

CIHE
Perspectives
No.14

Inclusive and Innovative Internationalization of Higher Education:

*Proceedings of the WES-CIHE Summer Institute
June 19–21, 2019
Boston College*

**Rebecca Schendel, Hans de Wit,
and Tessa DeLaquil, Editors**



The Boston College Center *for*
International Higher Education

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(Editors)



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CIHE Perspectives

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FOREWORD

It is our great pleasure to present the proceedings of the 2019 **WES-CIHE Summer Institute on Innovative and Inclusive Internationalization**, a joint initiative of *World Education Services* (WES) and the *Center for International Higher Education* (CIHE) at Boston College. The 2019 Summer Institute is the second one jointly organized by the two partners, after two previous joint successful seminars in 2016 and 2017, and this is the second publication with papers of the participating scholars and students in the CIHE Perspectives Series.

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, given the financial demands of the majority of international activity. The inequity created by this exclusiveness calls for a revised, more innovative and inclusive approach to internationalization. The Summer Institute is a platform for students, young professionals, scholars and practitioners to discuss ways to make this happen. In particular, the 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.

In total, just over 70 people attended the 2019 Summer Institute (which took place June 19-21, 2019 at Boston College), the majority of which were PhD and Master students from all over the world, including Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Honduras, India, Israel, the Netherlands, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, and with a diverse international and intercultural representation from all over the United States of America. The program also included a rich diversity of senior scholar and practitioner perspectives, represented via a number of keynotes and expert panels. Through the generosity of WES,

each student presenter was provided with funding to cover the registration fee, travel expenses and/or accommodation for the event, a financial support which substantially enabled our ability to attract a diverse range of attendees.

This publication (CIHE Perspectives no. 14) includes a total of 29 essays by 31 Institute participants. Of these, 29 are student participants, most of whom have based their essays on their ongoing research (some complete and some still in the planning phases). The additional two authors, both visiting scholars at CIHE in 2018-19, have submitted essays based on their expert panel contributions. The collective results of the research outlined in this publication provide meaningful insight into the internationalization of higher education as perceived and studied by the next generation. It also provides insight into the diverse dimensions, regional perspectives and approaches to internationalize higher education.

We must close with a number of important thank yous. Most importantly, CIHE thanks WES for its financial support for the Summer Institute and for making this publication possible. WES and CIHE jointly want to thank the pool of senior scholars who spoke at this year's Summer Institute for their valuable contributions: Philip Altbach (CIHE, Boston), Craig Whitsed (Curtin University) and Betty Leask (La Trobe University/CIHE) from Australia, Elspeth Jones (Emerita professor Leeds Beckett University, UK), Hakan Ergin (Fulbright scholar at CIHE, Turkey), Fernanda Leal (visiting scholar at CIHE, Brazil), Laura Rumbley (European Association for International Education, the Netherlands), Makala Skinner (WES New York) and Bernhard Streitwieser (George Washington University, Washington DC). We also would like to thank Ravi Ammigan (University of Delaware), and Nick Gozik (Boston College) for sharing their practitioner in-

sights—and for the students/authors for their contributions to this publication.

CIHE would also like to thank Antonnet Botha and Silje Immerstein of WES for their hard work to make both the Summer Institute and this publication a success, Tessa DeLaquil, doctoral student and graduate assistant at CIHE, for the final text editing, and Salina Kopellas, Staff Assistant at CIHE, for the layout and design work.

We look forward to the next iteration of the WES-CIHE Summer Institute, June 10-12, 2020, at Boston College. Building on the previous institutes, special attention will be given to the contribution of higher education to skilled immigration and refugees in next year's event.

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October 2019

OVERVIEW

Overview of the 2019 WES-CIHE Summer Institute

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From June 19th-21st, 2019, graduate students and young professionals from across the globe converged upon Chestnut Hill, MA, for the 2019 WES-CIHE Summer Institute, an annual collaborative effort of World Education Services (WES) and Boston College's Center for International Higher Education (CIHE). Over the course of the three-day summit, conference attendees engaged in discussions, shared research, and celebrated their shared passion for increasing inclusivity and innovation in international higher education.

Intentionally Inclusive

Professor Hans de Wit of Boston College (Director of the CIHE) opened the conference by presenting a keynote centered on the evolution of the concept of inclusive and innovative internationalization. In his address, Professor de Wit argued that the concept of internationalization involves four critical dimensions: quality and internationalization, university social responsibility, strategic partnerships, and global learning for all (a concept that consists of internationalization at home as well as internationalization abroad). He also used his presentation to share an update to his previously published definition of "internationalization of higher education" (updated text is italicized): "The *intentional* process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary 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, 2019).

Rising Voices

The remainder of the institute heavily emphasized emerging voices in the field of international higher education, with attendees being treated to thirty-one two-minute thesis presentations from master students, doctoral students and early-career professionals. The quickfire presentations were organized by theme and region, so that synergies could be more easily identified. As a result, a number of attendees were able to identify important connections between their work and that of their peers, such as when Ayenachew Woldegiyorgis of Boston College and Diana Famakinwa of the University of Wisconsin-Madison discovered similarities in their independent explorations of the role of the diaspora within the internationalization of higher education in Ethiopia and Nigeria, respectively. Perhaps as a result of the focus on emerging voices in the field, the diversity of topics covered in the panels was refreshing, with presentations that covered oft-neglected regions (e.g. the TNRC), topics (e.g. the internationalization of student affairs) and populations (e.g. students at community colleges).

Established Voices

At the same time, attendees had the opportunity to hear from some of the most established scholars in the field. Keynote speakers Betty Leask, Emerita Professor at La Trobe University and Visiting Professor at CIHE, and Craig Whitsed, Senior Lecturer at Cur-

tin University, both spoke about the internationalization of the curriculum and its potential to revolutionize the experiences of domestic and international students alike by centering inclusion in the creation and implementation of curricula. Makala Skinner, a Research Associate at WES, extended the conversation about inclusion beyond the classroom when she shared results from the 2019 International Student Experience Survey which explored the question: “How do current international students and recent graduates perceive their experiences at U.S. higher education institutions?” The survey revealed a number of important trends regarding the social interaction and inclusion of participants within and without the classroom, highlighting the need for enhanced inclusion within U.S. higher education. Elspeth Jones, Emerita Professor of the Internationalization of Higher Education at Leeds Beckett University, spoke about inclusive internationalization and the student experience. During her presentation, Dr. Jones asserted the importance of access and equity in inclusive internationalization which “must take into account the varied socio-political, economic and demographic contexts in different parts of the world and must address the issue that current internationalization policies and practices are not inclusive and exclude the majority of students in the world” (Jones, 2019).

Centering his keynote address on students and scholars who are oft-overlooked in conversations about inclusion, Bernhard Streitwieser, Assistant Professor of International Education and International Affairs at George Washington University, discussed the role of migrants and refugees in international education. Dr. Streitwieser’s introduction to the challenges experienced by the world’s 65-70 million refugees and migrants made universal the presentations of fellow attendees Hannah Cazzetta of Boston College (“Barriers for Venezuelan Refugees Accessing Higher Education in Colombia”) and Hakan Ergin, a Visiting Scholar at CIHE (“Inclusive Policies for Syrian Refugees’ Access to Turkish Higher Education”). These presentations about the unique needs and challenges of migrants and refugees in international higher education am-

plified the question of the social responsibility of universities in the process of internationalization.

Lastly, Laura Rumbley, Associate Director of Knowledge Development and Research at the European Association for International Education, presented questions for attendees to consider and discuss regarding major themes and trends for the future of the field. Befitting the theme of the seminar, Dr. Rumbley encouraged attendees to join discussion groups and seek opportunities to connect with different colleagues, so they could benefit from the varying backgrounds and perspectives of those in attendance.

A Celebration of Inclusion

Attendees benefitted from the open, collegial nature of the institute, which allowed presenters to field questions and receive immediate feedback from their peers, as well as ample time to connect outside of the scheduled sessions. This experience was particularly beneficial for the new professionals and blossoming scholars in attendance who were encouraged to submit their works for publication, to seek opportunities to present and to continue asking questions of their more tenured peers. The 2019 WES-CIHE Summer Institute was a celebration of the diversity present in the field of international higher education, a heartening display of the power of inclusion within academia, and a springboard for the potential innovations that lie within and ahead of the field of international higher education.

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Inclusive Internationalization is Innovative Internationalization: Purpose-Driven Higher Education Against Inequity in Society

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The definition of the internationalization of higher education has developed over the past decades from one that presents internationalization in terms of its function to one that views internationalization in terms of its purpose and mission, realigning with the original purpose and mission of higher education. The definition of internationalization in terms of function focuses on internationalization of higher education as an end in itself, describing it as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education” (Knight, 2003, p. 2). An expanded definition of internationalization focuses on internationalization of higher education as a means to an end, describing it as:

The intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary 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)

Most recently, the definition of internationalization has been further refined to focus on the aspect of service to the community: “internationalization of higher education for society (IHES) explicitly aims to benefit the wider community, at home or abroad, through international or intercultural education, research, service and engagement” (Brandenburg, de Wit, Jones, & Leask, 2019, n.p.). This reassessment and realignment of the definition and purpose of the internationalization of higher education echoes the centering of equity, diversity, and inclusion strategies in the larger higher education arena.

Traditional Rationales for Internationalization

The sequence of iterations of the definition of internationalization reflects consequences of the massification and globalization of higher education and the correlated rise of the knowledge economy, which can be clearly seen in the shifting of the rationales driving higher education. Traditional rationales that drive the internationalization of higher education include academic, socio-cultural, political, and economic rationales (de Wit, 2002, as cited in Streitwieser, Loo, Ohorodnik, & Jeong, 2018, p. 2).

the resulting focus on the individual good obtained through higher education, as well as the commercialization of the knowledge product, the primary purpose of higher education towards teaching, research, and service as means to the common good has been severely diminished.

Defining an Inclusive Internationalization Process

By some standards, one might say that international higher education in many of its dimensions is more susceptible to this corruption of purpose, given the heavy emphasis by national governments on education as an internationally tradable entity, considering the economic value of international students, international branch campuses, and other programs.

The expansion of the definition of internationalization to explicitly and intentionally widen access to the benefits of internationalization to “all students and staff” (de Wit *et al.*, 2015, p. 29) is, therefore, a welcome development. The concepts of internationalization at home and internationalization of the curriculum (Leask, Jones, & de Wit, 2018, n.p.; de Wit *et al.*, 2015, pp. 44-45) follow from the expansion of this definition of internationalization. The attempt to expand access to international and intercultural learning experiences through internationalization at home and internationalization of the curriculum is a movement towards inclusive internationalization, that is, global learning for all (Leask *et al.*, 2018, n.p.). Such an inclusive vision for internationalization does not appear to be driven by a similar economic rationale to more traditional forms of internationalization. Although, if done correctly, there could certainly be long-term economic benefits to the knowledge economy deriving from such institutional strategies—these would not involve the immediacy of a direct boost to the national economy or the institutional budget from international student tuition.

Rather, a more inclusive internationalization is more in line with other rationales for international higher education. For example, some of the most recent definitions of internationalization for society (e.g. Brandenburg *et al.*, 2019, n.p.) align with a so-

cial responsibility rationale for investing in international higher education. The global refugee crisis, climate change, ongoing war, rising nationalism and xenophobia, religious extremism, poverty, and food insecurity—to name just a few contemporary crises—are certainly within the purview of higher education and its role in society.

In addition to the academic, socio-cultural, political, and economic rationales for internationalization of higher education, a humanistic rationale has also been proposed (Streitwieser *et al.*, 2018, p. 16). The humanistic rationale requires an alignment with civil and human rights, social justice, and human dignity, and higher education as a public or common good (Streitwieser *et al.*, 2018, p. 17). The impact of higher education must rise far above the paltry purpose of individual good. While massification remains a global trend in higher education, the quality of higher education varies greatly across nations, and thus access to high-quality higher education remains largely elitist. It seems then that it is the responsibility of higher education to work against inequity in society.

Contemporary International Higher Education: Key Elements in Tension

Observing the development of the definition of internationalization of higher education in academic scholarship, in response to the perpetuation of inequity within higher education and within society, it is possible to draw out certain key elements of the current climate in international higher education and contemporary society that lie in tension to one another. One element is the tension between massification and elite access to higher education, especially considering the variance of national income levels, levels of systemic or institutional quality, and corresponding enrolment ratios; a second is the tension between the global common good purpose of higher education and the individual private good purpose of higher education; and a third is the tension between knowledge as product, that is international higher education as industry, and knowledge in service of the community, and international higher education for global society. These tensions are not necessarily either-or situations, although they are

sometimes described as such. For example, by stratifying a system of higher education to include research institutions as well as vocational or technical institutions, the conversation around massive access and elitism becomes nuanced. Furthermore, there are certainly individual goods derived from higher education while it is simultaneously directed towards the common good. Similarly, there may be industrial partnerships with higher education that work in service of society.

International higher education is still a young academic discipline and the practice of internationalization of higher education is in the early stages of development and implementation within institutions and across countries. There is a certain amount of elasticity in the “why” and the “how” of internationalization of higher education, as demonstrated by the responsive development of the definition of internationalization over the past decades and increase in programming driven by a humanistic rationale. What is clear is that inclusivity - that is, the movement away from elite access towards mass access to the benefits of internationalization - requires significant innovation on the part of institutions and nation states, especially as financial incentives for such activities are not necessarily available.

As scholars and practitioners in international higher education, we are not as bound to particular policies as are the slow-moving behemoths that are higher education institutions; being nimble is a strength that must be valued and exercised as it permits the flexibility to be innovative. In recognising the limitations in our current application of internationalization of higher education, we must be adaptive and expand our worldview to include a humanistic rationale, founded on the global common good, and work innovatively against inequity in our society, in order to ensure that our application of internationalization is inclusive.

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THE INTERNATIONALIZATION PROFESSION

Investigating Perceived Understandings and Challenges of Internationalization among International Education Professionals in U.S. Higher Education

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International education professionals are the people who carry out the array of processes, programs, and institutional codes that make up international education in U.S. higher education. Their ongoing understanding and retrospection are important to the practice and improvement of internationalization in U.S. higher education. Understanding international education professionals' definitions and perceived challenges of internationalization would provide insights into internationalization in U.S. higher education and shed light on the support and resources needed for comprehensive internationalization.

In U.S. higher education, international education professionals are the interpreters and implementers of internationalization in institutions. They perform tasks such as advising international students, building institutional partnerships, and interpreting laws and policies that are related to internationalization to ensure that institutions and international students are complying with regulations. The Association of International Educators (NAFSA), the largest professional association dedicated to international education, defines international education professionals as the practitioners who have the knowledge, skills, abilities, and competencies in the field of international education that include but are not limited to comprehensive internationalization, education abroad, international en-

rollment management, and international student and scholar services (NAFSA, 2015).

Literature Review

Internationalization as a term has been used in various fields. In the education sector, various organizations and scholars have defined internationalization in the past decades, and the evolving definition of internationalization has been a topic in discourse among scholars. The most up-to-date definition of internationalization in the field of international higher education is “the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary 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). Effective, comprehensive, inclusive, and strategic internationalization in higher education institutions requires multidimensional and multilateral efforts. Successful internationalization in higher education involves a broad range of tasks such as active and responsible engagement of the academic community in partnerships and global networks, curriculum design and teaching, collaborations in research and service activities, as well as strategic management of institutional resources.

Since the 1990s, such increased international education activities attracted attention to the field of research of internationalization. Scholars have pointed out that research on internationalization has ignored practitioners, and student mobility remains the focal point in international education (O'Reilly, Hickey, & Ryan, 2013). Some increasing political, economic, and academic challenges of internationalization in higher education include the rise of nationalist and anti-immigrant politics, increased fees for international students, the debate around academic freedom, application of a quantitative over a qualitative approach to internationalization, the predominance of the English language in teaching, and other ethical concerns within the higher education community itself (Altbach & de Wit, 2018).

The United States has been successfully attracting global talent for decades, and there is consistently a strong presence of international students and scholars in U.S. higher education. Decentralization, funding, and assessment pose challenges to internationalization in U.S. higher education. The United States differs from most other countries in terms of institution-driven internationalization due to the lack of education ministry and central coordination, as well as no national or institutional policy on internationalization. Helms (2015), linking the U.S. characteristics of decentralization and assessment challenges, states that,

A dedicated coordinating body would allow for a holistic analysis and evaluation of relevant policies and programs—informed by data on outputs, outcomes, and impact already collected by individual agencies as well as targeted studies as needed—and an assessment of what additional initiatives and activities would be beneficial from the specific standpoint of higher education internationalization. (p. 33)

The Research

The purpose of the study is to investigate the perceived understandings and challenges of internationalization from the perspective of international education professionals in the context of U.S. higher

education. The *CIGE Model for Comprehensive Internationalization* (2018), which was developed by the Center for Internationalization and Global Engagement (CIGE) at the American Council on Education (ACE), was used as a framework for international education professionals to describe their work and challenges in the process of internationalization in U.S. higher education. This study is guided by the following research questions with an overarching question of, what can we learn from international education professionals in terms of internationalization in the context of U.S. higher education?

- What are international education professionals' definitions of internationalization?
- What are the challenges and barriers of internationalization that are perceived by international education professionals?
- What resources and support do international education professionals describe as needed to address internationalization challenges?

Qualitative data were collected from semi-structured interviews with eleven international education professionals from eleven public and private institutions. The respondents were recruited from the NAFSA network, and each respondent has at least five years of work experience in international education in U.S. higher education. The eleven participants hold various positions at their institutions. Four of the respondents work at the director's level, two respondents work as assistant directors, and one respondent works as an associate director. Four of the respondents work as designated school officials (DSOs) at their institutions.

The interview participants were asked about their definitions of internationalization, to articulate their challenges of internationalization in their everyday practice, and to identify the perceived most challenging target areas and goals of internationalization from the CIGE model.

The researcher used Computer Assisted/Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) Atlas.ti for data analysis in this study and performed four stages of coding on the collected data. For the provision of trustworthiness and the validity of this

study, the researcher checked with the participants respectively regarding the audio recording, interview transcription, and provided a summary of the findings stemming from the interview transcription and notes taken during the interview. This study bridges research and practice of internationalization and contributes to the research gap of international education professionals' perspectives on internationalization.

Research Findings and Conclusion

Regarding research question one, the eleven interview participants gave non-unitary definitions of internationalization. Regardless of the interview participants' positions in the field of international education, all of the eleven participants indicated that internationalization is a broad concept and internationalization is more than academic mobility in U.S. higher education. Furthermore, the relationship between internationalization and academic mobility is described by the interview participants as intertwined with each other; and academic mobility as a part, an approach, or one of the paths to internationalization.

The four major themes that emerged from research questions two and three are political climate, infrastructure, senior leadership, and faculty support. The current political climate in the United States, the lack of support in infrastructure, faculty, and funding were the most frequently mentioned subthemes about the most challenging features of internationalization. From the CIGE model, credit transfer policies, articulated institutional commitment with strategic planning, faculty policies and practices, and curriculum were mentioned and described less often as challenges. All of the interview participants in this study indicated that they are familiar with the organization of ACE, but none were specifically familiar with the CIGE model.

The international education professionals in this study highlighted that campus integration, articulated institutional commitment, and training for faculty and staff are the most needed support for internationalization in U.S. higher education. Furthermore, the need for campus integration was described in both the tangible sense, such as the in-

frastructure need of establishing housing facilities and departments that support internationalization; and the conceptual sense of campus integration such as improving communication between departments and shifting the attitudes and perspectives of senior leadership, faculties, advisors, and U.S. domestic students, having them support international education, international research, and international students.

The findings of this study provide insights of on the ground challenges from the perspectives of international education professionals and shed light on the resources and supports that are needed for improvements in internationalization.

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Senior International Offices as Entrepreneurs: Creating New Solutions for the 21st Century

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Introduction

The Association of International Education Administrators' (AIEA) 2017 survey of Senior International Officers (SIOs) ranks entrepreneurship among the top five characteristics valued in international education leaders. Today, SIOs face increased demands for resource generation, enrollment management, and program expansion, and must balance their primary goal of campus internationalization with new expectations to fund their offices and other parts of the university (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Deschamps & Lee, 2015). Resource constraints have forced universities to consider new arrangements and alignments, and most colleges and universities are embarking on entrepreneurial revenue-generating initiatives (Descamps & Lee, 2015; Glass & Lee, 2018) or forming new partnerships—sometimes with for-profit enterprises (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Consequently, SIOs face demands for entrepreneurship and innovation, while adhering to the values, standards, and expectations of their university and meeting the goal of campus internationalization. This study aimed to uncover insights about the entrepreneurial aims and successes of SIOs in the United States through in-depth interviews that highlighted the potential for innovative activities within bureaucratic institutions.

Literature Review

Entrepreneurship provides one lens to understand the increasingly important role of SIOs in the larger adaptation of university business models to changing funding contexts. Entrepreneurship, defined as

“the pursuit of opportunity beyond the resources you currently control,” (Stevenson, 2000, p. 1) is shaped by local context and realities. Leaders in the field of international education are increasingly expected to serve as innovators and entrepreneurs in order to fund their activities and other institutional priorities (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Deschamps & Lee, 2015; Glass and Lee, 2018). SIOs have to navigate traditional administrative roles and expectations for entrepreneurship, implementing innovative activities and leading change while also adhering to institutional norms, bureaucratic processes, and promoting internationalization through all campus endeavors (Stevenson, 2000).

A number of studies have explored the intersection of entrepreneurship and international education. For example, Deschamps and Lee (2015) examined the entrepreneurial activities of SIOs through the framework of mergers and acquisitions, and found that some of the new drivers for internationalization come from an underlying goal of revenue generation. SIOs interviewed for the study discussed activities that contributed to the bottom line of the university, e.g., international student enrollment, continuing relationships with international alumni, dual degrees, and delivering curriculum abroad (Deschamps & Lee, 2015). Glass and Lee (2018) built upon this research by using national data to identify predictors of satisfaction with an institution's strategy for campus internationalization at institutions where there may not be adequate funding to fulfill this mandate. The results indicated that the negotiation of the educational and entrepre-

neurial rationales for internationalization were dependent on far more factors at institutions where staff perceived more resource constraints, highlighting again the importance of local context and realities.

This study uses effectuation, a well-established framework to describe and characterize a set of decision-making principles that expert entrepreneurs employ in situations of uncertainty (Sarasvathy, 2008). Effectuation is different from more traditional causal logic processing, where people choose a specific, fixed goal and carefully execute it with predetermined steps. Rather, effectual reasoning encourages flexible goals and a continual reevaluation of the resources needed amidst the financial landscape (Sarasvathy, 2008). Internationalization and effectual reasoning exhibit natural synergies in the higher education realm since both reflect conditions of uncertainty (Altbach & Knight, 2007), and there is value in understanding how SIOs reason their way through uncertain and unpredictable situations to pursue opportunities beyond the resources they control.

Context

This qualitative interview study of 15 SIOs in the United States uses the effectuation framework to answer the question: How do Senior International Officers (SIOs) think and behave as entrepreneurs in opportunity identification and new venture creation in the process of internationalization? Participants were chosen through a combination of purposeful and snowball sampling to include a wide variety of institutions and demographics. Participants had a variety of different titles, professional backgrounds, and job tasks which is typical for SIOs (AIEA, 2017). This variety allowed for richer and more diverse insights because each participant shared a unique perspective depending on their institution, its risk-taking nature, and the structure of their office.

Interview questions were developed by consulting the effectuation framework and principles as well as piloting the study with a seasoned SIO. Interviews were conducted over a two month period by three different researchers. Of the 15 SIO participants, nine were from public institutions (including

one Historically Black College or University (HBCU)), five were from private institutions, and one was from a community college. Ten were male and five were female, and twelve were white and three were non-white. Eleven different states within the United States were represented, with 11 participants from the South, three from the Northeast, and one from the Midwest. The on-campus student enrollment of the SIOs' institutions ranged from approximately 2,000 students to 50,000 students. Although most SIOs had doctoral degrees and some had been faculty at one point in time, only three of the 15 participants transitioned to their SIO role directly from a faculty role.

Findings

Data analysis revealed six themes that almost every SIO discussed in some form. Most of the themes can be situated within the effectuation framework and core principles (Sarasvathy, 2008), but some are specific to the field of international education and the SIO role. First and foremost, virtually all SIOs discussed how important partnerships are, particularly with senior leadership and faculty members. Many participants felt that they were better able to obtain resources and create innovative activities when they had the support of senior leadership. Several discussed how they intentionally invited senior leadership on international business travel so leaders could better understand the importance of internationalization.

Secondly, the initiatives that SIOs highlighted in the interviews as entrepreneurial or innovative all had an indirect or direct impact on revenue. Initiatives ranged from working with agents, faculty development programs, pathway programs, student scholarships created by student fees, to leveraging federal grants. Some SIOs struggled to see themselves as entrepreneurs because the term is most often used in the business world. However, it was clear that all created initiatives that brought in revenue for their institution in different ways.

Another insight was that an institution's tolerance for risk-taking does not determine the success of the SIO as an entrepreneur, but the institutional culture can help or hinder their innovative initia-

tives. Sometimes, university units or even specific people questioned the SIO's reasoning for innovation or felt that their turf was being invaded. One participant stated, "People sometimes will, you know, say, 'Well no, this is ... You're stepping on my territory', and sometimes, you know, with innovation, you shouldn't have territory." Others shared that vigorously researching and benchmarking their idea, and building a success track record, helped with the acquiescence of risk-averse institutions or individuals.

Many participants discussed how the field of international education and the role of the SIO is changing. All former faculty members commented on how important it still is to have faculty rank to enlist faculty support. A few other SIOs mentioned that international education has emerged as a discipline in itself in the last decade. SIOs from an international education background felt that their understanding of the field and the greater university enabled them to be more effective in their job.

The importance of technology and online learning for the future was mentioned by all participants. This also ties in with another theme of focusing on an institution's strengths and building partnerships in the community. The landscape of international student recruitment, budget cuts, and declining domestic student enrollment has a bigger impact on lesser ranked and regional institutions, according to many participants. One SIO stated: "Sometimes the lesser-known institutions really have to be scrappy and really have to try to be creative and quite proactive in that business development context." Several people remarked that with recent challenges, campus leadership is more open to bigger risks. Most SIOs recognized that all schools should not focus on growing their online enrollment and capacity necessarily, but rather that they should hone in on their institution's strengths and integrate technology into relevant new initiatives to engage students and grow partnerships.

Conclusion

Higher education institutions represent centuries of stability and longevity in a turbulent world. Smaller budgets, technology, and private companies, howev-

er, threaten the financial sustainability of many higher education institutions (Altbach & Knight, 2007). This research study identified themes from 15 SIOs within the United States who highlighted the importance of strong partnerships, focusing on an institution's strengths, utilizing technology, embracing the changes in international education and the SIO role, engaging in indirect and direct initiatives to generate revenue, and persisting in spite of a risk-averse institutional environment. Just as globalization and internationalization initiatives have altered many aspects of higher education today for the better (Altbach & Knight, 2007), so too can entrepreneurship and innovation strengthen HEIs and provide a solid footing for success in the next century.

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Locally-Hired IBC Lecturers as Global University Representatives: Assumptions, Challenges and Solutions

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Introduction

International branch campuses (IBCs) are higher-education satellites which purport to reflect their parent campuses overseas, ensuring that “overall, students at the branch have a similar student experience to students at the home campus” (Wilkins & Rumbley, 2018, p. 14). Providing this global experience involves IBCs mirroring parent-campus features such as libraries and dining halls (Wilkins & Rumbley, 2018); it also involves ensuring that IBC lecturers evoke the parent-campus ethos in their interactions with students (Shams & Huisman, 2016). However, recent shifts in IBC academic hiring are raising questions about faculty contributions to IBCs’ global ethos.

While historically IBCs seconded parent-campus lecturers to replicate academic experiences overseas, in recent years IBCs have increasingly localized academic hiring (Wood & Salt, 2018). This trend is seen by some as involving risk, with assumptions that locally-hired lecturers possess lower levels of “institutional loyalty” (Healey, 2018) and “different cultural values” (Shams & Huisman, 2016) than their onshore peers. IBC lecturers are presented in this literature as unlikely brand supporters whose hiring threatens to erode their campuses’ global value proposition.

Assumptions about locally-hired IBC lecturers’ institutional disloyalty are based on leaders’ impressions rather than the views of IBC lecturers, whose perspectives are underrepresented in IBC literature. The present research addresses this gap with a

grounded theory study of how locally-hired IBC lecturers construct individual and campus identities as part of their global institutions. It seeks to promote inclusive approaches to IBC faculty development, looking beyond essentialist views of lecturer identity to understand how IBC leaders can engage locally-hired faculty as global university representatives.

IBCs and the Trend Toward Localizing Academic Hiring

International branch campuses (IBCs) are satellite outposts of their parent universities, delivering global offerings to students at remote locations. The Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT, 2019) in the United States defines an international branch campus as

“an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; and provides an entire academic program, substantially on site, leading to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider,” (p. 1).

More than 250 IBCs are now in operation, largely based in Asia and the Middle East and run by universities in countries including the U.S., U.K. and Australia (C-BERT, 2019).

IBCs are typically expansion ventures for their universities, dependent upon student enrollments for viability. Ensuring this viability requires delivering on IBCs’ value proposition of mirrored parent-campus experiences (Wilkins & Rumbley, 2018). Yet mirroring the parent campus is not always a

straightforward undertaking, due to the financial and logistical challenges involved in overseas educational delivery (Healey, 2018). IBC leaders must balance competing demands in several strategic areas; one is faculty selection.

Historically, IBC teaching has relied on second- and fly-in parent-campus lecturers, but in recent years IBCs have increasingly hired staff from host and third countries, due to the lower cost of hiring locally (Shams & Huisman, 2016). In literature describing this trend, localizing IBC academic hiring is presented as a risky compromise: a “tradeoff” providing economic benefits but potentially damaging the IBC’s global “culture” (Healey, 2018). Healey (2018) claims that locally-hired lecturers may lack the “institutional loyalty” to effectively represent their global institutions and may steer the IBC culture away from its global connections (p. 631). Similarly, Shams and Huisman (2018) call it a “fact” that “local lecturers do not fully represent the home institution due to the different cultural values,” (p. 958).

In this literature, non-parent-campus faculty are framed as incapable of representing their universities and likely to undermine global links at the IBC. These are essentialist claims—reducing representational capacity to national origin—and they posit assumptions about these lecturers’ identities without consulting lecturers themselves. Little is known about how locally-hired IBC lecturers actually orient to their roles and representational responsibilities: how they construct identities for themselves and their campuses as part of their global universities.

As the trend toward localizing IBC academic hiring continues, Wood and Salt (2018) have called for global universities to better engage locally-hired faculty. A starting point for doing so is understanding these lecturers’ current organizational orientations. With the limited literature on IBCs offering minimal insights into locally-hired IBC lecturers’ experiences, there is a need for research highlighting the emic perspectives of these lecturers about their roles in their global universities.

Researching IBC Lecturers’ Identity Constructions

This research addresses literature assumptions

about locally-hired IBC lecturers through an interview-based grounded-theory study of these lecturers’ individual and organizational identity constructions. In 2018, I interviewed 36 IBC lecturers across four Australian IBCs in Southeast Asia: two in Singapore and two in Malaysia. Thirty-four of these participants were locally hired, with 21 hailing from the IBCs’ host country, five from other countries in Asia, and eight from non-Asian third countries. I conducted individual, one-hour, semi-structured interviews with participants, discussing their experiences working at their IBCs and gaining insights about their related identities.

Using the inductive and iterative research method of constructivist grounded theory, I identified patterns in participant data which made relevant the theoretical framework of organizational identity construction. From these data, I developed grounded theories about how locally-hired IBC lecturers construct identities for themselves and their campuses as part of their global universities, and how their relationships with parent-campus colleagues impact the global integration of these identities.

Emerging from this research is a more nuanced portrait of locally-hired IBC lecturers’ identities. Overall, I find that the stereotype that these lecturers have inherently low “institutional loyalty” is not supported. However, several impediments do exist to these lecturers’ identification as part of their global universities and their sense of cross-campus cohesion. Specifically, locally-hired lecturers’ approaches to professional identity enactment, perceptions of IBC disadvantage and impressions of parent-campus course coordinators interfere with their global identity development and facilitation of the IBC’s globally-reflective experience.

At an individual level, locally-hired IBC lecturers I spoke with construct their individual professional identities as layered, with their occupations seen as tied to their core sense of self and their university identities treated as superficial. Locally-hired IBC lecturers’ sense of organizational belonging is stronger at the IBC level than globally, but these lecturers feel most beholden to their occupations, primarily as educators. Lecturers’ identity enactments

reflect these compartmentalized layers, with lecturers engaging only their occupational identities in their interactions with students and reserving organizational representation for external events. In other words, lecturers leave their brand affiliations at the classroom door, not representing the global university or even the IBC to students.

The campus identities that lecturers constructed also reveal global-representation impediments. Overall, they see their IBCs as disadvantaged, lacking the resources of facilities, support services and student preparedness to achieve parent-campus equivalency. Some strive to address these gaps by seeking support from parent-campus course-coordinators, but challenges in cross-campus relationships complicate these attempts. IBC lecturers see many parent-campus colleagues as alternately micromanaging or disinterested, prompting some lecturers to forgo attempting equivalency and acquiesce to perceived disadvantage, reinforcing it through adjustments in local delivery. Short-term study abroad at the parent campus is seen as the only way of gaining a global experience.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This research presents a more complicated image of locally-hired IBC lecturers than has been assumed in recent literature. Overall, it suggests that impediments to a globally-reflective IBC student experience are not inherent to local hiring; they are the result of ineffective IBC lecturer engagement and are therefore open to intervention.

At an individual level, IBC lecturers need to be more effectively engaged as members of the global university as well as legitimate brand supporters. Currently, they compartmentalize their professional identities, eschewing organizational identities entirely in their student interactions. This identity compartmentalization could be addressed through staff engagement, helping lecturers understand their role in delivering on the global-university value proposition.

This could be coupled with more effective means of helping locally-hired IBC lecturers connect and identify with their parent campuses. Improving cross-campus coordination relationships is

one mechanism for doing so.

Improving cross-campus engagement would also address global-identity impediments at the campus level. Currently, locally-hired IBC lecturers see campus disadvantage as a major—even insurmountable—impediment to delivering a globally-reflective student experience. IBC lecturers desire support from their parent-campus course coordinators but feel these coordinators generally lack sympathy for their local challenges, engaging with them only transactionally and authoritatively. Lecturers desire more more supportive relationships with parent-campus colleagues, moving beyond the current approvals-based relationship to one of genuine collaboration. As one IBC leader phrased it,

“It’s not a question about yes or no: ‘yes, you can do it,’ ‘no, you can’t do it.’ It’s a question about sharing this challenge together.”

The future of IBCs depends upon university leaders effectively engaging IBC lecturers as legitimate global representatives and ensuring supportive cross-campus collaboration. Engagement mechanisms to increase locally-hired IBC lecturers’ sense of global-university belonging should be combined with efforts to engage lecturers in representing their universities to students. Further, course coordinators at the parent campus should be allocated sufficient resources to support IBC lecturers in addressing contextual disadvantages at the IBC, building cross-campus equivalency and facilitating locally-hired IBC lecturers’ global belonging. By implementing engagement strategies at each of these points, IBCs can better deliver on their value proposition of mirrored global experiences.

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INSTITUTIONAL EXPERIENCES WITH INTERNATIONALIZATION

The Relationship between International Undergraduate Student Enrollment and Net Tuition Revenue at Research Universities in the United States

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The United States has long been the country that hosts the largest number of international students in the world. Until very recently, international student enrollment has consistently grown in the U.S., both in terms of headcount and as a share of total U.S. enrollment. In the 2017-18 academic year, there were one million international students enrolled in U.S. higher education institutions, representing a 1.5 percent increase from the prior year. International students have a share of approximately five percent of the 20 million students enrolled in U.S. tertiary education, up from 3.5 percent in earlier years. This increase can be explained by the growing numbers of international students, coupled with the small declines in the number of U.S. students enrolled in higher education. Although, over the last couple of years, first-time international enrollment has dropped slightly due to changing political and economic circumstances, the U.S. remains one of the most popular destinations for international edu-

cation (Institute of International Education, 2018). As a result of this trend, international students are seen as an increasingly important revenue source for U.S. universities. However, recent declines raise questions about the financial stability of universities relying on revenue from international student tuition revenue.

This paper reports on the results of my doctoral research, which focuses on the magnitude of returns associated with increases in international students at four-year U.S. universities and reveals that only research universities are able to generate substantial revenue from enrolling international students (Komissarova, 2019). This study provides a more comprehensive understanding of the magnitude of net tuition revenue growth from enrolling students from abroad for public and private not-for-profit research universities. It takes a closer look at the revenue-generating potential of research universities and focuses on the following questions: 1) What are

the gains in net tuition revenue associated with enrolling additional international undergraduate students? 2) How does the relationship differ by sector?

Short Literature Review

Several studies have explored the economic effects of enrolling international students in U.S. universities. Shih (2017) showed that increases in international graduate student enrollments were related to increases in domestic graduate student enrollment. It was found that tuition revenues from international graduate students help public and private universities to cross-subsidize tuition fees for domestic students. The cross-subsidization was most pronounced at public research universities.

International students at public universities pay tuition that is significantly higher than what local domestic students pay. Bound et al. (2016) found that the growing pool of prospective international students, combined with declines in state funding, drove the growth of international undergraduate enrollment at public institutions. They also showed that, for the subsample of more selective public research universities, the growth of foreign enrollment resulted in a 40 percent change in tuition revenue. The analysis further demonstrated that enrolling more international students as a response to state funding cuts was most notable at public research universities, suggesting that non-research institutions have less potential to attract students from abroad.

Similarly, Cantwell (2015) and Komissarova (2019) found a positive statistically significant relationship between international undergraduate student enrollment and net tuition revenue at research and doctoral universities. The studies showed that baccalaureate and master institutions did not generate additional tuition revenue from enrolling additional new undergraduate students from abroad. Conversely, the public research university sector enjoyed the largest growth of additional net tuition revenue that can be attributed to international enrollment growth.

Existing literature supports the notion that financial interests have been driving decisions to en-

roll more international students. As most U.S. higher education institutions are currently experiencing financial challenges, a great deal of media attention has been focused on the economic consequences of current international enrollment declines. Attracting international students has been a reasonable strategy for universities that want to achieve their revenue goals by focusing on enrolling fee-paying students. This holds true for both private and public universities. The anticipated future declines in international enrollments will have an impact on research universities that have been relying on international enrollment to meet their fiscal needs

Context of the Study

The dataset for the study incorporated institution-level data from the Integrated Postsecondary Data System (IPEDS) and state-level data from Bureau of Economic Analysis and U.S. Census. The data analyzed covered the period from 2003 through 2018 (the most recent year for which data were available).

The population of interest in this study is the public and private not-for-profit research universities in all 50 states which are classified as Doctoral Universities by the Carnegie Classification. The resulting sample consisted of 279 research universities (184 public institutions and 95 private not-for-profit institutions). The descriptive analysis showed that, from 2003-04 to 2017-18 academic years, the first-time international undergraduate student enrollment, as well as net tuition revenue, increased for the sampled research universities from both sectors.

To answer the research questions, I used a fixed effects panel regression technique with logged inflation-adjusted net tuition revenue as the dependent variable and logged international undergraduate student enrollment as the key independent variable. The model also included control variables that captured institution- and state-level factors that vary over time. I used the percent of applicants admitted to control for institutional selectivity and added the share of graduate and professional enrollment in the total enrollment as a control. Additionally, several

institutional-level financial characteristics were included. The financial variables were held in constant 2017 U.S. dollars. As tuition price might affect international enrollment demand, I included logged tuition and fees as a control variable. I also controlled for the share of tuition revenue in total revenue. Since institutional grant aid is often used to fulfill enrollment management objectives, I included logged institutional grants as a control variable. I also controlled for logged endowment assets. International demand may also be affected by state economic health. Better economic conditions of the state might be an indicator of better internship/job prospects after graduation. I therefore included two state-level indicators of economic health: median household income (from U.S. Census) and state unemployment rate (from the Bureau of Labor Statistics). I also included state-by-state estimates of the college-aged population from U.S. Census.

One major limitation of the study is that IPEDS data do not differentiate the amount of tuition revenue received from domestic versus international students. It is therefore possible that some of the observed relationship between increased international undergraduate enrollment and increased tuition revenue could be due to changes affecting the prices paid by domestic students after taking institutional financial aid into account.

Findings and Conclusion

The results of the fixed effect panel analysis of this nationally representative sample of public and private not-for-profit research universities revealed that a one percent increase in the number of first-time international undergraduate students predicted a 0.09 percent increase in net tuition revenue. This is consistent with the notion that research universities in the U.S. have increasingly recruited international students in an effort to increase tuition revenues.

To answer my second question, I ran regressions for the two subsamples (public universities and private not-for-profit universities). The greatest indicator of the magnitude of the relationship between international undergraduate enrollment and net tuition revenue was found in the subsample of public research universities. A one percent increase

in newly enrolled international students at the sampled public research universities predicted a 0.1 percent increase in net tuition revenue. A slightly lesser, though still positive, indicator of the magnitude of the relationship between first-time international undergraduate student enrollment and net tuition revenue was found for the subsample of private not-for-profit research institutions.

Although this analysis does provide insights into the impact of the internationalization on higher education finance, more research needs to be conducted to fully comprehend the relationship between international undergraduate enrollment and tuition revenue. In particular, interviews with university leaders and enrollment management experts might help shed some light on institutional strategies to recruit more international students. Additionally, since the findings from this study cannot be extended to other national contexts, further research should focus on exploring the gains in net tuition revenue associated with enrolling additional international students at universities in other global higher education hubs where HEIs compete for tuition revenue from international students (e.g. Canada, Australia).

It is also important to consider the potential normative implications of revenue seeking behavior by HEIs. In this study, gains in tuition revenue associated with enrolling additional international undergraduate students were estimated when holding constant domestic undergraduate enrollment. However, it is clear that domestic enrollment is going down at many universities. Although this study did not directly investigate the rationales for recruiting international students, it is entirely possible that research universities in the U.S. seek additional revenue by intentionally changing composition of the student body by growing the share of international students. Whether or not this is a good thing is a normative question and cannot be answered by this kind of research. It is, however, an important question for institutional representatives to consider when pondering their international recruitment strategies.

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Closing In on ‘The What:’ STEM Students’ Transformational Global Learning Experiences

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Florida International University (FIU) is among a growing number of institutions focused on internationalizing their campuses and programs to include diverse students, highlight their perspectives, and increase student engagement with innovative programs to realize the greater mission of higher education. Of note among them is FIU’s Global Learning Medallion (GLM) program.

The GLM is an interactive, participatory program consisting of global learning courses and activities designed to enhance students’ global awareness, global perspective, and global engagement. Landorf, Doscher, and Hardirck (2018) define global learning as “the process of diverse people collaboratively analyzing and addressing complex problems that transcend borders” (p. 32). These authors emphasize that global learning is a continual process that prepares students to be responsible citizens in today’s world. This view separates their approach to global learning from those who might refer to it as a set of skills that, once acquired, require no further effort or commitment. As the team that implements and assesses the GLM program, we wished to pose the question: what GLM program elements do students report as contributing to their global awareness,

global perspective, and/or their global engagement? Although FIU graduates a large number of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) students, less than 15 percent of GLM graduates have pursued a STEM major. As such, our study is also driven by an interest to better serve this population.

Evidence of undergraduate students’ progress in the process of transforming their awareness, perspectives, and engagement can be found in the results of the Global Perspectives Inventory (GPI) that is given to a random selection of incoming freshmen and outgoing seniors every year at FIU. But this instrument does not provide students with an opportunity to express connections they make between Global Learning (GL) curricular and co-curricular experiences and their personal lives, nor which experiences students find particularly transformational. Our research question led us to investigate these outcomes from the perspective of GLM students, studying STEM fields.

Context

As the fourth largest university in the United States, FIU is the top producer of Hispanic graduates with

STEM degrees. Studies suggest that Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSIs) can play an important role in providing access to STEM majors and increasing the likelihood of Hispanic students' success in those fields. In its commitment to live up to its responsibility as an HSI, FIU has pledged to advance equity in the STEM field. For this reason, the STEM Transformation Institute was named a university-wide Preeminent Program supporting over 7,500 undergraduate STEM students. Although the STEM Transformation Institute is considered to be a multidisciplinary endeavor, opportunities for students' direct collaboration with global learning initiatives have not yet been fully explored.

Furthermore, the literature on higher education STEM students has been largely concerned with access, retention, and graduation issues. More recently, these issues have been examined in institutional contexts where students of color and other minorities have been at the center of research efforts. For instance, Carpi, Ronan, Falconer, Boyd, and Lents (2013) analyzed the strategies of a college level STEM retention program. Their study suggests that advisement materials, effective peer mentoring programs, and a math and science tutoring center have proven successful in providing the support needed for STEM students to do well at this institution. This study may have additional implications for successfully engaging STEM students in activities outside their major that encourage social and civic outcomes desired among STEM professionals.

Our sample is comprised of GLM graduates who were enrolled in a STEM major, which represents just over 14 percent of the total number of GLM graduates' e-portfolios currently in the database. Among these students are 15 Biological Studies majors, three Chemistry majors, and two Environmental Studies majors. Additionally, each of the following majors were declared by one student: Computer Science, Biomechanical Engineering, Marine Biology, and Science Information Technology. Thus, there is a disparity in GLM program enrollment by STEM students compared to the number of STEM majors who graduate from FIU, which led us to examine this group more closely.

The Study

Our study took the form of a qualitative content analysis of 24-portfolio reflections submitted by GLM students. We approached this qualitative content analysis from two different angles. First, we conducted a subjective analysis by systematically identifying, coding, and classifying specific GL activities that appeared in the 24 STEM students' GLM e-portfolios. Second, using Process Coding (Saldana, 2013), we identified 'the what' about the activities that was most important to students. Process Coding "uses gerunds ("-ing" words) exclusively to connote action in the data... (Saldana, 2013, p. 96). Saldana (2013) explains that, by using Process Coding, researchers can also get at the consequences of actions participants have taken, (i.e. "because" of this, "then" that happened (p. 98). This two-angled approach helped us to ensure that our analyses would result in richer findings than a mere identification of activities would yield.

We began the process of coding by randomly choosing one student's e-portfolio, which we coded individually, then came together to compare our codes, reached a consensus, and created a shared code book. Each researcher then coded eight of the 24 portfolios. Through our initial coding efforts, we were able to identify the activities students participated in and, because of their inclusion in students' reflections, we deemed them to have been important to students' development of either global awareness (GA), global perspective (GP), or global engagement (GE). Often, students plainly stated in their reflections how particular activities influenced one of these. However, in instances where this was not the case, we read and reread the text in which an activity was embedded as we coded for processes. In this way, by combing back through the larger context and coding students' processes, we were able to determine in which category each activity belonged. As each theme emerged, we held them up to the definitions of GA, GP, and GE to determine how they had influenced students' learning outcomes. We then shared our results, compiled our findings, and extracted salient, evocative quotes.

Findings and Conclusion

Our findings indicate that, for STEM students who have successfully completed the GLM program, the three most salient global learning experiences are: taking global learning designated courses, being active within student clubs/organizations, and studying abroad/participating in a National Student Exchange (NSE). Moreover, within the context of those three program elements, we identified five themes that help explain what made these experiences particularly meaningful to students. These themes can be better understood in relation to the core global learning competencies/outcomes identified by Landorf and Doscher (2015), namely global awareness, global perspective, and global engagement.

Our findings suggest that participating in these activities impacted students' global awareness through a newly found sense of self-confidence. For one GLM participant, an increased global awareness led to feeling confident about helping others along their own global learning journey. This self-confidence is a highly sought-after skill, particularly for STEM majors whose career paths are perceived as challenging. For this group of students, global awareness allows them to succeed outside the context of global learning related activities. We also found partaking in these experiences impacted students' global perspectives in the following areas: changing one's perspective, being outside one's comfort zone, and understanding group dynamics.

Students suggested that their experiences allowed them to engage in problem-solving in a global context, thereby impacting their global engagement. Students noted that the courses they had taken reaffirmed decisions they had made regarding the trajectory of their lives outside FIU, as well reaffirming their dedication to involving themselves in their communities. Their statements demonstrate how the program instills in students a sense of obligation to the larger community. Literature shows that the purpose of STEM education is at an interesting intersection, as STEM students appear more invested in their career goals than in developing social and civic outcomes such as civic engagement and social responsibility (Garibay, 2015). For STEM students,

completing the GLM program may help them realize their potential to contribute to society in a multitude of roles. They may find that being a scientist is not mutually exclusive from being an engaged global citizen.

By examining students' e-portfolios, this study concluded that taking global learning courses, participating in student clubs, and studying abroad were the most salient program activities for GLM graduates pursuing STEM majors. We also learned that those global learning experiences transform students' global awareness, global perspective, and global engagement. Though small, our sample of students helps shed light on the benefits of global learning for STEM students. The students' statements provide preliminary evidence that involvement with the Global Learning Medallion Program may impact future personal and professional plans of those who participate. A subsequent study could examine the global engagement piece of the process in more depth by focusing solely on the post-graduation plans stated in the e-portfolios.

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Striving for Outcomes: A Community College Study Abroad Case Study

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Each academic year, hundreds of thousands of U.S. college and university students participate in education abroad programs. These programs are comprised of various models, such as semester-long direct-enroll programs, island programs, language immersion or short-term faculty-led programs. Within this overall population, the percentage of community college students participating in education abroad programs is much lower than that of their four-year institution peers. A recent estimate is that roughly two percent of the U.S. education abroad population hail from community colleges, despite the fact that 30 percent of all higher education enrollees study in the community college sector (Whatley, 2018). In spite of these generally low numbers, it is important to acknowledge that there are community colleges that send hundreds of students abroad each year. The impact of these programs on their participants merits further study.

With few exceptions, the majority of empirical studies on education abroad have focused on university students, omitting the investigation of education abroad outcomes for community college students. This study aims to rectify this imbalance by focusing on a case study of an education abroad program at a U.S. community college. In this paper, I will present the results of this study, which looks at a short-term faculty-led study abroad program at a large urban community college in the Eastern United States.

Literature Review

Outcomes for participation in an education abroad program span three dimensions of learning outcomes: cognitive, affective and behavioral. Cognitive

learning outcomes, such as language learning, are often explored in the literature. A seminal example by Paige, Cohen and Shively (2004) measured language learning improvements with study abroad language learners, as compared to those of a non-study abroad control group. Results indicated greater language learning in the speaking and listening areas of the study abroad group.

Learning outcomes can also be affective in nature. An example of this is intercultural development. In the past two decades, several studies have explored intercultural development in students studying abroad, and results have been mixed. Some studies report that study abroad students show greater intercultural sensitivity post study abroad than non-study abroad students (Anderson & Lawton, 2011; Terzuolo, 2018). Others reported gains only with the use of an intervention, such as a reflection-based online course or cultural mentoring (Pedersen, 2010).

Behavioral learning outcomes, such as self-efficacy and cultural intelligence, have been studied as well. Nguyen, Jefferies, & Rojas' (2018) project explored longitudinal data for undergraduate students at the University of Massachusetts who participated in a study away program in the Caribbean. Results of the study indicate that participants experienced gains in both cultural intelligence and self-efficacy at the end of their five-week program, with monocultural individuals experiencing greater gains than multicultural participants.

Some of the academic literature explores the impact of education abroad programs in terms of academic achievement. In a rare study with community college student participants, Raby, Rhodes and

Biscarra (2014) investigated whether participation in education abroad programs impacted students' institutional engagement, and whether there was a link between studying abroad and data-driven academic achievement. The results showed that study abroad participation had a positive effect on early, midstream, and terminal outcomes, such as retention and transfers to university.

The present study aims to add to this body of literature by considering the qualitative dimensions of the study abroad outcomes achieved by the students in the target program.

Context

The site for this study was a large community college in an urban area on the U.S. East coast. The study abroad program under exploration was a four-week faculty-led program to the Czech Republic during summer 2018. The program carried six academic credits that applied directly to the college's associate degree in cinema.

Data collection for this study took place during the spring 2019 semester. There were 22 students on the study abroad program, and all were invited to participate in the study. Eight of the students participated in a focus group, while a ninth participated in a semi-structured interview. In addition, I interviewed the study abroad administrator at the college for further insights. The student participants of the study were between 19 and 50 years of age. Ethnicities ranged from African-American (4), Latinx (1) and White (3) to African-American and White (1). Two of the participants had not previously travelled outside of the U.S. Three of the students were employed full-time and five were employed part-time. One was not employed.

Results

The administrator expressed a desire for students to hone their intercultural communication skills, a behavioral learning outcome. More than half of the students confirmed that this was an outcome they were able to achieve. One student stated that his participation in the study abroad program enabled him to "converse with a crew that doesn't necessarily

speak English ... or English is not their first language." Practicing intercultural communication may be more overt in a program that takes place in a non-English-speaking country, but it is a skill that is transferrable to English-speaking settings as well.

Participants of the study also referenced several cognitive learning outcomes. Learning outcomes related to the academic content of the program were most frequent, with ten mentions, followed by professional skills with eight mentions. One student remarked, "it did help me ... to understand how to direct a little better, or how to do certain things." Participants also spoke about learning to work with Gomm film, a previously untaught experience. In addition, students indicated that they improved their skills of film lighting and editing, adding to their professional skillset. These outcomes meet the college's desire for academic integration of its study abroad programs.

Relationship-building is not a learning outcome *per se*, but was nonetheless mentioned by the study participants as an important outcome of their education abroad experience. The administrator hoped that students would be able to "network and make connections," as reflected by the fact that the production team work was organized in such a way as to allow the participating students to build relationships with people from the Czech Republic. One of the students indicated that to successfully manage the language barrier, he "had to [...] just become really, really close with [his Czech] assistant director." By the end of a three-day film shoot, the two "basically... became friends." Relationship-building is perhaps considered a side effect of study abroad, but it is a valuable outcome, and one the students were proud to have achieved.

Conclusion

Results of this study indicate that participants primarily gained behavioral learning outcomes, such as intercultural communication, as well as cognitive learning outcomes, such as knowledge related to course content and professional skills, meeting the outcomes desired by the college administrator. Additionally, the participants reported building lasting relationships. Future research could expand upon

this study and examine community college students participating in a semester-long program. Further, research with a pre-post design or studies with a longitudinal approach would add to the literature on community college study abroad.

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Opportunities and Challenges for Internationalization in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Honduras

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Introduction

At present, roughly 16.5% of young people have the chance to access higher education in Honduras (UNAH-DES, 2018). As the main public university in the country, the National Autonomous University of Honduras (UNAH) enrolls just over 62% of these students (UNAH-DES, 2018). In such a context, internationalization can be a great challenge, given important internal priorities, such as improving access and inclusion, supporting student progress, and improving academic quality. The fact that universities in Honduras also have to operate in a challenging national context (given high rates of poverty, inequality, violence, migration and unemployment) further compounds these difficulties.

Despite such challenging circumstances, there

have been some advances in internationalization at UNAH in recent years, such as the development of a relay program for teachers (a mobility program for teachers of postgraduate students), mobility programs for graduate students, and the promotion of short-term capacity building programs for faculty and staff, organized in conjunction with partner universities abroad. However, ‘internationalization at home’ remains an area to be developed. In particular, more must be done to support faculty to internationalize their teaching, in order to improve the inclusivity of internationalization efforts in the country.

Context

Most higher education systems in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) share particular features,

including unequal access, learning gaps, and limited investment in research-development and internationalization programs (Gacel-Avila, 2018). Leaders and decision makers in the region also remain largely unaware of the importance of internationalization in higher education.

However, despite this unpromising context, the Regional Conference of Higher Education (CRES-2018) has promoted a 2018-2028 Action Plan for higher education institutions (HEIs) in LAC, which promotes a number of internationalization goals, including interregional mobility for teachers and the design of strategies to strengthen teacher capacities in internationalization, intercultural communication, technology and foreign languages. This plan is a useful guide for planning internationalization policies of HEIs in the region as a whole. More specifically, the Central America Higher Education Institutions Council (CSUCA) has approved an internationalization policy for its member-HEIs, which also recognizes the need to better support faculty members, particularly in terms of strengthening teaching capacities.

According to the Longview Foundation (as cited by Gacel-Avila, 2018), it is necessary to both provide intercultural experiences for teachers and to develop their foreign language proficiency. At UNAH, very few instructors speak languages other than Spanish and the ones that do find it difficult to improve their level of competence for academic needs. UNAH also has a very non-diverse faculty population, with only 1% of UNAH staff coming from overseas.

Faculty Mobility Programming as Professional Development

One of the primary ways by which UNAH is able to offer such professional development for its instructors is through the “Relay Program”, which funds faculty members to pursue postgraduate programs overseas. However, the program was not conceived initially as an internationalization policy. The program, which does address the limited international academic experience evident in the UNAH faculty population, was mostly conceived as a way to equip a new generation of teachers with postgraduate-level

content knowledge in particular areas. The program is seen as a way to address the fact that many senior-level UNAH faculty have not been able to retire because no replacement instructor with similar training is available.

Although these goals have partially been achieved, it has been at a high cost, both in terms of financial and human resources, given that many who managed to complete doctorates overseas have not been willing to return to Honduran universities after their training. UNAH would, therefore, benefit from changing its strategy and finding other ways to support faculty members to internationalize their teaching.

Moving from International Relations to Internationalization in HEIs

For example, one such strategy is to sign formal agreements with international partners, focused on international goals. Some partnerships may be generated by faculty members, such as those deriving from alumni connections or common academic projects. Other agreements are negotiated at an institutional level. This is a strategy that the university is now pursuing, as evidenced by the fact that in a period of 5 years (2010 -2015), UNAH increased its rate of signing new international agreements from 2 to 15 per year.

The major limitation to the success of this approach is that most of the agreements have been signed with developed countries. Indeed, most are with only three countries (Spain - 23%, Mexico - 15% and the United States - 12%). This is largely due to the existence of European internationalization programs, such as ERASMUS, which offer significant scholarships to Latin American students. Spanish HEIs also emphasize cooperation between Iberoamerican HEIs, due to shared linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The result, however, is a limited focus on fostering partnerships within the region or with other countries in the Global South.

More balanced, regional partnerships are more likely to support academic internationalization, as the shared linguistic environment is likely to lead to more balanced scientific collaboration, moving from

positioning universities like UNAH as recipients to perceiving them as more equal partners.

There is also potential for Honduras HEIs like UNAH to promote research projects for international students and teachers in order to join research programs for urgent solutions in developing issues. Currently, the demand of international cooperation agencies and international HEIs to collaborate in research projects and undergraduate learning programs on issues such as citizen security, health, migration and poverty have increased considerably in recent years. This is a valuable opportunity to be explored as a formal program for international teachers, although logistics must be carefully considered.

Conclusions/Recommendations

As teachers are key actors in internationalization policy processes, they must be informed and trained about what the internationalization of HEIs implies. Norms and processes that will better support ‘internationalization at home’ must be clear to teachers, so that they can see the value in such activities.

There are ways to promote intercultural learning among teachers, without requiring them to leave

the country. Similarly, much more could be done to leverage regional networks as a counterweight to the general idea that internationalization implies partnerships with globally powerful nations. Strategies such as these can go a long way towards ensuring horizontal cooperation among teachers, thereby supporting a more equal, sustainable and relevant form of internationalization in Honduras.

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Liberal Arts Education in East Asian Context: Inclusion and Internationalization

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The 21st century has witnessed unprecedented changes in every aspect of society due to technology advancement. University graduates need various capabilities to survive and thrive in a world full of new challenges and uncertainties. Globalization, rapidly changing technology, and the evolution of the knowledge economy require critical thinking and lifelong learning competency, which are the hallmark of liberal arts education (LAE) (Godwin &

Pickus, 2017). LAE cultivates students with critical thinking, innovation, moral reasoning, and social responsibility. These capabilities would be proper preparation for vital social challenges in the 21st century, such as environmental sustainability, public health, social inequality, and natural disasters around the globe.

Often regarded as a distinctively American feature, LAE was brought into East Asia through the

founding of Christian universities in China and Japan by North American missionaries in the 20th century (Nishimura, 2016). The liberal arts tradition in Hong Kong can be traced back to the Christian university heritage from the mainland after the 1950s (Chai, 2016). Although specialization has been the feature of higher education in the three contexts, recently, LAE has experienced a resurgence (Yang, 2016).

This paper examines the current experimentation with LAE and the challenges in the process of adaptation and localization in mainland China, Hong Kong, and Japan. The adaptation of LAE in the three contexts has encountered ideological conflicts and mismatch with tradition and social contexts. With the motivation of enhancing graduates' global competitiveness, East Asian countries adopt LAE without a complete understanding of its core values. Despite the challenges, LAE does share common ground with the education philosophy of the Confucian tradition, that is, cultivating a whole person. This common ground may provide insights for future LAE reform in the East Asian context, which needs to be considered by educational administrators and policymakers.

Liberal Arts Education in East Asia

In mainland China, LAE has been a feature of Christian universities before the 1950s. After the Communist party took power, China followed the Soviet Union model in higher education and turned to a specialized system (Hayhoe, 2001). It was not until the 1990s that China began to realize the shortcomings of professionalized education and began to promote LAE as a correction to the over-specialization (Yang, 2016). Currently, LAE has been implemented in elite universities in China with a broad curriculum of elective courses and a residential college system (Chai, 2016). What makes LAE controversial in mainland China is that political ideology has been included in the general education curriculum (Postiglione, 2016; Yang, 2016). For example, at Fudan University, the courses delivering the political and ideological thoughts of the Communist Party are embedded in the liberal arts core curriculum (Chai, 2016).

As a former British colony, Hong Kong followed the British model of specialization in higher education, training professionals, such as lawyers and doctors. In 2012, there was a reform by government administration that required all eight public universities to follow the LAE model of the US. One foundation year of general education courses was added to all the three-year undergraduate programs. The general education curriculum covers scientific technology and literacy, humanities, global issues, and China's culture, state, and society (Postiglione, 2016). It touches upon both global issues and local culture. The purpose of LAE reform is to counteract the pragmatism and utilitarianism in Hong Kong and to meet the needs of globalization with critical thinking, communication skills, global citizenship, and leadership and advocacy in order to improve the human condition (Chai, 2016).

LAE could also be found in postwar Japan due to strong American support and influence (Etzrodt, Hrebenar, Lacktorin, & Nilson, 2016). In Japan, LAE is internationalized with an emphasis on English language and global citizen cultivation.

Adaptation and Challenges in East Asian Context

When adapting to a foreign context, LAE faces challenges of conflict with local culture and tradition. As is mentioned above, ideology conflict can be found in the curriculum from socialist China. Additionally, LAE in China is following the model by offering a broad range of elective courses in a residential college setting, without understanding its core value. For example, Kirby (2016) argues that LAE with critical thinking cannot be realized in a non-liberal society. Besides, Postiglione (2016) argues that the challenges for China hinge on the tension between the aspiration to develop global universities and addressing domestic demand for higher education. To meet these challenges, Shi and Lu (2016) propose future directions for LAE: avoidance of conformism, emphasis on innovation, and inclusion of diversified forms of implementation.

Similarly, in Japan, LAE faces challenges arising from local and social norms. LAE does not fit the local situation because neither the model nor tradition support it. Specifically, Thompson and June (2016) contend that the best way of implementing LAE is to through active learning, critical thinking, and team-teaching, most of which were Western conceptual imports with rather weak roots in traditional Japanese pedagogy. Besides, other scholars (Etzrodt et al., 2016) found that LAE promoting critical thinking is not aligned with either Japanese tradition or culture, which encourage respect for seniority and hierarchy. They argue that LAE conflicts with Japanese traditional culture, which focuses on “discipline, harmony, patience, loyalty, moderation, teamwork, a strong work ethic, and respect for seniority” (p. 67). These traditional values in Japan seem inconsistent with some features of the LAE model such as free expression and critical thinking. Also, Otsuka (2009) argues that Western cultural canons are inappropriate for Japanese culture.

Due to its colonial experience, Hong Kong is open to embracing Western culture, and its higher education is internationalized with English as the language of instruction. However, Hong Kong’s education is influenced by a practically-oriented, business-minded society. The liberal arts curriculum in Hong Kong was criticized by local students, who are more practically- and professionally-oriented. They claimed that the liberal arts curriculum was too theoretical (Chai, 2016).

LAE is facing different challenges from the three contexts discussed due to each context’s specific situation. In these cases, it is noticeable that the core value of moral standards and service spirit cultivation discussed by Chopp (2014) is absent from the discussion. Does LAE only exist in Western philosophy and paradigms? Scholars argue that there is a common understanding between the core values of LAE and Confucian tradition in the aspect of the relationship between person and nation (Chai, 2016; Yang, 2016). The aim of LAE of cultivating an actively engaged citizen with the capacity for ethical judgment and self-reflection conforms with the Confucian educational ideal of cultivating a Junzi,

similar to a gentleman, who devotes oneself to self-development and social activities. In this sense, the understanding of a free citizen could find its roots in local culture and tradition.

Conclusion

Although LAE encounters some challenges during this time of experimentation in East Asia, this does not mean LAE is a Western norm that could not be adapted to other contexts with different cultures or traditions. Western liberal arts education, with a focus on cultivating free citizens to serve society, is in line with the core value of education in Confucianism, that is, to cultivate a person to serve the country. In this sense, there could be dialogue and common ground in terms of educational goals and purposes from both Eastern and Western civilization. This could be a start for further exploration of LAE models in the age of globalization. Future research might focus on how the indigenous and local culture could contribute to whole-person cultivation and could therefore inform the model of LAE in the 21st century.

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NATIONAL POLICIES ON INTERNATIONALIZATION

Inclusive (?) Internationalization: The Case of Outbound Student Mobility in India

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Introduction

Student mobility has long been one of the key facets of internationalization in higher education (HE). Although individual institutions often work to increase the proportion of outbound student mobility, most government policies on internationalization focus more on inbound students than those choosing to study overseas. This is largely due to the fact that inbound student mobility is understood to be an outcome of strategic intent, given the emphasis on international student enrollment in the global rankings and in some accreditation exercises. Outbound student mobility, in contrast, is mostly an outcome of individual and household efforts. As a result, social, economic and educational inequality that exists in society will have implications on outbound student mobility. Unlike employment migration, educational migration is, in most cases, an elite phenomenon. This paper attempts to understand how inclusive is outbound student mobility in India and what are the innovative ways in which interna-

tionalization can be made more socially inclusive. By examining the implementation of national policies focused on this issue, the paper highlights the current non-inclusive nature of outbound student mobility and calls for increased institutional engagement to make internationalization more inclusive.

Inequalities

Although the expansion of higher education in recent decades has significantly altered the elite nature of the sector, the evidence indicates that the privileged classes in India succeed in maintaining their relative advantages (Shavit, Arum & Hamoran, 2007; Sabharwal & Malish, 2016). Elite institutions and elite subjects/disciplines continue to be occupied by privileged groups, a phenomenon which gives clear indication that expansion and growing Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) are not sufficient conditions for equalizing educational opportunities.

One major source of this inequality is the lack of

competency in the languages used as medium of instruction. In addition to affecting domestic HE enrolment, this issue has a pronounced impact on outbound student mobility. Steady growth in the number of Indian students choosing to study abroad in a selective group of host countries reflects a growing belief among the population that social and economic returns from a foreign degree will be higher than those from a degree from an Indian institution. Cross-border student mobility can, therefore, also become a component of social reproduction, with elites being the ones able to access study abroad opportunities and therefore maintain their relative advantage.

The nature of student mobility in higher education is determined by many “push and pull” factors (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009). The spatial distribution of higher education institutions (HEIs), financial affordability, parental education, types of school from which one is graduated and English language competency are a few of the major determinants of outbound student mobility. As many of these factors are largely beyond the control and efforts of individual students, there is a strong rationale for demanding interventions from state and other stakeholders of higher education to make internationalization more inclusive.

Outbound Student Mobility in India

Outbound student mobility shows steady growth in India. Currently, India is the second largest sending country next to China. Nearly 0.3 million Indian students are currently studying abroad. The figure goes up to 0.7 million when students involved in short term programs are included. Two-thirds of Indian students abroad are studying in three countries (the U.S., the U.K. and Canada), with the U.S. remaining the most desired destination. This trend reflects the historical tendency for students to move from developing countries to developed countries. Traditionally, Indian students have chosen to study abroad for postgraduate and doctoral studies. However, a significant number of students are now choosing to study abroad at the undergraduate level. The current trends clearly suggest that India will continue to re-

main a major sending country in the years to come. The issue facing the Indian government, therefore, is how to ensure that cross-border mobility becomes more inclusive, rather than remaining the preserve of an elite few.

Scholarship and Interest Subsidy Schemes for Study Abroad

To this end, the Government of India has introduced a number of cultural exchange and scholarship programs (Varghese, 2017), as well as other incentive schemes for promoting cross-border mobility. This is in addition to the facilitation of transnational fellowship/scholarship schemes, such as the Commonwealth and Fulbright scholarships. The Government of India runs targeted schemes for disadvantaged social and religious groups, such as National Overseas Scholarship (NOS) for Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs), as well as an interest subsidy scheme for education loans of religious minorities. The NOS provides financial support to study in Master, doctoral and post-doctoral programs, covering all major costs, including tuition, visa fee, air travel, maintenance and contingency grants. Currently, the annual intake of NOS for SCs and STs are 100 and 20 respectively. Out of 100 NOS for SCs, 6 percent and 4 percent are reserved for (1) De-notified, Nomadic and Semi Nomadic Tribes and (2) Landless Agricultural Labourers and Traditional Artisans respectively. Out of 20 NOS for STs, 3 percent are reserved for Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups.

As shown in Table 1, there has been an increase in the number of sanctioned NOSs since 2016-2017, which reflects an growing focus on increasing diversity in the outbound student population.

TABLE 1: DISTRIBUTION OF NOS FOR SCS FOR 2012-2018

Year	Number of NOSs	Number of NOSs Sanctioned
2012-13	30	23
2013-14	60	39
2014-15	100	59
2015-16	100	50
2016-17	100	108
2017-18	100	100
TOTAL (2012-18)	490	379

Source: Annual reports of Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment for various years.

Table 2 indicates a pattern that is similar for NOS for SCs, with the exception of the fact that some of the NOS for STs were never distributed. The scenario indicates the need for closely examining the process involved in the sanctioning of NOS and the challenges faced by aspiring students belonging to eligible social groups.

TABLE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF NOS FOR STS FOR 2014-2018

Year	Number of NOSs	Number of Students Selected
2014-15	20	21
2015-16	20	15
2016-17	20	16
2017-18	20	NA

Source: Annual reports of Ministry of Tribal Affairs for various years.

Table 3 provides the share of various minority groups which benefitted from the Government’s interest subsidy scheme. Socially and educationally advantaged minority groups such as Christians, Sikhs and Jains availed major benefits under the interest waiver scheme, a distribution which evidenced clear disparity, given that their total share of the general population is only 4 percent. In general, the most disadvantaged populations were least likely to benefit from the interest subsidy scheme.

TABLE 3: BENEFICIARIES OF INTEREST SUBSIDY SCHEME 2014-17

Years	Buddhist	Christian	Jain	Muslim	Parsi	Sikh	Total
2014-15	5 (0.74%)	269 (40.03%)	52 (7.74%)	213 (31.70%)	5 (0.74%)	128 (19.05%)	672 (100%)
2015-16	5 (0.45%)	532 (47.84%)	160 (14.39%)	269 (24.19%)	3 (0.27%)	143 (12.86)	1112 (100%)
2016-17	4 (0.81%)	244 (49.19%)	87 (17.54%)	116 (23.39%)	0	45 (9.07%)	496 (100%)
TOTAL	14 (0.61%)	1045 (45.83%)	299 (13.11%)	598 (26.23%)	8 (0.35%)	314 (13.77%)	2280 (100%)

Source: National Productivity Council (n.d.). Report on Evaluation and Impact Assessment of Padho Pardhesh. Submitted to Ministry of Minority Affairs, Government of India, New Delhi.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Available data on the implementation of the National Overseas Scholarships and the interest waiver scheme for minorities highlights the uneven nature of access to schemes promoting cross-border student mobility. It appears that the availability of scholarships or incentive schemes may not be sufficient to make the desired changes unless and until they are supported by provisions for capacity building among the target groups. Lack of income and assets, lack of awareness about opportunities, low academic social capital, inadequate faculty mentoring and advising, English language proficiency and complex application procedures are all potential challenges which can prevent students from availing themselves of the benefits of targeted schemes for promoting cross-border mobility. "Availability" alone is therefore not a sufficient condition for promoting the equalization of educational opportunities.

As a result, in addition to increasing the number of scholarships or beneficiaries under each scheme, there is an urgent need to devise strategies to equip students from targeted groups to aspire for study abroad programs. Aspiring students need to be supported by adequate competency enhancement programs. Considering the lack of social, cultural and economic capital required for cross-border mobility among the disadvantaged groups, HEIs can play an important role. HEIs may, for example, be assigned the responsibility for identifying and mentoring potential students from disadvantaged social groups for studying abroad. Finding a way to acknowledge institutions which succeed in promoting cross-border mobility of disadvantaged students in rankings and accreditation frameworks may serve as a sustainable non-monetary incentive for institutions to participate in helping to achieve this crucial policy objective.

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Challenges and Possibilities Developed through the Science Without Borders Program in Brazil

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In 2011, the Brazilian government implemented the Brazilian Scientific Mobility Program, known as Science Without Borders (SWB). With an audacious goal of sending 100,000 students abroad, this program focused its financial resources on the achievement of two short-term objectives. The first objective was to ensure that the selected students, mostly undergraduate, received the best training available at universities abroad, so they could develop their academic skills and also have an international cultural experience. In the second objective, the program sought to assist Brazilian universities to structure international relations offices and to make international education available to Brazilian students. The main long-term objective of the SWB program was to cultivate a talent pipeline that could serve the nation's future industry development (Nery, 2018).

The SWB program achieved its overall goal of sending 100,000 students abroad. However, the Brazilian Senate reviewed the SWB program in 2015 and reported that many obstacles obstructed its development. As critical points, the Senate report highlighted the low foreign language proficiency of Brazilian students and, in most cases, the absence of international relations offices in Brazilian universities when the SWB program was created. To preserve the program continuity, it also indicated that the SWB program should be transformed into government policy. The senators understood that the SWB program, by promoting access to international education opportunities, added important academic and cultural values to the development of Brazilian universities, and its discontinuity would interrupt a major cycle of growth in actions to improve the

country's higher education (Brazilian Senate, 2015).

Despite this recommendation, an international education policy was not achieved. As Brazil went under fiscal constraint, the SWB program was reformulated in 2017, as the Institutional Program for the Internationalization of Brazilian Higher Education and Research Institutions (CAPES-Print), which started to operate on a smaller scale and, now under the new 2019 government, is in danger of cancellation. CAPES-Print serves only graduate students, a major setback to SWB program's original goals of assisting universities to democratize access to international education. By reducing from 100,000 scholarships through the SWB program to just over 5,000 scholarships in Capes-Print, the Brazilian government has compromised the country's future potential to increase diversity and inclusivity in higher education.

The SWB program is, therefore, an excellent case study for analyzing the challenges related to continuity of international education initiatives and policies in Brazil. The main focus of this article is to revive the debate about the lessons learned during the implementation of the SWB program, adding to the debate some key recommendations for future steps in Brazil's internationalization. The points raised in this paper are critical for the Brazilian government to consider when creating a national policy for international education.

The SWB Program Reality

In its first year of implementation, the SWB program selected very few applicants and did not meet its stated enrollment goals. Only 3,297 students were accepted for the program, out of the 43,416 stu-

dents that applied for scholarships. The major reason for the low acceptance rate was the applicants' foreign language proficiency, which did not meet the stated criteria. English as a second language is a particular challenge for Brazilian students. Indeed, even amongst those who were successful in obtaining a scholarship, only 27 percent of the grantees had full language proficiency by the time they applied to the scholarship, and only 59 percent had achieved proficiency by the end of the overseas program. As a result, in 2012, a large number of students (40,317) applied to study in Portugal, where it would be possible for them to use their native Portuguese. The Brazilian government understood that the huge demand for placements in Portuguese universities was due more to a lack of proficiency in foreign languages than to the international education opportunities offered in Portugal. The Brazilian government, therefore, launched a national initiative to assist students with learning English and other foreign languages, called Languages Without Borders, and also to have access to the required language proficiency tests. An effective strategy for most institutions was to create low-cost ESL programs linked to actions directed by its international relations offices. This allowed them to maximize students' efforts in getting a scholarship. Portugal was excluded from the program in 2013, and 8,215 students were redirected to other countries to take foreign language courses for at least one semester at host institutions abroad before beginning their academic programs (Brazilian Senate, 2015).

As the SWB program advanced, Brazilian institutions had to acquire the know-how to cope with the challenges brought by this initiative. Most of the country's universities had little, if any, previous experience regarding international education, and it was a challenge to understand why a particular student was selected or rejected by a specific foreign university. Hence, it was critical to dedicate individualized attention to each student. Communications were also a problem. As the students communicated directly with *Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior* (CAPES) and *Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico* (CNPq), the two Brazilian federal agencies responsible for

granting scholarships, the home institutions had to create new administrative procedures to follow their students' development abroad, otherwise they could have problems with transferring academic credits.

Between 2013 and 2016, 81,405 grants were distributed, totaling 101,446 scholarships granted by the program. A majority of students, 32.7 percent, were sent to the United States. However, only 950 Brazilian students were selected to study abroad at any of the top 10 best institutions ranked by the Times Higher Education, compromising Brazil's ambitions to create an efficient talent pipeline through the SWB program (Brazilian Senate, 2015). There were considerable advantages for a few Brazilian institutions that had a preexisting history of study abroad programs. These institutions achieved the greatest number of SWB scholarships. The best example is the Universidade de São Paulo (USP), which already had internationalization experience by the time the SWB program was launched and was able to secure 6,493 grants, the largest number of grants among universities that participated in the program.

Recommendations for Brazil's Internationalization

The SWB program gave a substantial incentive for Brazilian students to study abroad, but only accomplished half of its potential if one considers the dimensions that could be explored through the internationalization of higher education (Helms, Rumbley, Brajkovic, & Mihut, 2015). Important dimensions, such as cross-border education, internationalization at home, and comprehensive internationalization strategies were not considered as part of the SWB program.

More elaborate strategies for internationalization would be extremely beneficial for Brazilian institutions (Nery, 2018). A key recommendation is that Brazil's new international education policy should serve, broadly and continuously, as an important vector for the democratization of access to international opportunities through distinct and complementary strategies, considering multiple dimensions of internationalization. Brazil will not develop its higher education scenario while remaining in isola-

tion. Therefore, it is important that the country's administrators understand the importance of refining strategies and adding more comprehensive actions that can result in more international education opportunities.

The SWB program was an important milestone for Brazilian higher education internationalization, which also benefited a substantial number of students. However, an efficient internationalization strategy cannot be composed of a single program. As a broader policy on internationalization is still far on the horizon, Brazilian universities and colleges are working on their own to develop cooperation, either independently or through the limited funds available in Capes-Print program. Barriers that were significant obstacles to the SWB program, such as low foreign language proficiency, are still a concern. The 2019 government has now reduced investment in key programs, such as Languages Without Borders, and the policy introduced to make English language teaching compulsory for all high school students still needs to be widely implemented. These initiatives could have helped to pave the way for Brazilian students and professors to have access to more opportunities in international education, so their discontinuation could serve to deepen Brazil's international isolation. Democratizing access to opportunities is also a concern. The 2019 government has not yet shown interest in expanding inclusivity or diversity in the country's higher education system.

More elaborate initiatives that can go beyond international mobility, such as cross-border education, internationalization at home, and comprehensive internationalization strategies, could assist the country's institutions in creating new momentum for international education. The benefit for Brazilian institutions is that many of them have learned how to overcome enormous challenges, as a result of their experiences with the SWB program. Therefore, much can still be done if a strategic policy is put into practice and if institutions are given appropriate support.

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South-South Cooperation in Brazilian Higher Education: How Cooperative and Inclusive?

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The overall idea of South-South Cooperation (SSC) emerged in the 1960s, from a discontent with the growing asymmetries in the international

arena, and from questions about the effectiveness of the western model of development. In that historical context, SSC presented itself as an impulse to the

emancipation, decolonization and collective self-confidence of the 'Third World'. Much of the political argument that underpins SSC is based on the assumption that countries of the 'Global South' should cooperate among themselves in order to solve their own political, economic and social problems. Thus, reciprocity, participation, autonomy and solidarity are inherent grounds of this concept, which is often referred to as a means for international relations to take place on less unequal conditions (Milani, 2012; Bry, 2016).

However, cooperation is a complex phenomenon, which includes direct and indirect, material and immaterial rewards, and it is not very realistic to think that SSC may be depoliticized. In order to classify a South-South relation as cooperative, it is necessary to go beyond political discourses. This paper analyzes the characteristics and practices of the largest and most traditional Brazilian SSC initiative in the field of higher education: The Programa Estudante-Convênio de Graduação (PEC-G), having in mind the following question: "To what extent does PEC-G meet the conceptual assumptions of SSC?"

The International Dimension of Brazilian Higher Education

In Brazil, the federal government has always influenced the higher education sector, for example, by defining policies, financing and regulating Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). As a consequence, internationalization approaches have been historically subordinated to its priorities and interests (Leal, 2019). Policies more directly aligned to a contemporary notion of higher education internationalization are very recent in the country. However, the characteristics of the three last programs – Science without Borders (SwB) (2011-2015); Languages without Borders (LwB) (2012-current) and Institutional Program of Internationalization (Capes-PrInt) (2018-current) – suggest that, at the national level, internationalization has consolidated in a hegemonic way, with little priority given to relations with the 'Global South' (Leal, 2019).

A relatively recent exception to this hegemonic perspective took place during President Lula da Sil-

va's mandate (2003-2011). In a context of expansion and democratization of the public higher education system, and as part of a broader foreign policy aimed at strengthening relationships with Latin America and Africa, he announced the will to develop an 'active' and 'counter-hegemonic' policy to internationalize Brazilian higher education system. To do so, he created supra-national universities committed to social inclusion and regional integration and gave more relevance to a national program institutionalized in the 1960's: The Programa Estudante-Convênio de Graduação (PEC-G).

The Programa Estudante-Convênio de Graduação (PEC-G)

PEC-G is the largest and most traditional SSC program in Brazilian higher education. Its purpose is to provide young people from developing countries with the opportunity to study at Brazilian universities at the undergraduate level. Curiously, its regulation took place within a very controversial context for relations with the 'Global South'. As the military had just seized the country's power, its first decree was aimed at identifying foreign students in the national territory and to state their (very strict) obligations and commitments (Leal & Moraes, 2018).

Lack of data from 1965 to 1999 hinders detailed analysis about PEC-G over that time, but it is possible to infer that Latin American students were predominant, with very few students from Africa. Over time, this pattern changed significantly. Today, 59 countries participate in the program: 25 from Africa; 25 from South and Central America; and 9 from Asia. Between 2000 and 2017, over 9 thousand students were selected, most from African Portuguese-speaking countries: Cape Verde (3059), Guinea-Bissau (1358) and Angola (739). 110 Brazilian universities offer 3000 places every year, 700 candidates apply, 300 to 400 are selected and around 200 conclude their studies (MRE, 2019).

A look at PEC-G's reality demonstrates a small number of participants due to a lack of knowledge about the program in the partner countries, as well as an excess of demands imposed for participation, which makes it extremely selective and restrictive.

For example, candidates are required to present a statement of financial responsibility ensuring that someone will send them US\$400 per month in order to pay for their travel expenses, accommodation and stay. When selected, the main problems faced by PEC-G students are related to housing and food; cost of living; social integration; racism; and lack of previous knowledge about the higher education system and the country. Regarding the financial issue, their visa type does not allow them to engage in paid activities; their relatives usually cannot support them with the required help; and the scholarships provided by the Brazilian government (US\$150 per month) do not cover their expenses (Leal & Moraes, 2018).

Another relevant aspect is that, because some undergraduate programs offer a limited number of places, students are compelled to choose careers they sometimes are not much interested in. Moreover, there are differences between the rules set by the Brazilian government and the HEIs, suggesting that HEIs could play a more relevant and autonomous role in the management of the program. On the other hand, at the institutional level, these students tend to be excluded from internationalization policies and are seen as neither ‘international students’ nor as ‘domestic students’. Finally, there is a clear absence of dialogue between the Brazilian Ministry of Education and the respective bodies in partner countries, meaning that Brazil is sovereign in setting the program’s agenda (Leal & Moraes, 2018).

PEC-G Perspectives as a Program Based on SSC Premises

In its more than 50-years existence, PEC-G – initially settled as a control public policy – has progressed considerably. Reducing it to ‘foreign aid’ may not be appropriate if one considers the opportunity of education that it has provided to young people from the ‘Global South’. Nevertheless, the general characteristics of the program seem to distance it from the conceptual assumptions of SSC, as well as from the official Brazilian narrative that emphasizes SSC. Within the field of technical cooperation, recipients are willing to learn from the experiences of coun-

tries with similar challenges, in order to develop their own strategies. Thus, what has PEC-G taught to (and learned from) their partners? SSC supposes the involvement of both parts under equal and reciprocal conditions and implies an active participation of the recipient.

Understanding PEC-G in the light of SSC also requires considering the Brazilian standards of foreign policy alongside its history. Despite a discourse on SSC based on solidarity and reciprocity, the country has always aimed at a position of leadership within the ‘Global South’.

Finally, the current priorities of both Brazilian foreign policy and Brazilian higher education internationalization put PEC-G at risk. If the program seeks to represent a positive legacy in regard to the ‘Global South’, it should incorporate a more sustainable perspective, according to partners’ and students’ contexts and needs, which do not necessarily match the development notion established by the Western world. This would include actions such as a direct and deliberative dialogue between partners, as well as a review on the current practices related to the participant’s selection and permanence.

The increased immersion of global higher education in an economically-oriented paradigm – which is highly competitive and tends to reinforce unequal geographies of knowledge and power – calls for cooperative forms of international interaction, explicitly aimed at shaping inclusive and sustainable futures. The analysis of the largest initiative for SSC in Brazilian higher education helps to reflect on the contemporary dynamics of SSC in higher education, by deconstructing, to some extent, the romanticism of this concept, and raising critical questions such as ‘How can SSC free itself from the dynamics of power and interest that are often present in North-South relations?’ or ‘To what extent are SSC initiatives a means for more inclusive, cooperative relations in international higher education?’. In order to construct relationships truly based on reciprocity, participation, autonomy and solidarity, it might be necessary to first shed light on the centrality of national interest and power on international relations.

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POLITICAL DIMENSIONS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

The Impact of Global Geo-Political Trends on US Higher Education Cross-Border Partnerships with Non-US Partner Educational Institutions

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Since the 2016 U.S. presidential election, international higher education professionals in the U.S. have grown increasingly concerned about how government policies in the Trump era may have a negative impact on institutional internationalization efforts, particularly those which involve cross-border partnerships with non-U.S. educational institutions. Indeed, it appears that government policies in recent years have started to limit the possibility of cross-border academic interaction, exchange, student and faculty mobility, and research collaboration. For example, there is evidence that U.S. officials have limited the number of visas granted both to scholars and experts and to students from China, with a 2.7% decline of Chinese students studying in the US being registered last year (Dennis, 2019). Restrictions have also been placed on U.S. institutions affiliated with China's Confucius Institutes (CI), due to Trump administration fears of Chinese spying within universities. New regulations, such as the 2018 National Defense Authorization Act

(NDAA), have been passed, which require U.S. higher education institutions that host CIs to prove that CI funds are not mixed with those received from the U.S. government (Redden, 2019). As a result, a number of U.S. universities have closed their campus CIs in the past year.

In 2017, Rizvi suggested that, in what he referred to as the educational "policyscape," current geopolitical trends reflecting a nativist agenda in the U.S. (and elsewhere in the world) had the potential for negatively changing and destabilizing education policies. Within this discussion, he did not engage explicitly with the potential for disruption of cross-border partnerships in higher education. However, cross-border partnerships are particularly vulnerable to an increasingly restrictive political environment. This is important, given that strategic cross-border partnerships, especially those with specific focus on building sustainable academic and economic linkages, have increased at U.S. public universities in recent years, due to an increased fo-

cus on “comprehensive internationalization” at such institutions (Regulska and Burrola, 2016).

Study Rationale and Focus

In order to probe this phenomenon in more detail, my doctoral research focuses on two U.S. public universities and their cross-border partnerships with non-U.S. educational institutions. The research is guided by the following two research questions:

- How, what kind of, and why were past cross-border partnerships with higher education institutions developed at two public four-year U.S. universities?
- How, what kind of, and why will cross-border partnerships of these U.S. universities develop and/or change if more restrictive geo-political trends reflective of xenophobic/nativist sentiments in the U.S. and around the world continue?

The study draws on interview data from 19 participants (University A=10; University B=9), including both university administrators and faculty involved in the development, creation, and administration of the cross-border partnerships under consideration.

The two universities are pursuing different internationalization strategies. University A focused on a strategy of building mutually-beneficial core cross-border partnerships, starting in the early 2000s. Partnerships were located in China and Kenya, with a failed effort in Mexico. This strategy involved most colleges and schools at the university, with the goal of focusing on four or five priority countries and universities. University A had a CI, but it was recently closed. In contrast, University B tied their involvement to strategic partnerships as “part of their philosophy” regarding comprehensive internationalization with partnerships located around the world. Robust and mutually-beneficial cross-border partnerships were key to this philosophy, with a focus on strategic partnerships in regions of the world that specifically support study abroad, articulation, and dual degree programs. University B hosts a Confucius Institute (CI), which is still operational. However, the Senior International Officer

at University B did mention that the university may need to refocus its efforts on Europe if current xenophobic/nativist trends—including those leading to suspicion of countries like China—continue.

Key Findings and Considerations

According to participants at both universities, recent government policies have impacted their university’s cross-border partnerships with non-U.S. educational institutions, despite the fact that the partnerships were built to withstand change. One clear example is the closure of the CI at University A, due to the 2018 National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA). The Director of International Partnerships at University A was concerned about the impact of this change on the future of their mutually-beneficial partnership with a partner university in China, stating: “It’s a real mess. We are hoping to send a delegation to our partner in the fall to consolidate the partnership, but the CI was always the liaison for that partnership.”

Other restrictive government policies were highlighted by the interviewees, including those involving intellectual property and spying, such as policies which require the involvement of the university’s export control office in the development of any future cross-border partnerships. Such policies were also mentioned as barriers to the creation of new international relationships that could enhance academic collaboration/research. An academic dean at University A also suggested that they were changing the manner in which they work with their partner institutions, in anticipation of a potentially negative impact of government policy on student mobility. For example, they have developed alternative classroom activities, such as cross-border distance learning and collaborative cross-border class projects with partner university students, all of which could continue even if mobility declines.

The results of this study suggest that participants are deeply concerned about the ways in which recent government policies, all of which reflect an increasing trend towards isolationism, are affecting (and will continue to affect) the future of university cross-border partnerships with non-U.S. partner educational institutions. Those working on interna-

tionalization efforts within public universities in the U.S. see the potential for negative impact of such policies on collaborative research and student mobility, as well as on the development of new cross-border partnerships. As further government policy restrictions are considered, these concerns will only increase. Unless we can find a way to counter this trend, this important aspect of U.S. higher education is likely to be significantly diminished.

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Internationalization, Access and Higher Education: Challenges and Opportunities for Israeli Universities

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International student mobility, a primary concern of national internationalization policy in higher education (HE), focuses on (hosting) international students and is associated with economic and financial concerns, political purposes, competitive and branding purposes (Lomer, 2018). Thus, internationalization policy often focuses on bringing students from *outside* the society (usually defined by the State) and diversifying the student body (as measured by citizenship). In contrast, access to HE policies aim to integrate diversity from *within* a society and are often based on arguments for social mobility and justice and, increasingly, economic and competitive terms to promote national knowledge economies. These two policies, both with aims to integrate diverse students into HE, but with often different rationales, are separated along national lines. Despite emerging research which tries to visualize how

these two policy streams can come together to promote global social justice (Tannock, 2018), rather little empirical research has investigated how access and internationalization might be intertwined to create more inclusive HE. I focus on the nexus of these (seemingly) disparate policy agendas, through an examination of the foundation course for Palestinian Arabs from East Jerusalem (PAfEJ) at the Rothberg International School (RIS) in Hebrew University (HU). Based on an extensive review of archival documents, contemporary policy analysis and interviews, I examine how national internationalization and access policies come together in practice, and the challenges of and opportunities for inclusive international HE in such a context.

Internationalization and Access to HE in Israel

In recent years, Israel, through its central authority for HE, the Council for Higher Education (CHE), has developed several policies aimed at steering the HE system towards greater academic excellence and social inclusion. Currently two streams of policy related to these aims address (1) internationalization, and (2) access to HE for marginalised and underrepresented groups.

In a new multi-year plan announced by the CHE in July 2017, internationalization was identified as a key focus, with the goal of doubling international student numbers to 25,000 within five years. The plan aims to expand the intake of two categories of international students: 1) excellent research students with a special focus on China and India; and 2) excellent Jewish students, particularly from the US and Canada and to a lesser extent Europe. The policy documents and reports emanating from the CHE reveal the drivers behind these new policies: Israel hopes to build close economic and political relationships with these countries, while strengthening the academic level of its higher education institutions (HEIs) and its R&D capabilities to compete in the 'global knowledge economy'. Students from the Jewish Diaspora are still targeted in line with the identity of the state as the Jewish homeland. Conspicuously absent are motives of peace building and cross-cultural understanding, despite the intractable Israeli-Palestinian conflict.

Access programs aimed at integrating marginalised populations have been the focus of sustained efforts by the State, in cooperation with philanthropies, government ministries, local authorities, businesses, and colleges and universities. Targeted groups include the Palestinian Arab minority, who account for 21 percent of the population and experienced an increase in undergraduate enrolment from 10.2 percent to 16.1 percent in the years 2010-2016; the Ultra-Orthodox, which experienced a ten-fold increase over the past decade; the Ethiopian immigrant population; and populations in the geographic periphery, among others. Each group has educational, economic, social, political and cultural barriers to

inclusion and attainment. Widespread issues include low matriculation rates, language barriers (either in Hebrew, English, or both), low (or non-existent) psychometric examination scores, students' caring responsibilities, the economic burdens of study, and the geographic dispersion of programs. The aim of 'Negishut' (access) or 'Hishtalvut' (integration) programs is to address these issues and expand HE to marginalized groups, thus facilitating social, economic, and political integration into Israeli society. While both internationalization and access programs aim at integrating diverse student populations into Israeli HE, they have different rationales, aims and are administered by separate units within the CHE.

Linking Internationalization and Access: the Case of PAfEJ

After the 1967 war, Israel annexed East Jerusalem from Jordan. PAfEJ have a tenuous permanent residency status, pay taxes, receive health and social security benefits and can vote (but not stand for election as mayor) in municipal (but not national) elections. PAfEJ are eligible to apply for Israeli citizenship; however, many have been hesitant to do so due to bureaucratic exigencies, political pressures, and personal loyalties and identities. Thus, of the approximately 350,000 PAfEJ (about 37 percent of the city's population), only about 20,000 have Israeli citizenship.

PAfEJ sit the Palestinian matriculation, *tawjihi*, which is not recognized by Israeli universities as equivalent to the Israeli matriculation (*bagrut*) and, thus, many PAfEJ attend HE institutions in the Palestinian Territories, Jordan or elsewhere in the Arab world. Degrees and qualifications from abroad are not always recognized in Israel, or may require retraining and lengthy recognition processes. This, coupled with a lack of Hebrew language skills, hinders PAfEJ integration into the Israeli labour market and has contributed to high poverty rates among this population.

The Israeli government and the Municipality of Jerusalem have put forth several initiatives to try to unite the city and politically, socially, and economi-

cally integrate PAF EJ into Israeli society. One such way has been through HE, the first step towards which is usually a foundation course. After successful completion, and in most cases a psychometric exam, students are eligible to apply to Israeli universities. In 2015, as a result of government decision, the funding arm of the CHE decided to include PAF EJ in the Palestinian Arab Minority Israeli (PAMI) access program Ro'ad. With national and municipal funding, HU, with its main campus in East Jerusalem, designed its first foundation course, Sadarah/Kidma, specifically for PAF EJ, with about 70 students in its first year (2015/2016). The program is administered by the RIS, the umbrella infrastructure for international students at HU.

The RIS has extensive experience in administering foundation courses for diverse student populations. However, until 2015, it had always catered to Jewish immigrants. With the advent of the Sadarah/Kidma program, the RIS now hosts two very different types of 'international' student in its foundation courses, with different normative associations; academic needs; legal rights; and personal, ethnic, and religious connections to the country and city.

Changing Student Populations and Shifting Institutional Identity

While there has long been a presence of PAF EJ in the foundation courses at HU—which has fluctuated with political events—the new Sadarah/Kidma program is the first adapted for their needs. It focuses on intensive Hebrew, English and mathematics preparation, with additional courses in academic writing, scientific thought, European history, and courses specific to students' intended fields of studies (e.g. social sciences or exact sciences). The implementation of the program required significant administrative and curricular changes. My interviews indicated that, while many staff members embraced the move towards greater plurality, there was also a feeling of institutional identity crisis and a lack of a cohesive mission. By 2018, about 200 PAF EJ were enrolled in the program at HU (about 400 in all HEIs). Encouraged by this success, in 2018, the CHE announced that it would continue

supporting the foundation courses and expand its support for PAF EJ with a target of 3000 students over the next 5 years and a budget of 260 million NIS.

Challenges of and Opportunities for Inclusive Internationalization in a Society in Conflict

The PAF EJ access program, in coordination with other national internationalization policies, has had a profound effect on the international character of the RIS. The program is at a nascent phase and there are significant challenges which remain, particularly in creating more cohesion and fostering dialogue between the diverse international students at RIS, bridging the divide between RIS and Israeli students; and working with staff to recraft institutional purpose and build consensus. However, the new national HE policies could also hold an opportunity for Israeli universities to diversify their international student population and infrastructures to accommodate a more inclusive student population, while serving as a base for dialogue and exchange in a society in conflict. While this study is a distinctive case, it has wider relevance for researchers, practitioners and policy makers interested in issues of access and internationalization, particularly in conflict situations.

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Internationalization and Global Engagement of Hong Kong and Macau Universities under the Impact of the One Belt One Road Initiative

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Against the backdrop of Brexit and the United States' apparent dismissal of international cooperation opportunities, and the subsequent doubts regarding the future of globalization and higher education internationalization, China's One-Belt-One-Road (OBOR) Initiative has had great impact on the internationalization of Chinese universities, as well as the potential to reshape the landscape of global higher education. Announced by Chinese President Xi Jinping at the end of 2013, the initiative is a Chinese governmental global development strategy that involves infrastructure development and investment in 152 countries (The World Bank, 2019). The "Belt," also called "the Silk Road Economic Belt," focuses on the overland routes for road-rail transportation, while the "Road," also known as the "21st Century Maritime Silk Road," consists of sea routes.

The initial vision for the initiative was the creation of a network of infrastructural connections between China, the neighboring Asian countries, the Middle East, Europe, and Africa, while the concept gradually grew into an important instrument of China's public diplomacy and soft power (Kaczmarek, 2015). As an open and flexible formula without clearly defined boundaries, the initiative will, in the near future, "enclose other social, cultural, and security areas as well" (Sárvári Balázs & Szeidovitz, 2018, p. 8) and also open doors for various agendas, including collaboration in higher education, as well as research and development between China and countries alongside the "Belt" and the "Road".

Although the current discussions predominantly focus on how universities located in the Chinese mainland respond to the initiative, universities in Hong Kong and Macau, two Special Administrative Regions (SARs) of China that have European

heritage, are also participating in the initiative to great effect. The two regions sit on a prime location on the Maritime Silk Road that connects Mainland China, South and Southeast Asia. Both local governments of the SARs are eager to build the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macau megalopolis Greater Bay Area and have announced their participation in the initiative. Moreover, higher education systems in both regions share and maintain European heritage, thus, English has been the language of instruction over the years. This study, therefore, investigates the roles that these higher education institutions play in the initiative and examines the ways in which universities in Hong Kong and Macau respond to the OBOR Initiative through the lens of comprehensive internationalization.

Higher Education in Hong Kong and Macau

The higher education systems in Hong Kong and Macau have been significantly influenced by their colonial history and the "One Country, Two Systems" formula after both regions reverted to the Chinese government in the 1990s. The earliest higher education institution in Hong Kong followed the British model, although a four-year credit structure was adopted from 2012 onwards in order to be compatible with the international academic system. The higher education sector currently has 11 degree-awarding higher education institutions, of which eight are funded by the University Grants Committee (UGC). Macau only started to develop its modern tertiary education some 30 years ago while it was still colonized by Portugal. The oldest university was established in 1981, following the British model as a private institution, mainly to meet the

demand of students from Hong Kong, which later adapted to the Portuguese academic structure before establishing a four-year degree structure in 2010. The region currently has ten tertiary educational institutions: four public and six private.

Universities in Hong Kong and Macau have tremendous potential to further internationalize and engage globally by participating in and benefiting from the OBOR Initiative. By conducting desk research on the university websites, the author examines the online presence of the OBOR Initiative. Analysis included relevant policies and practices using the lens of the comprehensive internationalization model, as well as the six dimensions of the American Council of Education's (ACE, n.d.) CIGE model of an institution's internationalization process: articulated institutional commitment; administrative leadership, structure, and staffing; curriculum, co-curriculum, and learning outcomes; faculty policies and practices; student mobility; and collaboration and partnerships.

The universities of focus in this study are ten leading comprehensive universities in Hong Kong and Macau: City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Baptist University, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, University of Hong Kong, University of Macau, City

University of Macau, Macau Polytechnic University, and Macau University of Science and Technology. Letters A to J are randomly assigned to the aforementioned universities in later discussions in this paper.

The Impact

The universities in Hong Kong and Macau have participated in the OBOR Initiative via two major approaches. On one hand, they serve as the research and consulting entities that offer expertise to the government, companies, and organizations that are interested in building partnerships with countries along the Belt and the Road. The Research Center on One-Belt-One-Road at the City University of Hong Kong, for example, offers training programs for senior government officials and business executives to develop and implement OBOR strategies. On the other hand, the universities utilize opportunities and resources made available by the initiative to promote institutional internationalization and global engagement. These two approaches intersect and enforce one other. Examined from the lens of the CIGE Comprehensive Internationalization Model, policies and practices that address the initiative can be found in all six dimensions of the model among the ten universities.

TABLE 1: HONG KONG AND MACAU UNIVERSITIES' ENGAGEMENT WITH THE OBOR INITIATIVE

HEIS	ARTICULATED INSTITUTION COMMITMENT	ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP, STRUCTURE, AND STAFFING	CURRICULUM, CO-CURRICULUM, LEARNING OUTCOMES	FACULTY POLICIES AND PRACTICES	STUDENT MOBILITY	PARTNERSHIPS AND COLLABORATIONS
A			X		X	
B		X	X	X	X	X
C	X	X	X	X	X	X
D	X	X	X	X	X	X
E		X	X	X	X	X
F			X		X	X
G			X		X	
H		X	X	X		X
I			X		X	
J					X	X

Two out of ten institutions have addressed the initiative in their strategic and development plans, one of which, for example, writes that the university “will seek out collaborative opportunities in education and research, and aim to diversify our partnerships to encompass new and emerging markets, including ‘One Belt One Road’ countries.” Half of the institutions have launched centers and offices designated to coordinate strategic planning, policy-making, international activities and research around the initiative, demonstrating their engagement at the leadership and academic structure levels. Examples include the Global Links Belt and Road at the Chinese University of Hong Kong and the Macau One Belt One Road Research Center at the City University of Macau.

Discussions of the initiative have also brought international elements to the curriculum. Academic seminars and workshops around the initiative have flourished, bringing closer scholarly attention to issues such as infrastructure development and business collaborations in countries alongside the Belt and the Road. Specifically, the City University of Hong Kong is working on enriching the curriculum by introducing OBOR-related business cases to the curriculum. Faculty are engaged mainly by taking part in research exchange on OBOR. Student mobility within the Belt and Road regions is made possible thanks to the various exchange programs and funding offered to incoming degree-seeking international students and outgoing exchange domestic students. International collaborations take the form of bilateral and multilateral partnerships with universities in mainland China and other countries in Asia and Europe, as well as joining university consortiums. Several universities, for example, have joined the University Alliance of the Silk Road, the academic arm to the OBOR Initiative.

Conclusion

The OBOR Initiative brings about opportunities for Hong Kong and Macau universities. While there are no explicit policies from the central or local government that regulate OBOR Initiative-related international activities in higher education, universities have actively participated in the initiative in order to

internationalize. Scholars have pointed out the mutually beneficial relationships between universities in China and Europe under the OBOR Initiative, especially since the Chinese government has an urgent need to “re-balance China’s unfavorable deficit in students going abroad versus incoming international students” (van der Wende & Zhu, 2016, p. 10). Also relevant is the fact that the initiative reinforces Chinese higher education’s long-term policies in attracting talent and scholars from neighboring Asian countries (Li, 2018).

In the case of Hong Kong and Macau universities, balancing the outgoing and incoming students is certainly one of the major objectives. By actively participating in the initiative, seeking funding opportunities, initiating international student mobility programs, and strengthening the academic links between higher education institutions in the Greater Bay Area, Hong Kong and Macau universities primarily seek to establish a higher education hub that offers high quality post-secondary education and attracts international students and scholars from neighboring countries and beyond. Universities in Macau, specifically, have been dedicated to creating an academic center for Portuguese speaking countries and regions. In this way, the initiative provides a valuable opportunity for Sino-Portugal connections to grow deeper.

The current trends mark the emergence of a new era of higher education regionalization and South-South collaboration in South China. Hong Kong and Macau universities should not only collaborate with elite western universities located alongside the “Belt” and the “Road,” but also further enhance their collaboration with universities in the Chinese mainland and within the Greater Bay Area and, in the near future, explore the possibility of regional conversations with universities in the ASEAN nations.

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The Language of Higher Education Internationalization in Japan: Development of “Global Citizens” or “Global Human Resources”?

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Despite rich debate on the various meanings and forms of globalization, in contemporary times this concept has commonly come to be framed in neoliberal terms. That is, globalization is largely viewed as an economic phenomenon in which social relations are fundamentally restructured by capitalist markets. This has drastically impacted educational reform policies all around the world, and nowhere is this more evident than in higher education. Here the activities and perceived aims of these institutions have been dramatically reshaped in neoliberal terms with an eye on human capital development to increase national competitiveness on a global stage (Marginson, 2014). Given its position as the current global lingua franca (replete with colonial past-present implications), English is a crucial factor in achieving such national competitiveness, which is why it is no surprise that many non-Anglophone countries are increasingly promoting higher education English-medium instruction programming by way of top-down policies. These circumstances demand a more nuanced understanding about the complex relationship between neoliberalism, English, and higher education internationalization.

Higher Education, Internationalization, Language & Ideology

Literature on higher education internationalization commonly points to four core rationalizations: political, economic, academic, and socio-cultural. Especially in the current milieu, economic and political rationalizations receive most attention. However, this greatly oversimplifies the phenomenon. First, it presupposes economic determinism. Second, there is a presumption that government and institutional policy dissemination occurs in a unilinear direction. Finally, it tends to be assumed that processes of globalization and (higher education) internationalization are strictly scientific and bureaucratic, thus “neutral,” when in fact they are profoundly political and cultural.

Jane Knight (2015) provides a common definition of higher education internationalization, explaining:

Internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education. (p. 2)

However, experts in the areas of Linguistics and Cultural Studies remind us that meaning in language is never inherent, rather it is always constructed through cultural practices. From this perspective, Knight's definition is deceptive since it elides or conceals this process. Yet, the sense-making that occurs around policy referring to "internationalization" (and by extension "globalization") plays a crucial role in influencing educational outcomes. Since "internationalization" is commonly explained (by Knight and others) as a "response to globalization," one critically overlooked area of educational policy studies is investigation of the complex social processes involving the agency of social actors in interpreting the meaning of these concepts as they receive them and then act based on these interpretations.

A CASE STUDY IN JAPAN

I elected to examine this phenomenon through a case study of one school of English-medium instruction (hereafter "SEMI") which is housed within a top private (non-profit) university (hereafter "Global U") in Japan. English-medium instruction programming is a core element of the Japanese government's strategic initiatives to internationalize their higher education system in order to combat the country's decreasing global economic and political competitiveness. In Japan, Global U and SEMI are widely considered to be at the vanguard of higher education internationalization and English-medium instruction, and it is openly understood that they play a crucial role in the Japanese government's strategic plans. Yet, both Global U and SEMI publicly represent their educational mission as one of providing global citizenship education, rather than internationalization for national competitiveness. Noting this inconsistency with the general dominance of neoliberal rationales for internationalization, I applied the Circuit of Cultural Production (du Gay et al., 1997) and the concept of re-contextualization (Bernstein, 1977) as analytical lenses in order to examine how global ideologies of neoliberalism and global capitalism were reinterpreted/re-contextualized across levels of implementation from the Japanese state to Global U, to SEMI, to SEMI faculty, and to SEMI students. My research questions were:

- I. How does the Japanese Government represent the idea of university internationalization, especially in connection with globalization?
- II. How do Global U and SEMI represent the idea of global citizenship, especially in connection with internationalization and globalization?
- III. How do SEMI faculty and students come to attach particular meanings to the idea of global citizenship, and what meanings are produced? How does meaning construction develop differently for each individual depending on their unique social positioning within global and local contexts?

To answer the first question, I explored both primary-source materials from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) and secondary-source materials from scholars who have analyzed the actions of the Japanese Government and MEXT. To answer the second question, I examined primary-source materials officially distributed by Global U and SEMI for promotional/informational purposes, as well as an original data set drawn from in-depth interviews with 12 SEMI faculty members (from 3 countries). To answer the third (two-part) question, original data from these same SEMI faculty member interviews were used, in addition to an original data set drawn from in-depth interviews with 38 SEMI students (11 holding citizenship from 11 countries, 20 partly raised in multiple countries). Document investigation involved critical discourse analysis, while interview transcripts underwent multiple rounds of coding. Taken together, the pool of data from these sources enabled me to confirm the strong presence of values and demands associated with neoliberal global capitalism, as well as trace how these were cyclically re-contextualized-received, circulated and (re)produced at several levels (e.g. state, institutional, school, teacher, student).

The Myth and Reality of Global Citizens

First, I traced how pervasive neoliberal and global capitalist ideologies in the world and Japan were re-

interpreted in the process of producing Japanese state policies to promote higher education internationalization for developing “global human resources.” Evidence suggested that these policies were based upon a particular representation of globalization, *neoliberal* globalization, thereby also inflecting the meaning of “internationalization.” Next, I explored the ways that the common sense of neoliberal ideology interacted with identity and culture of production in ways that resulted in Global U/SEMI to recontextualize and represent these policies in a seemingly more progressive form as “global citizenship” education policy, and then for these new policies to be further recontextualized by SEMI faculty and students, as individual actors made meaning of these policies. By identifying cyclical moments of cultural (re)production in each stage, my findings demonstrated how ideology as well as unique state/institutional/school/individual positionalities and identities interacted within distinctively arranged global-local (aka “glocal”) conditions to result in contradictory outcomes.

Interactional processes of identity, consumption (i.e. reception), production, and regulation were shown to result in the cultural (re)production of particular representations of “global citizenship” in the commodified curriculum of Global U and SEMI. Likewise, this same dynamic of processes was used to show how SEMI faculty actively ‘read’ various meanings into such policies based on their unique social positionalities and lived experiences within transnational social fields, resulting in an inconsistent and idiosyncratic curriculum-in-use which did not simply reproduce the dominant cultural norms and values. A neoliberal culture of production, lack of policy and meaning regulation, as well as the heteroglossic nature of policy ‘texts’ were identified as prime factors in facilitating this. Finally, findings revealed how parallel processes led SEMI students to also develop idiosyncratic understandings of “global citizenship” based on their own social positionalities and lived experiences within transnational social fields.

Overall, my findings illuminate the complex and contradictory processes by which neoliberal ideologies are able to work their way through multiple levels (e.g. state, institutional, department, classroom) of organizational and individual actors. By demonstrating this as a cultural process and not one which is economically determined and by identifying how particular approaches to policy and practice are implicated in these processes, the study shows opportunity for disruption of these outcomes and pragmatic direction for those making genuine attempts at implementing global citizenship education policy. In doing so, this study offers an important contribution to critical curriculum studies, critical policy studies, and higher education internationalization studies, which might support the work of educators committed to re-imagining the progressive possibilities of higher education in the twenty-first century.

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INCLUSIVITY IN A TIME OF “FORCED” INTERNATIONALIZATION

The Refugee Crisis and the Need for Intercultural Dialogue

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In the last few years, Europe has received an exceedingly high number of refugees and migrants, coming from multiple countries and representing myriad cultures and backgrounds. The EU has made it a priority to support national governments as they try to manage this situation and ensure successful and sustainable social, political, economic and cultural integration of these newcomers.

The goal of this paper is to point out the importance of developing a ‘collective-identity’ among the European countries most affected by the refugee crisis, through an emphasis on commonalities as opposed to differences. Dialogical learning with and from each other must take priority over mere dissemination of information.

I will do so by presenting a successful method of building bridges between refugees and other immigrant minority groups and their local communities through a specific example of practically implemented intercultural dialogue. I will conclude the paper with a discussion of challenges facing authentic intercultural dialogue alongside suggestions for next steps.

Education for Intercultural Dialogue

Hans-Joachim Roth, a German educator who played an active role in shifting German discourse out of the old ‘foreigners education’ from the 70s into the present conceptualization of ‘intercultural education,’ stressed that intercultural education is not solely a mirror for social development, but rather the

legitimation for goals, methods and values in itself. In his opinion, education needs normative guidelines and specific values in order to arm itself against being functionalized (Roth, 2002).

Georg Auernheimer’s work builds upon this foundation by focusing on the forms of education that must be employed in order to successfully support the development of a multicultural society, i.e. the need for a critical pedagogy which supports the development of intercultural competence and helps to raise awareness of structural discrimination and inequalities (Auernheimer, 1998).

Intercultural dialogue is now broadly accepted as an important prerequisite for peace, the prevention of violent extremism, respect for human rights, and the promotion of mutual understanding (UNESCO, 2017). However, there are still gaps in our understanding of how to foster effective dialogue, the dimensions of an enabling environment for dialogue, and the types of intervention needed to sustain its effectiveness.

Practically Implemented Intercultural Dialogue

There are numerous practical examples of initiatives that aim to promote intercultural dialogue. One such example is the European Commission’s framework program ‘Creative Europe’, which was established in 2013 to support Europe’s cultural and creative sectors. Creative Europe’s goal is to promote cultural diversity, creativity, innovation, and

dialogue. With a budget of €1.46 billion, a variety of actions and rewards are being established to promote, recognize, and encourage sites, works, artists, and organizations that contribute to these aims (Creative Europe, n.d.). In April 2016, Creative Europe issued a special call for cultural projects supporting the integration of refugees, ultimately granting funds totaling €2.35 million to 62 organizations in 20 countries. The goals of this special call were to raise awareness about the valuable contributions refugees and migrants make to the cultural diversity in Europe and to help refugees and migrants communicate with and become a more integrated part of existing communities. The funded projects ranged from theater to music, to filmmaking, and art (Creative Europe, n.d.).

One such project is the Refugee Engagement and Integration through Community Theatre (REACT) project by Acta Community Theatre Ltd., which received the highest award from Creative Europe, with a budget of €196,304.62. The project's aim was to promote refugee integration and intercultural dialogue at a local level through community theater, with the goal of increasing community cohesion and mutual understanding. The project involved 262 refugees in Italy, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, who were directly involved in designing and performing new theater productions, based on their cultures and life experiences. Evaluations showed that the project had a positive impact on the refugee participants, who reported increased confidence and language development, as well as new relationships with other refugees and host community members. The REACT project also helped to develop a new understanding and appreciation of refugees in local European communities and inspired other individuals and organizations to work on similar ventures (Creative Europe, n.d.).

Intercultural Dialogue as Key to Integration

Projects such as these play an important role in improving the integration of refugee populations, because they help to highlight the important differences that exist between populations, while also allowing

for the possibility for dialogue across those differences. If differences are neutralized in a utopian, harmonizing way, i.e. by concentrating only on similarities between people, the potential for true intercultural dialogue is limited. Indeed, the prerequisite for successful intercultural dialogue is the recognition of differences, as well as the existence of commonalities and common reference points, such as values and/or common tasks. Auernheimer (1998) has described this as the extension of the “I-perspective” to a “you-perspective”, reflecting mutual understanding and respect between one’s own perspective and the other person’s.

Despite the obvious need for intercultural dialogue in an ever more culturally diversified world, there are many challenges that intercultural dialogue faces in cultures and societies. A 2017 survey, conducted by UNESCO, found that challenges with intercultural dialogue are often rooted in the absence of a national policy in individual countries, as well as the lack of a well-articulated definition of intercultural dialogue, which can weaken governance and implementation. Increased migration has pressured education systems, which now struggle to integrate migrants of different cultural and religious backgrounds (UNESCO, 2017). Deep-rooted prejudices and rigid social norms may prevent societies from being open to other cultures.

Nevertheless, intercultural dialogue is indispensable to keep and build social peace and cohesion and to prevent conflict and maintain peaceful societies, especially with violence and extremism on the rise. The challenge will be to set long-term strategies in place and to recognize that “quick fix” gains might not be sustainable, despite the pressure for short-term results (UNESCO, 2017). Real engagement in dialogue has to be founded in a will to engage in true understanding. As pointed out with the example of the REACT project by Acta Community Theatre Ltd., the role of artists, filmmakers, and intellectuals can play an important role in this process, by promoting creative ways of exchanging ideas through united cultural productions and exchange forums. These projects can help to create a better understanding of new shared contexts and awareness about migration and its causes and effects.

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Refugee Studies are too Focused on Developed Countries*

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Forced displacement has reached a record high. We are living in a world where every two seconds a person becomes a forced migrant, according to the annual Global Trends Report by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). The number of forced migrants has already exceeded 68.5 million and seems likely to continue going up in the coming years (UNHCR, 2017).

The Importance of Education

The huge forced displacement crisis has resulted in masses of refugees seeking a new life in another country. This has inevitably required countries and organizations to attempt to meet their needs. Although much attention has been focused on refugee populations, the majority of the work in this area has focused on accommodation, food and health-related needs only. A very low percentage of international humanitarian funds are used for educational purposes. For example, only eight percent of the European Commission's overall humanitarian aid budget was used to develop education in emergencies and crises in 2018. Although the commission has committed to increase it to 10 percent in 2019, there is still a long way to go (European Commission, 2018).

While the need for education does not get the attention it deserves during a forced displacement crisis, it is as crucial as food for forced migrants. As Talbot (2013) notes "children and adolescents who are not in school are at greater risk of violent attack and rape, and of recruitment into fighting forces, prostitution and life-threatening, often criminal activities" (p. 5). This is why he emphasizes that "education saves lives" in emergencies (Talbot, 2013, p. 5).

Scholarly Interest in Refugees' Access to HE

Most forced migrants are never able to return home, given the continuity of conflict in their home countries. This means that they tend to live permanently in their host countries, although most had not planned to do so and intended their stay to be only temporary. This means that the role of higher education, in particular, is of vital importance, not only for individual refugees, but also for their host countries. As Sarah Dryden-Peterson (2010) reports, higher education helps refugees rebuild their lives by providing them with knowledge, skills and hope for the future. Host countries benefit too, as they get

highly qualified professionals for their labor markets—if they are prepared to give them access to higher education. In addition, higher education fosters refugees’ social integration into host societies and—if refugees do return to their home countries—can also help to support reconstruction and development efforts there.

Given all of these individual, societal and global benefits of refugees’ access to higher education, it is important that higher education scholars engage with the implications of forced migration in the world today. It is therefore pleasing to see that there is a growing interest among higher education scholars in this topic. Policies employed at the national and international level to enhance refugees’ access to higher education, recognition of refugees’ previous academic credentials and support with financial issues, such as scholarships, to ensure refugees are able to continue their studies, are among the top current topics of recent academic publications. However, the increasing emphasis on this subject remains largely restricted to the experiences of refugees in developed countries. There remains a significant lack of scholarship focused on refugees within higher education in developing countries, despite the fact that the vast majority of refugees live in such contexts.

More Research Needed in Developing Countries

According to the UNHCR (2017), 85 percent of the world’s forced migrants live in developing regions. Much of this population has migrated across a border to a neighboring country, thereby straining the infrastructure of a small number of countries. For example, there are 3.6 million Syrian refugees in Turkey, almost one million Syrian refugees in Lebanon, about one million refugees in Bangladesh, nearly 700,000 Venezuelan refugees in Colombia and almost half a million African refugees in Kenya (UNHCR, 2019). Focusing on a minority in developed regions, therefore, does not give an accurate sense of the issue.

Responding to a forced displacement crisis in a neighboring country in a humanitarian way, these countries do not select immigrants through inter-

views, security background checks or health controls. Rather, they employ an ‘open door policy’ for their neighbors who are seeking to escape conflict. Despite their limited resources, many do their best to enhance refugees’ access to higher education. For example, according to the Turkish Council of Higher Education (2019), more than 27,000 Syrian refugees have become university students in Turkey. Similarly, more than 7,000 Syrian refugees have accessed higher education in Lebanon, according to El-Ghali et al. (2019). And in Ethiopia, more than 2,300 refugees are enrolled in universities, according to the UNHCR (2018).

The countries described above and other emerging economies and developing countries in a similar situation enhance refugees’ access to higher education by providing them with scholarships from their limited national budgets, coping with local tensions as admission to universities is already highly competitive for local people in those countries, making refugee access controversial. Moreover, the prospect of more refugees needing higher education in the future, due to the significant number of refugee children or teenagers in host countries, is likely.

Unlike those in developing regions or emerging economies, refugees in developed countries are admitted in a planned way, through selective procedures and quotas. As an elite group of refugees who benefit from the opportunity of reaching developed regions – the dream of most refugees – they may not experience the same challenges or go through the same procedures that those in other regions do. For example, being host to one of the largest groups of refugee university students, Turkey can only provide one in every four refugees with a government scholarship. This inevitably forces refugee students into work and eventually to drop out of their studies. This may not be experienced in a developed country – at least not on the same scale – as a previously determined number of refugees are admitted to a university or country in a strictly controlled and well-planned way.

Get Your Hands Dirty

Given the distinctions in each context, the profile of refugees in developed and developing regions and

the academic, financial and legal procedures around their admission to universities are quite different from each other. The real individual suffering, drop-outs, financial issues, local resistance and other integration issues are mostly experienced in developing regions. For this reason, it is not possible to make global inferences by simply focusing on refugee students' experiences in developed regions.

More research—especially on-site and empirical studies—should be carried out in emerging and developing regions to better understand both refugee students' and local societies' challenges around refugees' access to higher education. Otherwise, a limited focus on developed regions risks seeming similar to ivory tower-type research, distanced from the reality of most refugees' lives.

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Barriers for Venezuelan Refugees Accessing Higher Education in Colombia

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Introduction

In recent years, Venezuelans have been fleeing their country at higher rates than ever before, creating the largest migrant crisis ever seen in South America (UNHCR, 2019). Due to the national economic and political crises, over three million Venezuelans have fled in order to gain access to basic necessities. As a result, neighboring Colombia is facing the largest incoming group of migrants in the region. In fact, by the end of 2019, there will be over 2.2 million Venezuelan refugees and migrants in Colombia (UNHCR, 2018). This includes 1.76 million Venezu-

elans who intend to remain in Colombia and 519,000 returning Colombian refugees. Colombia is faced with two major issues: welcoming nearly 3 million Venezuelan migrants while simultaneously reintegrating the 7.4 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) from Colombia's five-decade multifaceted crisis.

The importance of integrating refugees and migrants into the higher education system is deeply rooted in the ability of tertiary education to positively affect the stability of a nation. The research study that forms the basis of this contribution aimed to

help start a conversation about how incorporating displaced communities into the Colombian higher education sector might positively influence the growth of the nation and facilitate a healing process for both countries involved in the crisis. To that end, the study started from the premise that there is much that Colombia can learn from the best practices of other nations experiencing migrant crises.

Refugees in Higher Education

As the world becomes increasingly interconnected every day, education systems are forced to include a more diverse set of students demanding access to education across borders. In the case of refugees, a new, large population is being introduced to a higher education system. Universities struggle to accommodate this population's unique needs while simultaneously maintaining quality control. Because more than half of the world's refugees are at the age appropriate for pursuing secondary or tertiary education, higher education institutions are forced to accept more refugee students than ever before. In practice, therefore, refugee crises often lead to a form of *forced internationalization* of higher education, or the demand for a higher education institution to internationalize due to national and international pressures to include a new population of students (Ergin, de Wit, & Leask, 2019). As a result, tertiary institutions are now forced to make ethical and moral decisions in order to balance both national interests and the needs of refugees.

However, there is another way to think about the refugee crisis within higher education. Higher education can be a powerful tool for forming a person's identity and can also positively contribute both to the growth of a nation and to its post-conflict reconstruction. When refugees are equitably included in higher education systems, therefore, higher education can promote social and economic equality while also empowering refugee communities. However, despite these clear positive gains, according to the UNHCR, fewer than one percent of all refugees and displaced peoples have access to higher education, compared to just over thirty percent of the rest of the world's population (Barrons, 2018). This gap points to a global failure to uphold the human right to education and successfully use education to address a host of issues caused by highly-skilled refugee

mobility.

This failure is not entirely difficult to understand, however, as refugees do face many barriers to accessing higher education in the host country. These challenges include lack of documentation or credentials and access to information, difficulty with the language of academic instruction, discrimination and xenophobia, restrictive host country policies, and financial shortcomings. It is not surprising that universities have struggled to effectively adapt their systems to better serve refugee populations. However, it is time for universities to catch up with this global crisis and find ways to mitigate some of these barriers, in order to make it easier for refugees to benefit from higher education. The remainder of this paper will consider this question in light of one particular refugee crisis: that of Venezuelan refugees in Colombia.

The Venezuela Crisis

For many years of late, Venezuelan society has been disrupted by ongoing political, human rights, and socio-economic crises, which has consequently resulted in a mass exodus of its citizens to elsewhere in Latin America and the world. According to the UNHCR, hundreds of thousands of Venezuelans remain without any documentation in neighboring countries, and therefore lack their guaranteed access to basic rights, including the fundamental right to education (UNHCR, 2019). The Venezuelan exodus has reached levels comparable to the Syrian migrant and refugee crisis.

Exacerbating this challenge, as Venezuela is falling deeper into disrepair, many Colombians who had previously emigrated to Venezuela during the Colombian crisis have fled back to their country. Colombia is therefore facing the following humanitarian crises today: the Venezuelan refugee crisis, the reintegration of the displaced population within Colombia due to the war against different rebel groups, and the returning Colombian population that fled persecution to neighboring Venezuela in the past fifty years. Colombia has struggled to absorb this influx, as it is still trying to recover from its own 52-year war, while also contending with the resurgence of another militant group, the ELN, along the border of

Venezuela (a factor which further complicates the refugee crisis).

The 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees defines a refugee as someone who is “unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion” (UNHCR, 1966, p. 3). The Cartagena Declaration of 1984, which was created and signed in Colombia, expanded this definition to include individuals who “have fled their country because their lives, safety, or freedom have been threatened by generalized violence, foreign aggression, internal conflicts, massive violation of human rights or other circumstances which have seriously disturbed public order” (Teff & Panayotatos, 2019, p. 9). Many Venezuelans claim they fled due to political persecution and violent attacks by the government and military onto the people. However, despite being a signatory of both the U.N. Convention of 1951 and the Cartagena Declaration of 1984, Colombia does not recognize the population of Venezuelans as *refugees* (Teff & Panayotatos, 2019, p.14).

Findings & Conclusions/ Recommendations

The current study, which is based on interviews and in-depth desk research, found that there are, indeed, more barriers than sources of support for refugee students in Colombia. The displaced community has some admissions support at public higher education institutions, but this support does not appear to be extended to the Venezuelan migrant community. Students who have dual citizenship with Colombia are able to surpass some barriers that non-Colombian nationals face when trying to access a Colombian university. However, even for Venezuelan migrants with Colombian citizenship, universities still require documents that are only available in Venezuela.

Additionally, universities in Colombia are not recognizing the crisis as their responsibility and are reliant on the Ministry of Education to make policy changes. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Education

claims that, through the Higher Education Law of 1992, universities do not need to rely on the Ministry of Education in order to be proactive in the creation of admissions policies that cater towards this migrant crisis. Thus, there is a clear case of finger-pointing between the universities and Ministry of Education.

Barriers to accessing Colombian higher education for Venezuelan refugee students include lacking proper documentation and financial support, limited or no access to technology, legal policies limiting the flexibility of universities to act, inconclusive degree recognition frameworks between the two nations, and limited sources of support to guide Venezuelans properly through the education process. Because refugees flee their country without having the ability to prepare documents or the necessary steps to continue their education in Colombia, most are not able to apply for a university education in Colombia.

Furthermore, universities have not advertised any services to the refugee community. Without any free or accessible information, refugees will not know their rights or requirements to apply for tertiary education. Additionally, none of the institutions included in this study use their free online learning courses as a mechanism to aid the refugee population, despite the fact that free online courses are a valid alternative to taking courses without fees or documents required.

Overall, the national policy to standardize the admissions policies of all universities in Colombia has completely deterred Venezuelan enrollment into the higher education arena. Universities are using this standardization as a scapegoat for their marginal role in helping the migrant population. Legal policies, including the requirement for all Venezuelans to apply for a student visa, fully limits the refugees from accessing higher education. Support services dedicated to refugees with regards to higher education in Colombia are lacking.

Given that higher education plays a direct role in improving a nation’s economic development and stabilization, the policies preventing refugees from participating in the tertiary level of education is inefficient and wasteful. Colombia is attempting to re-

bound from a 52-year long civil war, and this new population has the potential to help rebuild the nation and create a peaceful future and mutual relationship between Colombia and Venezuela. Other regions in the world have found ways to overcome the barriers to access that refugees aspiring to pursue higher education in Colombia are encountering. Colombia has much to learn from these examples, as it strives to resolve its contemporary challenges.

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FOCUS ON THE GLOBAL SOUTH

How Can We Make Higher Education in Africa More Innovative and Inclusive?

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In this era of a quest for relevance accompanied with a fierce competition between higher education institutions (HEIs), innovation and inclusiveness are two indispensable features for the survival of HEIs. In this paper, I will argue that making higher education (HE) in Africa more inclusive requires an awareness of the peculiarity of the African context, curricular reforms (in terms of content and delivery) that support inclusion, and a reinforcement of academic freedom as well as institutional autonomy to support research and promote reasonable conversation on hot issues. As for innovation, in addition to inclusiveness, I suggest the imperative to depart from the prevailing way of understanding

HEIs, and the way that teaching-learning as well as assessment activities are done. I first start with the feature of inclusiveness, which is said to lead to the second feature: innovativeness.

Making African HEIs More Inclusive

According to Tienda (2013), inclusion refers to “organizational strategies and practices that promote meaningful social and academic interactions among persons and groups who differ in their experiences, their views, and their traits” (p. 467). The following definition of inclusive education by the UNESCO is also compelling: “an ongoing process of transforming learning environments to take into account the

diversity of needs and to eliminate exclusion” (Potvin, 2014, p. 189).

The above definitions have in common the idea that inclusion is something intentional. It does not happen naturally; it has to be planned and promoted. However, what makes these definitions significant is that they render more explicitly two assumptions: the existence of diversity, and a history of exclusion that is aimed at reparation.

From these definitions, it is arguable that any project that seeks to render African HEIs more inclusive should ask: What type of diversity exists or is acknowledged on the African continent? What history of exclusion is prevalent in African HEIs? What are the social structures and/or mechanisms that contribute to the perpetuation of this exclusion? What solutions are available and doable? Given space considerations, I will not address all these questions. However, three points are worth mentioning here.

- ‘Inclusion’ means a very different thing in many African contexts than it does in the contexts in which the term was first employed.
- Many universities in Africa do not even collect some of the necessary data to track inclusion, given their histories of ethnic violence - and therefore, it is difficult to understand how they can work towards increased inclusion (given that they cannot monitor their progress).
- Adding the word ‘internationalization’ makes the question even trickier, as many contexts are experiencing strong xenophobia towards foreign students coming into universities from neighboring countries (for both political and economic reasons).

These points highlight the need to contextualize inclusion. In fact, Appiah, Arko-Achemfuor, and Adeyeye (2018) correctly posit that ethnicity is one of the “major drivers of diversity in sub-Saharan Africa, and the main subject underlining the importance of diversity and inclusion” (p. 1). In other words, in this region when you say diversity, the first thing that comes to mind is ethnic diversity; and likewise, when you say inclusion, people think of the inclu-

sion of ethnic groups that have been historically excluded from certain social advantages. This is self-explanatory, given the fact that most of the conflicts in the region have an ethnic ramification or connotation.

Along with ethnicity, I add gender and disability as drivers to diversity and inclusion. This can be noted even on the political scene where politicians will showcase their accomplishment in raising the number of women in parliament. This is also true for disabilities, for which associations are created to promote the inclusion of the persons with disabilities in schools and HEIs.

However, there is an emerging category of marginalized persons on the basis of sexual preferences. Not that it is really new, it has just been ignored until recently. To be sure, I have no knowledge of a country that has an explicit law banning persons on the basis of sexual orientation from HEIs. Yet, inclusion is not just about access; it is also about persevering until completion of the program study and graduation, and it is about feeling at home, safe, respected, welcomed, in university settings. This is valuable for all categories of people historically excluded. So, what can we do to render African HEIs more inclusive?

I will make a few suggestions:

- Remember that African HEIs are situated within a historical, legal and cultural context. This means that they are themselves bound to some extent by this context. Therefore, fostering inclusion should distinguish traditionally accepted drivers (ethnicity, gender, disabilities, socio-economic) and the emerging categories (sexual preferences).
- For the traditional drivers, there are already, in some countries, some steps taken to address their exclusion. However, political leaders, as well as HEI leaders, should make public those solutions and have them discussed by the academic community prior to their application.
- Solutions should not focus only on access and graduation. They should take into ac-

count curriculum content and its delivery (Gannon, 2018).

- Regarding the emerging drivers, I suggest as a solution the strengthening of academic freedom and institutional autonomy, which will give the possibility to open-minded academicians to research and raise the debate related to sexual orientation and sexuality in general. A system of incentives is needed to encourage them. If this topic is not discussed in universities, then nowhere else can it be discussed. The importance here is to spark a debate that would undoubtedly extend to the larger community. It is hoped that those conversations would reduce prejudice and homophobia, while fostering tolerance, acceptance and respect.

Promoting inclusion in African HEIs simply as if Africa were a homogeneous village should be avoided. Now, how to render African HEIs more innovative?

Making African HEIs more innovative

Innovation is “the process of translating [emphasis added] an idea or invention into a good or service that creates value or for which customers will pay... Innovation involves deliberate application [emphasis added] of information, imagination and initiative in deriving greater or different values from resources, and includes all processes by which new ideas are generated and converted [emphasis added] into useful products” (Business Dictionary, 2019).

Note the semantic proximity of the main concepts in this definition: translate, apply, generate and convert. These are active words.

Another definition given by Arden, Debasish, and Lalit (2015) is that innovation results in “a physical product, a process, or a service that impacts society in a timely manner..., because unless the impact is realized, it is not an innovation” (p.10). They add that innovation implies some improvement.

In the light of these definitions, it can be inferred that an innovative HEI is capable of translating an idea into a good or a service and applies information and imagination, in deriving greater or different values from existing resources. It is the in-

stitution that makes impact and improves its society through the products or services it generates. How can we make African HEIs be like this? I have three suggestions.

First, inclusion. As already mentioned, diversity and inclusion are known as the means to promote innovation (Tienda, 2013).

Second, the mission of the university should be revisited. The function of a university should not be understood as a mere production of civil servants, but also and most importantly as the generator of knowledge, service, and an agent of social change.

Third (and this is the most important for me), rethink the approach to teaching-learning and assessment. Here, I suggest an approach to teaching that is based on learning outcomes, as an alternative to the current way of teaching in African HEIs.

To conclude, I highlight a few features of this approach that convince me that it is conducive to innovation:

- Its emphasis on action and the subject of the action, which is the student. In insisting on action, “students will be able to...,” the student is pushed out of a passive posture of learning (the famous banking method decried by Paulo Freire), to a learning context whereby he engages and acts on the world.
- It urges teachers to go beyond the simple assessment of declarative knowledge and to integrate functional knowledge (Biggs and Tang, 2011). We can see here the connection with the notion of innovation as applying or translating.
- It has the potential to promote interest and passion because it informs students of what they are capable of doing.
- It offers the possibility to think in an interdisciplinary way when designing a program.
- It promotes interaction among learners and between learners and teachers through collaborative activities.

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The Role of the Diaspora in the Development and Internationalization of Higher Education in Africa: A Case Study of Nigeria

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Higher education enrollment in sub-Saharan Africa has expanded significantly in the past two decades, intensifying the need to address the shortcomings of higher education on the continent. Amid growing concerns about the condition of African universities and their capacity to generate knowledge, international development actors and African governments and universities are turning to diaspora-driven initiatives to address long-standing challenges in the higher education sector. While literature on the contributions of the African diaspora often focuses on their financial remittances, stakeholders have, in recent years, increasingly recognized the diaspora's potential for intellectual remittances, which they seek to harness for higher education capacity building, knowledge production, and internationalization. Using Nigeria as a case study, my research examines the role of the U.S.-based African diaspora

in the development and internationalization of higher education in Africa.

Background and Context of Study

Due to years of neglect and internationally-enforced disinvestment, higher education institutions (HEIs) that played vital roles in development in other regions were stifled in African countries (Teferra, 2013). Most of Africa's higher education systems are still struggling to recover from the extensive resource cuts and the related mass emigration of African academics to the United States and Europe. These factors, among others, have severely impaired Africa's higher education infrastructure, capacity, funding, and student enrollment, making it difficult for African institutions to meet the demands of their rapidly growing student population (Semali, Baker, & Freer, 2013), make significant contributions to the global

“knowledge economy” (Foulds & Zeleza, 2014; Teferra, 2013), and effectively engage in internationalization.

In the 2018 edition of the International Association of Universities (IAU) global survey on internationalization, strategic partnerships and international research collaboration were ranked by Africa-based respondents as the second most significant internationalization activity, after student mobility (Marinoni & De Wit, 2019). In spite of their high ranking, international partnerships pose a challenge for many African universities, which approach them, and internationalization in general, from an economically and historically disadvantaged position. In addition to the aforementioned factors, Africa’s colonial past and neocolonial present contribute to the struggle of its HEIs to be seen by their global counterparts as viable partners for institutional partnerships (Foulds & Zeleza, 2014). The IAU surveys have consistently shown that no other region prioritizes academic alliances with institutions in Africa. In the fifteen years between the first survey and the most recent, Africa has remained a low-priority region for international institutional partnerships. Even with the growing emphasis on diaspora-homeland collaborations as a potential solution to some of the region’s enduring educational challenges, engagements between the academic diaspora and Africa-based individuals and institutions remain mostly informal (Foulds & Zeleza, 2014).

Across the African continent, several national policies and initiatives have been implemented to attract highly-skilled members of the diaspora back to their home countries to serve in teaching, research, and administrative roles. In 2014, Nigeria collaborated with the International Organization for Migration (IOM) to administer a national survey with the aim of identifying and recruiting members of the Nigerian diaspora in the education field to contribute to the development of the Nigerian education sector. In addition, several Nigerian universities actively attempt to recruit diaspora scholars to participate in higher education capacity-building efforts. These national and institutional initiatives, along with Nigeria’s status as both the top country of

origin for African-born immigrants in the United States and one of the most popular destination countries in Africa for scholar-exchange and visiting scholar programs, make Nigeria a prime site for studying diaspora engagement in African higher education.

Research Objectives and Methods

Few scholars have explored the engagement of the African academic diaspora in higher education in Africa. Teferra (2010) posits that diaspora scholars may be a bridge between their countries of origin and their countries of residence. Zeleza’s (2013) studies suggest that diaspora academics play an important role in the internationalization of African higher education by fostering the academic mobility of students and scholars and, in some cases, facilitating technological innovations and resource generation for African universities. My study contributes to the small body of literature on the engagement of the African academic diaspora in higher education in Africa.

Over a period of eight months, I conducted a multi-sited, comparative case study at two higher education institutions in Nigeria, examining internationalization efforts and, particularly, the role of diaspora-homeland collaborations in the capacity building and internationalization of Nigerian universities. My research methods included semi-structured, in-depth interviews with 20 Nigeria-based scholars and 20 U.S.-based African diaspora scholars who were previous or current participants in diaspora-homeland collaborations. I also interviewed Nigeria-based university administrators to learn about institutional approaches to internationalization. Additionally, I conducted observations of campus activities related to internationalization and analyzed documents pertaining to or derived from diaspora-homeland collaborations.

Findings and Recommendations

The study revealed various forms of diaspora engagement in Nigerian higher education. Visiting diaspora scholars were involved in a range of activities, including research collaborations, teaching, curriculum development, workshop facilitation, graduate

student supervision, and junior faculty mentoring. I observed that individual-level, international collaborations outnumbered institutional partnerships, and in most cases, there was no system in place to track informal, individual-level collaborations. In some instances, these collaborations led to the establishment of a formal partnership between the home and host institutions. Data from the study indicate that, even at institutions with a strategic approach to internationalization, there was no discernable institutional strategy for engaging diaspora scholars, the majority of whom were alumni of Nigerian universities with previous connections to the host scholar or the host department.

Diaspora scholars' motivations for participating in diaspora-homeland higher education collaborations included the desire to pursue research interests, expand professional networks, and make intellectual contributions to their home country—all of which confirmed the findings of previous studies. In addition, some scholars also identified the recent surge of anti-immigrant sentiments and racial tensions in the United States as a motivating factor for their engagement in Nigeria.

Benefits

Participants highlighted several benefits of diaspora-homeland collaborations, such as enhanced capacity for knowledge production, exposure to innovative teaching methods, improved curricula, networking opportunities for faculty and students, generation of funds, and greater prospects for academic mobility, which was seen as a double-edged sword. While it was advantageous for individuals to travel abroad and return with insights to enrich their home institution, this benefit was lost with permanent migration, which exacerbated the shortage of highly-qualified scholars in Nigeria. Overall, participants perceived these academic alliances as being more rewarding for Nigerian institutions and scholars than for visiting diaspora scholars, although they also benefited from their access to Nigeria-based scholars' local knowledge and expertise. Participants cited knowledge flows in both directions as evidence of mutually beneficial partnerships.

Challenges

While Nigeria-based scholars generally expressed that they were eager to engage in international collaborations with diaspora scholars, that eagerness was often tempered by lack of funding and inadequate institutional infrastructure and facilities. Scholars identified the lack of sufficient funding as the greatest obstacle for internationalization and, more broadly, higher education in Nigeria. Several Nigerian scholars suggested that limited financial resources prohibited their institution from being an equal partner in international partnerships and often left them feeling inadequate in international collaborations. Nigeria-based scholars also mentioned that the quick turnover of administrators in offices that oversee international collaborations sometimes made it difficult to see collaborative projects to completion and achieve sustainable results.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, I offer the following recommendations:

- There is a strong need for Nigerian universities to strengthen their alumni and diaspora networks to more effectively engage members of those networks in capacity-building and internationalization efforts.
- Nigerian universities need to improve the collection and accessibility of data on both formal and informal academic collaborations.
- Nigerian institutions should have both an internationalization strategy and a diaspora engagement strategy.
- Nigerian universities must address the aforementioned infrastructural and financial challenges to see sustainable results from the joint efforts between diaspora and local scholars. The failure to address those challenges and establish a structure that will enable local scholars to carry on the work initiated in those collaborations may lead to perpet-

uated dependence of Nigerian universities on external support.

Several factors collide to make internationalization of higher education uniquely complex in the Nigerian context. While diaspora-homeland collaborations yield positive results and appear to be an impactful form of internationalization, Nigerian universities must overcome a combination of historical and contemporary issues that have left them in a precarious state in order to realize the full potential of diaspora engagement. Similarly, HEIs in other African countries seeking to engage the diaspora for academic cooperation should proceed with the knowledge that the effects of diaspora-homeland collaborations may be limited by unaddressed structural and institutional challenges.

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African Student Mobility: The Case of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

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In the age of globalization, emerging markets and economies are using higher education as a tool to advance their status, both economically and politically. Countries such as China and India are attracting students from around the world, and in recent years, other non-Western education providers have entered the fray to compete for global talent. Due to this contemporary phenomenon, the long-established patterns of student mobility have also shifted. Whereas historically, students from the Global South travelled to the Global North to pursue higher education, they are now opting to attend programs in less established study destinations. A major student population seeking alternatives are those from

the African continent, identified as having one of the largest numbers of outbound students. Despite extensive research on African migration and student mobility, African students remain underrepresented in both literatures, making them a distinguishing migrant category. While scholars have explored the educational experiences of international students coping with unexpected socio-political and cultural climates (Collins & Ho, 2018), much of this literature is focused on the Asian region.

Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

More recently, the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) has been well-positioned in attracting

students from Africa. African students represent a relatively large percentage (23 percent) of the university student population. The TRNC is a surprising but not insignificant player in the global education game. Northern Cyprus offers the opportunity of a degree at costs lower than its Western counterparts and is often advertised as 'Europe'. However, the TRNC is an unrecognized state, which means the validity of the degrees remain rather elusive because, in the eyes of the world, the TRNC is a country that does not exist. This rising study destination currently lies within the periphery of our existing knowledge of emerging contexts. Therefore, examining the motivations and expectations of African students in the TRNC may provide potential insight into a much broader issue of educational inequality. Research on international students in the TRNC, and more broadly, African students studying elsewhere is largely absent.

This paper draws on ethnographic data collected within one-month in the TRNC with African students, most of whom came from Nigeria, Zimbabwe, and Cameroon. The main data consisted of semi-structured interviews and focus groups.

The TRNC comprises the northern third of the island of Cyprus. Due to its advantageous location at the crossroads between Europe, Africa, and Asia, the island state has played a key role in the Eastern Mediterranean region. When Britain relinquished control of the island in 1959, the independent Republic of Cyprus (RoC) was formed. Soon after independence, inter-communal disputes between the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities came to a flash point. Greek Cypriots had called for the union of Cyprus with Greece, whereas the Turkish Cypriots preferred a partition of the island. Violence and conflict between these two ethnic groups escalated into an intervention and subsequent occupation of the northern part of Cyprus by the Turkish military in 1974. The 1974 crisis led to the current division of the island and the enforced exchange of the two ethnic populations: the Greek Cypriots to the south and Turkish Cypriots to the north. After partition, the two island sectors continued to diverge. In 2004, the RoC became a member state of the European Union. Meanwhile, the self-declared TRNC, established in

1983, has remained internationally unrecognized, except by Turkey. The TRNC is considered "legally invalid" by the UN Security Council, and to this day is placed under a heavy international embargo. While there have been several attempts towards reunification, such as the 2004 Annan Plan, all have fallen through. Since 1974, the TRNC has endured significant demographic changes, due to the influx of settlers from mainland Turkey and other immigrant groups.

Largely cut off from global trade, the TRNC is trying to leverage higher education as an economic growth mechanism. Proponents of higher education in the TRNC claim that the island is a stepping stone for accessing education in the western world. Though its universities may wish to become an active participant in the global education market, its political and economic ostracization presents an added impediment. The institutions cannot participate in funding programs available to many European countries. This not only alters their approach to internationalization, but also their ability to assure high-quality academic programs, key for establishing the state's relevance in a global arena.

Rethinking 'Mobility' in International Student Mobility

The bulk of International Student Mobility literature gives attention to two main areas. The widely cited push-pull model acknowledges that the search for better opportunities abroad and the dissatisfaction with one's origin country drives the decision to migrate. An alternative theory considers student mobility as a process of academic and personal transformation, often defined as a series of events and social processes, or an accumulation of capital to secure one's future (Carlson, 2013). Reviewing the existing studies highlights the need to thoroughly investigate the concept of mobility. Specifically, to apply a mobility lens to evaluate mobilities beyond just physical in relation to the specific national context. These interpretations are: physical movement, representation of movement, practice of movement, and its rootedness in power (Cresswell, 2010; Adey, 2006). Furthermore, I build upon previous research by examining the impact of material and bureaucrat-

ic structures on educational mobility experiences (Challinor & Martins, 2017). As a result, this study foregrounds the relationship between mobility and immobility, which remains understudied, and challenges the notion of the freedom of movement.

The research objective is to understand how the mobility experiences of African international students are shaped by the contextual factors of the TRNC such as its island geography, its non-recognition on the global stage, and its role as a 'place' during their journey. To untangle these linkages, I engaged theoretically with the disciplinary fields of migration, mobilities, and higher education, while highlighting the contextual factors involved.

Findings and Conclusion

Based on narrative accounts that emerged from interviews and focus groups, the African students held an expectation that travelling outside of Africa would provide many opportunities for a better future. They prioritized returning home with a foreign degree, finding employment, and participating in an academically challenging and international environment. Despite these expectations, they recalled landing in a place unlike what they had imagined. Their initial excitement about living the 'good European life' was at odds with the reality. Instead, they saw a place resembling a developing country, "under-construction." In fact, most were sold the falsehood of "going to Cyprus" by education agents by which they interpreted their destination as a European country. Disappointment with the quality of education and the lack of inclusivity was a common theme. Prior to arrival, many were unaware of the island's division, while a minority chose the TRNC because of their struggle to get visas for western countries. Additionally, many African students claimed that they are unable to travel to southern Cyprus either because of their passport or because they are not given the visa. Students also reported difficulties of finding a job during their studies. Under the almost complete integration into Turkey's economy, the TRNC is equally vulnerable to all the monetary instabilities of the Turkish economy. The volatility of the local currency was a major source of

frustration among the students. Because of the lack of opportunities after graduation, students frequently spoke about returning to their origin countries or expressed a strong desire to find work in Europe.

The TRNC's isolation from the rest of the world seems to have detrimental effects on not only the students' physical movement, which they expressed in relation to their confinement to the north, but also their ability to secure the necessary capital towards any future mobility. Consequently, these students are in a state of relative immobility and in interviews perceive themselves as being "imprisoned." The research revealed that future studies in the field need to explore the mobility concept within the context of today's increasingly changing landscape of international education. Recognizing mobility in all its forms becomes imperative due to the probability that students will continue to venture into varying national contexts.

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Inclusive Internationalization in India: An Assessment

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Introduction

There are two major areas of benefit to international student mobility in higher education: a) benefits accruing to students (e.g. mobile students improving their knowledge and increasing their global competencies, and all students – both mobile and local – benefitting from the exposure to different cultures and values that comes with increasing diversity within institutions); and b) benefits accruing to institutions (e.g. impacts on student enrolment and the possibility of joining global knowledge networks).

Despite the benefits, there are concerns about the equity aspects of student mobility. Current studies show that only one percent of the student-elite in the world are globally mobile (De Wit & Jones, 2018). This is problematic, given that “internationalization must be inclusive and not elitist [and] must address access and equity issues with high priority” (De Wit & Jones, 2018, pp. 16-18). As a result, scholars such as de Wit and Jones argue “internationalization for all,” rather than an exclusive focus on student mobility, should be the core of institutional internationalization strategies.

India is, in many respects, an important case in this regard. Although India is only able to attract a few thousand foreign students each year, the majority of those students come to India from neighbouring countries or countries containing Indian diaspora (Tokas, 2017, p. 104). As a result, in 2018, 95 percent of the inbound international students in India hailed from developing countries (MHRD, 2018). This success can be largely attributed to features such as cultural similarities, relatively affordable costs, availability of education in the English

language, and access to better educational infrastructure than in their respective home countries. The fact that Indian classrooms already reflect a rich local, regional and cultural diversity, due to its relatively nimble inter-state migration and admission policies, is another benefit. These characteristics give India an additional edge over other nations with regard to systematically embedding inclusive internationalization of mobility in higher education.

However, until recently, there has not been any systemic effort in India to make internationalization part of the more general education agenda, and the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) has been largely indifferent to this trend of inclusive mobility of inbound foreign students. This changed in April 2018, when the government of India launched an ambitious internationalization project called ‘Study in India’ (SII) that aims to greatly strengthen the number of inbound foreign students. This paper considers the potential of the ‘Study of India’ project to contribute to the advancement of a more inclusive internationalization.

Assessing inclusivity: State of internationalization in India

In 2014-15, international students in India hailed mainly from Asia and Africa, and constituted 80 percent of all international students in the country. India receives a majority of its international students from the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) nations, which are also low and lower-middle income countries. Of these, Nepal, Afghanistan, Bhutan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka top the chart in terms of the number of students they send to India each year. As can be seen in the table

below, the number of incoming international students rose by at least two times (except for Maldives) for most SAARC nations between 2014-15 and 2017-18.

SAARC Countries/Year	2014-15	2017-18
AFGHANISTAN	2732	4378
BANGLADESH	398	1566
BHUTAN	944	1999
MALDIVES	147	188
NEPAL	5480	11,521
SRI LANKA	507	1248
PAKISTAN	5	41

Source: MHRD

Within Africa, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Tanzania and Sudan dominated the charts in 2014-15 (MHRD, 2015). However, Ethiopia slipped way below Nigeria and Sudan in 2017-18, with a relatively small increase in numbers from Nigeria as well. Most foreign students in India study in private institutions, as they provide more a favourable ecosystem entailing better housing, funding, curriculum and faculty, compared to most public-funded universities.

Until recently, most of the efforts towards internationalization by the Government of India were reactive and lacked focus, with segregated and isolated efforts being managed by different ministries. For instance, although MHRD is responsible for regulating education in the country, academic scholarships to foreign students are awarded by the ICCR, an arm of the Ministry of External Affairs (MEA). The lack of coordination between the two ministries has meant that several beneficiary institutions under ICCR's scholarship schemes have escaped rigorous screening for their quality of education and infrastructure, eventually hampering student experience in India.

The 'Study in India' program aims to attract students to government institutions. Under the SII program, students from across 30 countries, including Asia, Africa, Middle East and Commonwealth nations, can seek admissions into 160 select institutions, with high national ranking and accreditation. Also, for the first time ever, MHRD and MEA have

electd to work together "to improve the soft power of India with a focus on the neighbouring countries" under the scheme (Press Information Bureau, 2018).

The SII program aims to increase the number of international students to 200,000 in the next five years and claims to have already admitted 2,000 students since its inception. However, the budget allocated so far appears to have been spent primarily on "brand promotion activities," rather than on core issues such as establishing a facilitating regulatory environment, better infrastructure, funding and support to institutions and students.

This is a crucial concern, given that funding is a major constraint to increasing mobility of students (De Wit & Jones, 2018, p. 17). Indian institutions charge differential tuition for international students – up to five times the regular fees for SAARC countries and three times regular fees for non-SAARC countries. Given that the nations targeted under SII comprise low and lower-middle income countries, the sum allocated (almost 21 million USD) should have been utilized to create need-based and merit-based scholarships for students, instead of asking institutions to offer fee waivers from their own accounts. Of all the existing 24 ICCR scholarship schemes, only one, the General Scholarship Scheme (GSS), which comprises a paltry 500 slots for select nations, has been included in SII. Given the prevailing market rates, allowances under GSS are often

insufficient for students to live comfortably in cities that are education hubs, narrowing down their choice of city and institution.

Another key issue is the underutilization of the ICCR scholarship slots (just 2324 out of a possible 3352 used in 2016-17). Given that there are at least 15 times more international students studying in India than the total number of scholarships available, this requires comprehensive analysis. It may be best to merge these scholarships with the GSS as part of SII, in order to attract meritorious students from low and lower-middle income countries.

Similarly, providing employment opportunities to international students can also increase mobility of students from developing nations. At present, foreign students are expected to return home immediately after their study period.

‘Study in India’: Lessons for Way Forward

This analysis suggests that budgetary allocation and student funding are the primary barriers affecting the SII program. Although significant, these challenges could be better addressed by more effectively merging the efforts of MHRD and MEA under the SII umbrella, following the below possible recommendations:

Funding: The SII program has listed some of the best institutions under its new strategy. However, institutions under ICCR also need to be reviewed for optimal utilization of available funds and for revision of scholarship amounts, so as to encourage more foreign students to avail them. Similarly, scholarships allotted under ICCR to specific countries need to be reviewed, to ensure judicious distribution among other priority nations as well.

Employment: Although the high unemployment rate in India restricts providing long-term employment to foreign students, top performing foreign students should be placed in global MNCs and even Indian companies for fixed-term (i.e. three-five years) internships or employments, to enhance their employment experience before they return to their home countries.

Budget: As mentioned earlier, funds allotted under this scheme need to be utilized for more urgent requirements such as establishing international of-

fices, providing superior public hostel facilities (especially in Tier 1 cities), scholarships, and creating an internationalized curriculum, among others. Currently, even the top Indian states attracting foreign students do not have international offices that can handle student grievances and concerns.

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Quality Assurance in the Internationalization of Afghan Higher Education: Challenges and Opportunities

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After the fall of the Taliban regime in 2001, the Afghan government, together with the international community, took significant steps to improve the higher education system in Afghanistan (Welch & Wahidyar, 2013). In an effort to enhance the quality of higher education to meet the international standards, the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE), along with donor agencies, such as the World Bank and USAID, developed a quality assurance and accreditation (QAA) policy. The QAA policy mandated that all universities be subject to an accreditation review (Hayward, 2015). The Afghan government supported the process, and the World Bank and USAID focused on the development of policy.

Context

The Afghan higher education sector has been isolated from the rest of the world for a couple of decades, and the universities have been separated from the levels of quality observed internationally. Years of war and isolation left Afghan higher education behind the rest of the world in a sense that curriculum, programs, pedagogy, and methodology have not been updated. Faculty and staff members were isolated from their peers abroad, unable to travel to professional meetings, and go abroad for advanced training, and out of touch with higher education outside Afghanistan. During the war, universities were sources of basic income for faculty and administrators. They increasingly faced difficult conditions over the years with deteriorating facilities, lack of equipment, insufficient funding, shortages of staff, loss of research funds, and increasing teaching loads (Hayward, 2015).

On top of that, the growing politicization of higher education, ideological purges, and hostility under the Mujahiddin and later the Taliban shattered its existence. During the Russian-led regime of Afghanistan, anti-Soviet movements started in Afghanistan, emerging from rural areas, such as southern provinces bordering Pakistan. Schools were targeted from a distance by rockets, mining and other activities. When the Mujahiddin came to power, more attention was paid to Islamic and Madrasah education rather than the modern higher education system (Welch & Wahidyar, 2013). The regime was oppressive, hence a majority of academic staff and educated citizens left their jobs, and the higher education system and infrastructure went from damaged to depleted (Hayward, 2015).

However, the already lamentable condition of higher education worsened under the Taliban rule as a result of their negative and extreme interpretation of modern education. There were fourteen institutions of higher education in Afghanistan when the Taliban came to power, but these were reduced to seven during their reign (Welch & Wahidyar, 2013). Women were banned from school, and men went to school under this harsh situation. As a result, the majority of men left the country when they learned how to read and write. After the fall of the Taliban regime in 2001, schools reopened, and women and girls, as well as men and boys, turned to school doors, and migrants from Pakistan and Iran returned to continue their education in Afghanistan. However, school buildings, infrastructure, and the culture of education had been diminished by the decades of war.

After such massive destruction, the Afghan higher education system needed a major reformation. Rebuilding the education system in Afghanistan was based on an agreement made during the Bonn Conference in 2001. Also, the Afghanistan National Development Strategic (ANDS) plans for Afghanistan I, II and III highlight rebuilding the Afghan higher education system by increasing access and improving quality (Hayward, 2015). Accordingly, the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) was responsible for transforming the higher education system. Hence, discussions about the QAA policy with the help of the World Bank (WB) and USAID were brought to the table (Hayward, 2015). After a few years of initiative, hard work and funding by national and international entities, this policy was ready for implementation in 2012.

Why QAA in Afghan Higher Education?

QAA is central to inclusive internationalization in the Afghan context because it aims to ensure that higher education institutions are included in international policy frameworks and allow for educational exchange. It focuses on meeting standards that allow for the mobility of Afghan students and scholars. QAA policy improves student mobility by ensuring that Afghan students meet international standards for their disciplines and programs. It not only increases access to higher education, it updates the curriculum to meet international expectations as well as uses more student-focused teaching methods (Hayward, 2015). QAA improves scholar mobility by improving the research outputs of academic staff in journal articles, books, and monographs. Buckner and Stein (2019) argue for the need for greater attention to “the unequal geopolitical environment, which privileges some students and disadvantages others” (p. 6). Thus, it is especially important to understanding inclusive internationalization in a post-conflict country like Afghanistan and avoiding the imposing frameworks of “internationalization” developed in the West (Stein, Andreotti, Bruce, & Suša, 2016). In the Afghan context, QAA is essential for inclusive internationalization to guarantee that students and scholars are not excluded from what Knight (2015) characterizes as

first-generation forms of internationalization, which includes “international partnerships, international students and staff, and multiple international and intercultural collaborative activities” (p. 107). If Afghan public universities meet accreditation standards, credits earned by students can be recognized by universities throughout the world.

Findings

Stakeholders interviewed for my research believe that QAA has not worked in Afghanistan, as this policy is developed without considering the country’s social, contextual and educational positions. According to them, the result has not been tangible, and the policy has not been properly functional due to the involvement of foreign agencies. One of the participants, for instance, said that the policy has been written by foreigners and then was translated into local languages, which are Dari and Pashto. At the beginning, according to another participant, the translated version of the policy did not make much sense due to issues in translation; hence, the policy and its practices did not match the Afghan higher education system and administrators had to get together and make meaning out of it.

It is believed that QAA is set up with high standards or expectations that are not realistic in Afghanistan’s current context. Participants mentioned that implementing this policy increased the workload and demands on the administration and faculty, however, with few or no facilities and resources to meet the needs. High-quality education outcomes are expected, yet monthly income is too low to survive. Besides, faculty and administration have no office equipment. One of the participants mentioned that teacher evaluations by students are required by the policy, but there is only one computer in one department with limited access to a printer. As a result, QAA has become a report generating process.

MoHE, USAID, and other donor agencies go against the above argument and state that the policy was an Afghan-initiated and Afghan-lead process. They believe that QAA was developed from a social understanding and realization of the needs for quality education within the country. A senior government official stated that, when the decision about

developing QAA was made, a financially autonomous higher education was the dream to achieve (e.g., allowing universities to generate money). However, the centralized and politicized higher education system in Afghanistan, basically in Capital Kabul, have made it impossible.

Conclusion

Argument on the ground indicates that seven years after the introduction of QAA, only a handful of universities have been able to implement the policy. Furthermore, its mentioned benefits toward internationalization and cross-border and knowledge-sharing processes have been limited to only a few universities. Findings suggest that QAA in Afghanistan has become a “ticking the box” process rather than bringing change on the ground (Mussawy & Rossman, 2018); therefore, QAA has become a process through which institutions generate reports. However, it could be argued that despite all the challenges, the initial steps toward enhancing quality that would lead to internationalization of higher ed-

ucation in Afghanistan have been taken.

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SPOTLIGHT ON THE STUDENT EXPERIENCE

In-Between: A Case Study of Individuals' Graduate Employability in a Transnational University in Mainland China

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The emergence of a knowledge economy has highlighted a more important role for intellectual assets in national pursuits for prosperity and competitiveness. This can be reflected in the increasing demands for a better-educated workforce in response to the rise of more sophisticated types of occupations. Employees with the desired ‘capital,’ in

forms of skills, personal qualities or experience, are judged to have more value that can improve the companies' productivity and profitability. China, in line with its economic growth and elevated value chain, has been experimenting with innovative educational approaches to enhance its human capital. As a regionally and globally rising power, it finds it is

imperative to execute strategies that are conducive to wider communication and cooperation through talent flow, as well as reinforce the nation's global footing in the long run.

In view of this, the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2012) put forward the goal of China's talent cultivation as: *'[To] integrate into the international community, possess international vision and knowledge, understand international rules and actively participate in international affairs and international competition.'* As part of this overall strategy, China has facilitated the setting-up of a few Sino-foreign educational institutions and many joint higher education programs during the past two decades. These initiatives are particularly well instantiated by the establishment of transnational universities, which signifies China's aspiration to rank its higher education level against world-class standards. According to the MoE (2004), these measures *'provide education service mainly to Chinese citizens,' to whom 'high-quality foreign educational resources are introduced,' and 'shall meet the needs of the development of China's educational cause, ensure teaching quality and make efforts to train all kinds of talents for China's socialist construction.'*

Employability

The notion of employability has been examined from multiple perspectives and can be applied to different levels of analysis, from the individual to the organizational (Thijssen, Van der Heijden, & Rocco, 2008). For individuals who seek employment, there is widespread agreement that employability can be understood as the attributes for a person to obtain and maintain a job, comprising both job-specific skills and, increasingly, soft skills (Mellors-Bourne, Jones & Woodfield, 2015).

A few comprehensive employability studies have been undertaken on transnational universities, but most of them discuss the concerns of international students' job searching in developed Western countries. Few empirically-based sources were found for China. As the current labor force of China is predominately Chinese, graduates from Sino-foreign universities could be evaluated in different dimensions, in terms of the individuals themselves

(e.g. background, destination and plans after graduation), the profile of the university and the national context.

There are also extensive studies related to Chinese students' employment outcomes with a 'foreign' degree obtained through studying overseas (Mok, Han, Jiang & Zhang, 2018); nevertheless, little attention has been drawn to how transnational universities play as an institutional field in a non-Western social field. This paper aims to bridge this gap by reporting findings from a case study at one of the nine existing Sino-foreign universities in Mainland China.

The Research Context

The research presented in this paper looks at how Chinese undergraduates with a Sino-foreign degree self-perceive their employability and engage into the labor market. Sino-foreign universities offer alternative pathways and resources to: (i) those available in a purely domestic institution, and (ii) a particular group of domestic students besides those who currently can afford to study overseas. In the meantime, they claim to provide education that fosters the development of a more talented and modernized workforce. To guarantee these achievements, evidence of quality assurance is required at policy and administration levels – for example, the rising entry scores for student recruitment and updated annual employment reports. In spite of these quantitative measurements of input and output quality, how the university actually affects and shapes its students remains unarticulated. The thinking and experience of these individuals, in relation to their decision-making and career preparation, could be significantly different from those attending authentic Chinese or overseas foreign campuses. Being intellectually more Western and socially more Chinese, students are likely to face certain dilemmas and contradictions. Therefore, a micro-level, in-depth investigation on how such students convert their educational capital into employment options is deemed necessary.

The selected university in this paper (University Z) offers a Western-style higher education beyond a vocationally-oriented curriculum to include features

that are associated with a liberal arts education. It has UK-oriented provision of whole-person development, extra-curricular activities and pedagogy to broaden students' mindsets instead of instilling instant skills. Some present studies do suggest the positive influence of a transnational education on students' general capacities for career prospects overseas; nonetheless, transnational higher education institutions can be exclusive in a socio-economic sense as their tuition fee is much higher than most Chinese universities. It is accordingly inferred that students who are able to accept the learning and living expenses at the university have higher levels of economic capital, and tend not to seek immediate financial returns on their investment. Besides a review of the observed setting and secondary materials, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather primary qualitative data from 26 individuals, comprising alumni who had studied a first degree at the university, educators, a career development counselor and employers. Findings indicate that the latest working generation of University Z graduates does possess special attitudes toward their own capacities, the current social situation and their future roles in it.

Findings and Conclusion

An overview of interview transcripts has generated initial themes for analysis from individuals' responses. They illustrate how University Z students translate their degrees into an appropriate or expected short-term career path, with both inherent advantages and disadvantages from their institution under its specific socio-economic context. Local employers think that one major employability skill of University Z graduates is their English language proficiency, which is required even before enrollment since all lessons are delivered in English. Companies value this as they expect their employees' use of English can then help reach global markets more effectively, especially with an increasing number of multinational corporations entering China. Thus, employers see a growing need for future Chinese employees to have good levels of English in the workplace, and University Z students are distinctly more comfortable with using it than graduates from Chinese-me-

dium universities.

Another perceived strength is students' independent thinking, a skill consciously stressed in University Z and gained through various course assignments, teamwork projects and creative activities incorporated in the educational practice. As the university promotes small-class teaching, students are encouraged to think critically and become independent lifelong learners. Many working graduates claim that the university has given them space for self-development within which their personal initiatives are largely motivated. Furthermore, some feel that they are more active and flexible at work than their peers, even though they may not be very confident in the first place.

However, since University Z is still not as well-known as other prestigious or longer-established Chinese universities, there can be obstacles and challenges for its students to be fully recognized in the job market. The interviewed career counselor reports that many employers view this university with some degree of uncertainty or misunderstanding due to its unconventional (in Chinese terms) nature; it is also often regarded as too recently-founded to be counted as a substantial institution in the Chinese higher education system. Such cognitive inconsistency has begun to be narrowed with the generally satisfactory performance of graduates and recent feedback collected from employers. It is noticeable that the university has had positive effects on the ability of its graduates to secure employment, but the rate of students going on to further studies – especially overseas – is considerable as well. This, again, casts doubt on the role of transnational universities, which could merely be a springboard for studying overseas, rather than adapting to local labor market needs. Indeed, since University Z is located in China, what are the implications for its 'home' side? Is this branch campus fulfilling domestic needs and demands or simply preparing 'human exports' for foreign higher education and job markets? In all, it is suggested that other than emphasizing efficacy and international collaboration, at which the university has already been successful, problems like localization, which requires the institution to be locally sensitive, should also be addressed to lay a

solid foundation for the university's longer-term foothold.

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“Intercultural Bridge”: Internationalized Extracurricular Activities with Students

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Ukraine actively forces higher education internationalization as an entire component of its integration in the international education and research space. Higher education internationalization is proclaimed both at the national and institutional levels. The intentions towards internationalization are motivated by various factors, including the need to expand access to sources of advanced knowledge, new opportunities for partnership building and developing intercultural communication skills, as well as strengthening civil society, and training people to be ready to work in a globalized world. However, in most Ukrainian higher education institutions (HEIs), internationalization is seen within a narrow spectrum: academic mobility, signing international agreements, inviting foreign guest lectures and attracting international students. Mobility is still seen by Ukrainian students as a means to go abroad and stay there for employment. Most students do not value the possibility of an international educational experience and intercultural integration. They do not see how to use such an experience for a future career

in their native country. These more sophisticated aims for internationalization require the development of intercultural competence.

Intercultural Competence

There is no single definition of or research approach to intercultural competence. Mays, de Leon Siantz & Viehweg (2002) state that intercultural competence depends on the particular needs and characteristics of the cultural group, the community, the organization, as well as the political, economic, and social circumstances of the interactions in a community or state.

Preparation of students for intercultural dialogue is connected with adaptation to new challenges, such as: an *international environment* (e.g., implementation of international projects, the need to communicate with foreign partners), participating in an *intercultural community* (e.g., migrants, foreign students), and experiencing *diversification of cultural baggage* (the diversity of cultures with different systems of values often linked to the issue of so-

cial adaptation, which may lead to the conflicts or changes in identity).

Intercultural Competences: “American Dream” for Ukraine

Despite many efforts, higher education internationalization in Ukraine faces different challenges. This process is still rather more fragmented than systemic and does not correlate with institutions’ missions, traditions or current contexts (Sikorskaya, 2017). Furthermore, Ukrainian national standards of higher education do not address intercultural competence for future specialists. There is a lack of designed methods for development or assessment of intercultural competence. Much about achieving “an intercultural competence” remains in question.

In contrast, most universities in the U.S. have identified intercultural competence as an important learning outcome, and the ability to effectively interact in an international environment is included in national policy priorities in the U.S. (APLU, 2004). The American approach, in terms of intercultural competence development as a country with a high level of higher education internationalization, is therefore a valuable model for Ukraine.

The top 25 U.S. universities, according to the Times Higher Education World Reputation Rankings 2018, were investigated within this study, because analysis of scientific research on student engagement in extracurricular activities shows that the top-ranking HEIs pay significant attention to engaging students in extracurricular activities (Koivula, 1999). In addition to study abroad and international exchange programs, extra-curricular opportunities for intercultural competence development exist on many U.S. HEI campuses. The research of Cheng & Zhao (2006) proves that student involvement in various extra-curricular activities has the potential to contribute to their multicultural competence.

The majority of Ukrainian students are still excluded from mobility opportunities (Sikorskaya, 2017). Given the Ukrainian challenge of limited international perspectives, it is important to foster actions that promote intercultural competences

through interaction in an intercultural environment. The American practice of multiculturalism, as a separate focus for extracurricular activities with students is therefore a model that might help fill the gap of Ukrainian students’ lack of international experience.

“Intercultural Bridge” Due to the Competence Building

Higher education internationalization in Ukraine is aimed at strengthening the influence of universities in the country and abroad through the development of strategic partnerships (education), the mobilization of national intellectual resources (government), the development of graduates’ competence in accordance with the challenges of society (community) and the requirements of employers (business) (Verbytska, 2018).

Focus on intercultural competence development in universities is considered essential in order to provide changes to the educational process (Gregersen-Hermans, 2014). This is an important shift in focus in order to harmoniously integrate extracurricular activities into the learning environment of Ukrainian HEIs, where they are often viewed as leisure activities. Educational approaches in Ukraine should be reconsidered, keeping in mind student-centered development. *Active participation and active learning* by which students are expected to ask questions are among the core principles of higher education in the U.S. This is in contrast to Ukrainian culture, which is more teacher-centered in the approach to learning. In the U.S., students are contributors to extracurricular activities. On the other hand, students are the “users” of the activities organized by the teachers in Ukrainian educational tradition. Thus, an important change for the Ukrainian higher education model is also the implementation of a variety of non-formal learning methods.

Therefore, the concept of an “*Intercultural Bridge*” is proposed for Ukrainian HEIs. An “Intercultural Bridge” functions as a space for interdisciplinary extracurricular activities focused on intercultural communication and competence-development. These extracurricular events focus on

developing key intercultural soft skills such as cultural awareness, empathy, tolerance to diversity, the ability to dialogue with representatives of different cultures and nationalities, the ability to interact in the global environment, as well as intercultural production and consumption.

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Mainland Chinese International Students' Perceptions on Seeking Mental Health Counseling Support on U.S. Higher Education Campuses: A Research Plan

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International students leave their home countries to pursue an educational degree and fulfill their dreams in a different country. Often, they face adaptive challenges, including anxiety related to the unknown environment and uncertainties in the college or university setting, academic pressures, financial concerns and the feeling of isolation (Prieto-Welch, 2016). While discussions on supporting students' mental health are increasing on U.S. campuses, international students often are not a part of the conversation. Among all international students, Chinese international students from mainland China are the group of students identified as facing the biggest challenges, such as academic, social and cultural stress and distress when adapting to the American

environment, compared to other ethnic groups (Yan & Berliner, 2013).

When international students adapt to the American educational system and social environment, they face various challenges, including difficulty with English communication, developing friendships, a lack of knowledge of American culture, and changes in food, finances, housing, and social support (Galloway et al, 2015). International students encounter cultural adjustments and their acculturation process may lead to stress and vulnerability. According to Yan and Berliner's (2013) study, cultural distance is a leading factor for cultural stress of students from non-European educational systems, who

perceive their academic experience as highly stressful. Furthermore, the existing cultural context at American universities often generates stress, depression, frustration, anxiety, and fear in international students, which produces overwhelming feelings of loss of social support.

These adjustment challenges and stress factors include anxiety of uncertainties in the college or university setting, academic pressures, financial concerns, and feelings of isolation (Prieto-Welch, 2016). However, research indicates that the rate of Chinese international students' utilization of counseling services on campuses is lower than their domestic peers. Yoon and Jepsen (2008) found in their survey that Asian international students, mostly mainland Chinese international students, in comparison with their domestic peers, have less exposure to counseling, less self-perceived needs for counseling, and greater shame with seeking mental health help. The loss of social support also causes personal, academic and social problems (Yoon & Jepsen, 2008). They usually turn to other social networks for help that may not be available in the United States, such as parents and friends back in China. In addition, there may be stigma and shame around seeking mental health in these students', their families' and communities' perceptions. Low English proficiency may be another barrier to prevent them from seeking treatment since it is hard to explain their nuanced emotions even in their native language.

These concerns highlight the need to learn more about the barriers that may be preventing Chinese international students from accessing mental health services. In this contribution, I present my intended doctoral study, which will focus on the challenges mainland Chinese international students face that can impact their mental health negatively, obstacles that prevent them from seeking mental health treatment, and practical initiatives that can be implemented on U.S. campuses.

Theoretical Framework

This study will use Berry's Stress-Coping Framework as the theoretical framework. The framework mainly intends to identify the factors that prevent

people from smoothly adapting to a new environment (Berry, 1997). It regards "the cross-cultural experience as a major life event that is characterized by stress; demands cognitive appraisal of the situation; and results in effective, behavioral and cognitive coping responses" (Yan & Berliner, 2013, p. 66). Stress and coping strategies, rather than emphasizing culture shock, highlight intercultural connections, and thus, changes are influenced by characteristics of the individual and the society (Berry, 1997). The concept of acculturation refers to the cultural changes resulting from group encounters, while the concept of psychological acculturation and adaptation refer to the psychological changes and eventual outcomes that occur because of individuals experiencing acculturation. On the group level, students from different countries are usually affected and change significantly because of the conflict between two different cultures (Berry, 1997). These challenges come from economic changes, social changes, cultural shifts, language barriers, and value systems. Consequently these changes affect these individuals' stress and adaptation strategies. On the individual level, gender, age, length of stay, personality, and education have an impact on the stress-coping process (Yan & Berliner, 2013).

Research Questions

The study will attempt to answer the following research questions:

1. What are mainland Chinese international students' perceptions of American higher education institutions' mental health support services?
2. What are the barriers that prevent them from seeking mental health treatments?
3. How can U.S. higher education institutions minimize the barriers for international students in seeking mental health treatments?

Methodology

To obtain mainland Chinese international students' perceptions and experiences on mental health counseling, qualitative research methods will be employed for collecting and analyzing data, including

focus groups and one-on-one interviews. Data from qualitative research will provide a deep understanding of mainland Chinese international students' thoughts on the research question as a general group and incorporate individuals' viewpoints in breadth and depth.

The study will include both Chinese international graduate and undergraduate students from the People's Republic of China studying in a private four-year research university in the United States. The average time they have spent in the United States could be between one and six years. Considering that English is not the native language of the participants, the researcher will conduct the focus group and interviews in Chinese. In addition, the researcher will send students a copy of the interview protocol attached to their interview schedule in response to confirmation emails, so that they can think about their answers and prepare any questions or concerns in advance.

An electronic invitation will be sent out via the International Students Office. Students who receive the link could voluntarily put their contact information if they are willing to participate in focus groups. One-on-one interviews will follow to get more depth and details on mainland Chinese international students' perceptions. Focus groups aim to gain an understanding of personal experience with using the counseling center on the campus. The results from focus group sessions could identify the international students who have unusual experiences or would like to express their thoughts more but could not due to the interview time limits. Following up after the focus group, the researcher will contact participants about potentially completing an individual interview.

Potential Implications of the Research

It is anticipated that the research will reveal some key considerations for universities attempting to improve their support for international students studying on their campuses. For example, collaboration across campus is likely to be highlighted as essential to understanding more about international students' concerns and helping them minimize the challeng-

es to seek mental health treatment. One crucial collective effort to support international students' mental health well-being could be to build close relationships between student services staff and counseling center professionals.

Another likely theme is the need for student affairs professionals to help counseling center staff to educate students about symptoms of anxiety, depression, and stress, and about available services. Such efforts could normalize the idea of counseling services on U.S. university campuses, which could increase the use of services provided, thereby improving the mental health of international students.

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Developing Civic and Career Global Competencies with Identity Negotiation during Studying Abroad

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Introduction

Global competence has been widely promoted as a way for individuals to cultivate their “competitive edge” and to enhance their employability. However, civic global competence has been underdeveloped, although it is essential to understand the interdependencies of different nation states and to take responsibility for finding collaborative solutions to global issues and towards the common good, such as around climate change and social justice issues. The dual pursuits of career and civic global competence have been well-reflected in the educational journey of international students, but studies have not yet explored how career and civic global competences are developed and interrelated with the process of one’s identity transformation during cross-cultural studying experiences. For international students from China studying at a research-intensive U.S. university, their global competence development may be influenced and motivated significantly by their cultural identities, socioeconomic backgrounds and experiences as cultural outsiders. Aiming to overcome decontextualized skill development narratives, which only focus on career purpose from an economic perspective, this study brings civic and career global competencies together and considers the important influence of identity transformation during studying abroad experiences on one’s global competence development. By bridging global citizenship and global employability, this study reveals how civic and career global competencies interact and are both necessary for meaningful cross-cultural learning experiences for international students. This project will offer policy implications for multicultural higher education practices and

provide a more comprehensive understanding about global competence development for learning and working in 21st-century society.

Literature Review

The concept of global competence denotes not only knowledge or skills, but also the capacity to meet complex demands in a particular cultural context, demonstrated by a combination of contextualized knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. Traditionally, global competence, or global competency, has been defined and practiced for enhancing individual employability (Lambert, 1993), e.g. the ability to communicate appropriately and effectively in an intercultural context (similar to intercultural competence). This definition of global competency is often reflected in institutional goals for internationalization. For example, universities have aimed to foster global-ready graduates, teachers, engineers, who can “work knowledgeably and live comfortably in a global society” (Lohmann et al., 2006). Focusing on the career aspect of global competencies, universities aim to cultivate students’ knowledge of language and communication skills to prepare for competition within the global labor market, to obtain global employment, and to increase productivity, innovation, and economic prosperity.

However, recently, several organizations like the United Nations (UN) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have defined global competence as “a multidimensional capacity” to “examine local, global and intercultural issues, understand and appreciate different perspectives and worldviews, interact successfully and respectfully with others, and take responsible action toward sustainability and collective well-being”

(OECD, 2018). In this definition, global competence addresses a social and global scale pursuit for the common good beyond the traditional focus on employability. Such understandings stress the conceptual significance of introducing a notion of “diversity” and discuss the nature of global competencies as a transition from “ethnocentrism” to “ethnorelativism” (Lambert, 1993, p. 319), i.e. moving from viewing ourselves in a universal homogenous context to understanding how to relate ourselves to others who are different from us. This version of global competence was selected by the OECD as key for tackling today’s challenges (for instance poverty, disparity, climate change, resource depletion, demographic change and migration), fully participating in society, and actively pursuing the objectives of the UN’s Sustainable Development Goals.

Although much has been written about institutional goals to develop global competencies in their students, there is still limited understanding of how specific institutional practices aimed at such objectives are influenced by the context and culture of the learning environment, as well as by students’ identities. It is therefore important that we better analyze how global competence has been acquired during different levels of educational activities and for different student populations.

Context of the Study

We aim to contribute to this objective through a study focused on international students from China, who are studying at an R-1 research university on the west coast of the United States. Study abroad is often assumed to support the development of global competencies. However, there remains a gap in our understanding in terms of how to support the development of global competencies with culturally relevant pedagogies and experiences with education abroad, both for international students as well as domestic students. Through the experience of study abroad, international students may experience identity negotiation in a cross-cultural context that can motivate, influence, and transform their understanding of global competence, as well as support the cultivation of such skills. To better elucidate such

processes, participants in this study will include undergraduate and graduate students from a range of academic disciplines, in order to probe the various factors at the intersection of competency and identity development. The study will focus on Chinese international students in higher education, not only because of the large number of students from China who study abroad in the United States, but also because of the distinct orientations of U.S. and Chinese universities toward the development of students’ understandings of civic and political participation.

Semi-structured, individual and focus-group interviews will be conducted to examine the cross-cultural learning and career-seeking experiences of these students. As one aim of the research is to consider the interrelation between competency development and identity, participants will also be asked about their backgrounds, in order to gain an understanding of their personal social-demographic characteristics. Specifically, participants will be asked to reflect on their identity negotiation in a cross-cultural context process, i.e. their feelings about Chinese and U.S. culture at the beginning, middle, and later stages of their study abroad period. In addition to interview data, a survey instrument will be developed based on existing competencies-related questionnaires (e.g. the intercultural development inventory, intercultural sensitivity, global citizen scale, and the global identity scale). Data from these two courses of inquiry will be collected with the aim of understanding: plans and expectations of competencies development within the study population; challenges in transition to civic global competencies; and hardships in seeking international jobs.

Taking a life-course perspective, this study aims to recognize the skills and competencies that Chinese international students have developed prior to their studying abroad, in China, which may have a significant impact on their interpretations and experiences of the higher education in the U.S. As Reimers (2009) suggests, global competency education comprises the knowledge and competencies that help people understand the world in which they live, the competencies to integrate across disciplinary domains and to comprehend global affairs and events,

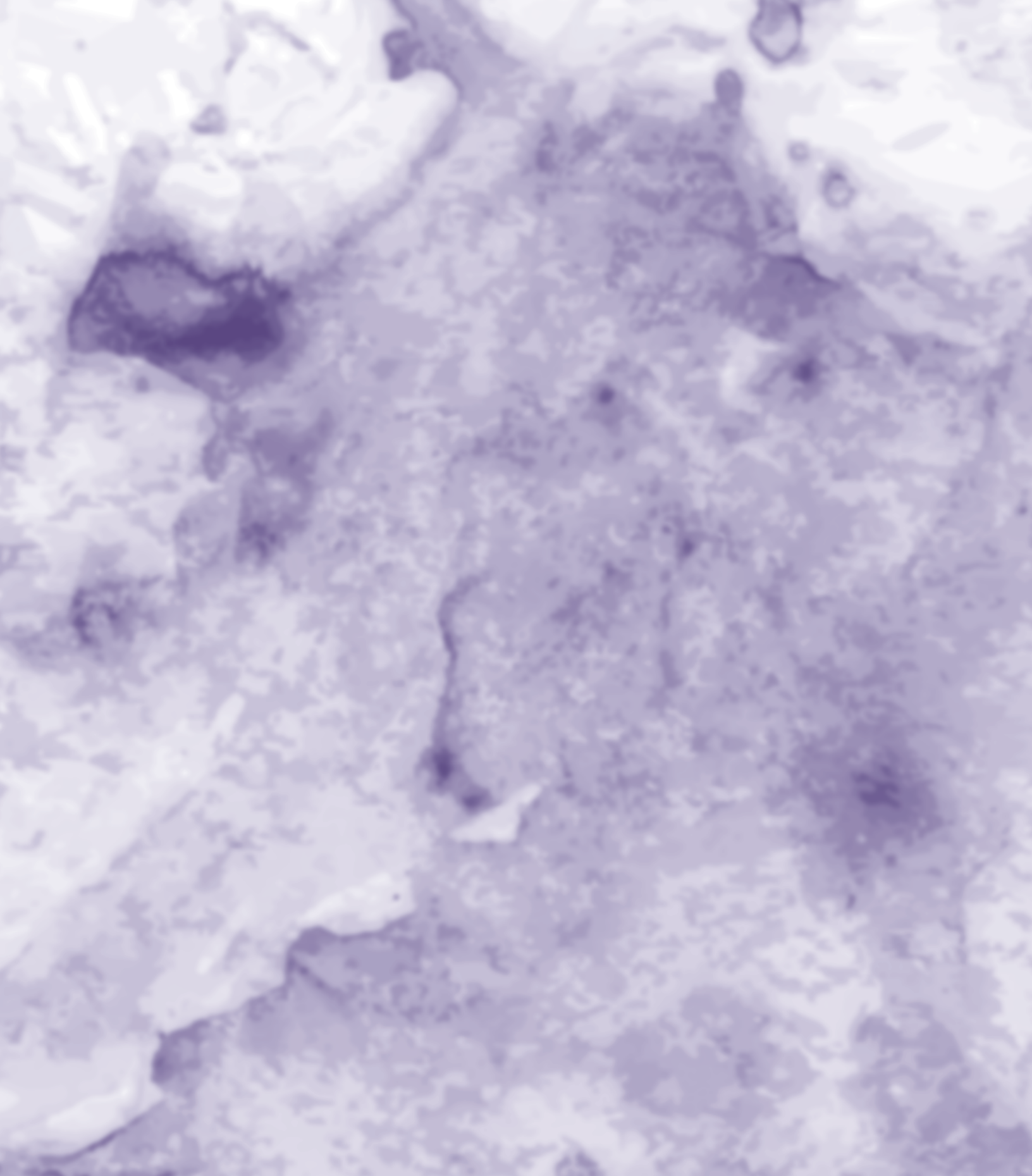
and the intellect to create possibilities to address them. As such, it is important to investigate the identities and the contexts of the participants. Further, as Reimers indicates, the aim of global competency development is not only comprehension, but also to respond to current events. Thus, we aim to consider the participants' identity formation, as well as the ways in which global competencies are enacted during studying abroad.

Further, global citizenship education is often focused on reconciling the tension between global solidarity and global competition, in an attempt to balance the promotion of "universality (e.g. common and collective identity, interest, participation, duty) while respecting singularity (e.g. individual rights, self-improvement)" (UNESCO, 2015, p.15). Taking this tension into account, the study aims to consider how solidarity is connected to identity formation for Chinese international students. The identity of the participants may therefore be understood as an "epistemology of curiosity" (Torres, 1998) and virtues for democratic education, as orientations toward the development of global competencies.

In a world in which conflicts between different religions, cultures, and ethnicities continue to disturb global peace (Li, 2013), *a combination of civic and career global competence* is necessary for the construction of a peaceful and inclusive world. Higher education institutions have a crucial role to play in this regard, but we must better understand the processes through which such competencies develop in order to achieve this important objective. This study aims to make a small contribution towards this goal.

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