. Some participants have described their projects as “a one man show” (Interviewee B, personal communication, May 31, 2018), and pointed out that the institution cannot only rely on passionate pioneers to develop such projects. Instead, institutions need to “systematically bring people on board” (Interviewee C, personal communication, June 2, 2018).

Conclusion
As an emerging model, COIL projects are still in the phase of exploration, but this study found
indications of the needs and benefits of such projects, seen from the perspectives of the faculty and staff involved in setting them up. While bringing global learning into the classroom with technology is still not as visible as physical mobility, it has tremendous potential to internationalize the curriculum and better prepare students for an increasingly globalized world. Since COIL projects are currently dispersed, disconnected from one another, and operating on a relatively small scale, only a limited number of students enjoy the benefits of these projects. However, if adopted on a larger scale, COIL could offer a more inclusive approach to internationalizing higher education. The importance of providing financial support and technical support and of giving faculty recognition and rewards has been reiterated by participants in the study. It is obvious that institutional support will have an essential role to play for COIL to move from a handful of pioneering projects to a more widespread and institutionalized practice.

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INSTITUTIONAL EXPERIENCES WITH INTERNATIONALIZATION

The Aurora Inclusive Internationalisation Project
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The Aurora Network is a group of nine research-intensive European universities with a strong focus on addressing twenty-first century societal challenges. Six Aurora Universities—the University of Aberdeen, the University of Antwerp, the University of Duisberg–Essen, the University of East Anglia, the Free University of Amsterdam, and the University of Gothenburg—have teamed up to deliver a project on inclusive internationalization.

The project is being led by the University of East Anglia and managed by the Aurora central office with regular reports to the leads of each university. In addition, support from leading North American experts in the field has been secured for the project. It is expected that although the practical changes may at first be largely in the Aurora Network itself, the project will have much wider impact through publication and dissemination. The most important aspect of impact will be on the student experience, where we expect to see participation gaps in international mobility experience close.

The Global Diversity Challenge
Perhaps one of the greatest challenges facing educa-
tion in the developed world is how to respond to an increasingly diverse student population. While a diverse perspective is formally welcomed in our universities and classrooms, research shows that, in reality, gaps in participation and achievement between different demographic groups persist throughout Europe, albeit manifested in different ways.

In higher education, one such gap is in participation in student international mobility. A UK based study (Hurley et al., 2016) shows that students from disadvantaged backgrounds are significantly less likely to participate in international mobility than students from nondisadvantaged backgrounds, with only 3.5 percent of disadvantaged students participating in a mobility experience against 6.4 percent of students from advantaged backgrounds. Measures of disadvantage vary between countries; for example, in some countries, it is students who are the first in their families to go to university, often called first generation students, many from migrant or refugee backgrounds, while in other countries measures of socioeconomic and geographical disadvantage are used.

A Varied Landscape for Action and Engagement

Options and opportunities for students to develop intercultural competence and experience, as well as an international dimension to their learning activities, are varied. It may be that the Aurora Inclusive Internationalisation Project develops practice that has both physical and virtual mobility aspects. Certainly, partner universities are already working in a number of modes, including internationalization at home (University of Duisburg-Essen, 2018). The Aurora Inclusive Internationalisation Project seeks to harness this existing practice and support the development of both inclusive practice and the means to evaluate the impact of inclusive practice on the student experience.

The European Union (EU) itself is also focused on developing inclusion in student mobility. In December 2014, the European Union published its Erasmus+ Inclusion and Diversity Strategy (European Union, 2014), which called for a focus on reaching out to disadvantaged groups within the Erasmus+ program (the main EU program to support study abroad, sporting activity, and nonformal educational experiences for students from among the participating countries). In addition, a group of students worked with the European Union in 2017 to produce a reflection on the 30 years of the Erasmus program (European Union, 2017). In this Declaration, the students also called for the program to foster inclusion, social cohesion, and diversity. It is this call that the Aurora Inclusive Internationalisation Project hopes to fulfil, as its objectives are closely aligned to these policy statements.

The Aurora Network Approach

The Aurora Inclusive Internationalisation Project is built on good practice and the existing knowledge base within the network in relation to inclusive internationalization, looking at the whole student experience. The project can be seen as an instance of action research: an interactive inquiry process that balances problem-solving actions implemented in a collaborative context with data-driven collaborative analysis or research to understand underlying causes, thus enabling future predictions about personal and organizational change (Reason & Bradbury, 2001).

For the purposes of the toolkit for inclusive internationalization that we will develop and disseminate, the student journey is divided into five parts, each addressing a question that students pose when making the decision to study abroad:

1. Why should I study abroad? The benefits of study abroad.
2. What do I need to do and know before I study abroad? The predeparture phase.
3. Can I afford to live and study abroad? Student finance issues.
4. How does studying abroad fit into my program? Issues of course design to incorporate study abroad.
5. What are the long-term benefits of study abroad? Ensuring study abroad has an impact on long-term student outcomes.

At each stage, we will draw on good practice within the network of universities, plus research and...
scholarship in the field, to build a picture of the practical features of an inclusive experience, the barriers to students from disadvantaged backgrounds, and ways to overcome those barriers.

Each partner university has a lead in the project, but working between university departments—for example, student support, international office, and teaching and learning services—will be a key feature of the project when the universities take it in turns to host “good practice seminars” in their area of expertise. In addition, students from diverse backgrounds will be invited to work with staff at in-country seminars at each university, aimed at understanding and overcoming student barriers to participation. These will then feed into a transnational seminar to be held toward the end of the project, where we will address the barriers and mitigation measures at a network level, ensuring consistent inclusive practice across the partners. A short online staff-training course will be developed to make sure that inclusive internationalization can be embedded in each university.

Outputs from the project will include:

- Academic results, specifically papers on the features of inclusive internationalization and evaluation strategies.
- A better understanding of how social capital and positive student achievement and outcomes relate to international mobility.
- A web-based toolkit that includes features of inclusive internationalization, case studies on embedding these features in institutions, and an evaluation strategy to understand impact.
- Supporting dissemination events at both European and national levels.

The project will disseminate its findings via an online toolkit as well as through two dissemination events. Both of these outputs will focus not only on the toolkit, describing the features of inclusive internationalization and how to embed them institutionally, but also on approaches to the evaluation of impact. On the longer term, the Aurora Network wants to ensure that the development of embedded inclusive approaches to internationalization means that we will see students from all backgrounds in our universities enjoy the challenges and benefits of study abroad.

References


Conceptualizing and Engaging with Internationalization at Home: A Case Study of the Division of Student Affairs at Boston College

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Under the influence of the massification of higher education and globalization, North American universities are operating in an increasingly international context. They see a growing number of international students, scholars, and faculty on campus, as well as increasing challenges from international competition, as well as opportunities for scholarly collaboration. As the concepts of internationalization and internationalization at home (IaH) have moved from the fringe of institutional interest to its very core (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010), colleges and universities in the United States have taken initiatives and implemented policies to promote this process. Boston College (BC) is one of these institutions currently making internationalization a top priority in their strategic plans. As stated in its “strategic directions,” Boston College commits itself in the coming years to increasing its global presence and impact through partnerships, international student outreach, and the development of programs and undergraduate curricula with a global content (Boston College, 2017).

As significant stakeholders for students’ learning and development, student affairs professionals play important roles in realizing and implementing the internationalization agenda of their institutions. They serve the complex needs of international students and help all students develop global and intercultural competencies in a local learning environment. While many studies focus on students’ and faculty members’ understanding of internationalization, student affairs personnel, particularly those who do not work in international offices, have been largely left out of the analysis. Taking BC as a case, the purpose of this study has been to research how this particular group engages with various international policies, programs, and activities on campus.

Methodology

This research is a qualitative single case study using both document analysis and semi structured interviews to understand the sensemaking process of noninternationally focused professionals at the Division of Student Affairs at BC. First, relevant documents related to BC and its Division of Student Affairs were studied. This consisted of BC’s history, mission, and its ten-year strategic plan (2017), as well as the student affairs division structure, policies, and specific services offered in different offices within the division. Second, random sampling and snowball sampling were used to conduct one-on-one interviews with nine student affairs professionals (six senior staff and three junior staff members) from six offices within the student affairs division. To protect confidentiality, pseudonyms were used for all participants’ names and their departments were not disclosed in the study.

Findings

The results of this study suggests that the conceptualization of, and engagement with IaH by student affairs professionals is a complicated process influenced by personal experience, professional identities, the personalities of managers, office and campus culture, institutional structures, and current policies. To many student affairs professionals, internationalization and IaH are relatively new terms. Often, these terms are understood based on their personal experience traveling abroad, educational experience, or professional work and training experience. Second, while all professionals are aware
of BC’s commitment to diversity and inclusion, only senior staff are familiar with the on-going work to develop a strategy for global engagement—which shows some discrepancy between junior staff and senior staff members.

In addition, student affairs professionals’ level of sensemaking and engagement with IaH is highly influenced by different office cultures, the specific services provided by the offices, and the personalities of the managers. While staff members from the AHANA Office (for persons of African, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American descent), the Office of Residential Life, and the Career Center have more interaction with international students, run internationally focused programs, and collaborate more frequently with BC’s offices dedicated to international students and study abroad, staff members from three other offices have less exposure to internationally related programs and multicultural training.

Finally, BC’s strong commitment to multicultural education and its centralized administrative structure have a strong influence on student affairs professionals’ understanding and involvement with internationalization and IaH. While campus-wide initiatives on diversity motivate student affairs professionals to gain an in-depth understanding of multicultural issues, the top-down, specialized administrative structure hinders junior staff members from fully comprehending or engaging with internationalization on campus, and makes it harder for student affairs offices to collaborate with other departments. Overall, internationalization is not at the forefront of student affairs’ mission or policies, and the division as a whole lacks a systematic approach to internationalization or IaH.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, a number of recommendations were formulated. First, senior leadership at BC should make sure that the new strategic plan for global engagement, when approved, is clearly communicated to and understood by all staff members in the student affairs division. Internationalization is a transformational process, and student affairs staff need to familiarize themselves with this new institutional plan. Furthermore, senior management should develop appropriate strategies to encourage dialogue and foster collaboration for a more inclusive campus. During interviews, many junior staff indicated that they did not consider their work to be related to internationalization. Some senior staff felt they lacked the experience to address the opportunities and challenges brought about by internationalization. The university should facilitate conversation opportunities for student affairs staff members from different offices and operating at different levels of seniority, to discuss the meaning, opportunities, and challenges of internationalization, and how they see themselves playing a part in this process.

For senior managers in the student affairs division, it is important to make concrete and functional policies and plans to transform BC’s culture, which has traditionally been centered on domestic students. With the development of the new global engagement strategy, they should come together and discuss a potential agenda for international education and how to improve support for incoming international students. Most importantly, they should send clear signals to junior staff members that IaH is desirable, beneficial, and important to their daily work and services for students on campus. Junior student affairs professionals should gain a deeper understanding of internationalization and be able to apply their knowledge in their daily work with students. In the process of facilitating student learning and formation, and preparing students for an increasingly complex and diverse world, it is important for all staff members to be aware of the international dimension of every aspect of their work.

Looking Ahead

In February 2018, BC held a town hall meeting to discuss the opportunities and challenges of internationalizing its campus. This was one of many meetings held to increase students, faculty, and staff awareness and understanding of BC’s intention to engage internationally in a more forceful way. BC has entered a process of significant transformation. As key stakeholders for undergraduate students’ learning and development, student affairs profes-
sionals should now make necessary changes to their perception of and engagement with internationalization and, specifically, IaH. As BC’s special advisor on global engagement stated: “Global engagement requires a cultural change, and a cultural change takes time as well as effort. It’s a challenging task, but an exciting one” (Smith, 2018). Now is the time for student affairs professionals to take on this challenging and exciting task to internationalize the BC campus.

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The Internationalization Process of a Public Multicampus University: The Case of the University of Guadalajara

Ismael Aarón Crôtte Ávila and Hans de Wit

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The University of Guadalajara (UdeG) is the autonomous and public University Network of the State of Jalisco. Founded in 1792, it is Mexico’s second oldest and biggest university after the National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM, 1551) in Mexico City. It has grown to accommodate 127,869 undergraduate and graduate students in six thematic university centers in the metropolitan area, nine regional university centers, and a virtual university system (Moreno-Arellano, 2018). This student population represents 45 percent of the college-age cohort in the state. UdeG is comprised of (peripheral) campuses that are established on the initiative of a central campus institution located in the major urban area of the city of Guadalajara, while being geographically distant from each other (Pinheiro & Berg, 2016). This article looks at the way UdeG attempts to find the right balance between a central internationalization policy and administration and a decentralized policy and administration to further its internationalization process.

According to the US National Association of System Heads (NASH), a multicampus system or university can be defined as “a group of two or more colleges or universities, each with substantial autonomy and led by a chief executive or operating officer, all under a single governing board which is served by a system chief executive officer who is not also the chief executive officer of any of the system institutions” (mentioned in Groenwald, 2017, p. 135). For the purpose of this article, the term “campus” is used to refer to those locations that are in charge of teaching, research, or community outreach within the UdeG network.

Forerunners of the Current System
In 1989, the then Rector of UdeG, Raúl Padilla-López, presented the “Institutional Development Plan: A vision into the future.” This plan included decentralization and regionalization as one of four
main axes.

Migrating from a college and schools model to an academic department model meant a full institutional reengineering. Departments corresponded to specific disciplines. Several departments grouped together made up a division. Divisions grouped together created six specific thematic campuses in the greater Guadalajara metropolitan area, or ZMG (Zona Metropolitana de Guadalajara) (Acosta, 2005). The regional campuses were created to provide higher education to Jalisco’s different regions and to stop migration into the ZMG. Today, all nine regional campuses are interdisciplinary and their academic offerings are closely linked to the needs of the local economy. The creation of the Virtual University System (SUV) allowed for expansion of the educational coverage through nonconventional modalities (Moreno-Arellano, 2018; Bravo-Padilla, 2015).

Still, within the current system the central administration is omnipresent. UdeG has a superstructure that oversees and sanctions all academic and administrative operations, without having any direct involvement with students or human resources responsibilities—whether academic or administrative—apart for its own staff. Dynamics between campuses and central administration follow more a wheel-and-spoke network model than a community network model. The former is characterized by centralized decision-making where the center coordinates and regulates tasks for the rest of the members by establishing information systems and all manners of other procedures. In the latter, all entities share the same decision-making power (Castillón-Girón et al., 2011).

As such, UdeG is defined as a single-state, public, and multicampus comprehensive university network, with a combination of thematic, regional, and virtual campuses. In addition, it also operates high schools. What does this mean for its internationalization?

Internationalization at UdeG

UdeG’s internationalization efforts can be traced back to 1983, when the Department of Scientific Research and Academic Improvement (Departamento de Investigación Científica y Superación Académica or DICSA) was created. According to Acosta (2005), DICSA’s establishment generated favorable conditions for the growth of scientific research at UdeG. DICSA was responsible for the design and implementation of an aggressive institutional policy of hiring new, highly qualified research personnel, with postgraduate degrees obtained either in Mexico City or overseas.

With the 1994 institutional reform, the Academic Cooperation Office (Coordinación de Cooperación Académica, or CCA) was established. Student and faculty mobility, plus joint research programs, were initiated. A legal unit was also included, charged with approving academic cooperation agreements with national and international institutional counterparts, foreign governments, and other organizations. In December 2004, the General University Council passed a resolution authorizing the creation of a post of Vice-Provost for Cooperation and Internationalization (or Coordinación General de Cooperación e Internacionalización, CGCI). This newly created office had increased visibility in the organizational chart and a higher position within the central administration. CGCI has since been institutionalizing internationalization for the UdeG Network.

Internationalization at the Campus Level

Each UdeG campus has an administrative structure whereby the “coordinators” support the activities and duties of both the academic and administrative secretariats. Since the creation of the Network, all internationalization strategies in each Network unit (campuses) fall under the responsibility of the Academic Services Coordinator (Coordinador de Servicios Académicos, or CSA) in the academic secretariat. This CSA may be aided by two supporting offices—Scholarships and Academic Exchange, which may be just one-person offices or one person overseeing both offices. Staffing depends on the size of the student and faculty population in each particular campus. Notably, the CSA has, among other duties, the responsibility to coordinate capacity-building programs for the improvement of faculty, and oversees all services related to campus library services, self-access language laboratories, and foreign language
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balance will be reached once an “internationalization coordinator” (IC) position is created at all six metropolitan and nine regional campuses, plus at the SUV. This newly created position will not be burdened with the other tasks CSAs currently must attend to.

Moving forward, it will be interesting to see how, with the support of the professional development initiatives currently undertaken, UdeG will succeed in developing a well-balanced multicampus internationalization policy and administration.

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For many nation-states, education excellence and internationalization are at the center of attention. Russia is no exception. Numerous recent policy initiatives and reforms aim to improve the capacity of Russians institutions not only to respond to national needs, but also to make the country a strong competitor in the global education market.

Along with the ongoing transformation of Russian universities, several initiatives address specific demands of the knowledge economy. For example, the widely discussed Excellence Initiative (known as “Project 5–100”) to bring Russian universities to the top of world rankings has been in place for seven years now. It has delivered some results. In 2018, 17 Russian universities were included in the top 500 of the QS University Ranking, which is a tangible outcome compared with 2012, when only nine universities were listed in this ranking (Ministry of the Education and Science, 2018). Furthermore, in 2017, several new priority projects were launched (Analytical Center at the Government of Russian Federation, 2017). These include the “Modern Digital Educational Environment” project, designed to enhance the digital capacity of Russian institutions; the “Universities as Centers for Innovation” project, to improve the research and entrepreneurial capacity of the institutions and bring the focus of attention to the regional universities; and the “Growth of the export potential of the Russian education system,” to increase the export of Russian education.

In May 2018, the national government proclaimed new national goals for the next six years. In higher education, the key goal is to double the enrollment of international students by 2024. It is important to mention that this initiative is one of very few pieces of evidence that indicate dedication to this ambitious goal at the national level. While the increase of inbound student mobility is the primary target of the initiative, this will have an effect on the overall process of internationalization in Russian higher education and on the culture of the institutions. It will also contribute to the development of intercultural and professional competencies for local students and increase their competitiveness at the global level.

That said, as in many developing countries, Russia’s vulnerability to brain drain is a real concern. If there is little motivation for Russian students to stay in Russia after graduation, the country’s efforts to increase the quality of higher education and its internationalization may end up delivering more highly qualified professionals to developed economies and deliver little benefit to Russia’s own development. Therefore, together with the development of higher education institutions, it is crucial to think about how to motivate Russian graduates and engage them in the national economy.

**Policy Responses to Brain Drain: Lost Opportunities**

There are some successful policy responses elaborated by other states facing the challenge of brain drain. These policies usually fall into three categories (Ziguras & Gribble, 2016). First, retention poli-
cies, which aim to decrease the push factors that encourage students to seek education abroad. Singapore has demonstrated success here by developing a competitive education system, which makes education at home more attractive to local students.

Second, there are return policies. These seek to motivate students to come back home after graduating from a foreign institution. One way to do this is through scholarship programs including an obligation to return to one’s home country after graduation. Kazakhstan’s Bolashak program is one example. More importantly, a government can increase the influence of the home country’s pull factors by changing the environment for returnees and providing additional motivations for their return— for example, by securing jobs for them.

The third approach, which focuses on the engagement of students who are determined to emigrate, offers various opportunities for brain circulation. One of the good practices in this regard is the Chinese “diaspora approach,” which aims to create connections between China and Chinese emigrants by involving them in research and transnational cooperation, and otherwise maintaining bonds with them in case these emigrants would want to return to China in future.

Some Russian initiatives (for example, the “5–100” program) can be viewed as retention policies, even though retention of talent is not the primary aim of these initiatives. As for the return approach, the main return policy instrument was Russia’s “Global Education” program (a scholarship program for students who want to study abroad); however, this program was terminated in 2017, and there is no similar initiative currently in operation. The return approach is applied only at the institutional level through mechanisms of double degree programs. There is only a limited number of such programs and most are run at top-ranked universities located in Moscow and St. Petersburg (Vashurina, Vershinina & Evdokimova, 2014). The most considerable gap in the Russian response to brain drain is in the area of engagement policies, which are entirely absent and currently excluded from the higher education discourse in the country.

**Engagement Policies as an Answer to Many Challenges**

Engagement policies may be applied in several ways in the Russian context. First, policies such as forming a Russian diaspora abroad can be used to connect Russian students outside the country with the Russian economy. Many highly qualified Russian graduates are currently working abroad in information technology, engineering, industry, management, and in research in many fields. Being a developing economy, Russia cannot quickly change its fundamental socioeconomic reality and offer a quality of life or salaries comparable to those in developed countries. However, Russian companies can still cooperate with Russian graduates abroad and engage them as experts, advisors, or academic partners, which can be all the more fruitful as many of these graduates are familiar with both the Russian and international contexts. In addition, these connections may pay off in the future and can be considered as additional pull factors if these graduates would want to come back to Russia.

Second, while exploring multiple opportunities with respect to Russian graduates, engagement policies should become an essential element of the country’s education export strategy. Currently, immediate revenue is seen as a core benefit of inbound student mobility to Russia. Nevertheless, the establishment of long-term connections, including connections at the individual level, is also a tangible outcome of student mobility. For example, such relationships offer a way to build up stronger connections with China and other strategic partners, and thereby enhance business cooperation and joint research collaborations. To achieve this, these policies can be applied both at the national level (for example, by establishing centers for graduates abroad or online platforms, or other digital spaces, for interaction), and at the institutional level, by fostering the involvement of international students in the life of the Russian institutions and building connections with their advisors and Russian peers during their studies.

In both cases, by elaborating meaningful engagement policies both for international graduates in Russia and Russian graduates abroad, the country can
Internationalization through Regionalism: MERCOSUR’s Revisionist Project

Daniela Perrotta

Currently, internationalization of higher education (HE) has a central role in discourses, policies, and practices of international organizations, governments, and HE institutions (HEIs). Even the media has promoted internationalization through the creation of international rankings. The phenomenon has advanced a great deal since its inception in the late 1980s. As a result, numerous efforts are being made to include an analysis of internationalization from nonmainstream perspectives—experiences from underdeveloped countries as well as studies that incorporate diverse epistemological and methodological tools (Proctor & Rumbley, 2018). Additionally, there is a prevailing confusion about what internationalization is (or is not); mainly, it has become a catch-all category (Knight, 2012). Nevertheless, it is correct to argue that there is a mainstream model of internationalization that has quickly proliferated all over the world and is focused on market-oriented goals (de Wit, Gacel-Ávila, Jones, & Jooste, 2017). Some authors even argue that this is the result of a confusion between the phenomena of internationalization and globalization, terms that are sometimes used interchangeably; and that what should be discussed is the idea of globalization of internationalization (Egron-Polak & Marmolejo, 2017).

Notably, within those discussions, there is a lack of attention to how internationalization is fostered through region-building processes, namely regionalism. The European Union has long been examined, but other regions have received little or scarce attention. I seek to interrogate if and how internationalization permeates from the global to the national levels through region-building projects: does regionalism accelerate, counterbalance, or mitigate the globalization of internationalization? Do South American regional responses to internationalization challenge Northern/Western hegemony? These questions open avenues for advancing research in internationalization as a phenomenon that plays out in multilayered governance frameworks.

The question of how regionalism shapes internationalization in the Common Market of the South (MERCOSUR) and impacts on national regulatory settings provides an excellent case study for this type of inquiry. MERCOSUR was created in 1991 by Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, and Uruguay—and included Venezuela from 2012 until it was banned in 2016. Since its establishment, Mercosur has developed an educational agenda, which is the purview of the...
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tries of HE, including diverse HE traditions and academic cultures, influence regional policy processes. These factors are key elements for the construction and sustainability of regional leadership. Thus, MERCOSUR HE regional policies are better understood by assessing regulatory and normative aspects, especially those of strong public HE systems, while explanations regarding structural asymmetries such as amount of funding or size of the system are scarce and unsatisfactory. Fundamentally, the concept of education as a public and social good and human right, as opposed to the understanding of education as a commodity in a knowledge-based economy, divide positions regarding how to internationalize HE both nationally and regionally.

Argentina appears to have taken on a significant leadership role in the context of SEM. This comes as a result of a) its public university system, which has nurtured a view of the right to HE that has permeated the regional arena; b) its negotiating capacities to channel regulatory differences across the group toward its own national preferences and values; and c) its political initiative to finance programs when resources are scarce or other partners fail to. These dynamics may be further enabled by the fact that Uruguay shares a similar public university tradition; that Paraguay benefits from technical cooperation; and that Brazil does not place a high priority on MERCOSUR in terms of internationalization policies, because of its broader foreign policy aims. In the case of Uruguay and Paraguay, MERCOSUR HE policies have been used to legitimize policy change at the domestic level. The result of this is the autonomist configuration of a revisionist type of HE internationalization prompted by MERCOSUR to leverage national policies and global dynamics.

Conclusions: A Revisionist Internationalization of HE through MERCOSUR

My analysis finds three features that define MERCOSUR’s revisionist internationalization project. First, there is a clear differentiation from strategies developed by other regions, especially the European
The main differentiating element is the focus on the right to HE, which includes the recognition that it is a duty of the State to guarantee this right, as well as a focus on solidarity, respect, and mutual understanding.

Second, solidarity is a key component. This refers to the active creation of policy tools to mitigate asymmetries in the region and within countries. Such tools consist of mandatory clauses to include the least developed countries, as well as financial commitments by larger partners to resolve the issue of lack of resources.

Third, MERCOSUR’s regulatory agenda is focused on traditional international cooperation activities (mobility, accreditation, interuniversity cooperation), while its most recent programs can be considered more as internationalization activities. Nevertheless, a large part of the current internationalization agenda of member states (such as internationalization at home and integral/comprehensive/inclusive internationalization) is not covered by MERCOSUR.

As for the traditional HE international cooperation agenda, policy outcomes show that, during 1991–2012, MERCOSUR was not influenced by external pressures and could follow a gradual approach according to national settings, the management of regional asymmetries, and autonomist policy goals. Regarding the most recent internationalization agenda, although progress is limited and many issues still unsolved, the regional arena since 2008 has become a relevant forum to discuss the pros and cons of mainstreaming internationalization.

Overall, the idea of a revisionist internationalization project also suggests that certain trends are maintained—or, at least, not questioned. Despite the organizing principle of the right to HE, MERCOSUR has not become a norm broker within international institutions, such as UNESCO. That role has been confined, if at all, to the Latin American and Caribbean policy space, which is still vague and lacks a single regional organization with agency power.

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Knowledge and innovation are the crux of global empowerment today. Although arguments abound in relation to local versus global orientations and priorities, and recent policy changes in some countries indicate a reversal toward protectionism, when it comes to international students, internationalization of higher education (IoHE) is a global target. However, internationalization needs to be understood as “a process of integrating an international, intercultural, and global dimension into the purpose, functions (teaching, research, service), and delivery of postsecondary education” (Knight, 2003), so that the new opportunities of a globalized world can best be leveraged to serve national development goals while effectively contributing to the realization of global commitments to human welfare and sustainability, as outlined by the United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals for 2030. IoHE, thus, needs to be guided by national governments and not merely neoliberal economic principles, and should aim for sociocultural integration and not just commercial and market integration. India currently faces these challenges.

Contextualizing IoHE

Two broad strands of IoHE include internationalization abroad (IA) and internationalization at home (IaH), and both may be initiated at three levels: state/government, institutional, and self/individual. IA is understood to encompass student, staff, and program mobility in their various manifestations. IaH implies campus internationalization; internationalization of the curriculum, teaching, and learning; joint programs; and intercultural and international competences and learning outcomes.

IA can thus be predominantly understood as “preparing to go out,” while IaH may best be understood as “preparing to host.”

India’s Internationalization Profile

India has been rising on the global map of IoHE because of increasing interest both domestically and externally. India’s widely cited reasons for embracing internationalization include plugging the demand–supply gap in provision and the quality gap in teaching and learning; closing the knowledge-creation gap in research capacity and performance; and equipping graduates with twenty-first century skills for employment. India is also trying to leverage its comparative advantage in South Asia and Africa in order to be recognized as a rising educational hub (Khare, 2015).

Internationally, India is often a sought-after source for additional revenue generation, in light of its college-age cohort projected to reach 400 million by 2030 and an ever-growing Indian middle class with increased wealth and aspirations to study abroad. India’s interest in building a strategic academic dominance, particularly in South Asia, stands at odds with the international community’s predominantly commercial interest in India. These diverging perspectives have made India skeptical and guarded in its approach to internationalization, although in recent years it has had a more open approach toward IoHE.

Currently, IA overshadows IaH in India. Student mobility is the most dominant feature: India is one of the world’s most significant source nations, with 586,183 Indian students studying abroad as of December 2017 (Ministry of External Affairs, 2018).
Most outbound Indian students (85 percent) choose to study in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, or Canada. Meanwhile, fewer foreign students study in India. In 2016–2017, 47,575 international students were studying in India, a mere 0.67 percent of all globally mobile students. The majority (60 percent) of international students in India come from neighboring South Asian nations (Government of India, 2018).

Staff mobility is negligible, with little public funding, and limited mostly to conference or seminar participation and trainings. Program mobility is an emerging feature. Unfortunately, there is little acceptance and recognition in the job market of degrees from international providers, particularly in the government and in the public sector, for lack of quality assurance and legal validity. Meanwhile, very few Indian universities have branch campuses abroad, most of them private institutions aiming to reap profits in stronger markets and seeking global visibility to attract foreign students to their home campuses. Public institutions, stifled by restrictive policies and lack of incentive, hardly pursue program mobility. Exceptions to this rule include a few top-ranking professional institutes, such as the Indian Institutes of Technology and the Indian Institutes of Management, and a few central universities (institutions created by a Central Act of Parliament), which enjoy additional benefits and a fair amount of financial support from the government.

India’s attention to IaH has been timid and skewed, in spite of some recent attempts. Thus, India’s “preparedness to host” is poor and a major impediment to a balanced approach to internationalization.

**India’s Initiatives and Strategies**

Exchange and collaboration have traditionally been the two major modes of IoHE. In its desire to emerge as a regional education hub, India has markedly shifted its approach and become proactive at the systemic level to promote inward mobility. The government has taken several programmatic steps to turn India into an attractive destination. These may be categorized into the following broad categories:

- **Student recruitment**
  India aims to quadruple its foreign student numbers in the next five years, from 46,144 in 2018 to 200,000 by 2023 (Government of India, 2018b). To achieve this, financial support is being provided through full or partial fee waivers or scholarships under the General Cultural Scholarship Scheme (GCSC). Additional intake capacity is made possible by reserving seats for foreign students. For example, under the newly announced Study in India program, an initial budget of USD$22 million has been earmarked for the next two years to provide subsidies for more than 8,000 students from Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

- **Marketing India’s image**
  This work includes launching short-term programs/summer schools in order to provide opportunities for interaction/cultural experience to current and prospective international students and to foster international goodwill under the “Connect to India” program funded by the government of India. In another multiministry initiative, information services on 160 institutions, visas, admission processes, fee waivers, etc., are provided through a centralized “single window” approach.

- **Quality and compatibility**
  In order to gain international credibility and compatibility, there is a requirement for mutual recognition of degrees, credit transfers, standardization of qualifications framework, curricular reforms, and internationally accepted norms of evaluation. In contrast to earlier institution-to-institution bilateral relations, India entered into its first-ever government-to-government memorandum of understanding with France in 2018 to ensure the equivalence of academic degrees, in addition to 15 other agreements in the areas of higher education, research, innovation, faculty exchange, scientific cooperation, and jobs. India is now keen to conclude similar agreements with 30 countries in Africa, Asia, and West Asia, and with members of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), where, until now, relations were only institution to institution.
A series of additional initiatives focused on quality assurance, assessment, and international relevance have been introduced in an effort to improve the competitiveness of Indian higher education institutions. These include the Accreditation and Assessment Qualifications Framework; the National Institutional Ranking Framework (NIRF); the creation of Institutions of Eminence (IoE) (UGC, 2017); the Graded Autonomy project, making it easier to hire international faculty (Government of India, 2015); setting and charging fees from foreign students; engaging in joint supervision of PhD programs; and adopting new education techniques in a focused way, such as e-learning, M-learning, and MOOCs.

Institutional collaborations through branch campuses and education hubs are becoming common, as are more systematic coinnovation and co-creation approaches, in both South–South and North–South arrangements. Well-defined long-term (often thematic) partnerships and broad-based intergovernmental collaborations on mutually agreeable terms and mutually beneficial subject domains have emerged. The Singh–Obama knowledge initiative (with the United States), the United Kingdom–India Education and Research Initiative (UKIERI), the Indo-German Meta Universities initiative, the India–New Zealand Education Council, and the India–Israel Research Initiative are all examples of this shift.

**Conclusion**

In India, outbound mobility is left to be determined by market forces, with greater reliance on individuals. In contrast, efforts to improve inbound mobility and IaH have become government prerogatives at the systemic level. To this end, several new government initiatives are underway. But despite a politically and culturally proactive environment, effective and successful implementation remains a major challenge, pending a government policy on internationalization, a better defined national strategy, and a dedicated agency to advance this agenda.

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Student Mobility in the Global South: Regional Dimensions in Southern Africa

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Although the bulk of student mobility literature pays attention to global mobility, “a significant proportion of international education occurs across shared borders throughout the world” (Lee & Sehoole, 2015, p. 828). In the Southern African Development Community (SADC), intraregional educational mobility has become far more significant in terms of numbers than migration to Europe (Landau & Segatti, 2011). In fact, nearly half of all mobile students from SADC countries go to study in South Africa (Chien & Kot, 2012), making the SADC region the home of the bulk of South Africa’s nonnational student population.

Regional Dynamics in the SADC Region

South Africa’s history, development prospects, and interests remain closely bound up with those of its neighbors (Saunders, 2011). These ties include the long and complicated history of labor migration from the Southern African region to South African mines; the role of neighboring countries in supporting the antiapartheid struggle; and South Africa’s sprawling business interests in the region. Therefore, what might be seen as a straightforward issue of students moving across national borders in southern Africa is, in fact, fraught with moral/ethical implications that are bound up in continued imperialist and geopolitical logics concerning borders and belonging.

In the postapartheid era, efforts to nurture regional ties have had to contend with widespread and persistent anti-immigrant sentiments among ordinary South African citizens, government officials, and public and private service providers (Misago, 2017). As part of a political discourse that prioritizes indigeneity and promotes South African exceptionalism, xenophobia is a particularly important dynamic to understand in South African society, because the majority of South African citizens who express anti-immigrant sentiments identify foreign African nationals with the group least wanted in South Africa (Gordon, 2015).

This article is one of a small number of studies that focus on regional students in the Global South context, an analytical category that is often overlooked in the international higher education literature. It discusses how the opportunities and experiences of SADC students are shaped by two major conflicting policy imperatives relating to whom postapartheid South African universities belong to and whom they should serve. The first policy imperative relates to global pressures to integrate within a globalized higher education market that promotes competition, efficiency, and effectiveness. The second policy imperative pertains to the national objective to cater to historically marginalized black South Africans’ demands for redress, racial justice, and educational equity, as most recently expressed through the 2015–2016 #RhodesMustFall and #FeesMustFall student protests.

Methodology

This paper is based on an ethnography of a top-rated, formerly white university (hereafter called “World Class University” or WCU), situated at the intersection of pressures and debates around internationalizing and transforming higher education. The objective of the research was to understand how
the roles and missions of the country’s postapartheid public universities are conceptualized, contested, institutionalized, and experienced. Data consisted of more than 100 hours of audio-recorded interviews with 26 top and mid-level administrators, 15 faculty and staff members, 30 nonnational students, and 19 black and white South African students; participant observations in on-campus and off-campus events and meetings; and a review of institutional documents (e.g., strategic frameworks, surveys, reports, and enrollment statistics).

**Findings**

Based on what I heard and saw in the field, I developed a four-quadrant institutional policy landscape on which I mapped the divergent political optics that organize postapartheid South Africa’s competing higher education policy imperatives and shape the experiences of people differentially positioned within the university (Figure 1. see page 54).

I found out that the imperatives for national racial justice and international recognition (top left and bottom right quadrants) are extensively institutionalized in the university through explicit institutional structures and resources (e.g., physical offices, staff, and budgets) for transformation and internationalization. Institutionalization notwithstanding, these two imperatives are in tension with one another. This is because the imperative to internationalize privileges depoliticized conceptions of merit/quality and policy practices based on market-oriented Euro/American-centric best practices that exclude the majority black South African students. Owing to exclusionary and elitist policies of apartheid, many black South Africans are saddled with weaker preuniversity educational backgrounds and often face financial limitations. Serving these “underprepared” and nontraditional students well, for instance through remediation programs and comprehensive, publicly funded financial support, works against the competition and profit-and-loss calculations underlying the quest for international recognition (bottom right quadrant).

The nationwide 2015–2016 #Rhodes/FeesMustFall student protests offered great promise for interrupting longstanding claims that Euro/American internationalization templates are universal, neutral, objective, disembodied, and techno-rational. However, the #Rhodes/FeesMustFall student activists conceived the struggle against lack of access to higher education in South Africa within narrowly nationalistic and racialized conceptions of racial justice (top left quadrant). Understandably, they made claims that the South African public university should primarily belong to, and serve, historically marginalized black South Africans. Consequently, the possibility to come together across national borders to accommodate a regional/pan-African agenda (bottom left quadrant) within black South Africans’ racial justice struggle is overtaken by resentment of regional competition over access to higher education, jobs, and residence opportunities—a reflection of the ahistorical logic underpinning xenophobia in South Africa.

Contrary to the #Rhodes/FeesMustFall student activists’ singular focus on the national racial justice imperatives, WCU relies on the blackness of the regional students to contain the tensions between internationalization and transformation. WCU admits significant numbers of black students from the SADC region and the rest of the continent, for which WCU can claim progress both in terms of internationalization and transformation. In other words, the SADC students make it possible for the university to argue that it can be globally competitive while educating more black students.

**The Particular Status of Inbound Regional Students in the Global South**

In reality, inbound regional students are not fully accounted for in institutional discourses, policies, and structures for either internationalization or transformation logics, despite being utilized to orchestrate a response to, and mediate the conflicts between, these dynamics. On the one hand, they are invisible in the national discourse about transforming and decolonizing South African universities. Based on the legal notion of citizenship, nonnational students cannot make claims to citizenship rights within South Africa. Thus, they are not part of the group of historically marginalized black South Africans tar-
geted by and benefitting from the South African government’s postapartheid equity policies. On the other hand, SADC students are not sources of much-needed revenue in the same way that typical international students are for many other destination countries. They are, in fact, subsidized by South African public funds, which means that there are severe limits to the extent to which they can claim consumer rights within the university.

The study of intraregional student mobility in the Global South context is important because migration for education, for climate change, for work opportunities, and for survival is increasing across the SADC region, on the African continent, and across the world. Highlighting WCU’s experience is an attempt to very carefully research and tell the stories of how we make sense of each other as people. It is intended to challenge our understanding of people’s relationships with one another and of education systems, and of what it means to live together in a way that recognizes our shared humanity and our connections to one another in a much deeper way. This includes telling the stories of migrants’ experiences in ways that include ideas of Ubuntu (humanism) and pan-Africanism, for example, and questioning the ways in which South Africa is relating to neighboring countries in the region and to other countries, and what this means for the region’s shared future.

References
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