UNIVERSITÀ CATTOLICA del Sacro Cuore

CHEI
Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation

INTERNATIONALISATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION:

Responding to New Opportunities and Challenges

Ten Years of Research by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI)

Edited by Fiona Hunter, Ravichandran Ammigan, Hans de Wit, Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans, Elspeth Jones and Amanda C. Murphy

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Milano 2023

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To cite this book:
Hunter, F., Ammigan, R., de Wit, H., Gregersen-Hermans, J., Jones, E., and Murphy, A.C. (Eds.) (2023). *Internationalisation in higher education: Responding to new opportunities and challenges. Ten years of research by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI)*. EDUCatt.

EDUCatt - Ente per il Diritto allo Studio Universitario dell'Università Cattolica
Largo Gemelli 1, 20123 Milano - tel. 02.7234.22.35 - fax 02.80.53.215
e-mail: editoriale.dsu@educatt.it (produzione); librario.dsu@educatt.it (distribuzione)
web: www.educatt.it/libri
Associato all'AIE – Associazione Italiana Editori
ISBN: 979-12-5535-123-8

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Acknowledgements

The editors would like to thank the members of the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation who dedicated time and effort to the various preparatory stages of this volume, namely Francesca Finotello, Jane Pollard and Francesca Poli, who is also responsible for the translations of the abstracts into Italian.

FOREWORD

A transnational experiment in building a practitioner research community: the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore

STEPHEN C. DUNNETT, FRANCISCO MARMOLEJO, AMANDA C. MURPHY AND CHRISTOPHER ZIGURAS

Occasionally in universities we find pockets of activity which act as a highly productive bridge between the internal life of the institution and a flourishing external community. In recent years the ideal of creating such links has come to be shared by leaders around the world within higher education, government, and industry, and while many seeds are planted, often such initiatives wither over time after initial enthusiasm has waned. The Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore (UCSC), which recently celebrated its tenth anniversary, is a rare example of success in this complicated endeavour. It has managed to build a sustainable bridge between, on one side, the Italian Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, a private university in five Italian cities, and on the other a global community of international education scholar practitioners. In this chapter we reflect on the characteristics of the Centre that have allowed it to succeed where many other similar initiatives have struggled. Below we consider the factors that led to the establishment of the Centre, the ways in which it has managed to maintain deep connections both within the university and within the professional community it serves, and the innovative models of education and research collaboration that have allowed it to build scale, reputation, and influence over time.

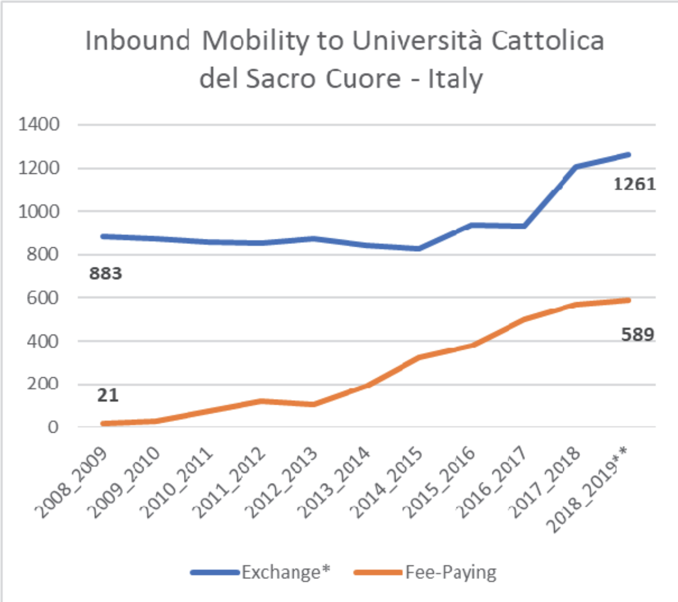
Establishment

In the late 1990s, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, (generally simply called *Cattolica)*, developed a strategy for comprehensive internationalisation, with a business model that proposed expansion of its inbound student mobility programme to act as a revenue source to support a range of international activities across the institution. This was a challenging undertaking, given the strength of established conventions within both the University and the Italian system as a whole (Mazzoleni 2016).

For over 30 years, Italy had hosted countless study abroad programmes, and in the 2000s many believed the market to be already saturated. For example, in 2007-08, with 30,670 US students, Italy was second only to the UK (33,333 US students) as the top study abroad destination for American students (IIE, 2022). However, few of these students were hosted at Italian universities; rather the sector was dominated by US institutions operating their own programmes in Italy and by third-party providers. Cattolica's international team, led by Edilio Mazzoleni, judged that despite the competition from established providers there was additional market capacity for study abroad programmes hosted at and run by an Italian university for both US and non-US students. (The number of US students in Italy did indeed continue to grow, peaking at 39,043 in 2018-19 prior to the COVID downturn (IIE, 2022).)

As the chart below indicates, Cattolica was able to put in place a strategy to significantly grow inbound student mobility, particularly among fee-paying study abroad students but also numbers of exchange students. Three factors explain this success: harmonising the Italian and the partner universities' systems requirements; guaranteeing international students a full immersion experience in the Italian university context and culture; and providing quality academic content and services that meet home-university expectations and standards. The development of courses offered in English for study abroad students has led to an improvement in the quality and relevance of academic programmes and services for international students. Increased revenues from fee-paying students have been invested into programme improvements and support for outbound mobility for Cattolica students through scholarships and grants, and investment in research to enhance the university's international profile.

Figure 1
Growth of inbound mobility (2008-2019) to Cattolica (Mazzoleni, 2016)



As part of the redevelopment of the university's international strategy, Tony Adams, a key advisor to Cattolica during the 2000s, proposed the development of a research and training centre for higher education internationalisation that would raise the university's profile and assist in achieving comprehensive internationalisation within the institution. This was the first step towards the establishment of CHEI. Tony was both a skilled university leader, at that time holding the role of Pro Vice-Chancellor International at Macquarie University in Australia, and a leading figure in the professionalisation of the international education workforce, having previously been the founding President of the International Education Association of Australia and an editor of the Journal of Studies in International Education, among many other roles. At the same time, leaders in international education and professional associations such as NAFSA, AIEA, EAIE, APAIE and IEAA began to discuss the need for expert training of professionals and practitioners entering the field of international education administration and for research on relevant issues in the field. In gratitude for Tony's many contributions to the university, CHEI posthumously named its visiting scholars' scheme in his honour after his passing in 2011.

CHEI's genesis thus took place in an age of awakening of internationalisation and globalism in the 1990s. During that period, higher education institutions around the world embraced internationalisation and globalism which resulted in an unprecedented growth in student and faculty mobility programmes, partnerships with institutions in other countries and collaborative research and area study programmes. Many universities increased staff positions to administer these expanded international programmes and appointed Senior International Education Officers to lead campus internationalisation efforts.

At Cattolica, discussions focused on the requisite skills for administrators of international education offices, study abroad programmes, and international student and scholar programmes. Three prominent leaders in the field of international education, who were also long-time proponents of professional development for international educators, namely Stephen Dunnett (State University at Buffalo), John Hudzik (Michigan State University) and Hans de Wit (Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences), were invited to assist in the development of the Centre.

The institution of CHEI was formally announced at the opening ceremony of the academic year in 2011[1] by the then Rector of Università Cattolica, and officially opened by the then Acting Rector, Prof. Franco Anelli in April 2012, with two worldwide leaders in the field, Hans de Wit and John Hudzik, as respectively the Centre's inaugural Director and Chair of the Centre's Scientific Committee. Both brought with them excellent international reputations, large networks, and weighty scholarship, providing the Centre with the necessary roots for healthy growth. Following the University's regulations in setting up research and training centres, both a Management Board and Scientific Committee were appointed, with Professor Pier Sandro Cocconcelli appointed as President, representing the Rector. Besides his professorship in the field of Microbiology, as the Rector's Delegate for Internationalisation Projects, Pier Sandro played an important role liaising between CHEI and the Office of the Rector. Other members of the original Management Board appointed at the same time were the founding Director of the Centre, Hans de Wit, Gianlorenzo Martini (Lombardy Region Representative in Brussels, Belgium), Giancarlo Spinelli[2] (Politecnico di Milano, Italy), and from Cattolica, Edilio Mazzoleni, Head

[1] https://www.cattolicanews.it/Ornaghi_dicscorsoaa2011_2012.pdf.

[2] CHEI is greatly indebted to the late Professor Giancarlo Spinelli who served on the original Management Board. Although not a member of the Academic Board, Giancarlo faithfully attended Board meetings and took a deep interest in the activities and programmes of CHEI. A distinguished professor at the Politecnico di Milano, and a leader in international education, Giancarlo was a former president of EAIE and active in many international organisations. The members of the Academic Board, especially the non-Italian members, benefited greatly from Giancarlo's deep knowledge and understanding of Italian and European higher education history and practices. A kind and thoughtful person, he possessed outstanding interpersonal skills and was an excellent ambassador for CHEI.

of Global Engagement at the University, Federica Missaglia, full professor of German linguistics and Caterina Gozzoli, full professor of Work Psychology.

Specific expertise on internationalisation of higher education came from the Scientific Committee (later renamed the Academic Board) which was composed of prominent leaders and scholars in the field of international education, including Stephen Dunnett (State University of New York at Buffalo, USA), Fiona Hunter (Università Carlo Cattaneo, Italy), Elspeth Jones (Leeds Beckett University, UK), Betty Leask (La Trobe University, Australia) and Francisco Marmolejo (University of Arizona, USA, subsequently the World Bank and Qatar Education foundation). They were joined by Renata Maria Viganò and Roberto Cauda from Cattolica and later by Christopher Ziguras (RMIT, Australia).

Initially, the dedicated and highly competent staff from the Cattolica International Office led by Edilio Mazzoleni served as the Secretariat for CHEI and provided important administrative support and guidance to the fledgling centre. Claudia Schirru became the dedicated administrator of the Centre for the first year (2012-13); her first job in Cattolica landed her in a highly stimulating environment, which she defines as a think-tank, brimming with innovative ideas. During the same year Dr Davina Potts (now Director, Future Students at the University of Melbourne) arrived on a visiting work placement from Michigan State University. She assisted the Director, Hans de Wit, and all the academics involved in setting up seminars, workshops, and publications. By the end of 2013, both Claudia and Davina had moved on, and Francesca Finotello and Elizabeth Moffatt took on the Centre's vital administrative and communication roles. Since the beginning, Edilio has continued to play a critical role in liaising with the Management and Academic Boards and the senior leadership of the university.

The model

The early years of CHEI were characterised by a sense of excitement at creating a distinctive Centre which conducts research and training to strengthen the international dimensions of higher education. From its conception, CHEI has been focused on developing and supporting practitioner research. This has involved supporting mid-career and senior professionals/ administrators to become leaders in research and development in their institutions and within the professional community, and recognising that many of the faculty involved in international education research are also heavily engaged in practice, in particular institutional leadership, programme design and development, and academic leadership within their fields. This focus continues, with the current chair of the CHEI Academic Board having co-authored a guide to practitioner research in international education, published jointly by

NAFSA and the International Education Association of Australia (Saubert and Ziguras, 2020).

A second notable feature of the Centre is its transnational, networked character. A core team is based at Cattolica, including the current Director, Amanda Murphy, who directs the activities of the Centre and its interaction with the University's Doctoral schools, research centres and overall priorities; Associate Director Fiona Hunter, who develops and manages the PhD programme in particular, both online and in person, and is an active researcher and trainer in international projects around the world; Francesca Finotello, the administrator of the Centre, who maintains relations with staff, students and alumni; and Olivia Mair, who conducts research on internationalisation particularly within the institution, as well as being an active member of the team of Educational Developers (with Barbara Bettinelli, Francesca Costa, Elizabeth Moffatt, Caterina Pavesi, and Jane Pollard) who deliver in-house training for Cattolica lecturers. This team is supported by CHEI affiliate, Karen M. Lauridsen, and CHEI alumna Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans, who are both leading European experts on the international classroom.

A great deal of CHEI's activity is also undertaken remotely by a team of scholars and doctoral candidates located in dozens of universities around the world. It is a characteristic of the field that researchers in international education tend to work in relative isolation within their institutions rather than in disciplinary teams. Many are professional staff or hold senior academic roles, working closely with administrative and managerial teams rather than other scholars. International education research also sits awkwardly within academic disciplines, and while often drawing on the disciplines of education, sociology, policy studies, psychology, and business, one rarely finds teams of international education researchers within any of these departments. This is the case for Cattolica also, with those scholars engaged in international education research being dotted across many departments and campuses. CHEI thus plays an important role in connecting a dispersed network of international education researchers from across Università Cattolica and from universities around the world.

Embodying both this practitioner research focus and a transnational network model, CHEI soon established an innovative doctoral programme which provides an opportunity for practitioners working principally in administrative positions in higher education institutions to attain a doctorate. Thanks to two Doctoral Schools within the University, Education and Linguistic Sciences and Foreign Languages, which host students wishing to undertake studies in the internationalisation of higher education, CHEI offers its own specific programme that requires candidates to undertake a substantial research project and write a scholarly dissertation. Candidates are supervised and mentored partly by Cattolica faculty, but mostly by international members of the Academic Board and other international academics affiliated with CHEI. One of the attractive features of the doctoral programme is that it allows candidates to continue to work in their positions in their home institutions while enrolled in the programme. While engagement between faculty, tutors and supervisors takes place through regular online meetings, students also attend two week-long in-person research training seminars each year, one in Brescia and the other in Milan. These intensive and very social events allow candidates to meet face to face with their fellow students, the academic team, and supervisors, and provide an important focal point in the life of the Centre.

The involvement of prominent scholars in the field has attracted well qualified students to CHEI's doctoral programme, while also providing CHEI with intellectual leadership and collaboration in the various aspects of university-wide internationalisation. From the beginning of CHEI, Academic Board members have given generously of their time and energy in helping Centre administrators and staff develop policies and procedures for the doctoral programme, and in mentoring and supervising the programme's first doctoral candidates. They were not merely remote board members who came to annual board meetings, but rather were actively engaged in all aspects of CHEI and were integral to the development and ultimate success of CHEI and its signature doctoral programme. They provided both practical advice on policy and administration, as well as critical intellectual leadership for the doctoral programme. This is an important legacy for the Centre and its current members of the Academic and Management Board[3].

As CHEI attracted increased numbers of students from Europe and beyond, it became a more complex organisation. In 2015, Hans de Wit left the directorship of the Centre for a prestigious post at Boston College, USA, and was succeeded by Amanda Murphy, a professor of English Language and Translation at Cattolica. At the same time, Fiona Hunter was invited to become Associate Director of CHEI to provide continuity in the development of the work that had been started in the first years of the Centre. A creative teacher and talented administrator, Fiona began a process of innovation in the doctoral programme, providing impetus and invaluable

[3] The Management Board members from 2015-2021 were Pier Sandro Cocconcelli, Amanda Murphy, Sara Cigada and Stefano Baraldi from Cattolica, with Fiona Hunter ex officio; Hans Georg van Limpd (Tilburg University) and Marina Casals Sala (Università Rovira I Virgili). From 2021-2024, Rossella Gambetti and Elena Marta (Cattolica) have joined, with Tom Garriepy (Harvard) replacing Marina Casals Sala. The Academic Board members from 2021-2024 are Amanda Murphy, Simonetta Polenghi (Vice-Chair), Raul Caruso and Fiona Hunter from Cattolica, with Christopher Ziguras (Chair – RMIT Melbourne), Ly Tran (Deakin University), Rosalind Raby (California State), Catherine Montgomery (Durham University), Ravichandran Ammigan (University of Delaware) and Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans (Zuyd).

support to both prospective and continuing students, as well as to supervisors and tutors. With the programme lasting a minimum of three years, Fiona has been successful in forming an academic team which provides coaching and feedback to interested students, prior to their application to the programme. This is an important feature in the success of the PhD programme, since it helps graduate students understand what is involved in undertaking doctoral work, which is often underestimated by those who have been away from academic work for a while. Fiona's insight has also led to the creation of the PhD Support and Rescue Team, involving four other CHEI members besides herself, namely John Dennis, Christof van Mol, Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans, and Catherine Montgomery. This vibrant team provides constant support to the PhD students and helps create the unique atmosphere of the PhD Programme. Fiona has also been effective in developing the concept of peer work, encouraging CHEI doctoral students to form their own networks and support one another during their doctoral studies. Overall, the doctoral programme distinguishes itself from others because it has developed into a learning community, attracting both budding scholars and experts with a wide range of expertise, allowing students to develop a broad and in-depth perspective on the internationalisation of higher education as an evolving professional and research field.

Developing the reputation of a doctoral programme requires many years, and yet in only a decade CHEI has achieved global recognition for the strength of its academic programmes and for highlighting the importance of scholarship in the field of international education. In particular, CHEI is recognised for the outstanding quality of its students who continue to add to the growing body of literature on the blending of research and practice. A doctoral degree conferred by a large European university, which has been providing reputable doctoral education since 1986, on an international programme led by world leaders in their field, continues to attract an increasing number of students from ever more varied backgrounds. Several of CHEI's alumni have already gone on to distinguish themselves in positions of leadership in the field of international education.

Consolidation

Like all successful ventures, the achievements and success of CHEI are not the product of one person, but rather of a team effort by the many talented and committed individuals who have been involved in the development of the centre from the beginning. During Hans de Wit's tenure as Director, CHEI published an impressive number of research articles and books which enhanced its global reputation and added to the body of literature on internationalisation. Of particular note, the Centre won a competitive bid to conduct a major study on the internationalisation of higher education for the EU Parliament (de Wit et al. 2015), an update of which is included in the articles in the present collection. During his ten years as Chair of the Academic Board, John Hudzik made many scholarly contributions to CHEI and was especially effective in providing essential policy and administrative guidance to CHEI directors and staff. His monograph, "Comprehensive Internationalisation" (2015), was one of the early volumes in the flourishing Routledge book series on Internationalisation of Higher Education, founded by another key member of the Academic Board, Elspeth Jones. He also assisted CHEI leadership in developing a long-range strategic plan for the Centre. Most importantly Hans and John provided important continuity in leadership in the early years of CHEI, remaining on the Academic Board until 2021 and continuing as PhD supervisors.

In this second phase of CHEI's so far short existence, the Director's attention has been focused on consolidating the Centre's position within the mainstream of the university, building bridges to other academic units across and beyond the university on a national scale. Besides the implementation of a strategic plan for the Centre, drawn up with the Associate Director and the Academic and Management Boards, PhD student enrolment has grown, and additional affiliated faculty have been attracted to the Centre. One major area of growth has been the development and delivery of professional training for academics teaching in the international classroom, given the fast growth of degree courses offered through English. This has involved establishing a small but effective team of Educational Developers affiliated to the Centre, who offer short courses and are called on to deliver training as required within the university. Thanks to the support of the Academic and Management Boards, and, crucially, of the Rector, Prof. Franco Anelli, CHEI was able to open a post for a post-doc researcher, awarded to Olivia Mair, who is currently conducting research specifically on concepts of internationalisation as understood by students and faculty on English-taught programmes.

In 2020, CHEI was recognised as one of six centres within the university whose mission and activities are inherently multidisciplinary and transnational, linked to important change processes in society. This has led to CHEI's involvement in international projects and collaborations with other research centres within Cattolica, such as the Centre for International Solidarity (CESI). Additionally, the CHEI Director was invited to join the steering committee of Cattolica's nascent Teaching and Learning Centre, TeLeLab, to provide expertise on the training of students and academic staff in matters of interculturality and internationalisation. At a national level, CHEI has begun to contribute to the Italian society for University Faculty Development[4] with presentations at various national conferences given by the CHEI post-doctoral researcher.

Conclusion

It is impossible to imagine the foundation and further evolution of CHEI without also considering the context in which, in a relatively short period of time, international education has been evolving. When CHEI was established, a somewhat narrow narrative about international education, its motives, and its manifestations still prevailed globally, with an emphasis on study abroad and mobility. In just a decade many of the assumptions about what is good and bad in higher education and its internationalisation have changed significantly. A quick look at the type of research that CHEI students have been working on is a good reflection of this transformation of priorities and of the challenges to be addressed (See Annex 1).

Certainly, the pandemic exacerbated many of the dysfunctions and limitations of a relatively stable *modus-operandi* of entities and organisations devoted to international education. Many ideas unthinkable in the past are today a normal reality: internationalisation without student mobility; thriving international collaborations between global south institutions while the political will in support of internationalisation appears to be diminishing in the north; the increased connectedness of internationalisation with seemingly distant topics such as sustainability, human rights, inclusiveness, decolonisation, and local community empowerment, etc. These are just some examples of a reimagined field which historically has been rather cautious and conservative in its drive towards innovation.

At the same time, the whole theory of change behind the traditional concept of internationalisation is being challenged by those who simplistically believe that there is an existential antagonism between globalism and localism, or internationalism and nationalism. The rationale of international education as a key contributor to a better, equal, connected and more peaceful world, stands in opposition to one that considers it an enabler of differentiation, unfair competitive advantage, and more confrontational global geopolitics and geoeconomics.

All of the above poses an important conundrum for international education scholar-practitioners. It also opens up multiple possibilities for researching angles of internationalisation that have not been fully explored and understood. The scholar-practitioners being formed at CHEI can see issues from a pragmatic and operational

[4] Associazione italiana per la promozione della Didattica, dell'Apprendimento e dell'Insegnamento in Università – AsdUni (www.asduni.it).

perspective as part of their day-to-day life and work. They are also equipped to observe those issues with the academic rigour needed to conceptualise new frameworks of reference which may help the field to advance and adapt to new realities while also informing practical decision-making at the institutional level.

The first decade of CHEI's existence has been a remarkable journey, albeit one not exempt from challenges and complications. Today, CHEI is positioned to reaffirm its role as a top-level enabler of new thinking on international education, and as a privileged place for nurturing a new generation of scholar-practitioners needed for a renewed global landscape of international education.

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INTRODUCTION

CHEI in an evolving research context

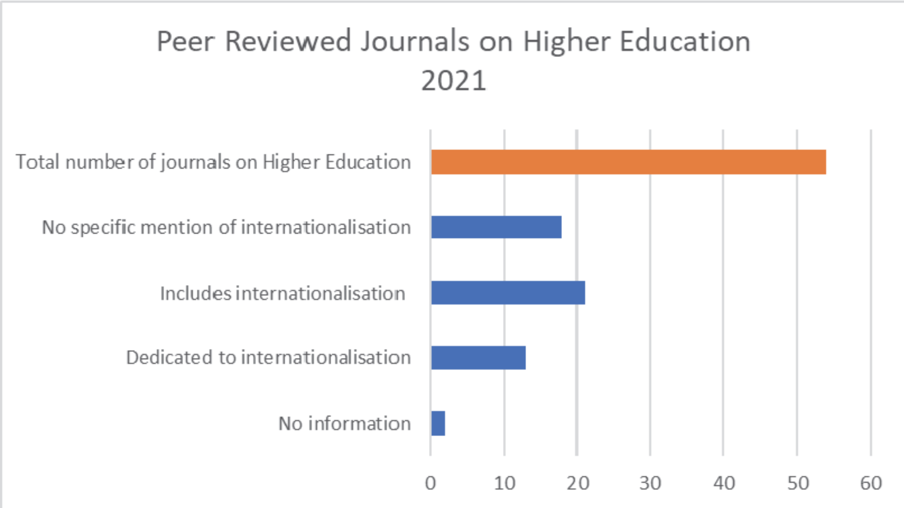
Ravichandran Ammigan, Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans, Hans de Wit, Fiona Hunter, Elspeth Jones, and Amanda C. Murphy

Background

The history of the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore illustrates the increasing relevance of research in higher education internationalisation. As this book captures in its chapters, internationalisation has over the years become more established at universities as core to their strategy for education, research and outreach to the community (Sandström & Hudson, 2018; Marinoni, 2019). Rumbley et al. (2022) conclude that "internationalisation in higher education is a multifaceted and evolving phenomenon. It touches on a wide scope of issues and can be defined in a multitude of ways" (p. 19). Hunter et al. (2022) state that "the concept of internationalisation continues to be refined and revised, and theories and definitions adjusted to match new and evolving understandings" (p. 70).

Correspondingly the call for evidence-based practices also increased. It is therefore reassuring to see that research on international higher education has found its way in scholarly outlets for research on higher education: journals, books, blogs, and policy documents. This is illustrated by the findings shown in Figure 1, which offers an overview of peer reviewed journals on higher education for 2021 according to the SCImago Journal Rankings (SJR, 2022). This ranking is based on the Scopus database, the largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature (Scopus Preview, n.d.).

Figure 1
Peer Reviewed journals on Higher Education for 2021 (Source: authors)



Searching for 'Education' in this database and next filtering for 'higher', 'tertiary', 'international' and/or 'student' delivered 54 different journal entries that were active in 2021. Although this search method is limited and a number of journals that include research on higher education internationalisation might be missed, the overview in Figure 1 underpins the often-stated conclusion that research on internationalisation of higher education has become an established multidisciplinary research field covering an evolving and broad range of topics.

Thirteen of the journals are specifically dedicated to internationalisation of higher education, including the student perspective. Twenty-one journals have a broader scope, either focusing for example on education as a whole from primary to adult education, a specific disciplinary field or tied to a geographical area, or on pedagogics and modalities of delivery. All of these 21 journals however mentioned internationalisation as a topic of interest for their readers. Moreover, they all included at least one article with an international component on their listed recent publications. Eighteen further journals had no specific mention of internationalisation in their scope and aim, and did not include articles on internationalisation in their listed recent publications. Two further mentioned journals did not provide any information.

The published papers on internationalisation cover an evolving range of topics and borrow from a wide range of disciplines and theories. They address topics such as higher education policy, institutional management and performance, teaching and learning, student experiences and outcomes, and the contribution of higher education to society and the economy. The applied theories draw on disciplines such as education, psychology, linguistics and language to sociology, law, marketing, computer science, politics, critical theory and more.

Studies focus on the outcomes of internationalisation, for example a gain in international and global perspectives, the development of intercultural competence, language learning, or their impact in terms of employability to contributions to local and global economies and communities. A number of studies apply comparative approaches or address regional issues. Other studies take stock of the state of the art in internationalisation or address future trends.

Rooted in professional practice

In many instances, the research on internationalisation of higher education is firmly rooted in professional practice. It aims at a variety of stakeholders, such as higher education leaders and managers, policy makers at governmental level, academic staff, administrative staff, and students. Many researchers originate from internationalisation practice, and have strong links with professional bodies such as NAFSA: Association of International Educators, the European Association of International Education (EAIE), the Association of African Universities (AAU), the Association of Universities of Asia and the Pacific (AUAP), the International Education Association of Australian (IEAA), the Mexican Association for International Education (AMPEI), the Brazilian Association of International Education (FAUBAI), and the International Association of Universities (IAU). The CHEI founding members and many other researchers affiliated to CHEI each in their own way are or have been connected to the internationalisation practice and heavily contribute to the research in this field. The Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (2022) publication website mentions some of their work.

Widening of perspectives

In this context, it is furthermore uplifting to observe a shift from a focus of research originating from Western countries to include research from Asia, Africa, and the Latin Americas, which bring their own unique topics and critical perspectives to the international research agenda. Examples are the growing focus in the Latin Americas on research on internationalisation for society, and the global movement on decolonisation of the curriculum, which originated from the African higher education context. This shift is also becoming visible in the projects PhD students at CHEI are working on, as is shown in Annex 1. A growing number of PhD projects situate internationalisation in their local context, or connect the global and the local. These

PhD projects each in their own way aim to uncover specific local perspectives and approaches to internationalisation and how these are relevant not only in their own contexts, but also for others to learn from.

In summary, the research on internationalisation of higher education provides an evidence-based voice on the lived experience in international collaboration in higher education and knowledge exchange across countries and increasingly continents. The theoretical foundation for the concept of internationalisation of higher education has evolved over the last four decades. This is related to the fact, as de Wit and Altbach (2021) state, that "[I]nternationalization is a process in constant evolution, which changes in response to local, national, regional, and global environments" (p. 17). At the same time, the theoretical foundation is still rather weak, Lee and Stensaker (2021) speak of undertheoretisation of the field. That makes it even more relevant that there is a strong interest of new scholars studying internationalisation in higher education.

Overview of chapters

This CHEI ten-year anniversary publication provides an exemplar of development in the depth and breadth of the research on internationalisation of higher education. This book includes 23 chapters, of which 15 are original and eight are reprints of earlier publications. They are organised into 6 different sections. The first section addresses some overarching themes and trends in internationalisation of higher education. In Chapter 1, de Wit et al. draw from their 2015 study prepared for the European Parliament to demonstrate how the field has evolved over the years, with insights into key trends, emerging themes, and current opportunities and challenges for educators in Europe and globally. In Chapter 2, Whitsed et al. explore, through the concept of *the ecological university*, how the role and place of universities could be re-imagined to respond to the many challenges facing society. Chapter 3, by Hudzik and Malerich, focuses on civic or community engagement in the context of globalisation and offers strategies for how institutions can link the local with the global to further their internationalisation efforts. In Chapter 4, Rickmann and Dennis argue that higher education professionals have an important role to play in advocating for *openness* in our universities and societies, driving innovation and collaboration in a world full of grand challenges and geopolitical tensions.

In the second section of this book, contributors discuss several aspects of internationalisation of the curriculum at home. In Chapter 5, Beelen reflects on the impact of COVID-19 on the internationalisation at home concept and argues that the pandemic might have led to further misconceptions surrounding the terminology as an alternative approach, bringing us back to past practices. In Chapter 6, Marantz and

Leask share findings from qualitative case studies at institutions in Australia and Israel to provide insights into the engagement of academic staff in IoC. In Chapter 7, Lauridsen and Gregersen-Hermans explore the different types of continuing professional development across institutional networks, multi-year projects, and short seminars and workshops for those managing higher education programmes and teaching in the international classroom. In Chapter 8, Haug and Jacobs discuss several themes around virtual collaborative learning and contend that technological developments have offered a platform for reinventing ways to engage in online global conversations. In Chapter 9, Malerich features two online global learning programmes as innovative models for synchronous and asynchronous learning, focused on global career readiness skills and intercultural competency development.

The third section assembles chapters on international student mobility, experiences, and voices. In Chapter 10, Ammigan et al. undertake a large, quantitative study of over 32,000 international students in 185 host institutions globally to investigate which aspects of the learning environment differentially predict institutional satisfaction and recommendation. Ovchinnikova et al. in Chapter 11 examine the role of language proximity for international student mobility and demonstrate its influence on not only destination choices but also the adaptation of students academically, culturally, and socio-economically. In Chapter 12, Tran and Bui respond to a critical need to have nuanced understandings about the key factors that facilitate or inhabit the participation of international graduates in the workforce across home and host labour markets, as well as the strategies used to gain employment. In Chapter 13, Predovic et al. use a game-based analytics tool to predict behaviours associated with employability skills, and distinguish international from domestic internships as well as from other kinds of international experience. In Chapter 14, Ammigan and Veerasamy investigate the relationship between the hybrid university environment and international students' academic, living, and sociocultural experiences during the COVID-19 health crisis.

The fourth section features chapters on the topic of study abroad, including its impact and the related institutional support services. In Chapter 15, Wood and Raby examine the process of interculturality experienced by students at a U.S. community college, highlighting the importance of providing intercultural experiences to underrepresented students in the context of diversity appreciation and immediate application to the local context. In Chapter 16, Perez-Encinas and Rodriguez-Pomeda use a new methodological approach to understand international students' perceptions and needs when going abroad, relating them to institutional resources and service provision for that community. In Chapter 17, Serrano discusses social justice, social identities, intersectionality, and deficit model thinking in an education abroad context, and advocates for story telling as a powerful tool to connect these theoretical underpinnings to practice. In Chapter 18, Perez-Encinas and Ammigan explore the topic of international student satisfaction and provide an overview of the support services available to international students at Spanish and U.S. institutions.

The fifth section showcases four different case studies on internationalisation in higher education. Chapter 19 by Nijboer and Girotti look at how the European Universities Initiative was developed and what it has achieved over the past three years, and question whether the European university alliances represent a new type of multilateral cooperation. In Chapter 20, Prieto focuses on the Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Degrees programme and aims to understand the characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of the collaborative relationship among administrative, academic, and blended professionals while developing an international project. In Chapter 21, Schampers and Hunter explore the relationship between Catholic identity and the internationalisation agenda at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, to help establish a shared understanding that mutually reinforces the institution's religious principles and long-term global strategy. Condette and de Wit, in Chapter 22, examine the recent changes in the Dutch internationalisation approach, and discuss concerns about this reorientation around issues such as quality, accessibility, and funding. In the last chapter of the book, Chapter 23, Ota analyses the policies and challenges of internationalisation of higher education in a Japanese context and discusses the outlook for the future with policy implications for Japanese universities.

The final section of the book brings together a collection of personal reflections and stories from current and past students, illustrating their experiences, successes, and lessons learnt as part of their doctoral journey at the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore.

Looking ahead

We anticipate the selection of chapters in this book will contribute to the awareness and importance of evidenced based approaches to internationalisation and how insights from this research can enhance the quality of academic and professional practice. The wide range of topics covered in the five sections not only demonstrate how higher education internationalisation has found its way in the scientific literature on higher education; the range of topics covered within these sections also indicate how internationalisation has become an intrinsic part of the core functioning of many universities. And it illustrates that internationalisation is an evolving process and needs to go back to its basis, social responsibility. As de Wit (2023) states, reflecting on the contribution of Mestenhauser to the debate about internationalisation, "[T]he most important actions for the coming decade are the need to move away from short-term neoliberal approaches to long-term societal interests, from international education as a benefit for a small elite towards global learning for all, and from a Western paradigm to a global and equal concept" (p. 205)

Further, the composition of the group of authors contributing to the various chapters of this anniversary publication demonstrates the value of collaboration between academics and practitioners through evidenced based approaches, which is not always reflected in the daily practice of higher education at the institutional, faculty or departmental level. CHEI and its evolving community of practice is setting an example and standard of excellence in which researchers, scholar-practitioners, and doctoral students collaborate and learn with and from each other to advance internationalisation that benefits all.

That said, we also recognise that more work still needs to be done at CHEI to broaden the scope of its research, training, and policy analysis agenda. Looking ahead, we must continue to attract emerging voices and give space to more discussion on critical global challenges such as social justice, climate action, health, and security. As the community of researchers and scholar-practitioners continues to grow, and as new research topics surface up, we remain as committed as ever to nurture a new generation of scholars who can help shape the future of the Centre around forthcoming challenges and opportunities in higher education internationalisation.

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PART I

INTERNATIONALISATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: OVERARCHING THEMES AND TRENDS

CHAPTER 1

Internationalisation of higher education shifts in response to new opportunities and challenges

Hans de Wit, Fiona Hunter, Eva Egron-Polak, Laura Howard and Robert Coelen

Abstract. This chapter revisits the study on Internationalisation of Higher Education prepared for the European Parliament in 2015 by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI), the International Association of Universities, (IAU) and the European Association for International Education (EAIE). It looks back at what has changed since 2015 and what still remains to be achieved for internationalisation to make a meaningful contribution to higher education and to society in general. It looks forward and considers how current opportunities and challenges will shape trends in internationalisation in Europe and beyond.

Keywords: trends, definition, mainstreaming, tensions, shifts, digitalisation, decolonisation.

Questo capitolo rivisita lo studio sull'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore preparato per il Parlamento europeo nel 2015 dal Centro per l'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore (CHEI), dall'Associazione internazionale delle università (IAU) e dall'Associazione europea per l'istruzione internazionale (EAIE). Il documento analizza ciò che è cambiato dal 2015 e ciò che resta ancora da realizzare affinché l'internazionalizzazione dia un contributo significativo all'istruzione superiore e alla società in generale. Lo studio guarda al futuro e considera come le opportunità e le sfide attuali determineranno le tendenze dell'internazionalizzazione in Europa e oltre.

Keywords: tendenze, definizione, mainstreaming, tensioni, cambiamenti, digitalizzazione, decolonizzazione.

Introduction

This is an analysis of how the internationalisation of higher education (IoHE) has developed over the past seven years, in which we reflect on the main findings we presented in the European Parliament study "Internationalisation of Higher Education" (de Wit et al., 2015) and consider how it is shifting again in response to new opportunities and challenges. First, we look at how new influences are re-shaping understandings and enactments of internationalisation; second, we look back at the key trends we identified and recommendations made in 2015; third, we look at the major themes emerging in 2022 which will impact and shape internationalisation in the years ahead.

Emerging influences and shifting understandings

Since the publication of the study in 2015, the international dimensions of higher education in Europe, and the rest of the world, have been significantly impacted in a variety of ways. Challenges related to health care (the COVID-19 pandemic) and sustainability (the climate crisis and the Sustainable Development Goals), increased acknowledgement of systemic racism (e.g., Black Lives Matter) and sexual harassment (e.g., the #MeToo movement) as well as the growth of nationalism, populism and geopolitical tensions are all having a radical influence. Within higher education institutions, several agendas are growing in importance such as the decolonisation of the curriculum, broader access, diversity, equity and inclusion (DEI) and, more recently, digitalisation. The European Universities Initiative and the plans for a "European Degree" (a European label for joint programmes or a joint degree) are other key developments that will impact European higher education in the coming years, but are likely to have a broader impact on higher education globally.

These emerging influences highlight that while internationalisation of higher education is a relatively new phenomenon, as a concept, it is one that is both broad and varied. It has been influenced by the globalisation of our economies and societies and the increased importance of knowledge. It is driven by a dynamic and constantly evolving combination of political, economic, socio-cultural and academic rationales. These motives take different forms and dimensions in different regions and countries, and in institutions and programmes. There is no one model that fits all. Regional and national differences are varied and constantly evolving, and the same is true within the institutions themselves.

Any study of internationalisation of higher education must take a broad range of diverse factors into account. It must identify and analyse the global, regional, national and institutional commonalities and differences in the development of internationalisation to understand, influence and support the process of internationalisation in higher education. While intra-national, inter-national and interregional power relations influence internationalisation strategies, common goals and objectives can also be observed: increased importance of reputation (often symbolised by rankings); visibility and competitiveness; competition for talent; short- and long-term economic gains; employability and social engagement.

Mainstreaming internationalisation

Over the last 40 years, the European Union programmes for education and research have been drivers for a broader and more strategic approach to internationalisation in higher education in Europe and have been seen as an example for institutions, nations and regions in other parts of the world. Internationalisation as a strategic process began with ERASMUS, which created common understandings and drivers for internationalisation in most countries, and this was further reinforced by the Bologna Process. As a result, internationalisation has been mainstreamed at the national and institutional level across Europe, and increasingly around the world.

The rhetoric speaks of more comprehensive and strategic policies for internationalisation, but in reality there is still a long way to go, as the 5th Global Survey of the International Association of Universities (Marinoni, 2019) made clear. Indeed, as Marinoni and de Wit (2019) observe, there is an increasing divide between institutions that consider internationalisation to be of high importance and those that do not. Even in Europe, seen around the world as a best-practice case for internationalisation, there is still much to be done, and there is an uneven degree of accomplishment across the different countries. The European Union's recent European Universities Initiative (EUI) has become the next step in the process of increased Europeanisation and internationalisation. Its real impact as a transformative change agent has yet to be proven, but it has certainly received close attention and an enthusiastic response from higher education institutions.

In the 2015 report we noted that higher education leaders and practitioners in internationalisation:

- Perceive the crucial benefits and reasons for pursuing internationalisation as the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning and preparing students to live and work in a globalised world;
- View regional/national-level policy as a significant external driver and influencer of institutional policy on internationalisation;
- Note that increasing international (and especially outbound) student mobility is a major policy focus in institutional internationalisation policies;

- Report that, as well as international student mobility, international research collaboration and international strategic partnerships are given priority among the internationalisation activities undertaken by European institutions.

A Delphi Panel exercise among key international higher education experts around the world acknowledged this picture and resulted in a scenario for the future of internationalisation of higher education in Europe (de Wit et al., 2015). This scenario saw IoHE as a continually evolving response to globalisation driven by a dynamic range of rationales and a growing number of stakeholders. While it expected mobility and cross-border delivery to continue to grow, it called for a stronger focus on the curriculum and learning outcomes to ensure internationalisation for all, not just for the mobile few. It identified partnerships and alliances in varying forms as becoming increasingly important for both education and research and recognised the important role of the European Commission in supporting IoHE development.

The 2015 study observed that inevitably there were barriers to be overcome, linked mainly to funding and regulatory constraints, but also to institutional issues of language proficiency and the nature of academic engagement and reward. Equally, it identified enablers such as technology, stronger (and more equal) collaboration, a greater focus on qualitative outcomes, the fostering of public-private initiatives and greater alignment between education and research as well as between different levels of education. The scenario envisaged that if the barriers were removed and the enablers activated, a European higher education environment would produce graduates more able to contribute meaningfully as global citizens and global professionals in a Europe that would be better placed not only to compete but also to cooperate.

Defining and re-defining internationalisation

Looking at the 2019 IAU Survey, and at the radical developments over the past seven years, that optimistic view might appear to be fading away and the future certainly seems less bright. At the same time, many of the issues expressed in the 2015 study have become even more urgent and have moved to the forefront of the internationalisation of higher education discourse: digitalisation, social responsibility, inclusion, equity, decolonisation, and sustainability as well as the need for a more collaborative and less market-driven approach.

The same is true for the definition of internationalisation. As early as 1995, Knight and de Wit (1995) wrote that “there is no simple, unique or all-encompassing definition of internationalisation of the university” and that it is not “helpful for internationalisation to become a ‘catch-all’ phrase for everything and anything international” (p. 16). Twenty-three years later, they wrote that “that notion is probably even truer now” and “internationalisation has become a very broad and varied concept, including new rationales, approaches, and strategies in different and constantly changing contexts" (Knight & de Wit, 2018, p. xix).

Rumbley et al. (2022) also note that "internationalisation in higher education is a multifaceted and evolving phenomenon. It touches on a wide scope of issues and can be defined in a multitude of ways" (p. 19). And Hunter et al. (2022a) in a critical overview and analysis of higher education internationalisation concepts and definitions note that "the concept of internationalisation continues to be refined and revised, and theories and definitions adjusted to match new and evolving understandings" (p. 70).

It is these two dimensions, multifaceted and evolving, that are key characteristics of the internationalisation of higher education. As an outcome of the Delphi Panel exercise, the 2015 study also revised Jane Knight's commonly accepted working definition for internationalisation 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*" (emphasis added).

This updated and extended definition reflects the increased awareness that internationalisation must become more inclusive and less elitist by not focusing predominantly on mobility but more on the curriculum and learning outcomes. The *abroad* component (mobility) needs to become an integral part of the internationalised curriculum to ensure internationalisation for all, not only the mobile minority. As Jones (2020, p. 181) states: "Mobility needs to be seen as adding value to an internationalised curriculum, not as the focal point of internationalisation efforts." It re-emphasises that internationalisation is not a goal in itself, but a means to enhance quality, and that it should not focus solely on economic rationales. Furthermore, this revised definition underlines a more outward-facing view of higher education internationalisation and its impact on society. In updating and extending the intentionally neutral 2003 definition of Knight, the 2015 version took a more normative direction as "a deliberate attempt to close the gap between rhetoric and reality by providing an overarching purpose to internationalisation and encouraging institutions to reflect more on their own rationales" (Hunter et al., 2022a, p. 67).

Most national strategies, also in Europe, are still predominantly focused on mobility, short-term and/or long-term economic gains, recruitment and/or training of talented students and scholars, and international reputation and visibility. This implies that far greater efforts are still needed to incorporate these approaches into more comprehensive strategies, in which internationalisation of the curriculum and learning outcomes receive more attention to enhance the quality of education and research. The inclusion of "internationalisation at home" as a third pillar in the internationalisation strategy of the European Commission, "European Higher Education in the World" (2013), as well as in several national strategies, was a good starting point, but it will require more concrete actions at the European, national and, in particular, the institutional level for it to become reality. We stated this clearly in 2015 and reiterate its importance seven years on.

Global trends, developments and recommendations

The 2015 study looked across a number of European and non-European countries and identified ten key trends which remain relevant in 2022. The tenth trend of a stronger focus on internationalisation of the curriculum and digital learning has assumed even greater importance than could have been imagined at that time.

1. Growing importance of internationalisation at all levels (broader range of activities, more strategic approaches, emerging national strategies and ambitions);
2. Increase in institutional strategies for internationalisation (but also risks of homogenisation, focus on quantitative results only);
3. Challenge of funding everywhere;
4. Trend towards increased privatisation in IoHE through revenue generation;
5. Competitive pressures of globalisation, with increasing convergence of aspirations, if not yet actions;
6. Evident shift from (only) cooperation to (more) competition;
7. Emerging regionalisation, with Europe often seen as an example of good practice;
8. Numbers rising everywhere, with challenge of quantity versus quality;
9. Lack of sufficient data for comparative analysis and decision-making;
10. Emerging areas of focus as internationalisation of the curriculum, transnational education and digital learning.

Recommendations for the future from 2015

The 2015 study also provided a set of *recommendations* on the internationalisation of higher education for all policy levels:

1. Address the challenges of credit and degree mobility imbalances and institutional cooperation, stemming from substantial differences in higher education systems, procedures and funding;
2. Recognise the growing popularity of work placements and build options to combine them with language and cultural skills training and study abroad;
3. Support the important role of academic and administrative staff in the further development of IoHE;

4. Foster greater higher education and industry collaboration in the context of mobility of students and staff;
5. Pay more attention to the importance of Internationalisation at home, integrating international and intercultural learning outcomes into the curriculum for all students;
6. Remove the barriers that impede the development of joint degrees;
7. Develop innovative models of digital and blended learning as an instrument to complement IoHE;
8. Align IoHE with internationalisation at other levels of education (primary, secondary, vocational and adult education);
9. Stimulate bilingual and multilingual learning at the primary and secondary education level as a basis for a language policy based on diversity;
10. Remove barriers between internationalisation of research and education, at all levels, for greater synergy and opportunity.

The study concluded that the key role of the European Union and the Bologna Process in the development of IoHE – both in Europe and around the globe – was undeniable and had to be built on even further. It highlighted the importance of focusing on partnerships and collaboration that recognise and respect the differences in contexts, expertise and experiences, needs, goals, partner interests and prevailing economic and cultural conditions. It stated that Europe and European institutions can only serve as an example if they are willing to acknowledge that they must also learn from elsewhere. While their approaches offer an important model, it is not the only one for the modernisation of higher education.

Summing up, the 2015 report stated that the future of IoHE in Europe looks potentially bright, but its further positive development and impact will only take place if the various stakeholders and participants maintain an open dialogue about rationales, benefits, means, opportunities and obstacles in this ongoing process of change. We cannot ignore the fact that IoHE is also being challenged by increasingly profound social, economic, and cultural issues, such as the financial crisis, unfavourable demographic trends, immigration and ethnic and religious tensions. While these challenges represent a threat, they also raise our awareness of the importance of IoHE in developing a meaningful response. (de Wit et al., 2015, p. 31)

Moving forward

Looking back to these optimistic assumptions of 2015, we have to acknowledge that the challenges are now greater and more numerous than foreseen, and will have a powerful influence on internationalisation in future years.

Impact of COVID-19

The COVID-19 pandemic has impacted almost all aspects of society, including higher education. One of the most notable effects was the restrictions on physical mobility, understood as a key dimension of IoHE. Travel bans and quarantines left many students with a choice between studying at home on-line or postponing their studies. Many HEIs sought to adjust their internationalisation strategy, review or introduce emergency and risk management protocols, as well as develop virtual solutions while they struggled to pivot all teaching, practically overnight, to virtual platforms. Online international classroom experiences are a good example of how the enforced move to the virtual space has expanded the internationalisation at home portfolio in many HEIs, enabling a larger number of students to have their first international study experience. While it is still too early to accurately predict the long-term effects of the pandemic on IoHE (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Yang, 2020), it seems clear that online modes of internationalisation will continue to be an increasingly important feature, not only for academic activities but for support services as well (Veerasamy & Ammigan, 2022). At the same time, the fundamental and irreplaceable value of an on-campus international experience has been reinforced.

A negative impact of the pandemic is the economic recession which is predicted to reduce the capacity of many families to pay for international study. This is likely to lead to an increasing number of students studying at local institutions or in neighbouring countries rather than looking further afield, which will alter the demand-supply dynamics of the international student market.

Again, whether this will be a long-term change or will revert to the former *status quo* once economic recovery has been achieved is as yet unknown. The editors of a Higher Education Quarterly special issue on how the pandemic has impacted internationalisation of higher education (Huang et al., 2022) summarised it as follows:

> The effects of the pandemic are still unfolding. Expecting to completely return to the 'old normal' from before the pandemic is a natural inclination, but an unlikely eventuality. The challenges brought by the COVID-19 pandemic have forced higher education systems and institutions to try new approaches to internationalisation that go beyond mobility. This is a welcome development. However, taking stock of global challenges in a comparative perspective also revealed that the pandemic has heightened inequalities between individuals, institutions and systems. Policy-makers and institutional leaders must be wary of perpetuating inequality in access to internationalisation opportunities. (Craciun et al., 2022)

Geopolitical tensions and growth of populism

While the COVID-19 pandemic appears to be gradually receding, another major crisis has emerged in Europe with the Russian invasion of Ukraine. Beyond the devastating effects on the people, it is having a far-reaching effect on the higher education sector with a massive brain drain of local and international students and academics. The impact is also felt in Russia and its higher education community, as well as more broadly in Europe and beyond. The Russian government has withdrawn from the Bologna Process and has forced its academic sector into isolation from almost all of Europe, which is leading to brain drain in Russia as well.

> During various periods in history, higher education and science in Russia have been connected to the international community in different ways. The situation moved from close ties to a policy of almost complete autonomy and isolation, from cooperation and integration to a quest for a national identity of its own place on the global academic market. (Yudkevich, 2022)

Russia is entering a new phase of isolation in a quest for national identity at political and institutional level, but Altbach and de Wit (2022) argue that "for the sake of Russian – and global – higher education, personal academic ties and knowledge development that took decades to build should not be completely dismantled". In another article together with Salmi, they state:

> In this new, tragic and uncharted academic and scientific environment, we must be firm in condemning the institutions and academic leaders supporting the war, but keep the door open for contact and perhaps collaboration with those who share common values of integrity, mutual understanding and academic freedom. (Altbach et al., 2022)

The tension with Russia is not unique. In recent years, geopolitical tensions have increased between China and Australia, Europe and North America, challenging institutional academic collaboration and academic freedom. This is understandable, but at the same time, the need to keep the door open for those who share common values, as stated by Altbach et al. (2022), applies equally to China as well as other countries such as Belarus, Hungary, and Venezuela.

Alongside these geopolitical tensions, there is an evident growth in populism in Europe as recent developments in Italy, France, Poland, the United Kingdom, Hungary have shown, as well as other countries such as Brazil and the United States of America. These trends are impacting relations between nations and populations along with negative attitudes to migration, and other liberal values which, essentially, internationalisation espouses. This is a genuine challenge to the very concept of internationalisation as it has come to be understood in the higher education sector. It must develop strategic responses that can promote and protect its stated values and the wider concept of internationalisation as a core element of what a university is today.

The revised definition of internationalisation of higher education invites universities to actively oppose these trends and

> to go beyond the rhetoric of internationalisation and purposefully to reconnect it to academic values; to consider internationalisation in the widest context of the institutional mission and indeed the very purpose of higher education – and to pursue these aims through clear strategies and strong (international) alliances. (Hunter & Sparnon, 2016).

Internationalisation can no longer be limited to isolated activities such as student mobility, student recruitment and positioning in the rankings.

Climate crisis, sustainable development and contribution to society

Although the climate crisis and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are not new on the global agenda, in the past few years they have become more central in the debate about the internationalisation in higher education. As Rumbley states, "the champions of internationalisation of higher education cannot expect to succeed in improving the human condition without also attending purposefully to the realities of the faltering natural world around us." She goes on to say:

> The internationalisation of higher education – when designed and deployed intelligently and responsibly – can yield powerfully positive results in the world. However, the community of individuals, educators, policy makers, and others, who believe in the potential for internationalisation to build bridges of deeper knowledge and foster human compassion, must work quickly and collaboratively to understand our planetary impact and change our habits. Our shared future is at stake. (2020, p. 34)

Several initiatives to address the climate crisis and engage with the SDGs in connection to internationalisation have been taken. Increasing concerns about the climate crisis make it clear that some former approaches to internationalisation are unsustainable in the long term. The Accord of the Climate Action Network for International Educators (CANIE, n.d.) defines a concrete list of 70 actions on leadership and influencing for greater institutional commitment and actions.

A recent initiative referred to as "internationalisation of higher education for society" (Jones et al., 2021) places stronger emphasis on the third mission of higher education. While community outreach, social responsibility, social engagement and service learning have been present in higher education for decades and in all regions of the globe, internationalisation activities have been largely concentrated within the institution on the higher education community itself. There is now advocacy for a shift in emphasis:

> The social responsibility component of internationalisation has, to date, rarely been the focus of systemic thinking, conceptualisation or strategy in the broad agenda of the internationalisation of higher education. This imbalance needs to be addressed because universities also have a contract with and an obligation to wider society. (Brandenburg et al., 2019)

A recent DAAD study developed an analytical framework of good practice using a matrix to analyse IHES projects according to seven characteristics: goals, actor groups in the HEI, target groups, dimensions of internationalisation, involvement at the HEI, movement between HEI and society, and beneficiaries (Brandenburg et al., 2020, pp. 47-49) that can guide institutions seeking to identify how to bring a stronger international dimension into its third mission activities.

Interculturality, inclusion and diversity

In the definition of internationalisation, the intercultural dimension is perceived as being equally important as the international and global dimensions. Jones (2022) argues "that we must think interculturally rather than simply internationally, and consider all of our students beyond the mobile few" (p. iv).

The 2015 report recommended international and intercultural opportunities at all levels of education, including bi- or multilingual learning, for fuller participation in and engagement with globalised work and life. Notwithstanding the lack of intercultural learning in most credit-degree mobility due to the absence of specific institutional interventions, most higher education students are not internationally mobile, thereby compounding the problem of developing graduates who are able to interact effectively with people of diverse backgrounds. Whilst there is increased attention to internationalisation at home in higher education, in part as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic, and in part due to a recognition of the constraints of physical mobility in some world regions, there is a need for a stronger focus at all levels of education. Leaving the development of international and intercultural skills exclusively to higher education can only be labelled as "the great repair action", with too much to be done too late.

There are about 30 models of intercultural competence and about 300 instruments to measure this. Two of these instruments have survived critical meta-analyses over the last two decades or so. These are the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ; Van Oudenhoven & Van der Zee, 2002) and the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS; Ang et al., 2007). The MPQ is a 5-factor construct looking at cultural empathy, flexibility, emotional stability, open-mindedness, and social initiative, whilst the CQS comprises four components, namely metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural cultural intelligence.

There is ample opportunity during all levels of education to initiate the development of these aspects, even if national or ethnic diversity is not present in the classroom. This could be done by using sources of diversity that are close to the experiences of students in school, such as the diversity brought about by rural or urban living, or diversity through religious differences. Appropriate intervention from the earliest stages of education could lead to students developing a mindset, attitude and motivation to embrace diversity for the opportunities it brings in collaborative group learning, instead of avoiding intercultural mixed groups. There are also extensive resources available that have been designed for use in school education, but that are equally valuable at all levels of education, such as by the Council of Europe[1]. The competence model for democratic culture and intercultural dialogue is particularly helpful in summarising the approach[2].

Decolonisation

A new generation of scholars, such as those involved in the Critical Internationalisation Studies Network (CISN, n.d.) is challenging the view of internationalisation dominated by Anglo-Western perspectives and forms of knowledge. Jones (2022) argues that

> Equality, diversity and inclusion, social justice, decolonisation, global power relations and geopolitics, human rights, anti-racism, gender identity and equality, ethics, multiculturalism, and sustainability are just some of the related elements which all have a role to play in broadening our understanding of internationalisation. (p. iv)

CISN re-emphasises the critique of internationalisation as a Western paradigm (de Wit, 2020; de Wit & Jones 2022; Jones & de Wit 2014) and calls for decolonising the curriculum (Stein & Andreotti, 2016). Concerns around the decolonisation and indigenisation of curriculum in higher education are being linked in particular with curriculum internationalisation (Buckner & Stein, 2020; Bullen & Flavell, 2021; Leask, 2015; Stein, 2017, 2021; Stein et al., 2020; Stein & Andreotti, 2016). In this context, the importance of what Ergin et al. (2019) call "forced internationalisa-

[1] https://www.coe.int/en/web/reference-framework-of-competences-for-democratic-culture.
[2] https://rm.coe.int/a-model-of-the-competences-required-for-democratic-culture-and-intercu/16809940c3.

tion" of migrants and issues around access to and support in higher education requires our attention.

Internationalisation of higher education has been traditionally seen as a conduit for sharing knowledge across borders, becoming open to different perspectives and ensuring that students and staff (academic and administrative) learn through international collaboration. Increasingly, it has been argued that internationalisation ensures that research questions being addressed by scholars include global challenges and issues impacting on societies in other parts of the world. The decolonisation of higher education movement is questioning this overwhelmingly positive view and the assumptions that underpin it. Indeed, there is a strong and growing opposing view that sees higher education and internationalisation as too often reflecting an exclusively Euro-centric and Western curriculum that does not recognise other sources of knowledge, other frames of reference and other ways of knowing. This is being expressed in higher education institutions around the world, and builds on the sense of inequitable relations, power imbalances, the highly commercial, extractive and transactional nature of many of the internationalisation approaches which dominate current practice instead of truly bi-directional and mutual learning that is often espoused.

This perspective is not unlike the long-standing criticism that views internationalisation of higher education as too elitist and benefiting only the few rather than the many – both learners and institutions. This is particularly true when those who analyse internationalisation practice see that the mobility dimension remains central for many institutions and governments. This, as well as the need for decolonising higher education, is a demand for a more inclusive and equitable approach to all of higher education and to internationalisation as well. It is noteworthy that the reflection about the nature and impact of internationalisation, and its place in higher education more generally, engages an increasingly diverse community, bringing new voices and perspectives to the table both within institutions and around the world. This is an important development that can only enrich the process and ensure that the multiplicity of impacts on society and benefits to academe are considered in policy and decision making concerning new avenues for internationalisation.

Digitalisation

Even before the enforced changes in pedagogy brought about by the global COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, there were initiatives underway known as virtual exchange or Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL; Rubin, 2016) and indeed, online learning has been around for at least 20 years. However, until this crisis it has been possible for most universities to continue with traditional teaching and learning as if online opportunities did not exist. The pandemic changed all that by forcing engagement with online learning and technology in a dramatic manner. It shifted the focus from mainstream to more peripheral activities such as internationalisation of the curriculum and virtual learning, and the consequences were significant.

First, they accelerated the "virtualisation of internationalisation" (Stallivieri, 2020) – a process that was already well underway prior to the onset of the pandemic. Second, they had the effect of "untethering global learning from mobility" (Leask & Green, 2020) and meant that other forms of internationalisation were now more likely to be deployed (Hunter et al, 2022b).

Digitalisation is increasingly seen as an integral part of internationalisation, not only by offering an alternative to physical mobility of students and staff for both study and work, but also through interactive synchronous and asynchronous international teaching and learning, as well as support services such as mentoring and counselling. Recognition of these new opportunities, for instance in the Erasmus+ programme, is an important step forward, for reasons of inclusion, diversity and sustainability.

European strategy

In 2022, the European Commission published its European Strategy for Universities, emphasising the importance of the sector to address the key challenges of our society.

The higher education sector has an essential role to play in Europe's post-pandemic recovery and in shaping sustainable and resilient societies and economies. Excellent and inclusive universities are a condition and foundation for open, democratic, fair and sustainable societies as well as sustained growth, entrepreneurship and employment (European Commission, 2022a, p. 1).

Transnational cooperation is a major component of this strategy, elaborated upon in a "Proposal for a Council Recommendation on building bridges for effective European higher education cooperation" by the Commission in the same year. The proposal states:

> Further implementing a European Research Area implies strengthening researchers' mobility and the flow of knowledge, incentivising investment in research and innovation, and enhancing transnational cooperation among higher education institutions, as well as with businesses and other research and innovation actors in their ecosystems. Transnational cooperation strengthens the inclusiveness, excellence, diversity, attractiveness and global competitiveness of European higher education. It contributes to equality and non-discrimination, to solving Europe's challenges on climate change, the digital transformation and aging population, equipping learners with rele-

> vant skills and knowledge, as well as to build resilience and help the recovery. It will boost higher education institutions' role on the global stage turning Europe into a pacesetter in solving global challenges effectively and efficiently, a worldwide source of inspiration and an appealing destination for students, academics and researchers. (European Commission, 2022b, p. 1)

Building on earlier projects to strengthen academic collaboration, the strategy for universities and the proposal for transnational cooperation strengthen in particular three approaches taken in recent years: the European Universities Initiative and the 41 alliances that were selected in the first two rounds as well as those to come in future calls; the development of a European Degree with a pilot of a European Degree label; and the roll-out of a European Student Card. These projects are natural next steps in the further enhancement of a more explicit European strategy for universities, building on previous developments in the past decades, but they still face legal and structural challenges. It is too early to tell what their realisation and impact will be, but they are significant actions in the further Europeanisation, internationalisation and integration of higher education in the region and beyond.

Looking ahead

We recognise that our conclusions in the 2015 report may have been overly optimistic, and the world appears to be a much more troubled place at the time of writing. However, we remain convinced that there is opportunity in a crisis. The issues we identified for internationalisation of higher education have not changed, they have only become more urgent in the face of the new or bigger challenges the world now faces. It is our responses that must change. "The foundations of new models are often set out during the darkest days of any crisis" (Hunter & Sparnon, 2016, p. 39). We must not lose faith but rather hold true to the value we see in internationalisation and continue to promote it, while being willing to look critically at what we do, listen to other voices, and consider new ways of being and doing. The future of internationalisation of higher education is in our hands.

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CHAPTER 2

Re-imagining internationalisation with an ecological twist

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Abstract. The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals set out a clear pathway and objectives to respond to the many global challenges. Higher education institutions are responding by emphasising the importance of intercultural education and by instilling international perspectives in graduates as global citizens. This chapter first argues that society and those in higher education need to reimagine the role and place of universities to better address the challenges confronting society today and into the future. Second, it contends that Barnett's idea of *the ecological university* offers a powerful conceptual framework for re-imagining internationalisation for contemporary society and higher education institutions. The International Business School Maastricht's two-year Intercultural Business learning pathway and the formation of the Aurora Alliance university network are presented as exemplars of possible *re*-imaginings.

Keywords: ecological university, internationalisation for all, internationalisation of the curriculum, re-imagining universities, SDGs, networks.

Gli obiettivi di sviluppo sostenibile delle Nazioni Unite definiscono un percorso e dei traguardi chiari per rispondere alle numerose sfide globali. Gli istituti di istruzione superiore stanno reagendo sottolineando l'importanza dell'educazione interculturale e instillando prospettive internazionali nei laureati come cittadini globali. Questo capitolo sostiene innanzitutto che la società e gli operatori dell'istruzione superiore devono ripensare il ruolo e il posto delle università per affrontare le sfide della società di oggi e del futuro. In secondo luogo, afferma che la metafora di Barnett dell'"università ecologica" offre un valido quadro concettuale per riconcettualizzare l'internazionalizzazione per la società contemporanea e le istituzioni di istruzione superiore. In terzo luogo, sottolinea il potenziale delle alleanze universitarie come un mezzo per re-immaginare come l'internazionalizzazione per tutti possa essere promossa attraverso tali reti. Il percorso di apprendimento biennale Intercultural Business della International Business School di Maastricht e la formazione della rete universitaria Aurora Alliance sono presentati come esempi di possibili rielaborazioni.

Keywords: Università ecologica, internazionalizzazione per tutti, internazionalizzazione del curriculum, re-immaginazione delle università, SDGs, reti.

Introduction

The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UNSDGs) set out a clear pathway and objectives to respond to the many social, cultural and environmental global challenges. Following Barnett (2013, 2018), we propose that the ecological university, as an idea, offers a powerful way forward for universities to forge new relationships with humanity and the world in its fullest senses. Through the idea of the ecological university, it is possible to render:

a. new and enriched imaginings *of* and *for* higher education and its role and place in society for working towards the sustainable development goals; and,
b. opportunities in this context to consider how we might re-imagine internationalisation and internationalisation of the curriculum.

In this chapter, we present two lines of argument. First, following Barnett (2013), we argue that society and those in higher education need to re-imagine the role and place of universities for the betterment of all. In other words, we need new and creative thinking about how to transform universities into institutions that are more socially and morally responsible across all three missions (teaching, research and service, see Hudzik, 2015). Moreover, as universities expand their global reach and internationalise their activities, operations, campuses, teaching and learning they need to incorporate the goals and practices of sustainable development education, which we understand to include new and potentially divergent ideas to unsettle and disrupt the forces shaping the contemporary social imaginary. Second, we contend that Barnett's (2018) *ecological university* construct offers a powerful conceptual lens for re-imagining internationalisation *for* contemporary society. We illustrate this ecological turn by drawing on our own work undertaken at the International Business School Maastricht (IBSM) to develop a programme of learning that integrates international, intercultural and sustainability learning in the curriculum as an example of what is possible. We conclude the chapter by exploring the potential of university *alliances* as an ecological system and as a practice and argue *internationalisation for all* can be promoted through coalitions such as the Aurora European Universities Alliance, which we elaborate upon. Both examples have been chosen because of the familiarity of the authors with these cases.

Why we need to re-imagine universities

In the context of contemporary global challenges such as climate change, global warming, conflict-driven forced migration, increasing wealth disparity, extremism, and war, addressing the UN SDG goals is *now* considered a priority by many across the university sector. A radical re-imagining of the university for all and for the whole planet is needed. As Khasnabish and Haiven (2014) explain, this involves the capacity to imagine the world, life on Earth, and social institutions as they might otherwise be, as well as the courage to recognise that it is possible to effect change and to understand there are alternatives.

A radical re-imaging of the university *in* and *for* society is to move forward collectively. For universities to be a catalyst for positive change and collective action Barnett (2011) proposed a new way forward through which to conceptualise potential and feasible possibilities – the *ecological university*. In contrast to commonly deployed labels such as, the *world-class university*, the *global university*, or the *research university*, the *ecological university* is one that "takes seriously both the world's interconnectedness and the university's interconnectedness with the world" (Barnett, 2011, p. 451). For Barnett (2011) the *ecological university* not only takes its alliance building and networking seriously by developing new networks between themselves and the wider society, but is a university that "actively engages with the world to bring about a better world" (p. 452). Moreover, the *ecological university* Barnett (2011) contends is one that "embodies hope" and critiques "the world order that has led to the contemporary world order" (p. 452). It is a critical and reflective university not solely inwardly focused, but one that looks outward and has a sense of "there being external realms to which it has responsibilities" (Barnett, 2011, p. 452). The *ecological university*, as the concept implies, authentically and deeply cares for the environment (ecological and social) and enacts its responsibility to respond to the UN SDGs through all its missions. We need to re-imagine the university and the potential of internationalisation to realise a radical *re*-imagining for the world we live in now, and for a more sustainable and just tomorrow.

What are the implications for universities?

In the introduction to the Journal of Studies of International Education (JSIE) Special Issue on *Reimagining Internationalisation for Society*, Leask and de Gayardon (2021) argue there is an urgent need for radical change in higher education and a new vision for internationalisation. In other words, they are calling for a re-imagining framed against the seemingly insurmountable challenges confronting global society today and the future.

The Millennium Project (2017) lists 15 global challenges considered "transnational in nature and trans-institutional in solution", which "require collaborative action among governments, international organisations, corporations, and universities, NGOs, and creative individuals" to address them. The challenges include education and training, sustainable development, and climate change. However, a dominant counterforce constraining a *re*-imagining of how such challenges might be addressed is globalisation and the neoliberal social imaginary (Rizvi, 2017). Together each have, Rizvi argues (2017), "recast the purposes and governance of education, viewing it in human capital terms while supporting individual self-interests [...]" (p. 1).

Highlighting the dominance of the neoliberal social imaginary, as this intersects with higher education internationalisation, the call for papers on Internationalisation of Higher Education for Society of the Journal of Studies in International Education (JSIE; 2020, n.p.) states, "while internationalisation has become a powerful and pervasive force in universities around the world in the last 30 years, recent trends suggest a failure to make a real difference in the world". One might challenge this proposition given the innovations and scientific achievements universities have advanced. However, ethically, morally, and socially, just how much internationalisation has actually made a real difference *in* and importantly *for* the world is questionable.

The hegemony of the neoliberalism social imaginary asserts a strong influence over conceptions of what is possible and how universities might more effectively promote positive change in the world. Therefore, before we can start the process of re-imagining, we need to free our existing imaginations from the constraints of contemporary being (our ontological self) and first reflect on our own discourses of HE internationalisation, practices, and imaginings of the role and purpose of our own universities in society (locally and globally). This will vary from person to person and is very much bound in their context, experiences, and socialisation. The work of *re*-imagining is not easy, and as Barnett (2013) observes, if "the imagination is to realize its possibilities, it cannot be a matter of simply extending current imaginings" (p. 18). A clear vision of the ecological university and its position in and for the world is needed, as this has the potential to, as Barnett (2013) writes, "transport us from [our] given representations of the world into new ways of seeing afresh the present-to-hand phenomena in the world" (p. 18).

What is the ecological worldview and how can this be a way forward?

At the heart of an ecological worldview sits the understanding that all living and non-living things essentially form one Earth community and that humans are an inseparable part of an interconnected, interdependent, complex and dynamic ecosystem, within the Earth's planetary boundaries. Within an ecological worldview, change is not conceptualised in terms of cause and effect. When things change in one part of the ecosystem, they cascade into the other parts as depicted in Figure 1, and ultimately the larger planetary ecosystem Earth. Instead of positioning humans as separate from nature, in the ecological worldview humans are a part of the natural world and inseparable from it, which Carl Sagan poignantly reminds us of in his seminal work the Pale Blue Dot (1994), as have First Nations and indigenous peoples through their oral histories and songlines[1] for millennia. These histories and songlines signal how humans are connected to and dependent for their survival on everything that exists on our planet.

At the same time, humans have evolved and developed an increasing capability to control and utilise Earth's resources. This capability is related to human consciousness and the ability to imagine. It is, however, exactly this capability that places a pertinent responsibility on humanity to act as responsible custodians of the Earth's ecosystem. Custodianship implies that humans need to respect nature not as a resource but as a value in itself, and that they work with nature rather than against it to resolve the current environmental and societal challenges. An ecological worldview is characterised by a transformation from a focus on individual wealth to a focus on the wellbeing of the whole Earth Community. Grounded in the lived experience and worldviews of indigenous peoples, intergenerational justice is a crucial dimension of the ecological worldview. Intergenerational justice is realised through actions taken here and now, toward future ecological challenges. Such actions are an essential part of the ecological worldview and, as Immanuel Kant delineates, are not *moral acts* purely and simply motivated out of a sense of duty, but rather *beautiful actions* undertaken because of one's inclination (Naess, 1993, p. 67). These actions are beautiful, not because we as humans *need to,* but rather because of an intrinsic respect and care for nature (of which we are all a part) and all things that inhabit this small blue speck we call Earth, now and for generations henceforth.

The ecological university imaginary: seven ecosystems and zones of responsibility and engagement

This ecological worldview directly links to the idea of university, to the heart of its mission and its vision for society. For Barnett, the concept *ecological* affords a deeper and conceptually broader range of possibilities than that of sustainability as this relates to praxis and responsibility. That is not to say that for Barnett sustainability is not important, the problem is that sustainability is primarily focused on the restoration of the environment to a previous state. Ecology, however, according to Barnett (2018), is different in two salient ways. First, it "would come into play even if no significant impairment in the environment was apparent". Second, "it is uninterested merely in restoring the environment to some pre-existing state of affairs [...] but has a

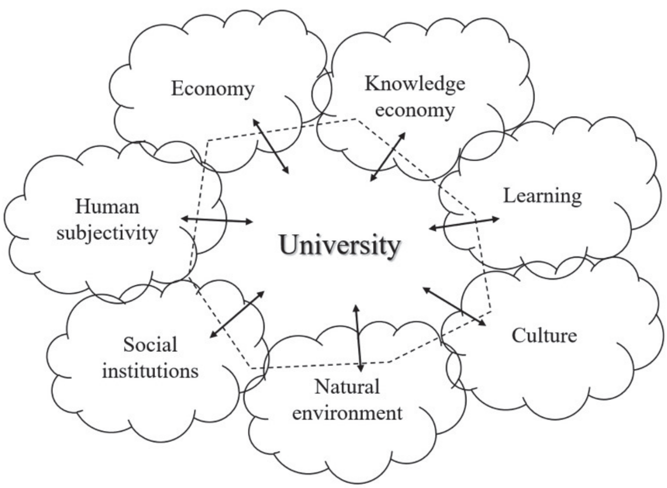
[1] Songlines carry laws and stories of the First Nations, indigenous peoples of Australia. For more, see: https://www.commonground.org.au/learn/songlines.

continuing interest in doing all in its powers to go on perpetually in helping to strengthen or improve the environment" (Barnett, 2018, p. 74). For Barnett (2018) the ethos, pathos and logos of the ecological university is "orientated towards the totality of the Earth's ecosystems […]" and it is an institution that reflects on itself and "builds its ecological leanings into its whole way of approaching and interacting with the world" and the seven ecological zones it inhabits (p. 77). In other words, the ecological university aims to shape and influence the seven ecological zones depicted in Figure one using its character, credibility, and ethics (Ethos), emotions and imagination (Pathos) and logic and evidence (Logos).

The seven ecosystems and the ecological university

Ecosystems are dynamic and fluid wherein every factor depends on every other factor, either directly or indirectly, and any change within that ecosystem effects change throughout the entire ecosystem because everything is connected and interdependent. This has implications (ontological and epistemological) for how we engage with and in the world. All universities, the *ecological university* included, according to Barnett (2018) inhabit seven ecological zones, which we now discuss.

Figure 1
The ecological university (adapted from Barnett, 2018, p. 67)



The first zone, *the knowledge economy*, refers to the production and circulation of knowledge (the epistemological). Critical issues within this zone are related to power and access to knowledge. In short, whose knowledge counts, how is it used, and who has access? At the same time, knowledge has the "power to extend the wellbeing of the world" (Barnett, 2018, p. 58), and the *ecological university* works to democratise and disseminate knowledge freely.

The second zone relates to the ecology of *social institutions*. The university is implicated in and formed by social institutions, which are often characterised by a multitude of potentially competing values and are influenced by external forces within society (e.g., globalisation). To illustrate, within the same university one may find strong neo-liberal market orientations with a focus on rankings and revenue creation and simultaneously contrasting orientations that refer to service for society and the common good. The *ecological university* is aware of this multitude of pressures in society and can direct its institutional effort towards options for advancing the wellbeing of the world.

The third zone *persons* refers to human subjectivity, human development, being and becoming (the ontological), and values and valuing (the axiological). In the *persons* ecosystem, universities have a responsibility for the formation of students and for the influence the university asserts on all within the immediate community, i.e., the *persons* affected through its actions and activities such as internationalisation. A further issue in the *persons* zone is the boundaries to academic freedom and autonomy. Within the *ecological university* there is an awareness that knowledge and education are not value free, and that its meaningful contribution to society is geared to raising the critical awareness of value orientations that work against the wellbeing of our planet while advancing orientations that promote harmonious relationships with nature and the natural world.

The *economy* is the fourth ecological zone, and how universities contribute to the local, national and global economy. The *ecological university* frames its engagement *in* and *with* the world not only in economic and/or financial terms. It will be beneficent, holistic, and include other sources of benefits in its economy other than purely monetary. Its investments will be framed by 'an ethical dimension' (Barnett, 2018, p. 63) and it regards its economic interests as one of many considerations that inform how it acts internally and engages externally locally, nationally, and globally.

The fifth ecological zone pertains to *learning* and learning systems at societal and individual level. As these evolve and new learning technologies emerge, the *ecological university* advances organisational and social learning in the wider society, by adopting and advancing new spaces for learning and ways of working with communities and social groups such as, for example, through collaborations with museums or documentary makers and social online learning platforms. The *ecological university* is constantly and dynamically adapting and evolving within the learning ecology to enhance the learning of individuals by creating formal and informal life-wide learning that takes place across the lifespan in a boundless, borderless, international, and potentially global learning environment.

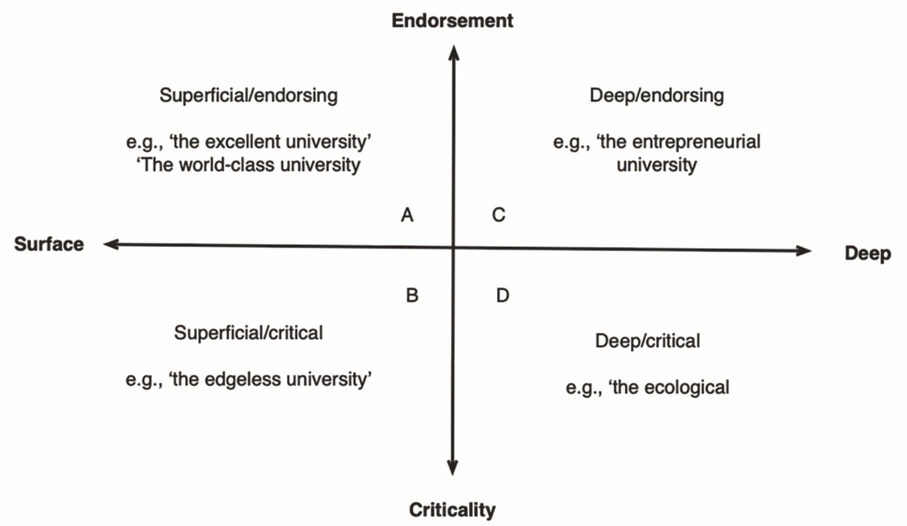
Culture is the sixth ecological zone. The ecological university understands that it is not culture free, but rather positions its own cultural disposition as one of "care, openness, and generosity" (p. 55). The *ecological university* is concerned with the culture and the "social fabric" in society and is not indifferent to what affects these both locally and globally (Barnett, 2018, p. 55).

The seventh ecosystem is the *natural environment*. In addition to caring for the environment, the *ecological university* embraces a deep environmental ethic and demonstrates solidarity with the natural world and all its living and not living subjects through its being (ontology), knowledge (epistemology) and values (axiology). According to Barnett (2018) each ecosystem is present in "the university itself" (p. 55) and universities therefore have a responsibility to attend to each ecosystem to pro-actively shape and influence itself and its relationship with the wider world aligned to the UNSDGs. The *ecological university* sees its responsibilities extending beyond a narrow focus on its rankings and position in the neoliberal economy. Its orientation is outwardly focused and its missions and vision and its activities like internationalisation are focused on the realisation of a better tomorrow.

Two axes of the imagination and the ecological university

How we imagine the university, Barnett (2013) postulates, can be categorised along two axes: surface versus deep and endorsement versus criticality as depicted in Figure 2. The university in quadrant A is imagined through constructs of "quality, audit, and excellence" and functions within the current neoliberal paradigm and forms of globalisation primarily for its economic benefit. The imagining in quadrant B is one wherein the university is "edgeless", "virtual", "borderless". The "edgeless university", according to Barnett, fully and critically embraces technology and is "fluid in the forms of [its] knowledge generation and communication processes" and "critical of universities" themselves (p. 56). Surface and critical universities are concerned with how "the manifest forms of the university", advance or perpetuate contemporary policies, and/or "work in the interests of the large power structures in society" (Barnett, 2013, p. 56). Barnett (2013, p. 56) describes deep/endorsing universities (quadrant C) as "pernicious", "of the moment", and thoroughly "ideological". The imagining in the entrepreneurial university endorses neoliberalism, which paradoxically Giroux (2020) contests is at war with higher education and embraces markets and competition. The *ecological university* is characterised by its deep (reflective, not superficial) and critical (not perpetuating or reproducing) engagement with the social and global ecosystems as depicted in quadrant D. The *ecological university* works toward redressing inequities in society, advancing improvements in social and personal wellbeing and/or in “helping to develop the public sphere” (Barnett, 2013, p. 56).

Figure 2
Two axes of the imagination (Barnett, 2013, p. 55)



The deep/critical *ecological university* challenges what is happening in society, and therefore the hegemon of the dominant neoliberal imaginary. It questions what is taken for granted or accepted as normal. The *ecological university* is values driven and, therefore, not an institution that superficially endorses the UN SDGs. Rather it deeply, and with vigour, promotes them. Deep/critical universities will ask hard, critical questions: *Is this necessary? Why are we doing this? How is this contributing to community, society, to the planet? How does this enhance equality and access, wellbeing and living for all people and living things, and natural ecosystems and environments?*

The challenge for faculty, institutional leaders and international staff is how to realise these *feasible* utopian aspirations and goals as Barnett (2018) describes them in practice. The International Business School Maastricht and the European University Network exemplars highlight how such *re*-imagining can be achieved in very different yet practical ways.

The International Business School Maastricht (IBSM) Exemplar

Climbing mountains or travelling great distances can be done by taking, small steps. To shift an institution of such complexity as the modern university from a superficial low level of engagement with sustainability to a high and deep level of engagement with sustainability through all its functions, requires not only re-imagining, but courage and collective action. Curriculum innovation undertaken by IBSM provides an example of what is possible where collective action was taken to give an ecological twist to internationalisation of their international business programme. The School's mission is to guide their "young professionals to become resilient business leaders with a global mind, who can act as change makers for a sustainable world".

The IBSM's mission statement is deliberately future-focused and aligned with the UN SDGs. The School's mission statement and the associated curriculum innovation project were informed by the UNESCO Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) statement (2014) that states, responsible citizens should be able "to take informed decisions and responsible actions for environmental integrity, economic viability and a just society, for present and future generations, while respecting cultural diversity" (p. 12). By incorporating this dimension into the mission statement, the objective was to inform and guide the design of learning and pedagogy across the School's curricula. A second informing source was Leask's (2015) internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) definition which involves the "incorporation of international, intercultural, and/or global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods, and support service of a program of study" (p. 9).

In support of the IBSM curriculum innovation, Gregersen-Hermans (2021) outlines a series of values-based themes related to Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) and IoC for the formal curriculum. Epistemologically, these include developing understandings of humans as being intrinsically part of the one Earth Community and of systems thinking; and ontologically focused on action, competence and excellence. ESD aims to create the willingness and ability of students and graduates to really act on issues (praxis) that are addressed by the UN SDGs. IoC reflects the same virtues as ESD which finds expression through its focus on developing graduates who are responsible global citizens that not only understand international and local perspectives, but also how these impact the local and the global contexts. Central to both ESD and IoC is promoting equity in society and responsible behaviours, which is encapsulated in the International Business School's mission statement and social imaginary.

To address the themes of respectfulness, inclusiveness, justice, and equity in ESD and IoC and better promote thinking globally in the business curriculum, IBSM developed a two-year learning pathway *Intercultural Business*. The OECD Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) model of Global Competence formed the conceptual underpinning for the design of the Intercultural Business learning pathway.

The curriculum innovation project resulted in several lessons learned. First, to achieve the intended learning outcomes pertaining to educating graduates with responsible global minds, ESD and IoC need to function as a joint defining lens for the curriculum as a whole and not just for the learning pathway. Second, a focus just on sustainability, in terms of *its environmental dimension,* was insufficient. It lacked depth and criticality, and therefore ethos, because in effect they meant *merely* maintaining the status quo and/or trying vainly to return to some imagined previous state. A collaborative and critical approach afforded opportunities to re-imagine the curriculum from the perspective of the UN SDGs and to "reach beyond the institution by engaging in sustainable and inclusive social change in line with the civic mission of the institution" (Gregersen-Hermans, 2021, p. 461). Third, to achieve the radical changes needed to support students to develop into graduates who are globally minded change makers, it is important to frame the curriculum as a social space wherein students and lecturers reflectively and critically explore the present imaginary of their curriculum and the businesses they are working with, which frame and populate the knowledge and ways of being in the discipline in order to begin the work of *re*-imagining. Fourth, further learning emerging from the IBSM experience is the pivotal role of lecturers. There is a fine ethical line between coaching students towards a more sustainable worldview and the lecturers' own values and norms. Lecturers need to be aware of their own positionality to be able to create a curriculum that is a safe social space and allows for open and critical debate. Working collectively through the design and development of the Intercultural Business learning pathway increased the potential to be more conceptually imaginative and radical, as well as more courageous in approach to the design for learning and deciding what to integrate into curricula.

An ecological twist on the curriculum is one that envisions the learning and knowledge not purely through transmission, reception, transnationalism, and commodification of knowledge, but rather through the creation of an interdependent social space and collaborative action for the common good of our planet and all beings included.

The European University Network exemplar

A solitary university can be imagined as being a single thin strand of wire. This wire has some tensile strength and is robust under most conditions even over time with repeated bending, stretching or winding. However, through such repeated action it will lose its tensile strength and eventually snap or break. Take that same single strand of wire, weave or wind it together with other similar strands of wire and it is transformed into a strong, durable cable capable of holding the strain of impressive structures such as the Golden Gate Bridge. The *ecological university* is interconnected and networked as elaborated above. Being networked, it is far more durable and far more impactful than it could be if it were a solitary institution trying to effect change in any one, or all of, Barnett's (2018) seven ecologies.

The Erasmus+ programme on European Universities provided an opportunity for old and new consortia of universities to come together to "dream the impossible" and re-imagine the type of university that its members wanted to build together. The European University Networks promote the creation of

> transnational alliances of higher education institutions to develop and share a common long-term structural, sustainable and systemic cooperation on education, research and innovation, creating European inter-university campuses where students, staff and researchers from all parts of Europe can enjoy seamless mobility and create new knowledge together, across countries and disciplines. (European Commission, 2022)

This project invited universities to join a consortium with the goal to re-imagine what type of university its members wanted in a future without borders, where parts of their own institutions are spread throughout different countries. One example, the Aurora European Universities Alliance mission, reflects a deep commitment to social impact, engagement with communities, and academic excellence to influence social change, echoing the characteristics of the *ecological university*. The alliance's vision is for member universities to graduate European students who are willing and able to tackle the most challenging issues that society faces, in the same way as the International Business School Maastricht. Partner universities, through three integrated work packages (learning for societal impact, engaging communities and sustainability pioneers), are also committed to addressing four global challenges as priorities; a. sustainability and climate change, b. digital society and global citizenship, c. health and wellbeing, and d. culture, diversity and identity.

In this way, alliances, such as the Aurora Alliance, do not merely *endorse* the UN SDGs. Member universities enact and/or demonstrate through their actions and imaginative orientations a deep/critical, rather than a superficial/endorsement approach to addressing these challenges. Collectively they have more resources, greater reach, and potential to be more impactful than if they are to act alone.

For institutions such as the Universitat Rovira i Virgili (URV), member of the Aurora Alliance, being in an alliance means that several change processes happen simultaneously, as the institution contributes to the construction of the alliance. First, institutions evolve, which is the URV experience, and as their internal ecosystems change and adapt to their new environment, they are able to more deeply and critically re-imagine how to position themselves and respond to the conditions and challenges in the seven ecosystems (Barnett, 2018). Second, the alliance itself evolves as new institutions add their unique features, strengths, and qualities to it. Through, and precisely because of, the interactions and interconnectedness with the other universities in the alliance, member universities are afforded new and unique opportunities to grow and advance in different ways than they would have done individually. The *ecological university* values interconnectedness, and by being a member of the Aurora European Universities Alliance the URV has evolved and forged new relationships with and for the world. The URV experience demonstrates that membership of an alliance, consistent with the values of the *ecological university,* does not necessitate the sacrifice of institutional identity and uniqueness, as the alliance not only respects but values diversity in membership and the individuality of its members. An alliance that seeks to assimilate instead of integrating, that does not promote and maintain cultural coexistence and respect for identity and differences, is not epistemologically nor ontologically *ecological*. In the alliance ecosystem, all individual partners have a place as an equal among partners.

The principles of the *ecological university*, also applicable to alliances, involve active concern, exploration, wellbeing, epistemological openness, engagement, imagination and fearlessness (Barnett, 2018). *Active concern* for the world is also linked to the interconnectedness, to the societal engagement and the third mission of universities (Hudzik, 2015). Concern for the world is an important driver of alliances built to address the challenges of the world by uniting forces of individual member universities. *Exploration* means to continuously explore possibilities to reach the full potential of the member university, or alliance, in the world by expanding its own boundaries. *Wellbeing* guides both alliances and member universities to contribute to the world's wellbeing from all angles and disciplines. *Epistemological openness* prepares the member university to be open to new ways of conceiving the world. In the case of alliances, the strong links with other universities from different cultures greatly incentivise this ecological principle. *Engagement* means with *all* within an alliance, as well as society at large; and with known disciplines and other domains of knowledge in an interdisciplinary approach. *Imagination* must be developed at all levels in order to escape as much as possible the bureaucratic tendency of universities, thus helping to construct the image or vision of what might be, and connecting to the utopian aspirations of the *ecological university*. *Fearlessness*, demonstrated through alliances and member universities starting and then maintaining critical and open dialogues, encouraging debates that may go against the commonly accepted, addressing controversial issues and pushing boundaries, and allowing criticism of itself and within itself. This calls for a culture of openness, the courage to listen to the Other, and even allowing and learning from self-doubt.

Returning to the illustration of the single strand of wire transformed into a highly durable cable, the URV alliance experience has demonstrated the powerful potential of university alliances through their solidarity and unity to address the complex issues that the world is facing and realise the objectives of the UNSDGs. By re-imagining internationalisation, the URV and the other Aurora Alliance universities can create the necessary interconnectedness to build today's much needed bridges to a better, more sustainable, future. Alliances increase the ideation potential of individual members and, through collaboration, afford new ways for collective responses and utilisation of the wisdom of individual universities for the benefit of society.

Conclusion

In conclusion, both the International Business School Maastricht and Aurora Alliance exemplars highlight the potential of re-imagining possible and feasible alternative approaches to the internationalisation of higher education across all its missions. The *ecological university* offers a powerful way to counter the negative hegemonic forces of globalisation and neoliberalism across each of the seven ecosystems within the university itself and extend outward into society. To address the issues besetting communities and society today, and into the future, the *ecological university* emphasises the need for humanity to look at the earth from an entirely different perspective and at the ways we position ourselves within this ecosystem. For this to happen, as we argue, *humanity*, *us*, *we, you and I* need to be able to escape the striated and territorialised spaces (Deleuze & Guattari, 1988) of the neoliberal social imaginary as Rizvi (2017) maintains. The imaginary of the *ecological university* has the potential to put a new deep/critical and ecological twist on higher education internationalisation that is orientated toward the betterment of *all in working with – rather than against- the world, its inhabitants and nature.*

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CHAPTER 3

Higher education internationalisation and civic (dis)engagement

JOHN K. HUDZIK AND JENNIFER A. MALERICH

Abstract. The focus of this article is on adjusting higher education's internationalisation efforts to more robustly address civic or community engagement in the context of globalisation. It examines institutional factors that divert attention and service from local civic engagement toward global frames of reference. It presents strategies for how institutions can begin to address internationalisation with reciprocally beneficial linkages between the local and the global – in learning, research, and problem-solving civic advancement. It views community-relevant internationalisation as a key factor in building public support for higher education internationalisation generally.

Global ranking schemes and higher education mission biases are principal causes of the drift away from local and regional civic engagement. Both factors bias priorities toward a goal to become national and global elite institutions based on instructional quality and research productivity, rather than civic-relevant advancement per se. Likewise, traditional orientations to internationalisation reinforce the importance of teaching/learning and research/scholarship missions, but it gives short attention to community service and problem-solving for a global context.

Keywords: civic (dis)engagement; co-production engagement models; internationalising outreach; community inclusive internationalisation at home; public diplomacy/education; local/global reciprocity.

L'articolo si concentra sull'adeguamento degli sforzi di internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore al fine di affrontare in modo più incisivo l'impegno civico o comunitario nel contesto della globalizzazione. Il contributo esamina i fattori istituzionali che distolgono l'attenzione e i servizi dall'impegno civico locale verso un contesto di riferimento globale. Inoltre, presenta strategie che consentono alle istituzioni di iniziare ad affrontare l'internazionalizzazione con collegamenti reciprocamente vantaggiosi tra il locale e il globale – nell'apprendimento, nella ricerca e nell'avanzamento civico orientato alla risoluzione di problemi. Oltre a ciò, la ricerca considera l'internazionalizzazione rilevante per la comunità, un fattore chiave per costruire il sostegno pubblico all'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore in generale. I sistemi di classificazione globale e i pregiudizi sulle missioni dell'istruzione superiore sono le cause principali dell'allontanamento dall'impegno civico locale e regionale. Entrambi i fattori spingono le priorità verso l'obiettivo di diventare istituzioni d'élite nazionali e globali basate sulla qualità dell'insegnamento e sulla produttività della ricerca, piuttosto che sull'avanzamento civico di per sé. Allo stesso modo, gli orientamenti tradizionali all'internazionalizzazione rafforzano l'importanza delle missioni di insegnamento/apprendimento e di ricerca/scuola, ma prestano poca attenzione al servizio alla comunità e alla risoluzione di problemi in un contesto globale.

Keywords: il disimpegno civico; modelli di co-produzione dell'engagement; internazionalizzazione l'apertura; internazionalizzazione inclusiva e comunitaria a casa; diplomazia/istruzione pubblica; reciprocità locale/globale.

Framing the issue[1]

A special edition of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* was published in 2021 entitled, "Reimagining Internationalisation for Society" (Leask & de Gayardon, 2021). This publication included several authors associated with CHEI and was a welcome and helpful addition to the literature on the topic. The coeditors rightfully point out that there are limitations to the scope of the finally assembled articles. Leask & de Gayardon (2021) cite such limitations as the absence of "articles that analysed and evaluated initiatives that intentionally and purposefully address internationalisation for society" and articles that examined, "the internationalisation of research for society" (p. 25).

The current article partially addresses these omissions through a lens that highlights the *for whom and why* of community-engaged internationalisation. The emphases of higher education on teaching/learning and research/scholarship missions, and less toward the *third mission* (community engagement and community problem-solving, and advancement) are issues throughout higher education and not just associated with internationalisation. Internally and externally, institutional reputations are heavily weighted by the reputational quality of teaching and published research.

Inequities in community access to knowledge and skills is a companion issue: few institutions are pursuing dual missions of excellence and open access for all qualified applicants, not just access for the *most* highly qualified (Crow & Dabars, 2015). The parallel issue with respect to international learning is that it is not provided for all learners and majors on campus and to very few in local communities. In research, few institutions give attention to discipline-based, peer-reviewed quality of research on the one hand and successful problem-solving community outreach applied research on the other.

While attention to matters such as advancing global social development (such as laid out in the Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2020) have gained the attention of higher education, global ranking schemes and competition among institutions to be among *the global elite* emphasise the teaching and research missions of higher education (for example, in criteria related to student admission requirements, GPA, completion rates, and research grant funding, publication citation rates,

[1] Concepts and ideas for this chapter were initially developed between 2016-2018. They were first presented by John Hudzik at a 2016 conference held at Nelson Mandela University in South Africa, and given a more fulsome treatment in a second conference and formal paper delivered there two years later. Material was further refined at several international conferences. The current article is a substantial revision and update of an article published in 2019 through NAFSA, entitled "Higher Education Civic (Dis)Engagement and Internationalisation" (Hudzik, 2019).

and more broadly in choosing institutional comparison and peer groups). This latter behaviour is most evident when searching for inter-institutional partners where general institutional pedigree becomes a key driver of matchmaking.

As a result, there are escalating allegations that higher education institutions are disengaging from service and assistance to the societies in which they are located and historically connected (e.g., Hazelkorn, 2017; Putman, 2000; Scott, 2017; Tufts & Thomas, 2017). Instead of manifestly expanding capacities with positive social value in their local communities, higher education institutions' focus on elitism and exclusivity contributes to both vertical (among individuals) and horizontal (among groups) inequity.

Higher education internationalisation may be a factor that pulls institutions, consciously or unconsciously, away from local community frames of reference toward global ones. Hazelkorn (2019) has, "concerns that pursuit of global reputation and status have come at the expense of social responsibilities" (p. 4).

Not all critiques of higher education are justified, but there is enough frequency to suggest an uncomfortable disconnect generally between higher education institutional aspirations and the societies they serve, as well as inadequate attention to helping localities effectively connect globally. While some institutions provide material support to internationalise local K-12 curricula and teaching, or partner with local/state businesses to develop international opportunities or assist with easing transitions of immigrants, such activities are not pervasive, nor systematic for the vast majority of institutions. Also, community-engaged internationalisation is paid less attention in research, publication, and commentary compared to international education and research.

Civic or community disengagement produces strong critiques of higher education generally (e.g., APLU, 2011; Arum & Roksa 2011; Erkkilä & Piironen, 2014; Grau et al., 2017; Mehaffy, 2012). Critics especially warn of declining attention paid to local priorities, problems, and capacity building (Grau et al., 2017). As public attention to the social responsibilities of higher education expands (e.g., in the United States, Europe, and globally)[2], higher education internationalisation will not escape the need to be more obviously and effectively engaged with local and regional communities.

[2] Consider, in addition to sources noted in the text: the EU's *Connecting Universities to Regional Growth;* OECD's *Higher Education and Regions: Globally Competitive Locally Engaged;* the Australian Universities Community Engagement Alliance; the Carnegie Elective Classification for Community Engagement; and the UK National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement.

Higher education internationalisation, globalisation, and civic (dis)engagement

Inadequate attention to helping societies negotiate the challenges of globalisation through public education, public diplomacy, and community problem solving exacerbates reactions to globalisation (and perhaps to higher education internationalisation by association). Together, these fuel reactionary public opinion and politics, often in the form of political and social populism. There are both left-wing and right-wing versions of populism, but as Fareed Zakaria notes in the November/December 2016 issue of Foreign Affairs, "All versions share suspicion of and hostility toward elites, mainstream politics and established institutions… [and] sees itself speaking for the forgotten ordinary person and often imagine itself as the voice of genuine patriotism" (p. 9).

A consequence of civic disengagement is that those with power, money, and influence get preferential access. With enterprise education (Marginson & Considine, 2000), the socially excluded "social-problem-owners" at the local level (Benneworth, 2017, p. 254) are disadvantaged and ignored. Brexit, the 2016 U.S. presidential election, and the spread of twenty-first-century right-wing populism can be traced in part to the downsides of globalisation and the great unevenness in who benefits, who has access, and who gets hurt.

While many in higher education embrace internationalisation as a prerequisite for *relevant* higher education in the twenty-first century (as they should), a civically *disengaged* higher education internationalisation can cause globalisation and internationalisation to conflate – guilt by association for the latter. Community support for internationalisation depends on society seeing benefits *in its terms* from it.

Framing the scope and balance of the civic disengagement challenge

An institution's *society of location* has several reference points patterned in concentric circles, beginning with local town/city/region, then to nation, and outward to global humanity (DeGioia, 2011). These concentric circles are not mutually exclusive; an individual can have multiple societal identities and responsibilities from citizen of *my* town to citizen of the world and in between. This is similarly the case for higher education institutions, albeit in varying degrees.

Local versus global engagement is not a zero-sum game. Rather, the contemporary challenge for higher education is to (a) connect the benefits of internationalisation to its local and regional communities and (b) balance attention and cross-learning to the local and the global (Hudzik & Simon, 2012). Disengagement from the local is one issue. However, so is finding a balance between local and global. On the one hand, to engage in cutting-edge scholarship and learning, institutions must access global pathways of ideas, talent, and innovation. On the other, local communities are impacted daily by global forces. Higher education institutions can be a bridge to help the local interface with the global. Germane twenty-first century institutions blend local and global engagement to be relevant and effective in both environments.

While it remains unclear the degree to which anti-globalisation spills over to taint higher education internationalisation per se, a perfect storm of (a) globalisation producing winners and losers, (b) higher education disengaging from local society and going global, and (c) free-market mechanisms that produce inequalities through commercialisation and deregulation coalesce to make universities easy targets of populism (Tufts & Thomas, 2017).

The UNESCO-supported Global University Network for Innovation (GUNi) devoted its 2017 report, which was more than 500 pages and features more than 80 contributors (from every continent), to the topic of social commitments by universities. The introduction framed its purpose:

> to analyze the dual responsibilities of universities at the local and global level, exploring the potential conflicts, and intrinsic difficulties, in addressing both the local demands of society based on the race for global competitiveness and the local and global demands to contribute to a more equitable and sustainable society (at local and global levels). (Grau et al., 2017, p. 37)

Goddard (2017) differentiates between "what is a particular university *'good at'* in terms of the quality of its research and teaching (as reflected in national and international league tables) but also what is it *'good for'* in terms of its contributions to society *globally and locally*" (emphasis added) (p. 115). Goddard's views carry implications: (1) global rankings and league tables pull institutional priorities toward global measures of academic reputation defined by the academy (e.g., publication in peer-reviewed journals or reputation among other academics worldwide); (2) *good for* begs the question, *good for whom* or *what*. For instance, faculty careers and institutional stature? Or solving global grand issues such as poverty, environment, and health? Or, good at addressing local challenges (some of which are local manifestations of global grand challenges)?

If insiders of higher education internationalisation (e.g., on-campus students, faculty, and the institution's stature) are the main beneficiaries, critical views of globalisation advantaging elites and ignoring the problems of local society and ordinary people are reinforced.

The literature of civic disengagement and general critiques of the value of higher education point toward university behaviours unbalanced away from local or regional society. For example, issues arise regarding allegations of inattention to documenting *community* outcomes or impacts of its actions or from globalisation; priority given to publications that are relevant to disciplinary standards, and global rankings, but not readily connected to urgent societal issues; students not prepared for relevant jobs; money spent on research without an answer to *useful for what*?; and out-of-control costs. In reaction, the introduction of performance-based funding for higher education is spreading globally even though there is disagreement over what the appropriate outcome criteria and measures should be (Kelderman, 2019).

In a balanced environment, universities build bridges between the local and global and between the theoretical and the applied. Civic engagement is important for setting some priorities, although not all. Sheila Patek (2016), a research biologist at Duke University, was criticised for wasting time and money on research into the strengths of mantis shrimp and trap-jaw ants – until it was discovered *later* that there were applications of this basic knowledge to materials-engineering and design.

Under coproduction models of engagement, research theory informs practice; what is learned in application revises theory. In the twenty-first century, institutions must also balance and reciprocally interconnect their missions of teaching, research, and service, both locally and globally.

Models for civic engagement for higher education and internationalisation

More robust civic engagement paradigms have been variously labelled: publicly engaged scholarship (Glass et al., 2011); engagement scholarship (Fitzgerald & Simon, 2012); systemic engagement (McNall et al., 2015); and knowledge coproduction (Hudzik & Simon, 2012). These models blend knowledge discovery and application with applications contributing reciprocally to knowledge discovery – a model pioneered in clinical psychology (Shakow, 1969).

One model is called the *quadruple helix* (Arnkil et al., 2010). The quadruple helix represents a shift towards systemic, open, and user-centric innovation policy (including from local to global community frames of reference in defining priorities and solutions). Top-down, expert-driven development models give way to forms of coproduction that incorporate the input of consumers, customers, and citizens (Goddard, 2017). The European initiative "Responsible Research Innovation" is a similarly envisioned engaged scholarship: the focus of research and innovation is on achieving a social benefit, the involvement of all stakeholders of society, and the prioritising of social, ethical, and environmental impacts, risk and opportunities (Banda, 2017).

If one accepts the underlying proposition of these engagement paradigms, a reciprocal learning between the theories/assumptions and practices/applications of internationalisation would benefit not only from interactions with internal clientele (e.g., students, partners abroad) but with community *problem holders* at home. That is, extending the notion of internationalisation at home from internal institutional clientele to include civic engagement. "Local needs require local proposals in global frameworks and global challenges require local solutions that are locally accepted" (Grau et al., 2017, p. 42).

Integrating higher education internationalisation and civic engagement

One core challenge for internationalisation at present is to help move community discussion and action beyond visceral reactions to globalisation and to build higher education and community linkages for addressing globalisation challenges and opportunities through civic engagement.

To whom do we speak and who is seemingly ignored?

Higher education internationalists have tended to emphasise inward communication about globalisation and internationalisation. They speak mainly to the converted, such as their peers in international education conferences or to constituents inside the academy. They are reinforced within their echo chambers. They speak less effectively or not at all to the larger numbers in society who are not a part of higher education, many of whom see themselves as pawns on the global chessboard.

Replacing barriers to engagement with enablers

The *third* mission of higher education – community engagement and service – is often the poor stepchild by comparison to teaching and research missions. Revising antiquated institutional notions of community engagement, pejoratively labelled the third mission, could partly be addressed by defining the teaching and research missions to integrate civic engagement purposes. An overarching institutional culture of support for community engagement would provide a reinforcing environment for the civic engagement of internationalisation.

Civically engaged internationalisation must fit the institution and the community to be successful; therefore, institutions and communities will individualize efforts. However, several initiatives are likely to enhance interactions in most circumstances:

1. An institutional culture that supports in rhetoric and action the importance of civic connectivity in local *and* global terms.
2. An overarching institutional commitment to assess impacts on its society of location, incorporating criteria voiced by community stakeholders.
3. Ongoing institutionalised civic/university dialogue to build deep understanding and solutions regarding challenges and opportunities of globalisation.

A Heuristic List of Actions to Internationalise Civic Engagement

The list of possible actions described below is neither complete nor necessary in all cases. It is a list with a heuristic purpose – that is, to trigger ideas for action.

1. Expand the meaning and practice of internationalisation at home beyond the on-campus classroom to include community-focused and community-located learning opportunities for globalisation and internationalisation. For example:
   - Jointly plan and sponsor events, such as symposia, performances, social meet-and-greets, and mutual learning venues including multicultural festivals, theme events, and opportunities for dialogue.
   - Promote productive interactions involving immigrant, ethnic minority, and majority populations aimed to ease non-majority populations into local society.
   - Work with K–12, intermediate school systems, and local professional associations to develop learning opportunities through internationalised curricula, active learning opportunities, and professional development for both traditional student populations and adult continuing education students.
   - Work within the local community to identify and fulfil the need for language translation services within immigrant communities, building on the skill of faculty or international students.
   - Provide consulting services to local businesses seeking to be more inclusive or increase their global competencies and connectivity.
   - Employ higher education research, analysis, and policy skills to document how globalisation plays out locally, moving beyond anecdotal evidence and resulting in the coproduction of prioritised challenges needing workable solutions.
   - Work with local employers to develop upskilling opportunities for underemployed workers, designed to help community members operate effectively within the rapidly changing and globally connected 21st-century workplace.
2. The international office should encourage and partner within the institution to do the following:
   - Develop the institution's strategic internationalisation plan and allocation of effort to meaningfully include civic engagement.
   - Interconnect agendas of various institutional offices that support civic engagement (e.g., international office, service-learning, institutional outreach, community development, etc.).
   - Form teams of institution and community talent to identify and resolve challenges.
3. Ask tough questions at the beginning of strategic institutional decisions relating to the interface of local/global. For example:
   - How will a decision to pursue global rankings impact localities; if pursuing global stature, how can community needs and benefits be factored in?

- Can developing inter-institutional partnerships abroad be designed to benefit both the institution and communities of location?
- Can international development work abroad have a reciprocal component of development-at-home, including mutual learning and problem-solving?
- How can opportunities be structured for returning-study-abroad students to share experiences and learning in community-based venues and service-learning contexts, as well as on campus?
- How can opportunities for international students to meet and dialogue with community groups and to engage in mutual learning and cross-cultural understanding be broadened?

4. Regularise community input for internationalisation efforts. For example:
   - Seek local input that prioritises local challenges arising from globalisation and develop locally acceptable and applicable responses.
   - Establish a community/institutional advisory commission to systematically engage on a long-term basis over issues of globalisation, internationalisation priorities, and community problem and solution identification.
   - Consider what processes and structures will best incorporate the local voice in setting institutional priorities, such as:
     - preparing workforce-ready graduates for a local economy in a global context; or
     - expanding community cross-border economic opportunities, connections, and partnerships, and building community access to ideas and markets.
   - Establish as-needed institutional/community working groups for issues of focal importance, such as countering job loss from businesses moving abroad; developing a community profile to attract business/employers from abroad; integrating immigrant populations; identifying global and disciplinary skills needed in new graduates, and identifying and developing global markets for local products or services.

Conclusion

Not all problems of globalisation will be solved by greater attention to universities' civic engagement in their internationalisation efforts. What seems clear, however, is that institutional civic *disengagement* is not helpful for the societies in which higher education institutions reside, nor does it vitalise long-term community support for higher education and its continued internationalisation.

Higher education internationalisation benefitted from a relatively encouraging environment over the last few decades, but now faces a more cautious and reflective environment that requires the narrative and actions of internationalisation to be more inclusive of its beneficiaries.

Recent commentary by some suggests weakening support for higher education internationalisation (Altbach & de Wit, 2018). Fischer's (2019) views on the topic are summarised in her article's title – *How International Education's Golden Age Lost its Sheen*. Yet, globalisation is not going away, and in more complex local and global environments, the need for internationalisation increases. A speed bump in public and political support is not a brick wall in the way of continuing internationalisation. Rather, it is a call to re-envision higher education's internationalisation to be an instrument of more robust civic engagement.

The relationships between globalisation, higher education internationalisation, and local society have suffered from a deficit of higher education attention and action focused on the intersections of these domains. Systematic attention to these issues, rather than a retreat from internationalisation, is the prescription for increased relevancy and impact within these cautious times.

Another dimension to the ideas raised in this chapter is that they speak in opposition to the concept that institutions must be exclusive in order to be excellent and protect rankings and stature. If you only accept the top students from secondary schools, it is easy to be highly ranked, with top graduation rates and playing to the criteria employed by ranking schemes (Crow & Dabars, 2015). You are given a head start, but you also limit civic access to the benefits of higher education.

Fully embedding an institution in the local community may mean accepting responsibility for the economic and social welfare of that community. Components of such responsibility include making the opportunity for higher education more widely accessible and addressing community challenges and opportunities. Internationalisation is a large gateway for admitting and dealing with both challenges and opportunities from globalisation. Addressing the challenges and expanding the opportunities from internationalisation requires a civically-engaged higher education internationalisation.

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CHAPTER 4

Openness in higher education: a path beyond tribalism and towards global mindsets

Jérôme Rickmann and John L. Dennis

Abstract. Open minds, open borders, and open societies are fundamental for flourishing societies (Norberg, 2020; Pinker, 2018; Ridley, 2010). Openness is vital for innovation and is fundamental for progress (Welzel, 2013). We argue that openness is fundamental for resolving grand global challenges like populism, forced migration, digital disinformation, and climate change and that higher education internationalisation practitioners have an important role to play in defending openness.

Keywords: openness, tribalism, global mindsets, grand challenges, internationalisation.

Menti aperte, frontiere aperte e società aperte sono fondamentali per la prosperità delle società (Norberg, 2020; Pinker, 2018; Ridley, 2010). L'apertura è vitale per l'innovazione ed è fondamentale per il progresso (Welzel, 2013). Proponiamo che l'apertura sia fondamentale per risolvere grandi sfide globali come il populismo, la migrazione forzata, la disinformazione digitale e il cambiamento climatico e che gli operatori dell'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore abbiano un ruolo importante da svolgere nella difesa dell'apertura.

Keywords: apertura, mentalità tribale, mentalità globale, grandi sfide globali, internazionalizzazione.

Introduction

Flourishing humanity results from open minds, open borders, and open societies where people are free to experiment, argue, and exchange ideas (Norberg, 2020; Pinker, 2018; Ridley, 2010), and the same elements are vital for humanity's ability to innovate (Ridley, 2021). We refer to *openness* mainly in the sense of Karl Popper (2013) contrasting "open societies" with "authoritarian societies". Thus, we understand *open* as a frame of mind and set of norms aligned with liberal democracy, envisioning individual freedom of choices, plurality, and diversity of worldviews, attitudes, and ways of life (Popper, 2013; Smith & Seward, 2017). Arguably, the underpinning principles of Popper's (2013) "open society" are more of an ideal than a fully materialised reality anywhere in the world. Still, it is the pursuit of this openness, which has been a fundamental cause of the progress that large parts of humanity have experienced over the last century (Welzel, 2013).

Higher education internationalisation researchers and practitioners committed to the project of sustainable, fair, liberal democracies but also representatives of a "tribe" believing in varying concepts of "Global Citizenship" (Horey et al., 2018) have an important role to play in defending and rebuilding the pursuit of "openness" across the globe.

In this article, we argue that tackling the global grand challenges (e.g., US AID, 2021, UN, 2021, Gates Foundation, 2021) of our time demands innovation born by collaborating "open societies" (Popper, 2013). Two prerequisites are a reinvigorated narrative motivating and framing large-scale collective action and a particular mindset to prepare the organisational ground for innovation. We provide context for our argument–i.e., higher education, and use global narratives and global mindsets as transformative tools for systemic change, and impactful collaboration that benefits, ultimately, the common good.

Grand challenges and higher education

While there are several well-respected and well-documented global grand challenge lists, governing bodies like US Aid, and the UN and private philanthropic organisations like the Gates Foundation converge around the idea that there are grand challenges–i.e., specific barriers that if overcome/removed would help solve an important societal problem that would have a global impact if implemented on a wide scale (US AID, 2021, UN, 2021, Gates Foundation, 2021). Global grand challenges are essentially interconnected problems that are complex (i.e., have intricate feedback loops and often involve non-linear solutions), where outcomes are uncertain and require cross-national and cross-disciplinary efforts (Ferraro et al., 2015).

Where are higher education institutions situated in all of this? Societal expectations for these institutions are considerable, as there is a belief that they have a central function in developing strategies and technical innovations for solving these global grand challenges. Given the stakes, higher education institutions' adaptability and legitimacy have been and will be tested, since global collaboration is paramount for these institutions in navigating these challenges (UN, 2021). The continuous internationalisation of higher education (de Wit et. al., 2015) has an important role in facilitating both the finding of solutions but also creating the culture and framework for the search for those solutions.

To live up to these expectations, the prerequisites need to be underscored with openness at the core and its corollaries of equity, collaboration, and the circulation of knowledge and talent (Ridley, 2021). Innovation is far less plannable and controllable than governmental policies often suggest. Higher education, therefore, needs to shake things up repeatedly for the right pieces to fall into place, while not being certain what or who the right pieces are. Thus, the idea of societies trying to control the complex systems that form the building blocks necessary for their flourishing is the very opposite of what is needed in the internationalisation of higher education.

Concrete examples of an "illusion of control" may serve, including capping international student numbers, as discussed in the Netherlands, and carried out in Denmark; treating international students worse than local students as often witnessed during COVID-19, or political pressures to cut research links with Russia regardless of content or context. Many of these measures may serve good reasons but they also hinder serendipitous innovation and progress because they are the opposite of openness. Universities and the societies they reside in need to reinvigorate their commitment to the principle of openness (Peters & Britez, 2019) because if there is no "one" way forward then figuring out what needs to be done requires a commitment to openness and its resulting experimentation, transparency and the willingness to collaborate on a large scale (UN, 2021).

We are "tribal" and that is the challenge

The global grand challenges demand intense collaboration across borders, stakeholders, public, common, and private interests (USAID, 2021). The type of collaboration that is necessary to confront these grand challenges is more than communication, interaction, and cooperation. It is the joint long-term pursuit of common, interdependent, and complex goals (Lundin, 2007) that require deep levels of trust, compromise, and flexibility as internal and external contexts are continuously changing (Kinsella-Meier & Gala, 2016).

Addressing these grand challenges is hindered, in part, by the fact that humans are "tribal" by nature (see for example Buchanan, 2020; Clark et al., 2019; Haidt, 2012). Arguing that we are tribal means that group membership and group loyalty have been an integral part of successful survival strategies for millennia – and the result is that these groups and loyalties have produced and cemented all sorts of related biases. These biases include things like ingroup bias (the tendency to give preferential treatment to others they perceive as members of their group – Mullen et al., 1992) or outgroup homogeneity bias (the tendency of individuals to see members of their own group as being more varied than members of other groups – Judd et al., 2005) – all of which can be seen from leader/member exchanges at the organisational level (see for example Yu & Liang, 2007).

Especially when groups feel under pressure, the effects of tribalism tend to undermine collaborative efforts by forcing people to choose between *us* and *them* thereby rendering compromise as a sign of weakness (Clark et al., 2019). So, while these *grand challenges* demand large-scale collaboration, they contribute simultaneously to the divisive pressures between and within our societies. Thus, we use the term *tribal* here referring to its use in political sciences, to highlight group formation processes, and not in an ethno- or anthropological sense to describe a specific people and/or form of social formation (Clark et al., 2019).

"Tribalism" works on a discursive level, where we share stories about what unites and differentiates us from others. This is the realm where we formulate arguments to justify our collective behaviours and where we produce our certainties and knowledge about the "other." Both on a societal and organisational level. But "tribalism" also works on an individual level, where we select, accept, and buy into these stories, where we identify with a social collective, a "we" (Clark et al., 2019). For higher education internationalisation, this "tribalism" makes finding and implementing grand global solutions to challenges like the rise of populism, forced migration, digital disinformation, and climate change much harder.

While a division between "us" and "them" may be unpreventable, even warranted, we should not primarily draw these lines between people based on their *nationalities* but between their *ideologies*. We need to divide between a progressive world focusing on the wellbeing of our planet and flourishing humanity, and the "old world" – looking to hold on to 20th-century nationalism and power structures. Seeing the need for extensive global collaboration while simultaneously accepting its complexities and obstacles calls for reflection on mitigating the effects of "tribalism" in our societies, which often play out *directly in our organisations*. Given that all collaboration, be it on a national or organisational level, is rooted in human interaction, we argue that we need to take a human-centred approach, while at the same time being mindful of the stories which shape our social realities and context. We need to remember that the "tribes" we feel committed to are the historic results of ever-ongoing social negotiation processes. Thus, not unchangeable, our tribes are in flux despite their seeming stability. Therefore, if we theoretically agree that "tribal" effects have a concrete impact but in principle constitute the conditions for social organisation and collaboration, these "tribal" effects must therefore also be changeable.

Global mindsets – from individual to organisational global mindsets

Cognitive psychology tells us that the problems we are trying to solve produce the cognitive tools necessary for succeeding (see for example, Bassok & Novick, 2012) while social psychology tells us that we become what we do (see for example, Rothbart, 2011). Therefore, creating environments and opportunities which encourage and foster collaboration and joint problem-solving is paramount for tackling global challenges (Waytz, 2019).

The term "global mindset" has a long history in the humanities and social sciences, yet there is a considerable diversity of definitions aiming at both individual and organisational mindsets. Within cognitive psychology, a mindset is a set of cognitive processes which have been developed based on previous attempts to solve tasks or problems and includes an assessment of situations and what we should do in those situations (Dweck, 2017; French II, 2016; Gollwitzer, 2012). From a cognitive psychology perspective, similar mindsets do not equal or require similar worldviews as they are formed by concrete acts of problem-solving. Thus, they are specifically process-focused and not a set of assumptions jointly forming a worldview. My collaborator and I can have very different worldviews, but we may develop similar mindsets when trying to jointly solve the same problem. Mindsets point towards how we choose goals and then how we implement those goal choices.

A definition of the global mindset which aligns well with cognitive psychology has been introduced by Lane et al., (2009), and they define it as "the capacity to develop and interpret criteria for personal and business performance that is independent of the assumptions of a single context and to implement those criteria appropriately in different contexts" (p. 14). Such a mindset is the foundation for understanding and acknowledging differences, and utilising this mindset is fundamental given the need for achieving a greater goal. It is not a naïve romanticisation that is shying away from calling out different and conflicting ideologies and value systems, but it is a prerequisite to finding solutions to work jointly on the greater picture. It is the prerequisite to overcome disagreement not by dissolving it but by living with ambivalences produced by simultaneously existing value and power systems. We simply cannot afford to stop working on populism, forced migration, digital disinformation, and climate change solutions on a global scale.

Mindsets have considerable far-reaching implications for higher education internationalisation, especially when we consider how they are formed and how they serve individual and organisational problem-solving capabilities. It suggests that an imperative for collaboration fosters exactly those cognitive processes needed to create successful collaborative environments as a first step. Further, it is much more important for an organisation to follow a "philosophy of collaboration" to solve a certain issue, than immediately knowing exactly how to solve the issue itself. What is important here is a continuous, intensive engagement with the task at hand. Given the unpredictability of collaborative efforts, this inherently means risking resources, as attempts will fail. From this perspective, a global mindset becomes a facet of organisational culture and habitus rather than an organisational strategy. Collaboration, in this way, becomes simply the way one operates, a collective habit and way to approach challenges as its value is taken for granted. While individual collaborations might not be the most efficient or impactful way to work, it is the most efficient way to create an environment, an organisational culture, which enables collaboration at the scale needed (see for example, Lane et al., 2009).

Openness as narrative imperative

In a world full of global grand challenges and rising geopolitical tensions, there are no simple answers. However, practitioners in higher education internationalisation have an important role to play as advocates for openness both in our universities and our societies. Research by the World Values Survey, especially that of Inglehart (2018) and Welzel (2013), and Rosling's work (2018, 2020) tell a beautiful, data-rich story about the power of openness to transform societies–such that humanity is progressing by almost all known standards and on a global scale despite horrific events regularly occurring. Things are far from perfect, but there is well-founded hope in the power of openness – i.e., evidence that it is well worth trying. Such truly global perspectives and hopeful stories can connect and articulate who "we" are and what a "Global We" could look like that overcomes tribal egoisms (see Gottschall, 2012; Grimalda, 2015). The narrative that is proposed is the story of openness that is a prerequisite for trust, and where trust is a prerequisite for collaboration (Kaplan et al., 2015; Schein & Schein, 2018). The openness narrative emphasises the unwavering conviction that one should see one's fellow human for nothing other than a fellow human. And that this respect for one's shared humanity enables collaboration on a large scale despite all real and perceived differences. These realisations should provide the basis for a reinvigorated interest in the openness narrative. Thus, while a new, hopeful, progressive, and inclusive narrative provides the reasoning and "building material" to construct collaborative social realities, it needs specific individual and organisational mindsets to prepare the organisational and societal environments for large-scale innovation.

To further innovate, we international educators need to keep practising openness and developing our global mindset by experimenting with our ways. We should ask ourselves: How can our internationalisation know-how provide stronger support for the finding of solutions? How can we, for example, partner with curriculum developers in linking internationalisation, SDGs, entrepreneurship education, and social justice to name but a few dimensions which have lately competed for space in curricula (Cui, 2021; Gamage et al., 2022)? How can our programmes connect global innovation systems even better (Zahra & Nambisan, 2011) while supporting serendipity and unplanned encounters (Ridley, 2021)? How can we at the very least protect, if not strengthen, democratic values while still engaging with authoritarian parts of the world? Can we align more strongly between democracies without becoming a closed system ourselves? If not, when do we open up again? How do we balance the need to experience life, sameness, and otherness abroad, while reducing CO2 emissions? That could mean, for example, testing our assumptions about education and research quality by exploring collaboration with lower-ranked higher education institutions and/or new stakeholders at home and abroad. It could mean linking international education more closely to problem-based learning in global contexts. It could mean aligning mobility with specific societal affected-driven missions (Jones et al., 2021). The answers will differ from specific context to context. There will most probably not be an "either/or" but "this *and* that". The questions and means will keep changing – as life does – however, reflecting and connecting internationalisation practices and global collaboration with the big questions of our time remains a constant task at hand.

Openness to continuously attempting to solve this puzzle shapes the mindset necessary for producing the tools for success. Like planting seeds and working the fields, this is not a one-off, but a continuous work year in, year out on different levels. Our story of shared human progress produces flourishing societies when we exchange ideas, experiences, and people. Being open is what makes all that possible.

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PART II

INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE CURRICULUM AT HOME

CHAPTER 5

Internationalisation at home and virtual exchange: addressing old and erroneous approaches

Jos Beelen

Abstract. This chapter revisits the concept of internationalisation at home in light of the COVID pandemic and also of experiences and ongoing discourses on internationalisation. These include how internationalisation at home relates to diversity, inclusion and decolonisation of curricula. It discusses how the COVID pandemic has led to increased attention to internationalisation at home but also that confusion about terminology and the desire for physical mobility to be available to students may lead us to return to pre-COVID practices, in which internationalisation is mainly understood as mobility for a small minority of students and internationalisation of the home curriculum is a poor second best. A component of this chapter is how Virtual Exchange and Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) have moved into the spotlight during the pandemic but were already in focus areas well before. This will be illustrated by some recent developments in internationalisation at home, mainly from non-Anglophone, European and particularly Dutch perspectives.

Keywords: internationalisation at home, internationalisation of the curriculum, virtual exchange, COVID pandemic, misconceptions.

Questo capitolo rivisita il concetto di internazionalizzazione a casa alla luce della pandemia COVID, delle esperienze e dei dibattiti in corso sull'internazionalizzazione. Questi dibattiti includono il modo in cui l'internazionalizzazione a casa è legata alla diversità, all'inclusione e alla decolonizzazione dei curricula.

In questo capitolo si discute di come la pandemia COVID abbia portato a una maggiore attenzione per l'internazionalizzazione a casa, ma anche del fatto che le idee sbagliate e la confusione terminologica possono portarci a tornare alle pratiche pre-COVID, in cui l'internazionalizzazione è intesa principalmente come mobilità per una piccola minoranza di studenti.

Una componente di questo capitolo è il modo in cui lo scambio virtuale (VE) e l'apprendimento internazionale collaborativo online (COIL) sono balzati alla ribalta durante la pandemia, nonostante fossero già aree di interesse ben prima. Nel contributo vengono descritti alcuni dei recenti sviluppi dell'internazionalizzazione a casa dal punto di vista dei Paesi Bassi.

Nel complesso, questo capitolo fornisce indicazioni sul mio sviluppo come ricercatore sull'internazionalizzazione a casa a partire dalla difesa del mio dottorato di ricerca presso il CHEI nel 2017.

Keywords: internazionalizzazione a casa, internazionalizzazione del curriculum, COVID-pandemia, concetti erronei.

Introduction

The COVID pandemic has led to a renewed interest in internationalisation at home (IaH). While this is, in itself, a positive turn, the pandemic also revealed a lack of understanding of the concept and its implications for teaching and learning. Now that we may have entered a new phase of the pandemic, we can but wonder if and to what extent old misconceptions and practices will return.

The pandemic paralysed student mobility, but that aspect did not affect the vast non-mobile majority of students who would not have studied abroad under normal circumstances anyway. Statistics show that 22% of Dutch students had an international mobility experience in the academic year 2015-2016 (Statistics Netherlands, 2018).

A positive aspect of the pandemic was that it temporarily reduced the C02 imprint of mobility considerably, which is what we were striving for before the pandemic. This was in contrast to – paradoxically and ineffectively – seeking to stimulate student mobility, e.g., through the Erasmus Programme, for more than thirty years. Yet, the pandemic also reduced the opportunities for domestic engagement between students, and therefore also between students with different cultural backgrounds. In response to this, universities stepped up their initiatives for students to engage with students abroad through Virtual Exchange (O'Dowd & Beelen, 2021).

Internationalisation at home is discussed in the discourse of post COVID internationalisation, e.g., by Ferencz and Rumbley (2022, p. 284). Yet it is unclear how different parts of the world may be affected by COVID, or similar pandemics, in the years to come. Therefore, internationalisation at home in relation to the effects of COVID and other emergencies is a topic that will keep its relevance.

Beyond internationalisation abroad

It has long been manifest that student mobility would continue to remain an option only for a small "cultural elite" of students (Saarikallio-Torp & Wiers-Jenssen, 2010). While attempts to increase student participation in mobility have continued, it can be doubted, looking back at the past thirty years, that they will have much effect. Still, it is important to understand the factors that influence participation in mobility.

A recent study by Nuffic (Favier et al., 2022) tried to identify which Dutch students were least likely to go abroad and why. The study showed that students who represent the first generation in their families to enrol in higher education were the least likely to go abroad. Students from families with a high income were more likely to go abroad. This correlation was clear for students in research universities, but less so for students in universities of applied sciences, who more frequently go abroad for (paid) internships.

Partly in response to the exclusive character of student mobility, attention over the past two decades shifted to opportunities for internationalisation at the home institution. More than twenty years ago, internationalisation at home was defined as "Any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility" (Crowther et al., 2001, p. 8). Well before the pandemic the limitations of this definition had become manifest. One key issue is that it does not explicitly mention the focus on all students. Another is that it presents an activity-based approach to internationalisation, while we have since shifted to an outcomes-oriented approach, requiring study programmes to determine in advance what the learning outcomes of their internationalisation practices should be. This focus on outcomes is manifest in the European Certificate for Quality in Internationalisation (CeQuInt; see Aerden, 2015) and has been frequently referred to in the literature (see for example Jones & Killick, 2013; Leask, 2015).

Internationalising learning outcomes through action research with academics was the subject of my PhD study at CHEI (Beelen, 2017). During the same period, recognising the inadequacy of the earlier definition from 2001, Elspeth Jones and I redefined the concept of internationalisation at home to include two key aspects: the focus on all students and the need for intentional interventions, in order for learning outcomes to be achievable. Our definition states that internationalisation at home is: "...the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments" (Beelen & Jones, 2015).

This revised definition addresses the opportunities for international and intercultural learning from diversity, both from diverse cultures in the local student and wider population as well as from working with students from other nations. It sought to clarify the notion of IaH, in particular for those working in European international offices, who may have been charged with developing internationalisation in their institutions and engaging academics in the endeavour, but who might not themselves relate as easily to the idea of internationalising the curriculum (as defined by Leask, 2015, and widely adopted elsewhere).

While the 2015 definition of IaH has been frequently cited as valuable in practice (see for example Jones & Reiffenrath, 2018), many practices labelled as "internationalisation at home" still simply focus on activities rather than on learning outcomes. Such practices are in line with the original definition of internationalisation at home (Crowther et al., 2001, p. 8), which explicitly mentions activities but not their purpose, as identified through learning outcomes.

The emphasis on learning outcomes relates to the work by Leask (2015), Clifford (2014) and others on internationalisation of the curriculum, and is connected to the discipline and its graduate competencies profile, as a recent study by Bulnes and De Louw (2022) confirms.

Old and erroneous approaches to internationalisation at home

During the COVID pandemic many practitioners turned to internationalisation at home and virtual exchange as an alternative for mobility programmes. This demonstrates that mobility is still perceived as the leading practice in internationalisation, with internationalisation at home merely seen as a second-best alternative. However, IaH is crucial if the vast majority of students, who are not mobile, are to have the possibility of gaining global perspectives through the curriculum

Well before the pandemic, it had been stressed that the home curriculum should be considered the fundamental basis of internationalisation for all students with international mobility, adding value for the limited group of students who are able and willing to study abroad. This was pointed out by de Wit (2011, p. 13) and Jones phrased it as follows: "Mobility needs to be seen as adding value to an internationalised curriculum, not as the focal point of internationalisation efforts" (Jones, 2020, p. 181).

However, the setting of high targets for mobility by the European Union, national governments and higher education institutions continues. For example, in its recent White Paper (No. 7, 2020)[1], the Norwegian government outlines that study abroad should be the norm for all students and that the target is for at least 50% of Norwegian students to graduate with a period abroad as a component of their study programme.

A common misconception is that specific components of internationalisation at home are confused with the concept as a whole. For example, the idea that integrating incoming international students at their host university is equivalent to internationalisation at home. However, at many continental European universities, only a minority of home students may study together with incoming international students. Therefore, a commitment to integrating international students does not reach the full potential for internationalisation at home, which should be for all students. This approach can be considered a *pars pro toto* effect, by which a specific part of IaH is

[1] https://diku.no/en/news/white-paper-on-student-mobility-a-summary.

seen as equivalent to delivering internationalisation at home as a whole (Beelen, 2019, p. 41).

The focus on activities rather than outcomes, as described here, was evident in a report by Universities UK, published in the summer of 2021 (Universities UK International). The report is titled *Internationalisation at home – Developing global citizens without travel; international activities delivered at home: showcasing impactful programmes, benefits and good practice.* It contains examples from three Anglophone countries: the UK, the US and Australia.

While it is undoubtedly useful to have examples of activities, which can be replicated in whole or in part, in different contexts, the outcomes of these activities will differ across contexts and disciplines. The examples in the report are electives, focused on Virtual Exchange and it is not clear how the idea of 'global citizens' in the title is understood or intentionally addressed.

The debate on internationalisation at home and of the curriculum

Many practitioners in internationalisation of higher education consider internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask, 2015) and internationalisation at home as different and somehow competing concepts, while they should be considered interwoven concepts that overlap and are essentially the same (Beelen & Jones, 2018).

Still, much time is lost in debating the difference between the terms and much less in stressing that neither internationalisation of the curriculum nor internationalisation at home are aims in themselves, but instruments to enhance students' competences.

Conceptual confusion

In addition to misconceptions about internationalisation (at home) itself, there is also confusion about how internationalisation relates to other conceptual notions in higher education.

A survey conducted among institutions for vocational education in the Netherlands, in 2022, revealed considerable confusion about the intersection between internationalisation and global citizenship (Guérin & Beelen, 2022). Some respondents considered these as identical, while others considered internationalisation a subset of global citizenship and vice versa. The focus of both internationalisation and global citizenship was perceived as the building of intercultural competence and respondents moreover saw a strong overlap with diversity and inclusion. This terminological and conceptual confusion tends to cloud the current discussion. Perhaps the trend to discuss the broader concepts of diversity and inclusion, rather than internationalisation, is an indicator of a degree of fatigue in the discourse on internationalisation of higher education.

Diversity and inclusion

During the pandemic, the discourse on internationalisation seems to have shifted increasingly in the direction of diversity and inclusion. Internationalisation at home does not figure prominently in this discourse, yet the connection between inclusion and internationalisation at home merits some attention.

In the Dutch study by Nuffic (Favier et al., 2022) those first-generation students who did go abroad reported their motivation for doing so as acquiring intercultural competence, personal development and international orientation. It can be argued that students can also develop these in their domestic environment as well.

Internationalisation at home, while aiming to involve all students, is not inclusive by default. Some students may feel more comfortable with perspectives from other countries and cultures. The social background of students was found to be a relevant factor for their choice of internationalisation at home activities in a study by Van Mol and Perez-Encinas (2022). However, for internationalisation to reach all students, it must go beyond electives and be integrated in the core curriculum.

Internationalisation and decolonisation

Diversity and inclusion are also connected to the discourse on decolonisation of the curriculum, a concept that is currently much debated.

Views on the relationship between internationalisation and decolonisation differ. Some in the Global South consider internationalisation an imposed concept and therefore as a new form of colonialism. This criticism also extends to internationalisation at home (see e.g., Teferra, 2019) and of the curriculum (see Stein, 2017), although internationalisation of the curriculum and internationalisation at home emphatically incorporate engagement with the international and cultural dimensions of the local context, including indigenous knowledge (see Stein et al., 2016).

There is ongoing discussion on what decolonising the curriculum means and also what it requires from academics. Wimpenny, Beelen et al. (2021) raise the question of how "decolonising the academic self" relates to "internationalising the academic self" (Sanderson, 2008) and explore these concepts through auto-ethnographic research by five western European curriculum developers. Virtual Exchange with partners in the Global South brings issues of decolonisation within reach of every academic (Wimpenny, Hagenmeier et al., 2021), both for the colonisers and the colonised.

Colonial assumptions are often part of the hidden curriculum, defined by Leask (2015, p. 8) as "the various unintended, implicit and hidden messages sent to students". The hidden curriculum is also a focus area within internationalisation at home, just as with internationalisation of the curriculum, alongside formal and informal curricula. Internationalisation can be an instrument for bringing in a range of perspectives from different national, cultural and disciplinary angles. Decentring dominant paradigms and highlighting emerging paradigms are key elements of Leask's theoretical framework for internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask, 2015, p. 27).

Naomi van Stapele, Professor of Inclusive Education at The Hague University of Applied Sciences and I explored the overlap between decolonisation of the curriculum, internationalisation at home and inclusive education. We decided on the term 'pluriform perspectives', which includes perspectives from other countries, disciplines and cultures but also the perspectives of previously unheard or underrepresented voices (Beelen & Van Stapele, 2021). Pluriform perspectives, in our view, are an integral part of internationalisation at home and of the curriculum.

Virtual exchange and internationalisation at home

During the COVID pandemic, both internationalisation at home and Virtual Exchange suddenly stood in the spotlight. This revealed that the confusion about terminology and concepts were not limited to internationalisation (at home) but also extended to Virtual Exchange. A variety of alternative terms is used, such as telecollaboration and COIL (see O'Dowd & Beelen, 2021). This makes the discussion diffuse, with different people advocating or critiquing different versions (see e.g., Van Hove, 2021). There is not only confusion about the terminology around Virtual Exchange but also on how it relates to internationalisation at home and of the curriculum. One form of Virtual Exchange used under the label of internationalisation at home is that of preparation for mobility of students, but this form of IaH is therefore not for all students. The report of Universities UK (2021), discussed above, offers examples of how electives claim to fullfil the potential of internationalisation for all but, unless integrated into the curriculum for all students, they cannot meet the objectives of IaH.

Both Coventry University and The Hague University of Applied Sciences consider COIL as the most intensive form of Virtual Exchange (O'Dowd & Beelen, 2021). A comparative study of the two institutions' practices for COIL (Beelen et al., 2021) demonstrated a top-down approach to COIL at Coventry University versus a bottom-up approach at The Hague University of Applied Sciences. At both institutions, the alignment of COIL with other instruments for an internationalised curriculum was not obvious. The study found a tendency to develop "stand-alone" COIL practices that were not connected with other components of an internationalised curriculum and a lack of alignment with the many instruments to shape an internationalised home curriculum, such as comparison of cases and literature, comparative research and engagement with local international and cultural groups and organisations.

In the scramble to switch from physical to virtual mobility during the pandemic, many Virtual Exchange practices remained activity or experience oriented, with academics indicating that they needed support in designing and delivering Virtual Exchange. This has led the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science to connect grants for academics to (re)design Virtual Exchange practices with a programme of training and also with the requirement that educational developers are involved in the (re)design process[2].

Internationalisation at home (just as internationalisation of the curriculum) represents a requirement to reach all students. However, many Virtual Exchange practices still tend to be electives for a limited group of students. Indeed, "upscaling" such practices to include all students requires considerable effort and coordination with partner universities. This means that a COIL programme does not only require collaborative work by students but also by academics, both in design and in execution.

Virtual Exchange may not be as inclusive as it looks at first glance. During the COVID pandemic Internationalisation at Home activities at The Hague University of Applied Science revealed that not all students have equal access to connectivity and devices. This could be expected in the framework of Erasmus+ capacity building projects, for example with South Africa[3] but it also occurred "at home" in The Hague and prevented students from participating in local education and Virtual Exchange projects on line. The South African iKudu project mentioned here has already led to publications exploring COIL in relation to diversity and inclusion (see DeWinter & Klamer, 2021), but in general there is still a lack of studies on Virtual Exchange and COIL beyond case studies.

[2] www.dus-i.nl/subsidies/virtuele-internationale-samenwerkingsprojecten.

[3] www.ufs.ac.za/ikudu.

Conclusion

It is unclear which phase of the COVID pandemic we are now entering and how potential future waves of this or similar viruses may have an impact on student and staff mobility in different parts of the world. It is still too early to tell what lasting effects the pandemic has had on taking the home curriculum as the starting point for internationalisation for all students. In the Netherlands, we now see an influx of international degree–seeking students, which has risen to 40% in research universities (Statistics Netherlands, 2022b), showing that mobility is bouncing back. This influx is so large that it is causing universities to consider limiting the enrolment of international students (for which a legal base is lacking) and is leading to political debates (Scienceguide, 2022).

The increase in degree seeking mobility may be an indicator that mobility is resuming its place as the focal point in internationalisation practices and that the pandemic has not served to refocus interest in internationalisation at home or of the curriculum. The emerging focus on sustainable and inclusive mobility may even make mobility more acceptable and prevent critical perspectives on mobility practices. We will need to continue our research to establish what the pandemic has set in motion and what the effects are on the curriculum and its teaching and learning practices.

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CHAPTER 6

Internationalising the curriculum: the power of agency and authenticity[1]

AMIT MARANTZ-GAL AND BETTY LEASK

Abstract. Internationalisation is a core activity of universities today, and one in which academic staff play a crucial role. A decade of research into academic staff engagement in internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) has highlighted the importance of in-depth qualitative case-studies in which researchers collect detailed information over a sustained period of time in different institutions, programmes and contexts. This chapter analyses the results of multiple IoC case studies conducted in universities in Australia and Israel at different times over a ten-year period. Academic staff in six different discipline areas and four institutions were engaged in IoC. Taken together, the results of these studies provide insights into the process of IoC and key engagement points in it. It is concluded that IoC is best facilitated when the authentic perspectives, experiences and motivations of faculty are respected and institutions recognise their agency, leadership and differentiated needs in the process.

Keywords: internationalisation of the curriculum, agency, leadership, integrated professional learning.

L'internazionalizzazione è un'attività centrale delle università e in tale attività il personale accademico svolge un ruolo cruciale. Un decennio di ricerche sull'impegno del personale accademico nell'internazionalizzazione del curriculum (IoC) ha evidenziato l'importanza di casi studio qualitativi approfonditi in cui i ricercatori raccolgono informazioni dettagliate per un periodo di tempo prolungato in istituzioni, programmi e contesti diversi. Questo capitolo analizza i risultati di molteplici casi studio sull'IoC condotti in università australiane e israeliane in momenti diversi, in un periodo di 10 anni. Il personale accademico di sei diverse aree disciplinari e quattro istituzioni sono state coinvolte nell'IoC. Nel complesso, i risultati di questi studi forniscono una visione del processo di IoC e dei punti chiave del suo coinvolgimento. Si conclude che l'IoC è meglio facilitata quando le prospettive, le esperienze e le motivazioni autentiche dei docenti sono rispettate e le istituzioni riconoscono la loro azione, leadership ed esigenze diverse durante il processo.

Keywords: internazionalizzazione del curriculum, azione, leadership, apprendimento professionale integrato.

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[1] Reprinted with permission. Marantz-Gal, A. – Leask, B. (2021), Internationalizing the Curriculum: The Power of Agency and Authenticity, in N. Smith-Isabell – P. Witkowsky – M. Cuyjet (Eds.), Faculty Perspectives on Internationalization Strategies in Higher Education, *New Directions for Higher Education*, *2020* (192), 39-50. https://doi.org/10.1002/he.20390.

Introduction

The internationalisation of higher education is a highly strategic practice in universities across the world today, driven by different rationales and purposes, but increasingly recognised as comprehensive and multi-faceted, influencing all areas of the university. The curriculum has been identified as a key area of Comprehensive Internationalisation (Hudzik, 2011). Internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) is the intentional process by which intercultural, global and international dimensions are integrated into a programme of study (Leask, 2015). As many institutions claim to educate *global citizens* and *world ready* graduates (Wimpenny et al., 2019), their internationalisation efforts necessitate a focus on curriculum (Leask, 2015). The fact that the vast majority of students will never be able to benefit directly from an internationalisation experience through traditional study abroad or exchange programmes (Trahar, 2013), makes an even stronger case for internationalisation of the home curriculum. It is an effective option for universities through which they can ensure that all of their students develop the essential intercultural and international knowledge, skills and attitudes required for citizenship and professional practice in an increasingly connected and yet divided and unequal world (Leask, 2013a).

Research has shown that faculty interpret IoC differently across academic disciplines, and that engaging academic faculty is critical to its successful implementation (Clifford, 2009; Green & Whitsed, 2013). Previous research has also demonstrated that internationalisation of the home curriculum is a complex process best directed towards the overall improvement of the quality of teaching and learning, through embedding intercultural and international dimensions into the content, pedagogy, learning outcomes, assessment and support services of a programme of study. Academic staff play a critical role in the process since they are the ones who control and deliver the formal curriculum – within the context of the discipline/s, the requirements of the professions and the policies and culture of the institution and its local communities. Student services and support staff working alongside and with academic staff also play an important role in IoC. They help to create a campus culture and service environment that acknowledges and respects diversity. The classroom and campus environment can be both enabling and constraining, allowing and supporting innovation and change in different ways and to different degrees. In summary, research has shown IoC to be a complex, contextualised concept and activity, interpreted, enacted and received in many different ways across academic disciplines and institutions in different national and regional settings (Leask, 2015).

A body of international literature exists about academic staff (sometimes referred to as *faculty*) and their role in IoC. A number of studies have reported that academic staff find it difficult to understand what IoC is and their role in it, and have concluded that they often actively or passively resist it (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2006). However, there are few studies that have explored in depth the *nature* of academic staff engagement in internationalisation. This is problematic in that it has resulted in a discourse of disengagement, which reinforces lack of engagement as the norm, and ignores the possibility that academic staff may be engaged in unique ways of which we are unaware (Leask, 2015; Leask et al, 2020). For example, they may be emotionally and intellectually engaged and committed to IoC, without taking any obvious action that demonstrates that commitment. Or, the actions they take may not be obvious to others. Academic staff who are engaged and committed to acting to internationalise all students' learning at home have also identified difficulties in working with their peers and have reported difficulties in initiating discussions, especially when there are a number of myths surrounding what is involved in IoC and why it is important to students and the university (Green & Whitsed, 2015b).

A decade of research into the process of IoC and academic staff engagement in it has provided insights into some of its theoretical and practical complexity and highlighted the importance of in-depth qualitative case-studies in which researchers collect detailed information over a sustained period of time in different programmes and contexts. Cross-case comparisons are particularly valuable when studying IoC because they provide insights into differences and similarities across contexts, which can be used to improve practice.

This chapter focuses on insights from case studies of faculty engagement with IoC in higher education institutions operating in two very different contexts, Australia and Israel. At different times over a ten-year period, faculty in six different discipline areas and four institutions were engaged in a process of IoC. They were involved in Action Research in which they shared their responses, motivations, and interpretations of IoC. Despite significant differences in national, regional and institutional contexts, these case studies provide useful insights into how faculty engage with IoC and the role of their agency and leadership in that process.

Internationalisation of the curriculum in action in Australia

The three Australian case studies presented here were conducted as part of a fellowship funded by the Australian Learning and Teaching Council in 2010, *Internationalisation of the Curriculum in Action*. The fellowship was designed to take account of "the differing cultures among different scholarly fields with respect to internationalisation" (Stohl, 2007, p. 368) and the increasing focus on IoC as the vehicle for preparing university graduates for life in a globalised world. Australian universities are well known for their recruitment of international students. Nationally, this has led to a perception of internationalisation of the curriculum as being primarily about international student recruitment and study abroad and exchange for Australian students, both the responsibility of the International Office. Prompted by critiques of this approach to internationalisation, focused on mobility targets/inputs and a small percentage of students, rather than learning/outcomes for all students, the fellowship sought to determine how faculty interpreted and approached IoC. Importantly, the focus of the Action Research was on exploring the potential of using IoC as a tool for critical course and programme renewal and quality improvement.

The overarching research question explored was: How do academic staff working in different institutional and disciplinary contexts interpret the concept of IoC? At the time this research was undertaken, studies of IoC in higher education were rare and primarily focused on a single institution and/or a single discipline.

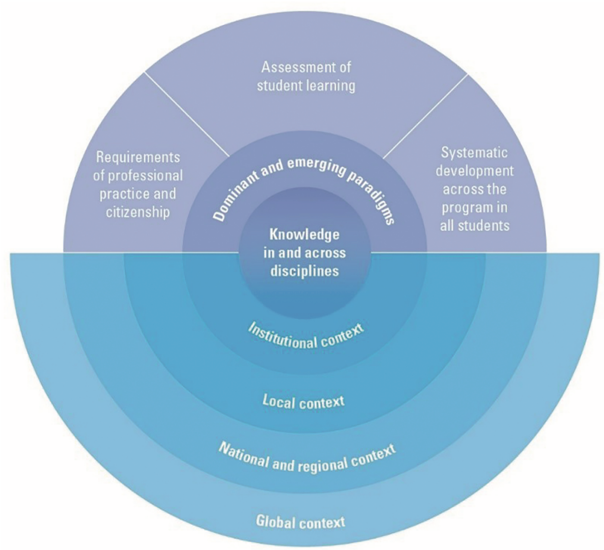
Teaching teams, collectively the primary architects of a programme of study in a university, were identified as key participants in the fellowship. Disciplinary case studies were selected based on a willingness of academic staff and the University to participate, and the need to cover a range of disciplines and universities. In total, in the recruitment phase the fellowship engaged 1700 participants in 15 universities. Work was conducted in the disciplines of accounting, applied science, art, journalism, law, medicine, nursing, public relations, management and social sciences in nine universities across Australia, in some instances in collaboration with educational developers and co-facilitators within the university. The three case studies reported here were those in which academic engagement in the process of IoC was sustained over a twelve-month period. In all three universities there was a committed co-facilitator, a trusted member of the university's teaching and learning unit or the faculty, working with the academic teams (Green & Whitsed, 2013).

In each case the programme leader and a group of three or four academic staff formed the core team. With the researcher, and their local teaching and learning expert/support person, these teams in accounting, public relations, and journalism interrogated existing ideas and practices of IoC, imagined new ways of thinking, and negotiated and explored directions for change. This process resulted in new conceptualisations of internationalisation *and* the curriculum, changes to programme and course learning outcomes, and the adoption of new pedagogies and new modes of assessment. These conceptualisations and the process by which they were developed, together with the literature, were used to inform the development of a conceptual framework and a process model for IoC (Leask, 2013b; Leask & Bridge 2013). An external evaluator and an international reference group provided formal and informal feedback on the research, and the development of both the conceptual framework and the process model over a two-year period to support the validity and reliability of the outcomes of the research.

In the case studies, IoC was introduced as "the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a programme of study" (Leask, 2009, 2015). Curriculum review was approached as a dynamic and fluid process influenced by a range of factors that shape and drive a lengthy and multi-dimensional process (Barnett & Coate, 2005). The researcher was positioned as an informed outsider to the team, whose role was to work alongside the disciplinary academic staff and local teaching and learning experts as they constructed the meaning and practice of IoC in their discipline and degree programme. This role included encouraging and challenging, supporting research needed to inform decision-making within the teams (e.g., into students and industry needs) and debating ideas and possibilities.

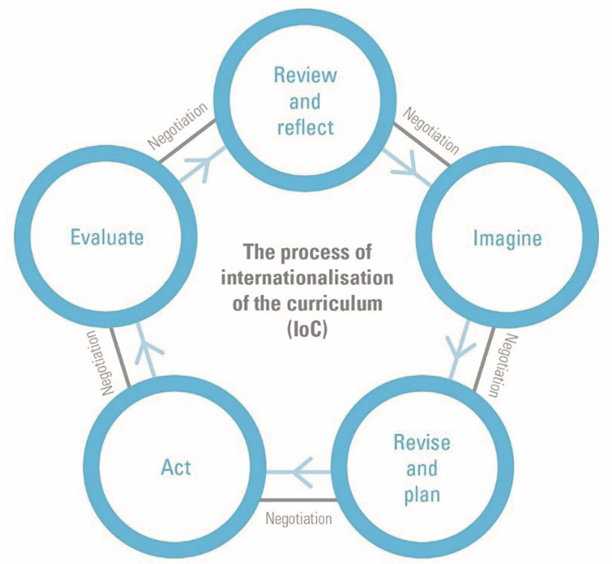
The Conceptual Framework (See Figure 1 – *Conceptual Framework of Internationalisation of the Curriculum*) situates the disciplines, the disciplinary teams who construct the curriculum, and interdisciplinary conversations, at the centre of the internationalisation process. The top half of the framework is concerned with curriculum design. The bottom half of the framework is concerned with the layers of context, which have a variable influence on the decisions academic staff make in relation to internationalisation of the curriculum. This half of the framework represents the layers of context influencing decisions on internationalisation of the curriculum. It explains variation in interpretations of its meaning in different disciplines and institutions and national and regional contexts and the complexity of internationalisation of the curriculum in a *supercomplex* world. A world in which the very frameworks by which we orient ourselves, are themselves changing and contested (Barnett, 2000, p. 257). Constant shifts in these layers of context mean that regular review and reconstitution of the curriculum should be a priority in universities.

Figure 1
Conceptual Framework of Internationalisation of the Curriculum (Leask 2010; 2015)



Another outcome of the fellowship project was the development of a five-stage Process of Internationalisation of the Curriculum and supporting resources. This process (see Figure 2) has been described in other published work (Leask, 2013b, 2015) but it is important to include here in order to understand the analysis of the case studies and their collective implications. Essentially a form of Participatory Action Research (PAR), the aim of the process is to create knowledge and take action that is directly useful to a particular group of people (Reason, 1994), involving that group of people as active participants in the research (Kemmis et al., 2013). The focusing questions related to each stage of the process are listed below.

Figure 2
Process of Internationalisation of the Curriculum (Leask 2010; 2013; 2015)



Review and Reflect

- Why is internationalisation important/relevant for graduates of this programme?
- In what ways and to what extent is our curriculum already internationalised?

Imagine

- What other ways of thinking about internationalisation in this programme are possible?
- What possibilities are there beyond the dominant paradigms?

Revise and Plan

- Given the above, what modifications will we make to elements of this programme, including content, learning outcomes, pedagogies, assessment, support services?
- How will we evaluate the impact of these changes?

Act

- What is the evaluation data we're collecting telling us about our progress towards achieving our IoC goals?
- Do we need to change anything?

Evaluate

- To what extent have we achieved our internationalisation goals?
- What do we need to do differently next time?

The process positions academic staff as part of an interdisciplinary community – working with an educational developer, external to the discipline but part of the scholarly community. All are equal and collaborative partners in the process, albeit with different roles (Green & Whitsed, 2013). There were a number of key learnings from the application of this process in three Australian universities.

First, the influence of different layers of context in the conceptual framework on the process of IoC was evident. For example, in the case of public relations, the "increasing demand of global companies and agencies for professionals with international/intercultural experiences" (Archer, 2009, p. 3) was noted by the team and they saw this as especially relevant to them given that the programme was also taught in Dubai and Saudi Arabia. However, public relations professionals working on projects within Australia also required intercultural competencies when working with multicultural groups and Australia's Indigenous peoples. The programme team were concerned about how to meet these seemingly competing national, international and global demands in the same programme. The IoC process provided them with the space to deal with all of these issues simultaneously, through a deep interrogation of the existing curriculum, and the imagination of new possibilities for content, pedagogy, and assessment across the entire 3-year programme.

For the journalism team, working in a highly ranked research-intensive university the IoC process provided dedicated time to grapple for the first time with their diverse perspectives on the role of journalism in perpetuating dominant political orders, thereby perhaps playing a complicit role in reinforcing unequal power relationships, in both local and global settings. They decided to address this in their programme by approaching IoC as a process of *de-Westernisation* and *decolonisation* of the curriculum, and a way of addressing the theoretical, practical, and professional challenges associated with the task.

In the accounting programme the focus was very much on aligning the IoC process to achieve an institutional commitment to graduate attributes, integrating it into content but also into learning outcomes related to teamwork, problem solving and communication. In this sense the process of IoC was technical, in that it was seen as a tool to achieve an institutional requirement while also improving the quality and relevance of the curriculum and increasing its alignment with the requirements of professional bodies. In that regard it assisted in making the institutional agenda relevant to the programme.

Second, the academic staff involved felt empowered to challenge dominant normative theoretical frameworks within their respective disciplines through a renewed focus on process in curriculum review. The support of a facilitator, an institutional insider or outsider, was an important part of this empowerment. Part of the facilitator's role was to challenge and question but also to step back at the right times, to ensure that the academic staff involved were free to act on their responsibilities for curriculum development in ways that honored disciplinary ways of knowing, doing and being (Green & Whitsed, 2013). In this way, the process of IoC enabled the academic staff involved to engage in deeply meaningful professional learning (Webster-Wright, 2009) whilst undertaking a process of curriculum review.

Third, in all three universities in the early stages of each project, the academic staff involved perceived a tension between their views of internationalisation and the university's approach to internationalisation, focused exclusively on the recruitment of international students. None had previously attended any professional development workshops run by the university on IoC. Some had assumed that anything the university ran would be concerned with the neo-liberal rationale for internationalisation and would therefore conflict with the more cooperative, internationalist ideologies they espoused (Green & Whitsed, 2015). The fact that the university was prepared to support their involvement in a project that allowed them to approach IoC from their own perspective, and focused internationalisation on an academic rationale, was seen as a positive change, a positive step towards resolving the conflict. The ongoing support of the senior leadership of the university, the educational development unit of the university and the programme leader during the project demonstrated a model of distributed leadership based on trust and respect for their autonomy and professionalism.

Two outcomes of the Australian fellowship, a Conceptual Framework of IoC and a 5-step Process of IoC (Leask, 2013b, 2015), provided the foundation for further research in different regional and institutional contexts. The framework invites dynamic interpretation of IoC that accommodates the unique contexts within which programmes are designed and students learn. It enables systematic comparisons across academic disciplines and between locales to emerge. The following Israeli research extended the work of Leask (2012, 2015) and Green and Whitsed (2015), inviting and exploring the engagement of individual academic staff and teaching teams with the IoC process in a completely different national, and institutional context.

Internationalisation of the curriculum in action in Israel

This research study explored responses, motivations, interpretations and enactment of 17 academic staff members engaged in the process of IoC in three disciplines: English for academic purposes, technological marketing, and social work. Following Leask's (2013b) research in Australia, the Israeli study approached IoC as a cyclical, reflective and negotiated process, resulting in a unique but likely imperfect *product*. The academic staff involved were invited to share their reflections when they were in different and unstructured stages of the process. Even though they were all simultaneously exposed to an initiative at an institutional level, their process of engagement with IoC was unique and authentic. They were encouraged to consider their immediate context, to reflect on their personal and professional experiences and to consider how these might shape their approach to IoC. The process was rooted in authenticity and it legitimated their unique way of being academic staff, teachers and human beings and connected this to the process of IoC. One of the key research questions addressed in this study was *What brings people to the IoC table?*, a second was W*hat motivates them to stay on board*. The initial responses of the study participants towards IoC and their stated motivations revealed insights into key engagement points. The research produced some of the first Israeli case studies of IoC.

The institutional context of the Israeli college in which the research was conducted is particularly interesting, because of the very small numbers of incoming and outgoing students. In this situation, academic faculty may find it difficult to understand why the curriculum needs to be internationalised, and therefore be unwilling to engage. This unique context, however, proved to be a rich space in which to study IoC, one in which the focus was almost solely on the value of an internationalised curriculum for home students, as well as the diverse opportunities within the local context to drive such a process.

While the three groups of academic staff who participated in this study generally expressed a positive and proactive attitude towards IoC, thematic analysis of interviews with the participants in each of the case studies revealed differences in their initial responses to the concept. The initial response of the English language staff revealed a strong need to have their expert opinion on IoC heard. The technological marketing team's first response was to consider how they could recruit IoC on a practical level, while the initial response of the social work team was to engage with the scholarship around IoC. They were curious about the intersection of the literatures of IoC and international social work.

The stark difference among the initial responses and types of engagement with internationalisation of the curriculum across these three discipline areas demonstrates the extent to which the disciplines and their academic cultures influence engagement with IoC. This finding is entirely consistent with the work on academic tribes described by Becher and Trowler (2001). The language teachers, for example, who saw themselves as a marginalised group due to perceptions of inferior academic status, approached IoC as an opportunity to re-position themselves. They felt empowered by it to voice an expert opinion on an issue of increasing relevance to the institution and one that they saw as integral to their work. The technological marketing lecturers, however, who have a strong action-oriented culture, immediately saw the practical value of using the IoC process as a tool to review and reform their curriculum. Finally, the social work team, coming from a discipline which values and cultivates processes of deep reflection, and also has a strong research orientation, sought to make sense of IoC on a more theoretical, academic level.

Previous research has described the many challenges involved with engaging academic staff in the process of curriculum internationalisation and keeping them on board over time (Green & Mertova, 2011; Leask, 2013a; Leask & Beelen, 2010). In their research, Green and Mertova (2011) identified two types of academic staff based on their orientation towards IoC: *transformalists*, who express a positive and engaged response and *transactionists*, who show little interest or understanding of the concept. They describe *transformalists* as academic staff with strong individual views of the concept of IoC who see themselves as agents of IoC and have both the power and a responsibility to put it into practice in their educational setting. For these academic staff IoC is a critical and transformative pedagogy, particularly relevant in the context of globalisation. *Transactionists*, on the other hand, engage little with the concept personally or professionally, typically viewing it in narrow transactional terms, such as for example the recruitment of international students, and having little to do with curriculum (2016, p. 229). In the Israeli case studies, most participants were *transformalists* in that they accepted that they had both agency and responsibility in the unique context of their academic department. The research highlighted the need to investigate this group of *transformalists* in more detail, in order to understand the more intricate nuances of what really makes them gravitate towards IoC in their authentic, unique academic and institutional context.

In terms of motivations, the participants in the case studies revealed similarities and differences across the disciplines. Those in the English for academic purposes team expressed a sense of urgency, a need to act quickly and respond to an ever-changing, globalised context, in which students needed more practical language skills in order to become successful global citizens. For the technological marketing team, the motivation to internationalise the curriculum was essentially driven by institutional leadership within the department. IoC was seen as a top-down process, established at the department level and then communicated to the team as a shared goal they were expected to achieve. They consequently embraced and saw the need to present a *globalised curriculum* and position the department as offering a unique, innovative and contemporary academic programme recognised as such nationally and internationally. Finally, for the social work team, the motivation was to raise the academic positioning of the school in the national context and attract more students to the college. Like the technological marketing team, the school of social work was hoping not only to attract more students, but also to position itself as a pioneer in offering a programme which is leading emerging trends in the social work profession. They saw such a programme as providing students with a curriculum which included areas of knowledge, experiences, and skills informed by and relevant to the global context. A more unique, discipline-specific motivation in this case was the perceived responsibility of the social work academic staff to educate graduates who will be skilled at engaging in a constructive, peace-building dialogue in the national and international contexts within which Israel is situated.

Analysis of the motivations of academic staff within a single institution, across three disciplines show that different academic teams express different rationales and incentives, lending further support to the view that IoC is a concept which is *received* differently across disciplines. However, whereas their responses were disciplinary-specific, their motivations were impacted by layers of context external to the discipline, such as the institutional, local, national and global contexts. In other words, motivations for IoC were informed by discipline-specific responses to the *world out there*.

Discussion

Internationalisation of the curriculum in the disciplines is theoretically and practically complex. It has traditionally occurred on the periphery of other academic activity, within disciplinary silos, with little guidance and support. The six in-depth qualitative case-studies across two countries, four universities, and six disciplines described above confirm and enrich the findings of previous studies (Clifford, 2009; Leask 2013b; 2015; Green & Mertova, 2016; Green & Whitsed 2013, 2015) and provide new insights into academic staff' motivations and understandings of the concept and the process which are captured in four principles described in detail later.

Taken together, the case studies suggested that there are important variations within discipline clusters, which confirm the value of inter-disciplinary conversations within and across disciplines. In both the Israeli and Australian cases, a significant attraction as well as challenge for academic staff was that the process of IoC often required them to rethink their beliefs about knowledge and pedagogy. This was sometimes uncomfortable, producing tension with colleagues and even fear that it might have a negative impact on their career, confirming the same finding by Clifford (2009). Approaching this as a team/programme activity facilitated by someone external to the discipline posed less risk to individual academic staff and opened opportunities for deep engagement, critique and inter-disciplinary conversations (confirming Leask, 2013b; Green & Whitsed 2013).

The cases also confirm that IoC should be integrated into the work of academic and professional staff across the institution for reasons of quality, modernisation and the social responsibility of higher education institutions to develop international and intercultural perspectives in all graduates. We found that, as a curricular tool, IoC can produce greater academic coherence, clarity and quality as well as deeper, more creative and productive engagement. It is important for academic staff that the process is rooted in their authentic reality, and that they have adequate institutional support to re-imagine their work. Approached in this way, IoC becomes a comprehensive, contemporary approach to curriculum design.

Finally, the case studies suggest four principles to guide the process of mainstreaming IoC within an institution. All four principles are related and connected.

The first principle is agency and authenticity

The process should be approached in ways that recognise the agency and authenticity of academic staff not as an isolated activity, a response to an external 'force majeure' which has no respect for context, experience, scholarship and possibilities for the future. This first principle can enrich the existing institutional culture around curriculum review and at the same time, establish it as a critical, scholarly activity.

The second principle is distributed leadership

Distributed leadership is essential for IoC. The identification and support of IoC champions and leaders within academic departments supports agency and authenticity. Leaders working within and across disciplines can recruit their unique academic context, inspire team members and contribute novel understandings of IoC to a cross-disciplinary institutional discussion.

The third principle is integrated professional learning

Approaching IoC as an opportunity for integrated community-based professional learning respects the agency and authentic motivations and needs of all involved and is a powerful tool for change. The immediate context and the experiences and perspectives that are shared in communities of practice openly legitimate and value the diverse cultures, contexts and experiences of those working within the institution. Landorf et al. (2018) found that IoC is best approached as a whole-of-institution endeavor, with a focus on continuous communication and improvement that recognises the important roles and perspectives of different groups, their agency and authenticity.

The fourth principle is resourcing

IoC requires resourcing to support agency and authenticity as integral parts of institutional strategy. Expert facilitation and interdisciplinary conversations leveraging agency and authenticity are crucial components of the process. IoC will not develop across the institution as a natural response to globalisation. The highly contextualised and complex nature of IoC has a number of implications for institutions. It is important to support diverse institutional, disciplinary and cultural interpretations of an internationalised curriculum but other important issues must also be considered. For example, issues associated with decolonisation of the curriculum, and the important roles that universities play in their local communities, as well as in the global community.

Conclusion

Collectively, in-depth qualitative case-studies of the IoC process across two countries and four universities involving a broad range of actors in curriculum design and production have provided valuable insights into the responses and motivations of academic staff to IoC. The data suggested that the central layers in Leask's IoC Framework (see Figure 1) – "Knowledge in and across the disciplines" and "Dominant and emerging paradigms" – were primarily responsible for the responses of academic staff to IoC in their disciplines. However, while the *way* in which academic staff were motivated to engage with IoC and the way they responded to it varied according to their academic culture, value systems, and identities, they all connected with the concept of IoC as transformalists, with the capacity and agency to develop their understandings of IoC into an authentic teaching practice (Green & Mertova 2016).

These insights have been captured in four principles which are useful for university and programme leaders, course designers and educational developers, who seek to inspire and sustain the engagement of academic staff in IoC over time to ensure high quality outcomes.

IoC should not be a completely unconstrained or unguided activity within an institution. Academic staff need support to interpret and enact it in ways that are consistent with the institution's mission and ethos. Simultaneously they need the freedom to interpret and enact it within the context of their discipline/s, associated professions and relevant educational theories. Internationalisation of the curriculum, approached as curriculum review and renewal that respects the agency and authenticity of academic staff and is appropriately resourced, is a powerful professional learning opportunity for academic staff and institutions.

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CHAPTER 7

From experience to expertise – different avenues leading to professional development for HE educators

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Abstract. The last decade or so has seen an increase in initiatives offering different kinds of continuing professional development (CPD) for educators managing higher education (HE) programmes and teaching in the international classroom. This chapter outlines the kinds of CPD that have been evolving and identifies some common traits in these activities across institutional networks, multi-year projects, and short seminars and workshops. The most sustainable interventions seem to be those that are established as part of a clear institutional strategy with leadership support and encouragement, and those that include some form of peer learning that may lead to communities of practice after the event. An expert mentor working with participants during or after the event is important, and a multidisciplinary approach involving experts in intercultural competences, language experts, higher education internationalisation experts, and educational developers seems to add to the successful outcome of the CPD initiatives.

Keywords: continuing professional development; internationalised programmes; teaching and learning; educational development; new pedagogical skills and competences; intercultural competence.

Negli ultimi dieci anni si è assistito a un aumento delle iniziative che offrono diversi tipi di sviluppo professionale continuo (SPC) per gli educatori che gestiscono programmi di istruzione superiore e insegnano nelle classi internazionali. Questo capitolo delinea i tipi di SOC che si sono evoluti e identifica alcuni tratti comuni di queste attività tra reti istituzionali, progetti pluriennali e brevi seminari e workshop. Gli interventi più sostenibili sembrano essere quelli stabiliti come parte di una chiara strategia istituzionale, con il sostegno e l'incoraggiamento della leadership, e quelli che includono una forma di apprendimento tra pari che può portare a comunità di pratica dopo l'evento. Un mentore esperto che lavora con i partecipanti durante o dopo l'evento è importante, e un approccio multidisciplinare che coinvolga esperti di competenze interculturali, esperti di lingue, esperti di internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore e sviluppatori educativi sembra contribuire al successo delle iniziative di SPC.

Keywords: sviluppo professionale continuo; programmi internazionalizzati; insegnamento e apprendimento; sviluppo educativo; nuove abilità e competenze pedagogiche; competenza interculturale.

Introduction

The last decade or so has seen an increase in initiatives offering different kinds of training as continuing professional development (CPD) for educators managing higher education (HE) programmes and teaching in the international classroom. With the experience and expertise gained as a result, now might be a good time to take stock of the situation and identify common traits in interventions that seem to have been successful, thereby considering what has been achieved and what may be learned from it.

Since the 1980s, a large proportion of initiatives targeted at internationalising higher education (IHE) has focused on in- and outgoing student and staff mobility, and the literature on teaching and learning in the international classroom has also, at least implicitly, assumed that student cohorts comprised two different groups: local and international students. However, given the state of globalisation as well as the geopolitical situation in the early 2020s and the implications this has for higher education, some pertinent questions come to mind: First, how do we define local and international students, and does it still make sense to distinguish between them today? Second, what is an international classroom and what are the implications of having one? The responses to these two questions establish the setting for the third, that is, are faculty prepared for teaching in the international classroom and if so, how? What kind of CPD has been evolving? Based on our experience in this field and our previous publications, we will briefly address these three questions in turn, outline the kind of CPD that seems to be available, and identify common traits. In our conclusion we will discuss new developments that may be needed in the future.

International and local students in the international classroom

First, developments in many HEIs seem to be doing away with the traditional distinction between local and international students. The *international* student population is typically a mix of students from different geographical areas who may have little in common except the fact that they are foreigners and newcomers, but some of these students may already "be familiar with the social and academic culture of the host country, and may be expert[s] in, or even native speaker[s] of, the language of study" (Jones, 2017, p. 933). Similarly, some of those who are referred to as *local* students may be recent immigrants or others who are unfamiliar with the education system and academic culture of their adopted country; moreover, their first language may differ from the language of study. Demographics as well as the ethnic, religious, and cultural background and language repertoire of individual students are so diverse that, in many cases, the distinction between international and local students does not seem sustainable. The composition of the student cohorts is more complex than a mere dichotomy between those who are local or international.

Second, and in light of this, the international classroom may simply be characterised as a multilingual and multicultural learning space where students as well as their lecturers have diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Lauridsen & Lillemose, 2015, p. 9). The learning space may be a physical classroom at a given HEI, it may be a virtual classroom or any combination of these two spaces.

The composition of the faculty and student cohorts does not in itself make a classroom international, however. The study programmes taught in the classroom should include international, global and regional perspectives on the academic content as well as the disciplinary methodology and ways of working. Intercultural and global competences should be included as internationalised intended learning outcomes, and teaching, learning, and assessment activities should be purposefully designed to achieve these outcomes (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Gregersen-Hermans & Lauridsen, 2019; Lauridsen, 2019; Lauridsen & Gregersen-Hermans, 2021a; Leask, 2015). This implies that lecturers should be able to

> recognise, appreciate, and include differences in perspectives and values brought by the international classroom (cohort) as resources for subject-specific learning. Further they should understand the multicultural group dynamics at play in the classroom and skilfully work with these group dynamics to ensure meaningful interaction and collaboration among students of diverse backgrounds. (Gregersen-Hermans & Lauridsen, 2019, p. 8)

The conceptual underpinnings of this would be the notions of an internationalised curriculum (Leask, 2015) and internationalisation at home (Beelen & Jones, 2015), now often referred to as *internationalisation of the curriculum at home* to emphasise their equivalence (Jones, 2019) and on the notion of intercultural competence (e.g., Gregersen-Hermans, 2021). While many educators have some experience with this and have developed a certain expertise in teaching internationalised programmes to diverse student cohorts, others are not sure how to offer this internationalised learning opportunity (Lauridsen, 2020) to their students and would therefore benefit from CPD initiatives that specifically address managing and teaching internationalised programmes, including the development of their own intercultural competences and skills (Gregersen-Hermans, 2016; Lauridsen, 2017).

At the institutional level, the discourse on internationalisation focuses on comprehensive internationalisation (Hudzik, 2015) as a means to transform higher education institutions (HEIs) to include international, intercultural and global perspectives in the *modus operandi* of their core functions: education, research, and outreach to society. De Wit et al.'s revised definition of the internationalisation process offers direction and guidance for this transformation by connecting IHE to the quality enhancement of HE and its purposeful and positive contribution to society (cf. also Gregersen-Hermans & Lauridsen, 2021b):

> [Internationalisation of Higher Education is] the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or 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 et al., 2015, p. 29)

The question still remains, however, whether IHE reaches the heart of higher education and improves the quality of teaching and learning (EQUiiP, 2019; Lauridsen & Gregersen-Hermans, 2019). It is therefore worth considering how well educators in general and faculty in particular are prepared to manage and teach fully internationalised programmes and improve the academic provision of HEIs. The section below addresses the third question, that is, how faculty are prepared for teaching in the international classroom, and what kind of CPD has been evolving.

Continuing professional development

Continuing professional development of HE educators is referred to in a range of different ways. Fink (2013) uses the term *faculty development* and characterises it as

> [a] set of activities that engage all members of the teaching faculty in the kind of continuous professional development that enhances their ability to construct curricula and modes of instruction that more effectively fulfil the educational mission of the institution and the educational needs of students and society. (Fink, 2013, pp. 1-2)

Whether or not this type of CPD is available seems to depend on the geographical location of a given HEI, reflecting the academic tradition and culture of its national or regional context. While there may be ad hoc CPD programmes available in many different locations, until recently, mandatory higher education teacher training seems to have been very limited outside the north-western part of Europe (Fink, 2013; Lauridsen, 2017). However, according to the European *Trends 2018* report, 77 % of respondents report that there has been a systematic effort to establish optional courses to enhance teaching skills, and 37 per cent that there has been a systematic effort to establish compulsory courses (Gaebel & Zang, 2018, p. 72). These initiatives typically address the so-called modernisation agenda (High Level Group on Modernisation of Higher Education, 2013) and are not necessarily targeted specifically towards educators teaching internationalised programmes to diverse groups of students. However, the last few years have seen new developments, and several initiatives address issues related to managing and teaching these programmes.

While it may thus still be more the exception than the rule, some HEIs recognise the need for a systematic approach to CPD for educators to support teaching and learning in the international classroom and the development of internationalised curricula. The interventions they put in place to achieve this may differ, but there are also some common traits. The following is an attempt at a first categorisation and exemplification of CPD initiatives in this field and comprises institutional networks and major institutional initiatives as well as courses, seminars, and workshops. The examples mentioned should not be considered an exhaustive list; rather, it reflects some of the projects that we have personally been involved in or are familiar with.

Institutional networks

Some HEIs choose to participate in institutional networks in order to internationalise their curricula and offer CPD to their lecturers. An example of this is a project involving three universities in Hong Kong and one in Shanghai, the aim of which was to "develop professional capacity for [Internationalisation of the Curriculum] among teachers through cultivating a community of practice" (Zou, 2021, p. 140; Zou et al., 2020). The coordination of this project was in the hands of a group of educational developers from the four HEIs' teaching and learning centres, working directly with individuals or small groups of lecturers in a "co-construction practices process" (Zou, 2021, p. 142) to identify existing practices, situate them in the literature and discuss how they could be developed further. The project thus recognised what was already there, invited lecturers to reflect on their teaching and helped them establish the communities of practice, which were considered vital for the sustainability of any changes made in the participants' academic delivery.

Another example in this category would be the EQUiiP project, an Erasmus+ strategic partnership whose aim was to develop a train-the-trainers programme for educational developers: Designing and teaching inclusive international programmes (EQUiiP, 2019). The programme is targeted at educational developers tasked with supporting faculty who are internationalising the teaching programmes in their own institutions. The EQUiiP modules are based on an international competence profile for educational developers (Cozart & Gregersen-Hermans, 2021) as the programme was originally developed as CPD for educational developers who are experts in higher education pedagogy, but do not necessarily have any experience with internationalised curricula. However, the modules and the profile may also be used directly in the training of educators managing and teaching internationalised programmes.

Third, the SUCTIA project aims to raise "awareness and shift the internal culture of our institutions towards internationalisation, thus creating a systemic change in our institutions and in European Higher Education" (SUCTIA, n.d.).

Finally, some of the recently established European University Alliances (European Commission, n.d.) seem to establish joint CPD for staff, including faculty in the member HEIs. One example of that would be the Arqus Academy that addresses "matters relating to: inclusion; sustainable development goals; entrepreneurship; transversal and forward-looking competences; language and intercultural competence" (Arqus Academy, n.d.).

Major institutional initiatives

While some HEIs establish networks in order to enhance the internationalisation of their academic provision, others launch major institutional, multi-year projects with a systematic approach to faculty development. An example of that is the University of Groningen in The Netherlands, which first established a pilot project and then a five-year International Classroom (IC) Project (Haines, 2020; Haines et al., 2021). During the time of this IC project, the Groningen educational developers were also involved as key actors in the EQUiiP project mentioned above. In this way, participants in the university's IC project learned from the EQUiiP project, improved their own expertise and were able to use it in both projects.

The University of Groningen has a large percentage of their programmes taught in English, and this was the original impetus for their International Classroom Project. Contrary to this, the VIA University College, a university of applied sciences in Denmark, has only a few programmes taught in English, but in 2021 it launched a multi-year project to revise curricula and teaching and learning activities to offer an international and global perspective on the curriculum content and develop students' intercultural competences in all their programmes, that is, also those that are taught exclusively in Danish to Danish students. This is done because the HEI considers it essential for every single student's education and Bildung (education and personal development) and because international perspectives and intercultural competences are essential for all graduates in order for them to meet the demands of the global labour market (internal documents; personal communication).

While the two multi-year projects mentioned above have taken a comprehensive approach involving all faculties or study programmes in the HEI, another project, described by Lauridsen and Lauridsen (2018), covers one Danish university department and was developed in response to some issues raised by students. The aim of the CPD intervention was to improve the quality of teaching in English Medium Instruction programmes. Participation was compulsory for all faculty teaching in the programmes. In the final evaluation of the project, it became apparent that while all participants found the seminars useful or very useful (the two highest scores on a five-point Likert scale), the highest average score was given to the supervision (observation) and individual feedback (Lauridsen & Lauridsen, 2018, p. 103). Faculty really appreciated tapping into the expertise of the educational developers and the one-on-one interaction they were able to have with them.

Courses, seminars, and workshops

In the institutional networks and in the major institutional initiatives mentioned above, there are different combinations of seminars and workshops and interaction with and between individuals or small groups of educators. Where there are members of staff fulfilling the role of educational developers (Dafouz et al., 2020), they typically play a central role in these large projects. External experts may be called on to take responsibility for all or parts of these programmes.

Courses, seminars, and workshops may also be offered as training events outside a given institutional context; examples would be those offered by external providers like Advance HE in the UK, Europe-wide by the EAIE (European Association for International Education), or by DAAD (The German Academic Exchange Service) in Germany.

CPD events that are not linked to major institutional projects are typically shorter seminars or workshops of a few hours or a full day in a face-to-face setting, online or a combination of the two. An example of this would be the modules under the heading *Internationalising the higher education classroom and the use of English-medium education (EME)* offered to all faculty in the university by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore in Milan, Italy.

The CPD events mentioned above demonstrate different approaches and focus on developing different aspects of internationalised curricula, but they share the aim of developing educators' intercultural and pedagogical competences and skills in a way that fits expected developments in their local contexts.

Common traits

While the examples mentioned may all be characterised as formally organised CPD initiatives, they also involve elements of less formal peer learning when participants share ideas and experiences with, or provide feedback to, each other. There is therefore also a considerable amount of informal learning among peers involved, a state-of-affairs that sometimes leads to the development of communities of practice during or after the CPD events themselves. In this section we will address some common traits in the CPD initiatives that seem to have been important for their perceived success.

First of all, in this context, the opportunity to learn from and with their peers seems to have played a vital role for most participants. This interaction with peers working in similar, but different contexts encourages all participants to reflect on and enhance the quality of their own professional practice (Kling, 2021).

Second, participants seem to appreciate the one-on-one interaction (or small-group interaction) with a mentor; this person may be an experienced senior academic, an educational developer, or another kind of expert. The mentoring process helps participants situate their new insights and develop these in their own professional practice. Some kind of mentoring scheme during or after the CPD events therefore seems to add considerably to participants' learning and their ability to subsequently use what they have learned (Lauridsen & Gregersen-Hermans, 2021b; Lauridsen & Lauridsen, 2018; Steinert, 2010).

Third, CPD initiatives that are part of a clear institutional strategy and enjoy leadership encouragement and support allow participants to apply what they learn in their organisation and thereby contribute to the quality of academic provision (Lauridsen & Gregersen-Hermans, 2022). This is particularly the case when the CPD topic is intimately linked to the programmes or academic disciplines in the department with which a participant is affiliated. In most cases this will also ensure that the participant does not have to work on this alone but can do so in collaboration with disciplinary colleagues. At the end of the day, this collaboration will typically enhance the sustainability of any changes made (Roxå & Mårtensson, 2013).

Fourth, it is worth noting that even though most of the examples mentioned above refer to contexts where English is not the first (or official) language of the institution, the issue of using 'correct' English is not as predominant in the discussion of teaching and learning in the international classroom as it was just a decade ago. In many instances, developments have seen a shift in focus from correct English, as defined by language experts, to successful communication in English (Dafouz & Pagèze, 2021; EQUiiP, 2019; Lauridsen & Gregersen-Hermans, 2022), thereby reflecting a more pragmatic approach to international communication. Moreover, there is also a growing awareness that internationalised programmes may be taught in any language – not only English or other major world languages, but also less widely used and taught languages like the Danish example mentioned above.

And last, but certainly not least, CPD aimed at improving the quality of internationalised programmes, and the teaching and learning activities involved, seems to be most successful with an interdisciplinary approach. There is a lot to be gained if educational developers, internationalisation experts, intercultural competences experts, and language experts work together as very few people will have sufficient expertise in all of these different but connected fields. Each of these groups of experts may be able to provide part of the puzzle, but they all need to be involved together to create the full picture.

Discussion and conclusion

For many, internationalising study programmes entails mobility as well as teaching and learning through the English language, but physical mobility is not a *sine qua non* for successful internationalisation (e.g., also Jones, 2019). The international classroom may be multilingual and multicultural even though the cohort does not comprise any physically mobile students, and the learning activities may take place in any language that is appropriate for the HEI in its local environment. With this approach to IHE, the international, global, and intercultural dimensions of a programme of study are an issue to be addressed by all higher education faculty and directors of study. Moreover, different local situations may require different kinds of CPD programmes, for instance focusing on teaching through a foreign or first language, teaching students who learn through their first or another language, teaching a diverse as opposed to a more monocultural student cohort, addressing the cultural or intercultural dimensions of the disciplinary content – and any combination of these factors. Not all educators are properly prepared to manage and teach internationalised programmes while paying attention to all of this, and they would therefore benefit from further professional development.

In addition to this, and as higher education advances towards more student centred and internationalised learning opportunities, the role of educators may evolve and demand new and different skills and attitudes towards student learning. The ability to function as a coach for students is an example of the kind of new skill set that educators may need to develop to complement their academic expertise and existing pedagogical competence (Gregersen-Hermans & Boonen, 2021).

In this chapter, we have exemplified the kind of CPD programmes that seem to be available to meet educators' needs for CPD, primarily in Europe, and we have identified some common traits of CPD initiatives that are perceived as successful. The provision of such programmes is still an emerging field, however, and this state-of-affairs begs at least two questions: Is the right kind of CPD being offered? And how effective is it?

The response to the first question seems to hinge on the response to the second. We cannot know whether the CPD programmes currently offered, most of them *ad hoc*, actually address educators' needs. If they do, we should be able to show how effective they are, that is, that they equip participants to improve their own academic practice, and in some cases that of their peers, in order to enhance the quality of the teaching and learning activities in the programmes for which they are responsible. However, most CPD programmes are not evaluated in such a way that the participants' achievements and their application of these achievements in their academic practice can be demonstrated. Asking participants after the events if and why they liked the programme, sometimes referred to as the method of using 'happy sheets', is not sufficient. In some of our most recent work, we have exemplified how an assessment of participants' achievements may demonstrate the positive outcomes of an intervention if they are closely linked to the learning outcomes defined (Lauridsen & Gregersen-Hermans, 2022; Lauridsen & Lauridsen, 2018). With clearly defined intended learning outcomes for a given intervention, and the appropriate assessment of the participants' achievements linked to these intended learning outcomes, we will be able to assess whether the intervention was successful, where changes might be needed, and what CPD programmes should be offered in future. On the other hand, if this assessment exercise is not taken seriously, we may be spending resources on interventions that are not very helpful and will not help participants contribute to the improved quality of their institution's academic practice. Future research should develop the methodology of such assessment to be fit-for-purpose in different local contexts.

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CHAPTER 8

The design of collaborative online internationalised learning (COIL)

EVA HAUG AND LYNETTE JACOBS

Abstract. While students are prepared for specific professions and disciplinary research, they should also develop graduateness, linked with transversal skills including critical thinking, multidisciplinary teamwork and creativity. Such skills are now essential, due to the need to solve complex problems from pluriform perspectives. Internationalised learning experiences are thus important towards such skills. Internationalised learning was long associated with student and staff physical mobility, but technological developments now enable virtual collaborative learning. Interactive examination of practices between the authors allowed the following themes to emerge: internationalising learning outcomes; designing for collaboration; including intercultural learning; the importance of reflection; and the challenges of evaluation and assessment. Academics, curriculum developers, educational advisors and educational technology specialists must be provided with an enabling space to invent new ways of online collaboration for global conversations.

Keywords: Virtual exchange; curriculum design; graduateness; internationalisation of the curriculum; capacity development; intercultural learning; COIL.

Se da un lato gli studenti vengono preparati per professioni specifiche e per la ricerca disciplinare, dall'altro devono sviluppare la graduateness, ovvero tutte quelle competenze trasversali come il pensiero critico, il lavoro di gruppo multidisciplinare e la creatività. Tali competenze sono essenziali, data la necessità di risolvere problemi complessi attingendo a prospettive plurime. Le esperienze di apprendimento internazionalizzate sono quindi importanti per lo sviluppo della graduateness. L'apprendimento internazionalizzato è stato a lungo associato alla mobilità fisica degli studenti e del personale, ma gli sviluppi tecnologici consentono oggi un apprendimento collaborativo virtuale. L'esame interattivo delle pratiche tra gli autori ha permesso di far emergere i seguenti temi: internazionalizzazione dei risultati dell'apprendimento; progettazione per la collaborazione; inclusione dell'apprendimento interculturale; importanza della riflessione; sfide della valutazione e dell'assessment. Gli accademici, gli sviluppatori di programmi di studio, i consulenti didattici e gli specialisti di tecnologie educative devono disporre di uno spazio che consenta loro di inventare nuove modalità di collaborazione online per conversazioni globali.

Keywords: scambio virtuale; progettazione del curriculum; graduateness; internazionalizzazione del curriculum; sviluppo della capacità; apprendimento interculturale; COIL.

Introduction[1]

While different academic disciplines prepare graduates for different professions and research, there is a common understanding that, regardless of the field, graduateness should be developed in students (Steur et al., 2012). Graduateness is linked with acquiring transversal or cross-field skills that include critical thinking, multidisciplinary teamwork, creativity, reflexivity and ethics, amongst others. UNESCO (n.d.) defines transversal skills as "[s]kills that are typically considered as not specifically related to a particular job, task, academic discipline or area of knowledge and that can be used in a wide variety of situations and work settings (for example, organisational skills)".

In current times, graduateness is also linked with what are called 21st-century skills, which also include intercultural and technological competences. Pertaining to transversal skills (and building graduateness), Klein (2022) emphasises the importance of cross-disciplinary approaches to solving complex problems. Such approaches include interdisciplinary education (bringing knowledge from different disciplines) and transdisciplinary pedagogies (grappling with complex problems across disciplines in a holistic approach). The latter requires transcending not only disciplinary boundaries, but also an openness to pluriform perspectives (Guérin & Beelen, 2022) and to different ways of being, doing, knowing and relating (Wimpenny et al., 2022) which can inter alia be achieved through internationalised curricula (Leask, 2015) which includes learning from internationalised learning experiences, often perceived to be through mobility.

Although student and staff exchange through physical mobility has been practised in higher education over many years, exposing the travellers to different ways of knowing and being, technological developments now enable students and staff to collaborate virtually using technological platforms, including MSTeams, ZOOM and similar. EVOLVE (2022, para. 1) describes virtual exchange (VE) as follows:

Virtual Exchange (VE) is a practice, supported by research, that consists of sustained, technology-enabled, people-to-people education programmes or activities in which constructive communication and interaction take place between individuals or groups who are geographically separated and/or from different cultural back-

[1] This study emerged through our collaboration in the iKudu project, which is supported by the European Commission Erasmus+: Higher Education – International Capacity Building Programme [Grant Agreement Number – 2019 – 2050/001-001] (October 2019 – May 2024). The European Commission's support for the production of this publication does not constitute endorsement of the contents, which reflects the views only of the authors, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use that may be made of the information contained therein.

grounds, with the support of educators or facilitators. Virtual Exchange combines the deep impact of intercultural dialogue and exchange with the broad reach of digital technology.

Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL), as a specific approach to VE, is described by SUNY COIL (n.d.-a) as connecting or bringing "students and professors together across cultures to learn, discuss and collaborate as part of their class. Professors partner to design the experience, and students partner to complete the activities designed." SUNY COIL further explains that such COIL provides all students with the opportunity "to have a significant intercultural experience within their course of study". SUNY COIL (n.d.-b) adds that "COIL enhances intercultural student interaction through proven approaches to meaningful online engagement, while providing universities with a cost-effective way to ensure that their students are globally engaged". Wimpenny et al. (2022, p. 291) indeed highlight the potential of COIL to "encourage awareness and respect for pluralistic ways of knowing, being, relating and expressing" and appreciate the inclusivity of this approach to curriculum internationalisation.

There is no consensus on how the curriculum interventions aimed at internationalising the student experience at home are described. Virtual exchange seems to be commonly accepted as a general term for online collaboration with international partners. At the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, for instance, the choice was made to use COIL because of the emphasis on peer-to-peer engagement and the flexibility of the modality (AUAS, 2021). Although the term *COIL* is used in this article, many of the aspects discussed apply to all modalities of VE.

Methodological approach

An interactive examination of practices was undertaken, with the first author engaging in self-study, and the second author taking the role of a critical friend (Russel, 2022; Samaras et al., 2012). Five themes emerged from the discussion, namely 1) internationalising learning outcomes; 2) designing for collaboration; 3) including intercultural learning, 4) the importance of reflection and 5) the challenges of evaluation and assessment. The manuscript was collectively edited to give a direct account of the conversation, and references to literature were provided for clarification.

Internationalising Learning Outcomes

When designing COIL, or VE, an important starting point is to acknowledge that COIL practitioners need to connect COIL to learning outcomes and to be very intentional about what it is that students are learning. Academics are often so enthusiastic about the collaboration that the collaboration itself easily becomes the focus. Starting with the learning outcomes provides clarity on what – after that process of collaboration – the students would have experienced, would have learned, and how it would have changed them. When a learning outcome is internationalised, it is approached in a comparative and a pluriform perspective, so that the added value of internationalising or interculturalising learning outcomes (Jones, 2013) becomes the focus. When differences are considered, the aspect of contrast is our first consideration. Secondly, focusing on the learning outcome moves academics beyond disciplinary content. By writing internationalised learning outcomes, one focuses on the student, and intentionally gets academics to look away from the content towards the student and what they would like to send the student with into the world.

Internationalised learning outcomes, especially connected to the COIL experience, create an opportunity not just to look at the content or the disciplinary-specific learning outcomes, but also at the process of collaboration, because students are having a collaborative experience. Ensuring that the experience and learning that students will get out of it from a process perspective is clarified and described, by looking at what they will learn just by having this experience, also creates the opportunity to bring in different skills sets that are connected to transversal skills or soft skills. It is often quite challenging for academics to consider transdisciplinary or interdisciplinary learning outcomes. However, a more manageable and imaginable way for academics to do that is by focusing on these transversal skills. An approach could be to first consider what disciplinary knowledge the students will bring to the mix, and then focus on what they will learn together to then describe the shared learning outcomes on problem solving, which they can apply within a certain context or for a certain problem by collaborating with others. This resembles real-life projects.

Designing for impactful collaboration

Designing for impactful collaboration is certainly not easy; firstly, designing for collaboration and then adding the impactful. Collaboration is not an easy task. Often, students at their different educational institutions learn by themselves; so even when they apply their knowledge, it is not always in a collaborative manner. In principle, for a COIL project, students are provided with a task that they cannot complete without the assistance of a peer. This implies that they need to find each other; they need each other to solve the puzzle, and that is how lecturers get them to collaborate. Although students can be motivated and informed about the kind of learning they will engage in though collaboration, if potentially they can do the activity by themselves, for example in a sequential manner (the first student does the first part and the second student completes it), collaboration will most likely not go beyond sorting out such a division of the work. It is therefore important to carefully choose action verbs in the learning outcomes. For instance, if the outcome uses the action verb *share*, the students will share, but they could possibly share by simply sending an e-mail with the information. Hence, sharing is not necessarily collaborating. Choosing action verbs intentionally and mindfully leaves the students with no choice but to collaborate. While collaboration in general can be intimidating, virtual collaboration with people one has never met, and often in a different language, is even more so, and students tend to find it challenging and frustrating at the same time. Yet it is that specific aspect of virtual collaboration that results in learning; in the discomfort there is room to shine and to learn.

Students are sometimes frustrated with project work, and academics tend to give them a lot of it, yet the focus of project work is often to merely apply, and not to collaborate – it is about applying one's knowledge to something practical. However, this does not really help them to learn how to collaborate, and that is what COIL focuses on.

Another important aspect of designing for impactful collaboration is that academics need to be comfortable with the uncertainty and frustration, and that they need to understand that their role in facilitating such complex collaborative learning is indeed different. Instead of solving problems, academics need to help students reflect on how they solve the problems themselves. Academics should see themselves not as the ones with the answers, but rather as the ones with more questions.

It is noteworthy that the process of collaboration is a much slower process, which can also be frustrating. Still, if it leads to new solutions that could not even be foreseen, as a result of the interdisciplinary nature, and even transcending disciplinary boundaries, then collaboration makes more sense, particularly when one team member knows something the other team member really needs because of different disciplinary and contextual knowledge. The interdependence in terms of interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary work can really stretch the mind, but sometimes it is quite hard for academics to imagine. Once academics understand the opportunities that emerge from such meaningful collaboration, and the impacts that it has, they become enthusiastic. Yet, often, before they can imagine it, they mostly identify the many barriers. Academics often focus on knowledge transfer as a result of how they see their role as academics, that is, the ones best capable of transferring the disciplinary knowledge. Academics need to make a complete paradigm shift in this regard, because when they embed COIL in their teaching, they become the coaches, the so-called guides-on-the-side, the facilitators.

A good approach to transdisciplinary work in COIL is to focus on the thorny problems represented by the Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2015). Projects linked to these challenges cannot easily be addressed, unless people with different types of knowledge and understanding work together. Through such activities, students get opportunities to acquire the necessary skills to work on finding these solutions in their professional lives.

When considering impactful collaboration in COIL projects, the collaboration sometimes ends with the compare and contrast. The differences between the local contexts of those together in the virtual *room* are compared and the differences merely analysed, nothing else. Often students already know or suspect what those differences might be, because they were brought together for the reason of being different. The question that can, however, fairly be asked is: How does knowing what the differences are help to find solutions? In actual fact, what happens after that analysis, and the conclusions that can be drawn, become a step towards creating new knowledge or innovative ideas. When the best ideas of one person, combined with the best ideas of another, as can potentially happen in COIL, a third, even better, idea often emerges that might work beyond the disciplinary and socio-political contexts of the two individuals, but in more contexts, even globally. That is the kind of work that academics need to strive for. However, it remains quite challenging in the professional development sphere because, when people develop a COIL project for the first time, they often stop at the compare-and-analyse phase. Subsequently, the second time they want to COIL, they often indicate that it was an enthusing experience, but that the students did not really collaborate. At that point it is important to go back to the design, and consider how to strengthen that collaboration, and to come up with ideas on how to design a project that encourages students to really work together. As the first participant reflected:

> Often the students did not really collaborate – they compared and analysed the differences, and then made a beautiful summary of the things they have in common or that are different, and that is where the project stops. The collaboration is there, but it is superficial, because they share what they already know about their own experiences. They might hear something new, but they do not do anything with the information they hear besides writing it up. The impactful part, however, starts when one then asks them: "Knowing this, what can you come up with?" That is when COIL becomes impactful; when students need one another to collaborate and think of the next steps.

Another important dimension for consideration is collaboration between academics. Sometimes people instantly feel comfortable working together, and other times they do not. Although the former makes everything much smoother, professional development is key to enable successful collaboration even in difficult cases. For COIL to be successful, the professional development training must ideally be constructed in such a way that the academics themselves experience all the elements of COIL. Their deliverable is their COIL design, and by going through that experience and actually reflecting on it, they realise, "wait, *we* did an ice breaker, *we* actually collaborated as well, this is the technology *we* used, so then *we* have actually been 'COILing'!" (emphasis added). Experiencing it themselves is the strongest way to build capacity for COIL. Unfortunately, not everybody has the time or the patience to do it that way, but experience has taught us that better designs are created by academics who take the time to go through professional development together. COIL design indeed needs to be co-creational and when academics find it difficult to collaborate it might resemble the situation that the students find themselves in. A student might be working with somebody with whom he or she does not really have a connection. When academics then reflect on how they resolved or overcame such a dynamic, it makes them even better facilitators during the COIL project. So, in good COIL professional development, the facilitator builds those transversal skills in the academics themselves, often without them realising it. One cannot assume that the academics do not have such transversal skills, but when they have to apply it in such an online collaborative context, these skills are strengthened.

The impact occurs when it goes beyond the obvious, beyond the immediate, and that impact can be on the level of the academics, or the students, or both. One cannot claim that these skills are developed in all the students or all the academics, but one can strive to build them in at least some of the students, and at least the circumstances and the opportunity have been created for it to happen. Still, the personal choices of every single participant in that COIL space determine what the uptake will be.

Including intercultural learning

Following Deardorff's (2006) research based definition, Harvey (2018, p. 3) describes intercultural competence as "the ability to communicate and act appropriately and effectively across cultural differences. 'Effectively' means we achieve our aims to some degree. 'Appropriately' means we do so in such a way that any other parties involved feel respected". Towards this, intercultural learning is:

> the process of developing one's intercultural competence, which involves increasing the complexity with which one experiences cultural difference. This is very much a developmental process. It requires not just learning about another culture or cultures, but developing understanding and skills that can be applied in a wide variety of intercultural experiences. (Harvey, 2018, p. 3)[2]

[2] This definition is similar to that of Deardorff (2004, p. 194).

In response to a related question, the first author responded as follows:

> When considering intercultural learning I want to start with the academics. Often academics who want to do COIL look for as much similarity as possible – people that look like me, work like me and come from a similar discipline. They want to internationalise, but they want to stay well within their comfort zone so that they recognise themselves within the other, and then they go and look for differences. There is a richness to discover, because the world and people are much more complex than we sometimes acknowledge superficially. For example, there are substantial cultural differences between the Dutch and the Belgians, even though we partly speak the same language. The Dutch, culturally speaking, have more in common with the Danes. We are sometimes blind to the cultural differences and nuances that exist between us and the Belgians, because we speak a similar language; yet we use our language very differently. We look for similarities, because if we recognise ourselves in others, we are drawn to them, and then we sometimes ignore the potential for learning about the differences. Or we look for the exotic, if one wants to call it that, but that might also reinforce some stereotypes, because the differences are so obvious that we focus perhaps on the superficial differences, and then we forget to look also beyond that. In both cases I think it is important to make intercultural learning, or intercultural competence development an intentional part of one's design.

The maxim that "we don't see the world as it is, we see the world as we are" (loosely attributed to Anaïs Nin) does indeed have a level of truth. More than learning about the other, the development of intercultural competence requires learning about oneself. For instance, when a European university engages in COIL with a South African University, the gain is not a question of the European students learning about South Africans, as they cannot claim that because they have met three or four South Africans, they understand the complexity of that country. Rather, students will have learned how one engages with difference, and that is the life skill that contributes to graduateness. Indeed, experience has shown that when students reflect on their biggest surprise during a COIL, they indicate matters related to what they have discovered about themselves, such as how they look at the world, which is very powerful. That is, however, not always an easy message to convince academics or students in advance, even though it is an important insight to gain during professional development. Those involved mostly want to focus on difference, bringing in an international comparison. People are inclined to emphasise differences and underscore the value of international comparison. They consider these as advancing their professional standing. This will indeed be the case, but rather because they themselves will have changed.

Beelen and van Stapele (2021) challenge the assumption that COIL is by default inclusive, and one should consider the complexities of engagement when there are inequalities between institutions and between students. A first consideration should be to understand where the inequality lies. It could be linguistic, for instance, as a result of different levels of understanding, grasp, comfort, or confidence to use the language of collaboration. A way to mitigate this is not to focus so much on written or spoken language, but to be open to other means of communication. One could use more visualisation, more images, more storytelling. In academic circles, the focus is often on writing, and requiring writing to be in a certain way. Yet, such a way of communicating might not be easy for everybody. A valid consideration would be whether students engaging in the activities should demonstrate that they are good at writing, or demonstrate what they have learned. If the latter, there are other approaches that can be followed to demonstrate learning.

A second inequality could be regarding educational technology – access to educational technology, specifically. There are ways to mitigate that as well, such as by choosing educational technology that requires less data or bandwidth, or by allowing for asynchronous collaboration. Yet the most important inequality to consider is vested in power relations. The best way to ensure that everybody feels included in the project and can bring the best of themselves to the project is to design interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary collaboration. It is not about whose knowledge system is the best, but about what one can contribute. For instance, one person may know about marketing; another person may know about health sciences, and that is what they contribute to the project. In such a case, it is not about knowing, or having been part of the dominant culture, or the dominant knowledge system, but rather about mutual dependency towards success.

Including intercultural learning in the design means first of all describing, in at least one of the learning outcomes, the kind of intercultural experience desired for the students, deciding what one wants them to learn about difference, and making the process of working across differences one of the learning outcomes. Furthermore, consideration should be given to how students are prepared for this experience and the onboarding support provided. Examples of this could be information about the culture they will be collaborating with, or preparing students with regard to understanding and managing intercultural differences, but also importantly, preparing them to be comfortable with uncertainty. Such preparation provides students with tools to draw on, and can be very reassuring. It is furthermore important to add reflection during the process of collaboration, and to assume some responsibility for that part of the learning, engaging in cultural mentorship (Osland & Bird, 2000). While not all academics facilitating COIL can be cultural specialists, they can be cultural mentors or coaches to students.

The importance of reflection

Although it seems to be an interpretation rather than a direct citation (Lagueux, 2014), John Dewey is said to have maintained that "we do not learn from experience, we learn from reflecting on experience". Indeed, reflection is usually an integral part of a course on intercultural communication. In COIL projects, this is considered an essential element of the project design. Reflection could be in written or oral form, individual or collaborative – or a mix of these. However, the fundamental point is to include reflections in the learning process. Drawing from experience, at least within the Northern European context, reflections are more honest when they are individual. Within a group, students often want to save face, or do not want to hurt feelings. As a group, it can be productive to reflect on what was challenging for each member, how they overcame the challenges and what they are the proudest of. On the other hand, with an individual, reflection questions can relate to ways in which a student changed as a result of the experience; the new skills acquired, and so forth. Students can be invited to specifically reflect on how these apply to a future professional life.

Challenges of evaluation and assessment

Linked with outcomes is the issue of assessment and the opportunities it creates. Ideally, partnered academics create shared learning outcomes for a COIL project, and they should also consider a deliverable that would help them observe or quantify in some way whether students have achieved that learning together. When considering such a shared assessment, one option is to focus on the intercultural learning, or the skills and attitudes related to certain competences that one tries to help students to develop. Looking more at the transversal skills, one assesses how the collaboration has been, or how the communication has been within this team, or how everyone has given feedback. Academics can unpack concepts like intercultural communication or international collaboration, which often makes it easier to find an assessment that will work for both the universities involved. As there is no transfer of credits, each institution formally assesses its own students. Still, encouraging academics to create a shared rubric that indicates the level of learning and the level of complexity that students have achieved has proved to be productive. The advantage of a rubric is that it allows for the differences in grading systems. In the Netherlands, for instance, grading would be one to ten; in Germany it would be five to one; in yet another country it might be percentages or A-B-C. In other words, academics are encouraged to have a conversation together about how the students performed. Academics assess their own students, but they have a conversation with their international COIL partner about how the students have done, and ideally jointly give the students feedback. It is important to include the process of collaboration as part of what is assessed, and to ensure that the students' output includes something that will help all to observe or quantify this collaboration in some way. Undoubtedly, it is not the easiest thing to do, yet if the students' work is not assessed, they might not realise what they have learned, and less effort will be put in by the students. Therefore, assessment of both the (discipline-specific) content as well as the process of collaboration is key in successful COIL design.

Undoubtedly, it can be difficult to create or find an opportunity for shared or joint assessment in COIL projects. Often the university regulations or requirements make it challenging to change anything in the assessment process. In such cases, academics can use formative assessment more easily to assess what students are learning in COIL, and then the summative assessment would be more discipline specific or course specific. It is also important to be conscious of different interpretations of the terms *evaluation* and *assessment*, as they are sometimes used interchangeably, and could mean very different things in different countries. When one asks, for instance, a Dutch person what evaluation means, it certainly does not refer to assessment. The term evaluation is used in the Netherlands to check how either the students or the lecturers experience something, what they thought of the experience, and not what they have learned. Assessment is understood as an evaluation of learning; therefore, a clear distinction is made. Elsewhere, however, evaluation is used for evaluating students' performance. Therefore, international COIL partners must make sure that there is a clear understanding of the terminology used here.

Conclusion

Even though the concept of VE and COIL is not new, the influence of the pandemic on online learning and the increase in adopting this modality in many universities globally have resulted in interesting new developments. What started out as a predominantly Northern-hemisphere practice – with some northern-centric characteristics – has developed into a global practice with unique local characteristics. Take, for example, the many Latin-American collaborations, where the main language is either in Spanish, or employs a translanguaging[3] approach with Portuguese speakers. Another example is the increased interest in unpacking decolonised curriculum through COIL projects, whereby academics in the global north and south collaborate

[3] Translanguaging is a pedagogical approach that encourages students to use their own language in various ways during the learning activities and then to translate it (The Bell Foundation, 2022)

to create safe and brave spaces to engage in these difficult conversations. The nature of COIL is indeed dynamic and evolving.

VE or COIL has enabled HEIs to operationalise their internationalisation at home strategies whereby key stakeholders are taking centre stage: academics, curriculum developers, educational advisors and educational technology specialists. By bringing together these new perspectives on the practice of internationalising the curriculum, a space has been created to re-invent new ways to develop online collaboration for global conversations.

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CHAPTER 9

Innovative online global learning: increasing access for diverse students

JENNIFER A. MALERICH

Abstract. Shifts within teaching and learning, student demographics, and an increasing reliance on remote interactions, technology, and data present significant opportunities to design new, innovative learning experiences. This exploratory case study documents the diverse backgrounds of participants in two online global learning programmes at a single higher education institution within the United States. Global Virtual Internships and the Global Tech Programs represent new models for synchronous and asynchronous learning, focused on global career readiness skills and intercultural competency development. Descriptive statistics describe sample populations for each program across several socioeconomic variables. The findings suggest future research related to learning outcomes for online global learning programmes, strategies for internationalising online and on-campus curricula, and the potential impact of such programmes on career readiness and labor market outcomes for diverse student populations.

Keywords: innovation; internationalisation; diversity; career readiness; study abroad; virtual; online education.

I cambiamenti nell'ambito dell'insegnamento e dell'apprendimento, i dati demografici degli studenti e la crescente dipendenza dalle interazioni a distanza, dalla tecnologia e dai dati rappresentano un'opportunità significativa per progettare esperienze di apprendimento nuove e innovative. Questo case study esplorativo documenta i diversi background dei partecipanti a due programmi di apprendimento globale online presso un unico istituto di istruzione superiore negli Stati Uniti. Gli Stage Virtuali Globali e i Programmi Tecnici Globali rappresentano nuovi modelli di apprendimento sincrono e asincrono, incentrati sulle abilità di preparazione alla carriera globale e sullo sviluppo di competenze interculturali. Le statistiche descrittive definiscono le popolazioni campione per ciascun programma in base a diverse variabili socioeconomiche. I risultati suggeriscono ricerche future relative ai risultati di apprendimento per i programmi di apprendimento globale online, alle strategie per l'internazionalizzazione dei curricula online e in presenza e al potenziale impatto di tali programmi sulla preparazione alla carriera e sui risultati del mercato del lavoro per popolazioni di studenti diverse.

Keywords: innovazione; internazionalizzazione; diversità; preparazione alla carriera; studio all'estero; istruzione virtuale; istruzione online.

Introduction

The global knowledge economy has challenged higher education to focus on preparing students to be successful problem solvers in diverse global environments. Recognising the need to develop global-ready graduates with cultural, linguistic, and professional skills, most higher education institutions offer opportunities for students to participate in international education activities such as study abroad or international internships (Potts & Kim, 2021). However, the world is now grappling with the impacts of a global health crisis on education, the economy, and employment. Within higher education, the manner in which faculty and students expect to engage with teaching and learning has dramatically changed, alongside rising costs and controls, and shifts in student demographics (Hudzik, 2022). The mobility-based study abroad experiences higher education had traditionally relied upon to facilitate students' development of global skills all but halted during the pandemic. Simultaneously, the world of work has changed, developing greater reliance on remote interactions, technology, and data. The current environment presents a significant opportunity for innovative learning that extends outside the traditional boundaries of a physical classroom.

This case study considers the experience of one higher education institution's study abroad office in re- examining its mission in this unique time, how it could best serve students and the local community, and increase access to relevant global skill-building experiences for students. Although this case study is situated within the higher education context of the United States, the results may be useful and informative for educators and policy-makers within other cultural and political contexts.

Literature review

Student demand and national and institutional strategies have driven growth in global learning experiences, and specifically study abroad programmes, by identifying them as relevant learning and skill-building opportunities (American Council on Education, 2017; de Wit et al., 2015; Engel & Siczek, 2018; Ogden et al., 2020). Recognising the role higher education institutions (HEIs) play in developing graduates for the world of work, three areas of intersection between global learning and career outcomes typically appear in the literature: transition to employment, career planning skills, and professional status (Waibel et al., 2017). Overall, while students tend to draw positive connections between their global learning experience and their career development (Waibel et al., 2017), students' own social and academic backgrounds may impact their ability to realise the associated benefits in a career context (Netz & Finger, 2016). There seems to be additional variability in how employers perceive the value of global learning experiences based on factors such as experience type (study abroad as compared to internship), length (short-term as compared to long-term), and language of instruction (Di Pietro, 2019; Predovic et al., 2021; Van Mol et al., 2021). The literature encourages students to effectively draw connections between their global learning experiences and employer-valued skills in order to maximise their impact on transition to employment and career development (Di Pietro, 2019; Malerich, 2009; Potts & Kim, 2021; Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020).

Although many students and their families consider global learning experiences valuable signals of employability within the labor market (Predovic et al., 2021; Van Mol et al., 2021), unequal access to international education programmes may be exacerbating inequalities rather than reducing them (Di Pietro, 2019). Even with the increased emphasis on diversifying access to study abroad, concerns regarding social selectivity appear throughout the literature.

International educators have long recognised the imbalance between genders in study abroad participation. Past research has identified women as more likely than men to intend to study abroad due to gender-specific interest profiles, educational performance, and labor market orientation (Cordua & Netz, 2021). The results from this 2021 study were in line with previous studies (Lörz et al., 2016; Salisbury et al., 2010) where study abroad participation amongst females was found to correlate with gender-specific disciplinary and labor interests, as well as cultural and social capital developed prior to higher education. Van Mol (2021) found that women were more likely to study abroad, even when controlling for the overrepresentation of women in disciplines associated with study abroad participation. In contrast, in other studies males have been found to have less intention to study abroad, be less likely to be enrolled in study abroad-friendly majors, and more likely to be influenced by on-campus involvement and peer relationships (Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Salisbury et al., 2010).

Previous studies have identified a strong correlation between maternal educational level and study abroad participation, even controlling for study abroad intent (Lingo, 2019; Lörz et al., 2016; Van Mol, 2021). In the United States, there has been a particular focus on access to study abroad for first-generation or first-in-family students as a way of curbing horizontal inequality in higher education and promoting global skill building activities (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Pascarella et al., 2004; Rausch, 2017). Earlier studies have found that first-generation students are aware of the importance and value study abroad will bring to their future professional lives (Ramakrishna et al., 2016). Although first-generation students may be uniquely positioned to benefit from study abroad related skills and competencies, contrasting research finds they often do not perceive themselves as participants (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021). Examples of identified barriers to participation for first-generation students include lack of exposure to study abroad, financial concerns, work-related constraints, and family obligations.

There is less agreement in the literature regarding the connection between ethnicity and study abroad. On the one hand, some studies have found that ethnicity may provide barriers to study abroad participation, overriding study abroad intentions or desires (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015). Other research has identified little to no correlation between ethnicity and intent to study abroad (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Salisbury et al., 2009). In contrast, other studies have identified positive correlation between international mobility and minority student status, citing an increased openness to difference and recognition of the benefits to study abroad outcomes (Pungas et al., 2015). Regardless of the disagreement in the literature as to the underlying reasons, at least in the United States, historical and current participation data clearly shows the overrepresentation of White students in study abroad (Institute of International Education, 2021).

Questions surrounding financial costs have also been explored in connection to study abroad access. Past research has tied study abroad participation to not only the amount of funding students have access to, but also the type of financial assistance and related repayment expectations (Netz & Finger, 2016; Whatley, 2017). Many institutions are tempted to simply lower the cost of programmes or offer more financial assistance in order to increase access. However, potential participants have also reported specific concerns about taking time off work to study abroad and the lost wages time off would represent for themselves and their families (Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Vernon et al., 2017).

The world of work and higher education have both experienced significant upheaval as a result of the global COVID-19 pandemic. Originally thought to be a temporary shift at the beginning of the pandemic, remote work practices have endured as a result of cultural, operational and economic pressures to varying degrees across a wide range of industries (Barrero et al., 2022). A parallel shift to remote learning within the educational landscape also occurred during this same time period. Although many HEIs may have entered into pandemic times with similar feelings about the temporary nature of online learning, existing pre-pandemic enrolment growth in online learning has only accelerated over time (Tate & Warschauer, 2022). Many campuses in the United States seem to be responding to the current climate by implementing and improving online learning technologies and focusing on improving diversity, equity, and inclusion on campus. Both scaling high impact practices such as study abroad and implementing online global learning programmes have been identified by some as central strategies through which to advance towards companion goals related to internationalisation and diversity, equity and inclusion (Finley, 2021; Ogden et al., 2021). Examples of online global learning programmes include collaborative project-based learning, virtual exchange, small-group language dialogue, and remote internships. As internationalisation agendas and strategies evolve, most experts agree that some sort of virtualisation of global education will persist (Huang et al., 2022).

This paper aims to contribute to the discussion regarding online global learning activities as a vehicle for reducing barriers to participation and increasing access to global skill-building experiences for diverse student audiences.

The setting

Arizona State University (ASU) is a comprehensive public research university situated in the Southwestern United States, choosing to be measured not by whom it excludes, but by whom it includes and how they succeed. ASU seeks to overcome geographic and financial barriers to education and engage learners of all socioeconomic, geographic, and demographic backgrounds (Arizona State University, 2022b). Offering a wide range of academic programmes in multiple delivery modalities is one way in which ASU is responsible to the community it serves. Students from Arizona, throughout the United States, and the world, have access to over 1,000 online, hybrid, and in-person undergraduate and graduate degrees and certificates. In fall 2021, ASU's total enrolment was over 135,000 students, with just under 58,000 online students (Office of Institutional Analysis, 2022). Approximately 46% of the incoming first-year students in fall 2021 came from minority backgrounds, and approximately 30% were first-generation students (Arizona State University, 2022a).

The ASU Global Education Office (GEO) offers over 300 global learning programmes on all seven continents, ranging from traditional semester exchange to international internships to short-term faculty-led programming. ASU has been consistently ranked by Open Doors as a top sender of students on study abroad programmes, reaching a high of 2,651 students in 2018-2019 (Institute of International Education, 2021). While these numbers are strong, when compared to the overall enrolment at ASU, it becomes clear that there is a large population of students not being served by the GEO in a meaningful way. With the onset of the pandemic in 2020 and the collapse of traditional study abroad, the GEO team decided to reexamine how it was serving ASU students. While aware of the long-standing criticisms of traditional study abroad as socially selective and capable of transferring inequities from higher education to the labor market (Netz et al., 2020), GEO programming prior to the pandemic did not adequately address these inequities. Reflecting upon the current moment, as well as the diversity and scale of ASU's student population, GEO seized the moment to expand the diversity of programme offerings to be more inclusive, and representative of students' needs. The team questioned how it could leverage the strengths of ASU in innovation while deliberately and intentionally enhancing global engagement enterprise-wide. The team considered how it could encourage an online pedagogy supportive of global learning, and also explored how it could expand beyond traditional mobility-based programming into new forms of global education focusing on career readiness skills in the world of work.

To that end, the GEO team focused on expanding the vision of the office and developed a variety of programme options in addition to traditional study abroad including international internships, service learning, research, and online global learning. Two specific online global learning programmes at ASU, the Global Virtual Internships and the Global Tech programmes, have been particularly successful in reaching new student audiences by focusing on innovative pedagogy and delivery models to teach the skills necessary to be effective in the globally connected, virtual world of work.

Results and discussion

Global Virtual Internships

The Global Virtual Internship (GVI) programme, launched in the summer of 2020, leverages the extensive global employer networks of partners previously trusted by ASU with in-person international internship placements to help students build critical professional and global skills through remote placements. Just as in corporate and educational environments worldwide today, students in virtual internships commute to "the office" in their global work placement virtually and interact online with their colleagues and supervisors in locations including Australia, England, Ireland, Italy, and Spain for an average of twenty hours a week. Students from almost all ASU colleges and schools participate in the GVI programmes. Available internships are applicable to a variety of majors across numerous disciplines such as communications, public relations, sports management, fashion, marketing, healthcare, finance, business, and media studies. In addition to disciplinary knowledge and experience in their field of choice, students develop highly valued online professional, networking, and social skills in a globally connected environment. Internship learning outcomes include time management and prioritisation, problem solving, teamwork, adaptability, critical thinking, and cultural awareness.

In addition to the experiential learning provided by the internship, students participate in an online, credit-bearing course focused on further developing their personal and professional skills. Paired with the hours completed within the internship placement, students earn three academic credits for the overall experience. Through both synchronous and asynchronous interactions with faculty and fellow internship participants, in the global internship course students discuss culturally-bound models and systems of work, organisational behaviour, management styles and the online communication in a comparative and analytical context. Students learn how to construct and modify resume and CV structures and language, participate in job interviews, develop an elevator pitch, use online networking platforms, and give and receive professional feedback. In an employment context where remote and online internships placements are still an emerging concept, the learning outcomes of the companion academic course are especially important to students' career trajectories in order to maximise the value of this experience.

Descriptive statistics were calculated to describe and explore differences between the students participating in the GVI programmes and traditional study abroad programmes for 2018-2019 (the last full pre-pandemic academic year for mobility). Variables assessed include first-generation student status, online student status, Pell-eligibility[1], ethnicity, and gender[2]. Differences between the GVI student group (n = 332 students, summer 2020 – summer 2022) and the traditional study abroad population from 2018-2019 were identified across several key demographic variables.

As compared to students participating in traditional study abroad, considerably more GVI students identified as first-generation students (26% compared to 20%). These findings suggest that for first-generation students in this sample, international internships with an online delivery modality may signal a lower barrier to participation thereby widening access to social and mobility capital building skills and experiences. These findings support past research indicating first-generation students appreciate the value global skill-building experiences may have to their professional lives (Ramakrishna et al., 2016).

Although ASU Online students do participate in study abroad activities, there was also significantly higher participation from ASU Online students in GVI than in traditional mobility (53% compared to 12%). Previous research has recorded the heterogeneity of the ASU Online population that participates in study abroad, documenting the contribution of students' multiple identities to external and internal barriers to participation in traditional study abroad programmes (Malerich, 2022). Therefore, this programme is serving the double role of widening access to internships in general for online students while also providing an enhanced and globally-focused experience to a more diverse group of students.

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[1] The U.S. Federal Pell Grant system awards funding for low-income undergraduate students towards the cost of higher education ((The Pell Institute for the Study of Opportunity in Higher Education, n.d.). Pell eligibility is often used as a proxy for socioeconomic status in higher education research in the United States.

[2] Gender represents institutional data and for the purposes of this quantitative assessment is treated as binary.

Both financial and opportunity costs have been identified as barriers to entry for global education activities (Lörz et al., 2016; Stroud, 2010; Vernon et al., 2017). Within this sample, fewer students identifying as Pell-eligible, a traditional marker of higher education financial need in the United States, were participants in the GVI programme (19% compared to 37%). The difference in participation may be related to the unpaid nature of the internships, concurrent with earlier scholarship surrounding barriers to participation in unpaid internships in connection to financial need (Hora et al., 2021). Participation by non-White students in both GVI and traditional mobility (approximately 42% for both programmes) at ASU is higher than the national average, but is in line with ASU's student body demographics. There were no great differences between programmes considering gender (male participation between 34-36% for both programmes). Gender participation rates are also largely aligned with the national average.

Global Tech programmes

Through the Global Tech (GT) programmes, offered in partnership with an ed-tech company based in Austin, Texas, students develop in-demand web design and development, data analytics, and digital marketing skills via hands-on project-based learning in an online environment. Students earn six credits through a combination of asynchronous examination of case studies from global companies and synchronous live labs which pull students together online with faculty for discussion and problem-solving practice. Intercultural competency development is woven throughout the technology curricula, allowing students to apply intercultural skills to disciplinary learning and career related scenarios in real-world settings. At the successful completion of their chosen programme track, students earn badges showcasing their skills suitable for addition to a digital portfolio, resume, or LinkedIn profile. GT programmes are built on the premise that in today's world, data and technology are used to tell stories and communicate no matter what the industry or discipline and are therefore applicable to all majors. To further integrate the GT programmes into the academic structure at ASU, GEO partnered with the business and engineering schools to identify where the curriculum fit within their majors, provide applicable credit and promote the programmes. Students from almost all colleges and schools at ASU participate in GT programmes.

ASU offered the GT programmes summer 2021, spring 2022, and summer 2022 sessions (n = 1,732 students). Descriptive statistics were calculated to describe and explore differences between the students participating in the GT programmes and traditional mobility programmes for 2018-2019. Variables assessed include first-generation student status, online student status, Pell-eligibility, ethnicity, and gender.

When compared to ASU enrolment in traditional study abroad programmes in 2018-2019, differences in the populations participating in the GT programmes identified across all variables assessed.

Gender participation in the GT programmes was more balanced than typically seen in study abroad with 46% of students identifying as male, as compared to 34% in the ASU study abroad population. In this sample, the GT programmes were reaching meaningfully more male students when compared to traditional mobility. The increase in male participation in an online technology-focused programme with immediate practical application seems to suggest that these programmes are providing value for males in majors not traditionally associated with study abroad. Simultaneously, the integrated intercultural competency curriculum ensures this content is also reaching students who might not be seeking it out through study abroad.

Approximately 55% of the students in GT programmes came from non-White populations, as compared to 42% for students participating in study abroad. Considering the national participation of non-White students in 2018-2019 traditional study abroad programmes was just over 31% (Institute of International Education, 2021), the participation rates for non-White students in the GT programmes are striking. Whether it is the focus on technology, the perceived work-related value of skills, or low barrier to entry, the impact of the GT programmes on traditionally disadvantaged students in different ethnic groups bears further research and consideration.

Approximately 28% of the GT population were first-generation students and 49% were Pell-eligible, as compared to 20% and 37% respectively for the study abroad populations. Here again, higher participation rates by first-generation students support past research indicating the value proposition global skill-building experiences have for first-generation students (Ramakrishna et al., 2016). The participation in the GT programmes by Pell-eligible students (49%), especially when compared to participation rates in the GVI (19%), are remarkable. In this case, students with the highest financial need as identified by the Pell-eligible status seem to perceive the investment of time, resources, and money in the GT programmes as high value for their current and future selves.

Finally, over 59% of Global Tech programme participants were ASU Online students, as compared to 12% of the traditional study abroad population. High participation rates by online students in this programme suggest very low barrier to entry and perceived value and impact. As earlier research suggests significant impact on the academic and personal development of online students as a result of traditional mobility (Malerich, 2022), additional consideration specific to online students should be given to this online global learning programme's successful elements and specific pedagogical methods.

Conclusion

In this pivotal moment in higher education, the opportunity exists to make significant and lasting changes to the structures, methods, and attitudes associated with educating students within a changing world. The Global Virtual Internships and Global Tech programmes are just two examples of what's possible in the next generation of global education programming. Student participation numbers clearly demonstrate that these two programmes are meeting the needs of diverse groups of students at ASU and breaking down some of the barriers to participation in traditional mobility education in areas such as gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic status.

The pandemic presented GEO with an opportunity to reassess priorities, be creative, and expand and stretch on-campus and third-party partnerships. These successes are being carefully considered as new flavors of online global learning programmes and traditional study abroad programmes are developed. Now that online global learning programmes are able to be offered contemporaneously alongside traditional study abroad, more rigorous, inferential statistical interrogation of the data can be conducted in the future. The academic development of student participants in terms of retention and graduation rates may influence how and when in the student academic journey these programmes are marketed to students. Further research on student learning outcomes may suggest additional methods for internationalising on-campus and online curriculum across the enterprise. Longitudinal research related to career readiness and labor market outcomes may guide future programme development and additional partnerships with local and global employers. Finally, GEO must go beyond the quantitative measures of participation metrics and further examine qualitative measures such as the student experience to dig deeper into why and how these programmes are working.

Experimentation and innovative programme design are not new to ASU. However, similar to the challenges that short-term study abroad has faced over the last twenty years in terms of being accepted by the field, online global learning may have to face critics who believe that in-person education is an unsurpassable marker of quality in international education. Recent surveys of higher education institutions have found that while some view changes made to address the pandemic as only temporary, others have identified this opportunity to implement and stabilise innovative internationalisation practices (Huang et al., 2022). At ASU, online global learning programmes are now considered a critical addition to the portfolio of programme models ranging along a continuum from traditional mobility toward aspirations for truly integrated internationalisation of the curriculum. By providing multiple programming models, emphasising applied learning and a connection between global education to work readiness, the ASU Global Education Office is building spaces for all students to have a meaningful global education experience.

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PART III

INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS: EXPERIENCES AND VOICES

CHAPTER 10

The differential impact of learning experiences on international student satisfaction and institutional recommendation

RAVICHANDRAN AMMIGAN, JOHN L. DENNIS AND ELSPETH JONES

Abstract. This research uses the i-graduate's International Student Barometer to investigate whether overall satisfaction and institutional recommendation are influenced by student nationality and destination country while controlling for the covariates of learning experiences. The result is the identification of a conceptual framework for the differences between evaluations (reflecting satisfaction with an experience) and behavioural intentions (willingness to recommend that experience to others); this frame has consequences for recruitment and retention of international students. The results indicate that student nationality, destination country, and learning experience differentially influence overall satisfaction and institutional recommendation. Student nationality and destination country significantly influenced both satisfaction and recommendation. While learning experience 'teaching' variables ("programme organisation" and "quality of lectures") mattered most for overall satisfaction, 'study' variables ("English language support" and "employability skills") were mainly associated with institutional recommendation. Practical implications for educators and marketers are discussed, along with pointers for future research.

Keywords: international students; learning experience; institutional recommendation; satisfaction surveys; student recruitment.

Questa ricerca si avvale del Barometro degli studenti internazionali di i-graduate per indagare sulla soddisfazione e sulla raccomandazione istituzionale in base alla nazionalità dello studente e al Paese di destinazione, controllando al contempo le covariate delle esperienze di apprendimento. L'analisi ha identificato un quadro concettuale delle differenze tra le valutazioni (che riflettono la soddisfazione per un'esperienza) e le intenzioni comportamentali (la volontà di consigliare quell'esperienza ad altri). Lo schema ha conseguenze sul reclutamento e trattenimento di studenti internazionali. I risultati indicano che la nazionalità dello studente, il paese di destinazione e le variabili relative all'esperienza di apprendimento influenzano in modo differenziato sia la soddisfazione complessiva sia la raccomandazione istituzionale. Rilevano che la nazionalità dello studente e il Paese di destinazione influenzano in modo significativo sia la soddisfazione che la raccomandazione. Mentre le variabili "didattiche" dell'esperienza di apprendimento ("organizzazione del programma" e "qualità delle lezioni") sono le più importanti per la soddisfazione complessiva, le variabili "di studio" ("supporto in lingua inglese" e "competenze per l'impiego") sono associate alla raccomandazione istituzionale. Infine, vengono discusse le implicazioni pratiche per gli educatori e gli operatori di mercato internazionali e alcune indicazioni per la ricerca futura.

Keywords: studenti internazionali; esperienza di apprendimento; raccomandazione istituzionale; sondaggi di soddisfazione; reclutamento di studenti.

Introduction[1]

The enrolment of international students is a key target at national and institutional levels for economic, political, cultural, and academic reasons (de Wit, 2016; Roberts & Dunworth, 2012). Although they may be considered "transient visitors," international students form an integral part of their university's fabric (Montgomery, 2010) and, with a purposeful approach to integration and pedagogy (Leask, 2015), can facilitate the global and intercultural competence of domestic students, faculty, and staff (Irina et al., 2017). However, for these and other benefits to be realised, international student recruitment must be an increasing priority. To be successful in this endeavor, institutions must be strategic in incorporating international student perspectives, including what they value, how these values influence satisfaction, and how likely international students are to recommend the institution based on their experiences.

In this paper, we explore whether learning experience variables, nationality, and destination country differentially influence students' satisfaction with their overall experience, and willingness to recommend their institution to others, using data from the International Student Barometer (ISB) (i-graduate, n.d.).

Before presenting the results, we define terms, then discuss international student learning experiences and the relationship between these and student satisfaction. Reflecting on the difference between recommendation and satisfaction then leads to consideration of the connection between institutional recommendation and student learning experiences.

Literature review

Definitions of key terms

For international students, we use the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (2022) definition, which states "international students are those who received their prior education in another country and are not residents of their current country of study" (Definition of International Student Mobility section, para. 1).

[1] Reprinted with permission. Ammigan, R., Dennis, J.L., & Jones, E. (2021). The Differential Impact of Learning Experiences on International Student Satisfaction and Institutional Recommendation. *Journal of International Students*, *11*(2), 299-321. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v11i2.2038.

For the present study, we use data from the International Student Barometer (ISB), which is said to be the world's leading benchmarking tool of international student satisfaction in higher education (Garrett, 2014). Based on the ISB instrument, and for this paper, the authors define learning experiences as those which students experience within academic settings at their respective institutions, including the teaching, studies, services, and facilities used in their educational environment. Additionally, student satisfaction is defined as "a short-term attitude resulting from an evaluation of a student's educational experience" (Elliott & Healy, 2001, p. 2). The authors define institutional recommendation as students' willingness to recommend their current institution to prospective applicants, based on their experience at that institution.

Conceptual framework

The difference between evaluations and behavioural intentions forms the framework for this paper and acts as the basis for understanding how student learning experiences differentially influence satisfaction and recommendation. The literature on consumer behaviour is thus a key starting point.

In a seminal paper, Cronin et al. (2000) studied the relationship between the core constructs of consumer evaluations (quality, value, satisfaction) and consumer behavioural intentions (e.g., recommendation). Their research demonstrates that quality (the relationship between expectations and performance) and value (the relationship between what was received and what was given) lead to satisfaction (whether something met or exceeded expectations). Together these three factors of quality, value, and satisfaction influence behavioural intentions, i.e., a conscious plan to perform a specific behaviour. Satisfaction, for this model, describes whether a consumer believes that a service evokes positive feelings (Rust & Oliver, 1994), while recommendation describes when consumers will say positive things about a service, and recommend that service (Babakus et al., 1987). Essentially, factors influencing satisfaction can differ from those that influence recommendation (Gajjar, 2013).

In research on the connection between institutional recommendation and satisfaction, Mavondo et al. (2004) suggest that satisfied students are more likely to engage in word-of-mouth recommendation to potential or future students. Similar results were found by Padlee and Reimers (2015). Yet, within the broader research area of customer satisfaction, studies demonstrate that not all satisfied customers recommend what they have purchased (Gounaris et al., 2010; Lobo et al., 2007). Importantly, this means that people can be satisfied with a product but still not be willing to recommend it.

Recommendations, as behavioural intentions, are often crucially important when making purchase decisions (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Zhu & Zhang, 2010). As such, they are pivotal for word-of-mouth recommendations in higher education (Arndt, 1967; Westbrook, 1987) and so, in terms of international student recruitment in particular, the distinction merits further consideration.

Cubillo et al. (2006) studied different factors influencing the decision-making processes when international students choose a destination country or an institution. They found five variables determining institutional choice: 1) work (post-graduation career prospects, opportunities to work while at the institution, recognition by future employers, and enhanced language skills); 2) institution (ranking, campus atmosphere, research opportunities, experience and expertise of faculty, quality of education, academic resources, and international contacts); 3) programme of study (tuition costs, variety, and quality of courses); 4) host country (cost of living, visa procedures, social-life prospects); 5) local setting (safety and security, social facilities, and the local environment).

As institutions of higher education face increasing competition to attract international students, factors influencing purchase decisions grow in importance, and understanding the difference between student evaluations and behavioural intentions is crucial. The former are possibly short-term and reflect satisfaction, quality, and value, while behavioural intentions reflect (amongst other things) willingness to recommend an institution.

Within the conceptual framework distinguishing satisfaction and recommendation, the goal of the present study is to investigate which international student learning experiences predict overall satisfaction and whether these differ from those that predict institutional recommendation, and as a function of student nationality or destination country.

International student learning experiences

While research on conceptual models of student satisfaction has demonstrated relationships between quality, value, satisfaction, loyalty, and word-of-mouth recommendation (Alves & Raposo, 2007; Douglas et al., 2008; Padlee & Reimers, 2015), those models have largely not been applied to international students – despite growth in their numbers on university campuses (Institute of International Education, 2020). Additionally, the limited available literature on student satisfaction and learning focuses largely on domestic students (García-Aracil, 2009; Karemera et al., 2003; Umbach & Porter, 2002). Using the ISB allows examination of what influences satisfaction and institutional recommendation, and to do this both on a large-scale and in a global context. Typically, 60,000 to 85,000 international students in over 30 countries complete the ISB each year. The authors in the current study were given access to an anonymised version of the resulting large-scale dataset. It is important to note that, although the ISB shares with participating institutions their own "results benchmarked against competitor groups, national and international indices" (i-graduate, n.d.), for confidentiality reasons, no individual institution is identified to others, nor named in the dataset made available for the current study.

Improving the experience for all students (including international students) is an important strategic priority at many higher education institutions (Baranova et al., 2011; Shah & Richardson, 2016). Coping with a new academic environment can be challenging for all students, and even more so for international students as they adapt to a new culture, and often to a language which is not their first (Andrade, 2006; Bista & Foster, 2016; Perrucci & Hu, 1995).

A range of factors exert a direct influence on the experience of international students in their academic, living, and social settings, and Jones (2017) groups these into four categories or contexts: personal, familial, institutional, and national. Elsharnouby (2015), meanwhile, argues that student experiences are "commonly acknowledged" (Elsharnouby, 2015, p. 240) to be either at the core (centring around academic experiences) or supplementary levels, such as the physical environment, library facilities, educational technology, university layout, social environment, and campus climate.

Satisfaction and student learning experiences

In the first comparative study to use ISB data, Ammigan and Jones (2018) investigated over 45,000 undergraduate, degree-seeking international students at 96 institutions in Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Of the four dimensions of university experience studied (arrival, living, learning, and support services), learning was found to influence overall satisfaction the most. In an extension of the previous research, Ammigan (2019) found that overall student satisfaction predicted institutional recommendation and that learning experience was the most significant of the four dimensions for international students' willingness to recommend their institution to prospective applicants. These two studies provide a strong base for closely examining how different aspects of the learning environment influence satisfaction and recommendation. No prior research has used ISB data to determine this differential influence.

In earlier studies, Wiers-Jenssen et al. (2002), and Sahin (2014) found the quality of teaching, among other factors, to be an important determinant of student satisfaction. The relationship between student satisfaction and educational offerings at higher education institutions was also examined by Butt and Rehman (2010) who found that teacher expertise, quality of courses offered, learning environment, and classroom facilities all enhanced satisfaction. Asare-Nuamah (2017) concluded that library services, teacher contact, class size, course content, reading materials, and general administrative services were key to enhancing student experiences.

While these studies support different aspects as being influential in the student experience, the current research is unique in its large sample size, using data from the International Student Barometer, and its focus on the differential influence of various dimensions of the student learning experience on satisfaction and institutional recommendation.

Method

This study examines whether overall satisfaction and institutional recommendation are influenced by student nationality and destination country while controlling for learning experience variables for international students in ten participating countries around the world. It was declared exempt from the requirements of human subject protection by the relevant Institutional Review Board since non-identifiable, pre-existing data was used for analysis.

Instrument

The ISB is administered by i-graduate, a United Kingdom-based company. It seeks to track and compare the decision-making, expectations, perceptions, intentions, and satisfaction of international students from application to graduation (i-graduate, n.d.). Since its inception in 2005, the ISB has gathered feedback from over three million students in more than 1,400 institutions across 33 countries (i-graduate, n.d.). The questionnaire measures international students' satisfaction in the arrival, learning, living, and support services dimensions of their experience by asking them to evaluate how satisfied they are with multiple aspects within each of these dimensions (i-graduate, n.d.). Two summary questions capture how international students evaluate their overall experience – i.e., satisfaction ("Overall, how satisfied are you with all aspects at [university name]") and institutional recommendation ("Based on your impressions at this stage of the year, would you recommend your university to other students thinking of applying here?"). The full questionnaire, consisting of 256 closed-ended and open-ended questions, has been refined through eighteen cycles and, according to Brett (2013), is considered the industry gold-standard for assessing the international student experience.

Variables

Independent variables: student nationality and destination country

The two categorical independent variables, i.e., student nationality and destination country, were at 10 levels (or countries) each. Categorical variables consist of separate, indivisible, and distinct groups that take on values that are names or labels (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013, p. 20). For student nationality (see Tables 1 and 2), the ten most frequent home country nationalities in the ISB data were included – i.e., China, Malaysia, Germany, the United States, India, Singapore, Hong Kong, France, South Korea, and Italy. These students were hosted in one of ten destination countries (see Tables 1 and 3) – i.e., Australia, Canada, Germany, Hong Kong, Ireland, Malaysia, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom, and the United States.

Dependent variables: overall satisfaction and institutional recommendation

The two continuous dependent variables (see Table 1), i.e., overall satisfaction variable and institutional recommendation, were both set to Likert scales, with the former being a four-point scale, where 1 = *very dissatisfied*, 2 = *dissatisfied*, 3 = *satisfied*, and 4 = *very satisfied,* and the latter being a five-point scale, where 1 = *actively discourage*, 2 = *discourage*, 3 = *neither encourage or discourage*, 4 = *encourage*, and 5 = *actively encourage*. Continuous variables are numeric variables that have an infinite number of possible values that fall between any two observed values (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013, p. 20).

Covariate variables: learning experience variables

The twenty-two continuous covariate learning experience variables were grouped into three categories (see Table 1): teaching-related (eleven in total); studies-related (six in total); and facilities-related (five in total). One variable – "satisfaction with laboratories" – was removed from the analysis as it had over 44% missing values. See below subsection Data Analysis for further discussion of this issue. A covariate is a continuous variable that is expected to change, vary, or correlate with the outcome variable of a study (Salkind, 2010).

Table 1
Study variables

Type	**Variables**
Independent variables (ten levels each)	<u>Student nationality</u>: China, Malaysia, Germany, the United States, India, Singapore, Hong Kong, France, South Korea, and Italy <u>Destination country</u>: Australia, Canada, Germany, Hong Kong,

Type	Variables
	Ireland, Malaysia, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom, and the United States
Covariate learning experience variables (1 = *very dissatisfied*, 2 = *dissatisfied*, 3 = *satisfied*, and 4 = *very satisfied)*	Teaching: Quality of lectures, Expertise of faculty, Teaching ability of faculty, Academic and programme content, Programme organisation, Level of research activity, English of academic staff, Learning support, Performance feedback, Grading criteria, Assessment of coursework Studies: Career guidance and advice, Employability skills, Work experience during studies, Multicultural study environment, English language support, Class size Facilities: Quality of classrooms, Physical library, Online library, Classroom technology, Virtual learning
Dependent variables	Overall satisfaction (1 = *very dissatisfied*, 2 = *dissatisfied*, 3 = *satisfied*, and 4 = *very satisfied)* Institutional recommendation (1 = *actively discourage*, 2 = *discourage*, 3 = *neither encourage or discourage*, 4 = *encourage*, and 5 = *actively encourage)*

Participants

Our sample included 32,015 international students from the ten most frequent home country nationalities in the ISB data (China, Malaysia, Germany, the United States, India, Singapore, Hong Kong, France, South Korea, and Italy). These students were hosted in one of ten countries (Australia, Canada, Germany, Hong Kong, Ireland, Malaysia, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom, and the United States) and had completed the online ISB questionnaire via email from September to December 2016. To ensure confidentiality, de-identified responses, without institutional identifiers, were made available to the researchers by i-graduate.

Table 2 indicates the distribution of 32,015 international students from the ten most frequent home country nationalities.

Table 2
Student nationality distribution

Student nationalities	Students	%
China	11,121	34.74
Malaysia	4,233	13.2

Student nationalities	Students	%
Germany	3,128	9.8
United States	2,973	9.3
India	2,100	6.6
Singapore	1,929	6.0
Hong Kong	1,862	5.8
France	1,692	5.3
South Korea	1,504	4.7
Italy	1,472	4.6
TOTAL	**32,015**	**100**

Table 3 indicates the distribution of institutions for the ten most frequent destination countries.

Table 3
Institution and student distributions by destination country

Destination country	Institutions	%	Students	%
Australia	35	18.48	12,755	39.8
Canada	14	7.61	458	1.43
Germany	37	20.11	1,419	4.43
Hong Kong	7	3.80	1,723	5.38
Ireland	7	3.80	1,914	5.98
Malaysia	4	2.17	151	0.47
Netherlands	7	3.80	2,024	6.32
Sweden	12	6.52	946	2.95
United Kingdom	42	22.83	8660	27.05
United States	20	10.87	1965	6.14
TOTAL	**185**	**100.00**	**32,015**	**100.00**

Table 4 indicates the demographic makeup of students who participated in this study.

Table 4
Demographic information

Demographic	**Description**
Age	*M*=21.11; SD=3.21
Gender	61.86% Female 33.67% Male 0.06% Did not say, Transgender, non-binary, intersex
Field of study	25.69% Business & Administrative Studies 12.46% Engineering 8.05% Biological Sciences 7.23% Social Sciences 46.57% remaining 20 fields of studies
Year of study	33.32% first year of study 25.59% last year of study 41.09% second or third year of study
Programme status	97.75% full-time 2.25% part-time
Study type	78.48% on-site 16.45% exchange programmes 5.07% Other

Data analysis

Testing for outliers, homoscedasticity, and normality

Data analysis was planned in successive steps. The analysis focused on the ten most frequent home country nationalities as this allowed us to retain most of our learning variables (see discussion below on missing values). This choice reduced the sample from 66,272 to 32,015. Before and after the next data analysis step, the generalised (extreme Studentised deviate) ESD test to detect outliers (Rosner, 1983), Bartlett's test for homoscedasticity (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989), and Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965) were all used, with none being significant.

Dealing with missing values

The twenty-three learning variables as well as the overall institutional recommendation question were optional questions and, on average, items in our dataset had 18.35% missing values. Therefore, a Missing Values Analysis (MVA) was performed, and "satisfaction with laboratories" was found to have over 44% missing values. It was therefore removed from future analysis, reducing the number of learning variables to twenty-two. Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test (1988) was significant, $X^2(58870, N = 32015) = 74717.39$, $p < .001$. To accommodate for non-random missing values an Approximate Bayesian Bootstrap (ABB) hot-deck nearest neighbour imputation method (Andridge & Little, 2010; Demirtas et al., 2007) was performed. In this technique, missing values are replaced with observed values that reflect similar response characteristics. Subsequent analysis was completed using imputed data derived from this method.

Our model: ANCOVA

The goal of this research was to determine whether overall satisfaction and institutional recommendation were differentially impacted by international students' home and destination countries and by learning experience variables. As the learning experiences are predicted to covary with overall satisfaction, we chose to run a stepwise ANCOVA model as it offers both simplicity (i.e., as few regressors as possible) and fit (i.e., as many regressors as needed). With this model, variables are included in the model if they meet two significant levels, one for adding (set at 0.05) and one for removing (set at 0.10).

Results

Overall satisfaction and student nationality

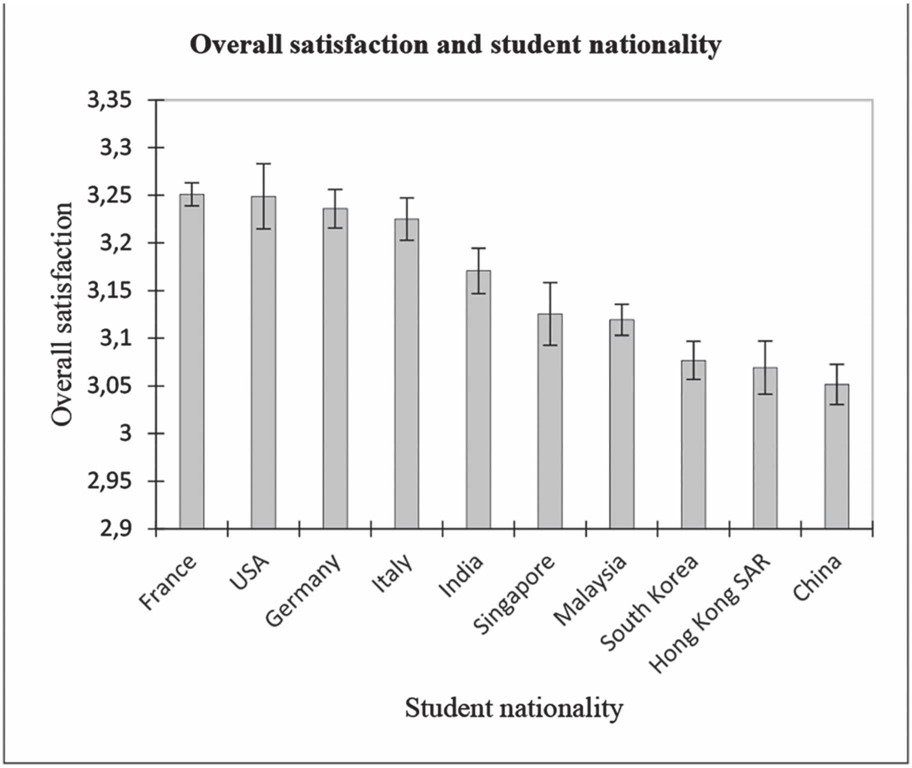
A one-way stepwise ANCOVA model was conducted to determine the effect of student nationality on overall satisfaction while controlling for learning experience variables. The ANCOVA was significant, $F(23, 31991) = 340.904$, $p < .0001$. In terms of learning experience covariates, 13 of 22 were found to significantly influence overall satisfaction with "programme organisation" doing so the most, followed by "quality of lectures" and "English language support". "Grading criteria" was found to be negatively associated with overall satisfaction, meaning that as satisfaction with grading criteria increased, overall satisfaction decreased (see Table 5). The Adjusted R2 for the goodness of fit indicates that about 20% of the variance in overall satisfaction is explained by our independent and covariate variables. Among the explanatory variables, based on the Type III sum of squares, student nationality is the most influential of these variables.

Table 5
ANCOVA results of overall satisfaction as a function of student nationality and learning experience covariates

Source	**DF**	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**Pr > F**
Student nationality	9.000	184.725	20.525	64.059	0.000
Programme organisation	1.000	77.021	77.021	240.382	0.000
Quality of lectures	1.000	39.837	39.837	124.333	0.000
English language support	1.000	35.573	35.573	111.024	0.000
Expertise of faculty	1.000	20.266	20.266	63.251	0.000
Academic and programme content	1.000	18.764	18.764	58.561	0.000
Physical library	1.000	17.153	17.153	53.534	0.000
Learning support	1.000	14.881	14.881	46.443	0.000
Employability skills	1.000	11.130	11.130	34.737	0.000
Quality of classrooms	1.000	9.278	9.278	28.958	0.000
Multicultural study environment	1.000	5.759	5.759	17.974	0.000
Teaching ability of faculty	1.000	5.207	5.207	16.251	0.000
Work experience during studies	1.000	3.603	3.603	11.245	0.001
Assessment of coursework	1.000	3.436	3.436	10.725	0.001
Grading criteria	1.000	1.607	1.607	5.015	0.025

Students holding nationalities from six different countries, all in Asia, had a significant influence on overall satisfaction (see Figure 1 for mean overall satisfaction by student nationality).

Figure 1
Student nationality and overall satisfaction



Overall satisfaction and destination country

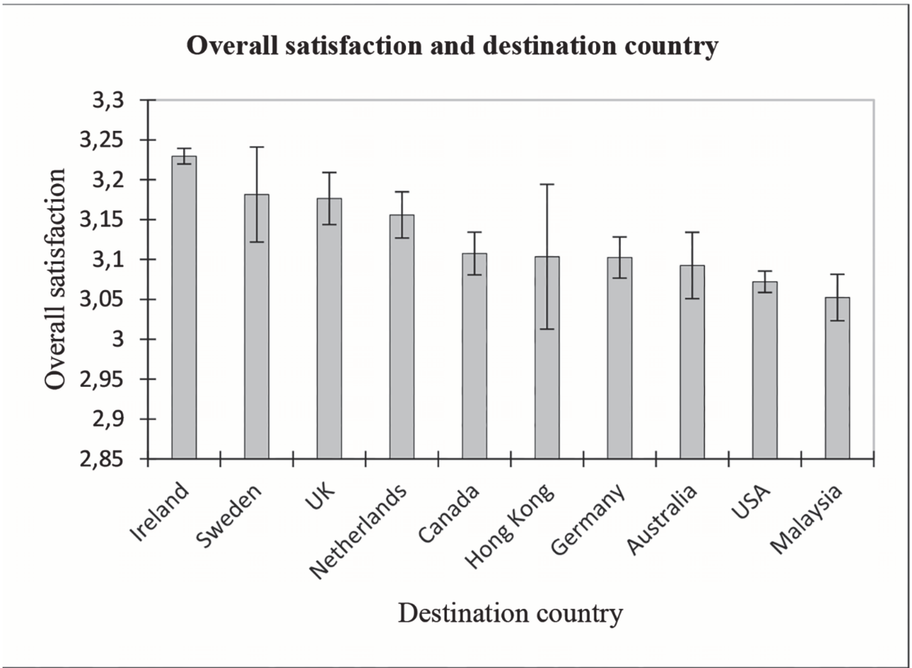
A one-way stepwise ANCOVA model was conducted to determine the effect of destination country on overall satisfaction while controlling for learning experience variables. The ANCOVA was significant, $F(23, 31991) = 308.474$, $p < .0001$. In terms of learning experience covariates, 15 of 22 were found to significantly influence overall satisfaction with "programme organisation" doing so the most, followed by "English language support" and "Quality of lectures". "Grading criteria" was found to be negatively associated with overall satisfaction, meaning that as satisfaction with grading criteria increased, overall satisfaction decreased (see Table 6). The Adjusted R2 for the goodness of fit indicates that about 19% of the variance in overall satisfaction is explained by our independent and covariate variables. Among the explanatory variables, based on the Type III sum of squares, programme organisation is the most influential of these variables.

Table 6
ANCOVA results of overall satisfaction as a function of destination country and learning experience covariates

Source	**DF**	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**Pr > F**
Programme organisation	1.000	74.629	74.629	230.353	0.000
Destination country	9.000	67.159	7.462	23.033	0.000
English language support	1.000	43.275	43.275	133.576	0.000
Quality of lectures	1.000	37.209	37.209	114.851	0.000
Expertise of faculty	1.000	28.760	28.760	88.771	0.000
Academic and programme content	1.000	17.319	17.319	53.459	0.000
Physical library	1.000	17.080	17.080	52.719	0.000
Learning support	1.000	14.363	14.363	44.334	0.000
Multicultural study environment	1.000	12.313	12.313	38.006	0.000
Quality of classrooms	1.000	12.098	12.098	37.343	0.000
Employability skills	1.000	10.517	10.517	32.462	0.000
Grading criteria	1.000	4.437	4.437	13.694	0.000
Teaching ability of faculty	1.000	3.012	3.012	9.296	0.002
Assessment of coursework	1.000	2.019	2.019	6.232	0.013
English of academic staff	1.000	1.551	1.551	4.788	0.029
Work experience during studies	1.000	1.382	1.382	4.266	0.039

Students enrolled in universities in four of the ten countries, i.e., Ireland, Sweden, United Kingdom, and the Netherlands, significantly influenced overall satisfaction (see Figure 2 for mean overall satisfaction by destination country).

Figure 2
Destination country and overall satisfaction



Institutional recommendation and student nationality

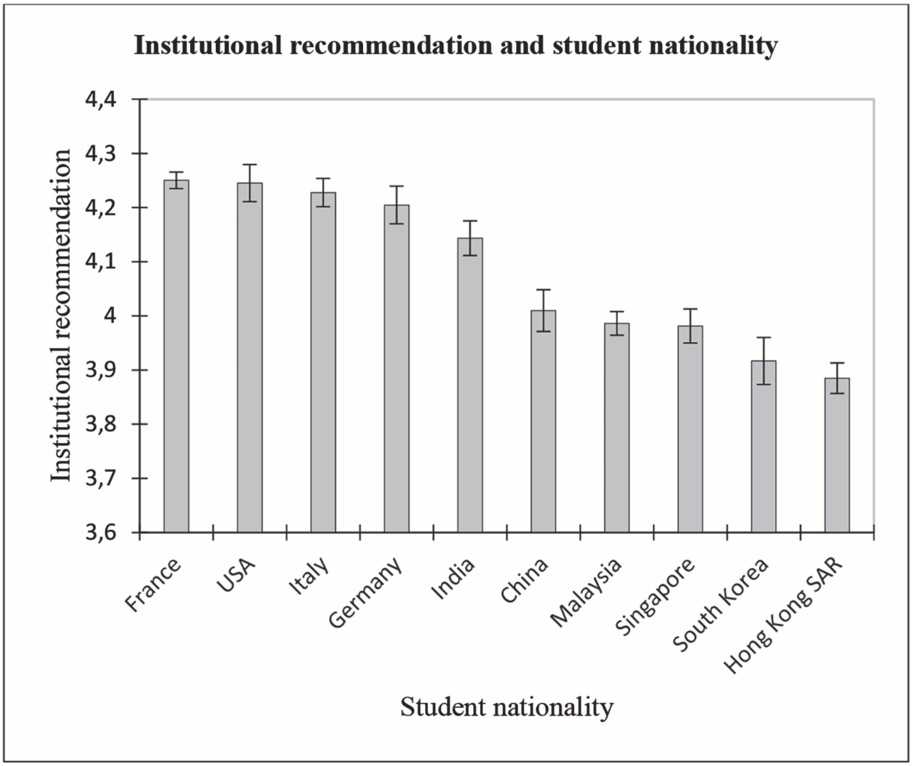
A one-way stepwise ANCOVA model was conducted to determine the effect of student nationality on institutional recommendation while controlling for learning experience variables. The ANCOVA was significant, $F(24, 31990) = 311.217$, $p < .0001$. In terms of learning experience covariates, 15 of 22 were found to significantly influence overall satisfaction with "English language support" doing so the most, followed by "employability skills and multicultural study environment". "Performance feedback" and "multicultural study environment" were found to be negatively associated with institutional recommendation, meaning that as satisfaction with these variables increased, institutional recommendation decreased (see Table 7). The Adjusted R2 for the goodness of fit indicates that about 19% of the variance in overall satisfaction is explained by our independent and covariate variables. Among the explanatory variables, based on the Type III sum of squares, student nationality is the most influential of these variables.

Table 7
ANCOVA results of institutional recommendation as a function of student nationality and learning experience covariates

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Pr > F
Student nationality	9.000	410.367	45.596	80.261	0.000
English language support	1.000	193.235	193.235	340.141	0.000
Employability skills	1.000	106.702	106.702	187.821	0.000
Multicultural study environment	1.000	100.902	100.902	177.612	0.000
Academic and programme content	1.000	72.588	72.588	127.772	0.000
Programme organisation	1.000	52.473	52.473	92.366	0.000
Quality of lectures	1.000	35.949	35.949	63.279	0.000
Learning support	1.000	20.966	20.966	36.906	0.000
Expertise of faculty	1.000	20.825	20.825	36.657	0.000
Virtual learning	1.000	16.638	16.638	29.287	0.000
Physical library	1.000	14.720	14.720	25.910	0.000
Assessment of coursework	1.000	11.108	11.108	19.553	0.000
Classroom technology	1.000	9.192	9.192	16.180	0.000
Quality of classrooms	1.000	8.541	8.541	15.035	0.000
Performance feedback	1.000	8.101	8.101	14.259	0.000
Teaching ability of faculty	1.000	6.884	6.884	12.118	0.001

Students holding nationalities from six different countries, all in Asia, had a significant influence on institutional recommendation (see Figure 3 for mean recommendation responses by student nationality).

Figure 3
Student nationality and institutional recommendation



Institutional recommendation and destination country

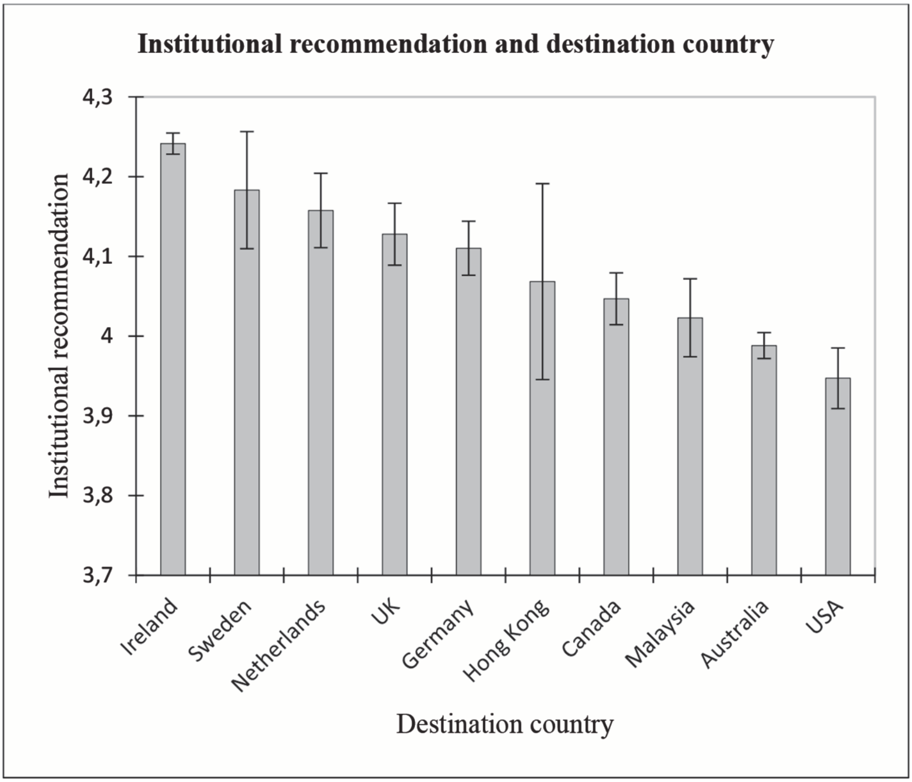
A one-way stepwise ANCOVA model was conducted to determine the effect of destination country on institutional recommendation while controlling for learning experience variables. The ANCOVA was significant, $F(24, 31990) = 294.575$, $p < .0001$. In terms of learning experience covariates, 15 of 22 were found to significantly influence overall satisfaction with "English language support" doing so the most, followed by "employability skills and multicultural study environment". "Performance feedback" and "multicultural study environment" were found to be negatively associated with institutional recommendation, meaning that as satisfaction with these variables increased, institutional recommendation decreased (see Table 8). The Adjusted R2 for the goodness of fit indicates that about 18% of the variance in overall satisfaction is explained by our independent and covariate variables. Among the explanatory variables, based on the Type III sum of squares, institution country is the most influential of these variables.

Table 8
ANCOVA results of institutional recommendation as a function of destination country and learning experience covariates

Source	**DF**	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**Pr > F**
Institution country	9.000	224.534	24.948	43.470	0.000
English language support	1.000	221.064	221.064	385.189	0.000
Employability skills	1.000	95.847	95.847	167.006	0.000
Multicultural study environment	1.000	77.779	77.779	135.525	0.000
Academic and programme content	1.000	69.990	69.990	121.953	0.000
Programme organisation	1.000	52.777	52.777	91.960	0.000
Quality of lectures	1.000	32.401	32.401	56.457	0.000
Expertise of faculty	1.000	29.100	29.100	50.705	0.000
Learning support	1.000	23.712	23.712	41.316	0.000
Physical library	1.000	15.785	15.785	27.504	0.000
Quality of classrooms	1.000	15.343	15.343	26.735	0.000
Performance feedback	1.000	13.433	13.433	23.406	0.000
Virtual learning	1.000	12.575	12.575	21.911	0.000
Classroom technology	1.000	10.763	10.763	18.754	0.000
Assessment of coursework	1.000	8.182	8.182	14.256	0.000
Teaching ability of faculty	1.000	5.925	5.925	10.324	0.001

Students enrolled in universities in all of the ten countries excluding Malaysia, Australia, and the USA had a significant influence on institutional recommendation (see Figure 4 for mean recommendation responses by destination country).

Figure 4
Destination country and institutional recommendation



Discussion

The framing concept for this paper is that satisfaction with an experience does not necessarily result in a willingness to recommend it. Findings with our international student sample confirm this and, moreover, that different learning experience variables influence satisfaction and recommendation. Results also show variation by student nationality and destination country. The following discussion explains the findings in more detail.

Overall satisfaction

When considering overall satisfaction with their institution, international students value the most those learning experience variables described as teaching-related

(See Table 5). Indeed, eight of the fourteen learning variables influencing overall satisfaction were in this category. Since students spend a good amount of their time in classes while at the university, the influence of teaching-related variables on overall satisfaction is perhaps unsurprising. These findings add detail to previous research (Ammigan & Jones, 2018; Butt & Rehman, 2010; Elsharnouby, 2015; Sahin, 2014; Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2002), which indicated various aspects of teaching as important determinants of student satisfaction.

In terms of student nationality, it was interesting that students from the Asian countries in our sample gave relatively lower satisfaction ratings than others. This echoes previous research in healthcare, which found lower levels of satisfaction among Asian respondents and those of Asian descent, reportedly due to different response tendencies or cultural norms rather than differences in experience (Brédart et al., 2007; Hung et al., 2016; Saha & Hickam, 2003).

Recommendation

For institutional recommendation, learning experience variables described as 'studies' are what international students value the most (see Table 6): "English language support", and "employability skills". The significant predictive power of "employability skills" on institutional recommendation is consistent with Cubillo et al.'s (2006) findings that career prospects and opportunities to work during a programme of study were significant factors in influencing international student decision-making during university selection. It is important to note that English language skills represent a key factor in communication, one of the most important elements of employability, and so these two variables are closely linked.

Two 'facilities' variables – "virtual learning" and "classroom technology" – significantly influenced institutional recommendation but failed to influence overall satisfaction. This is in line with our conceptual framework and echoes findings that factors influencing satisfaction can differ from those influencing recommendation (Gajjar, 2013; Ghorbanzade et al., 2019).

Satisfaction compared with recommendation

It is worth reflecting on the finding that a multicultural study environment positively predicts overall satisfaction but negatively predicts recommendation. Previous research (Arkoudis et al., 2013; Williams & Johnson, 2011; Yu et al., 2016) indicates that cross-cultural perspectives and intercultural friendships are highly rewarding experiences for international students, although making friends with local students may be difficult (Hendrickson et al., 2011; Montgomery & McDowell, 2009;

Rienties & Nolan, 2014). While students might appreciate the resources, engagement opportunities, and other efforts institutions put in place to ensure a diverse and multicultural setting on campus, it can still be stressful adjusting to new academic, social, and cultural environments (Bastien et al., 2018; Mesidor & Sly, 2016). Cultural differences can present challenges and, reflecting upon these experiences, students might be less inclined to recommend them to others.

"Teaching" variables predicted overall satisfaction more than "studies" or "facilities" variables, but this was not the case for recommendation, where learning variables classed as "studies" predicted willingness to recommend the institution. Once more, this important difference is in line with our conceptual framework, endorsing research by Cronin et al. (2000) that recommendations are fundamentally different from satisfaction judgments. Student recommendations are influenced by evaluations of quality and value as well as satisfaction. The fact that "employability skills" influenced institutional recommendation almost twice as much as overall satisfaction, could mean future employment considerations are regarded as important indicators of "value" (Cronin et al., 2000).

Another possible explanation for the predictive power of employability on satisfaction and recommendation lies in healthcare research. Tung and Chang (2009) demonstrated that the interpersonal skills of healthcare providers are important for overall satisfaction but to go beyond this to recommendation, it is technical skills that are key. "Employability skills" might thus be regarded as equivalent to those technical skills, which institutions must provide to go beyond student satisfaction to institutional recommendation.

Implications

The global market for attracting and retaining talented international students has become increasingly competitive. But the unprecedented challenges brought by the COVID-19 pandemic mean the future of international exchange and student mobility is at stake, with substantial disruptions caused by campus closures, travel restrictions, remote learning due to health and safety concerns, and suspensions in visa issuance. It is unlikely that universities will resume their complete schedule of face-to-face classes in the near future and, thus, significant declines in international student numbers are expected. This will undoubtedly intensify the competition in student recruitment, once institutions resume their academic operations and students can travel safely again. It is therefore even more critical that universities remain focused on their marketing and admissions goals and, at the same time, strategically incorporate student perspectives at all levels of their operations so that innovative learning practices and adequate support services are implemented to enhance students' curricular and co-curricular experiences.

This study's findings, that different learning experiences influence satisfaction and recommendation, offer some pointers to support these recruitment goals. Specifically, the learning environment is crucial for international student satisfaction, whereas longer-term issues related to communication skills and future employment are critical in their willingness to recommend. Employment-related successes, such as job placement rates, average salaries, and work-related experiences during studies should, therefore, be an increasing focus of institutional policy, and highlighted to prospective students.

The study also has important implications for how universities recruit, train, and retain faculty who can deliver high-quality, content-rich courses. Courses and curricula suitable for a diverse student population are of increasing importance, and there must be a focus on learning and teaching across cultures in delivering and assessing them (Carroll, 2015; Leask, 2015; Leask & Carroll, 2013). Furthermore, institutional leaders, human resource professionals, educational developers, and those involved in student recruitment efforts, must understand that teaching variables like "programme organisation" and "quality of lectures" are fundamentally important for both satisfaction and recommendation. Policy, strategy, and practice should reflect this, with intentional showcasing of the institution's academic strengths when working with prospective students. These may include students' on-programme experiences, achievements, and personal stories focusing on the teaching variables which significantly influence satisfaction.

The overwhelming importance of the learning and teaching environment is a vital finding for student retention strategies, requiring a constant drive to assess and improve quality. Previous research by Ammigan and Jones (2018) demonstrated that of the four ISB categories of arrival, living, learning, and support services, learning variables were paramount for student satisfaction, and the present study confirms this. Intentional showcasing of teaching quality, expertise of lecturers, academic content, and course organisation will also be valuable for student recruitment.

Finally, from a support services standpoint, institutions should consider placing greater emphasis on those programmes and services that help enhance the learning experiences and future employment of international students.

Limitations and future research

Every research project has its limitations and while using the ISB results produced a large, global dataset, it is nevertheless a self-report questionnaire. As with all such questionnaires, social desirability bias and positivity bias could have influenced responses (Fisher, 1993; King & Bruner, 2000). In a more qualitative study, techniques such as Movement Pattern Analysis could be used to complement self-reporting (Connors et al., 2016).

The ISB focuses primarily on degree-seeking, on-campus international undergraduate students, so generalising the findings beyond this group is another limitation. Generalisability is limited further by the fact that approximately 65% of those included in the study were at either Australian or United Kingdom institutions.

Perceptions of value should also be mentioned as a limitation and an area for future research. Spencer-Oatey and Dauber (2019) note that many questionnaires measure international student satisfaction on Likert-scales, arguing that these are problematic since students could be highly satisfied with an experience and yet not value it. Spencer-Oatey and Dauber (2019) overcome this by asking students to evaluate the importance of an experience indicator before evaluating the experience itself, resulting in an intersection between the two. Consideration of Kano's Importance-Satisfaction model (1984), developed to measure customer expectations, might also be worthwhile in future research on student satisfaction, and how institutions could in turn adjust services and resources to enhance the international student experience.

Another limitation is that, in general, fewer people respond to questions regarding recommendations than about their overall satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2003). This study showed the same effect, with around 8% of respondents who had completed all the satisfaction questions failing to answer the single question about institutional recommendation.

Conclusion

Using a large dataset from the International Student Barometer, this paper offers insight into the difference between student evaluations, reflecting satisfaction, and behavioural intentions, representing their willingness to recommend an institution. It identifies the different variables influencing each and supports the argument that the learning environment is crucially important for satisfaction, whereas longer-term, employment-related issues are fundamentally important for recommendation. The study offers targeted strategic advice for institutional policy and practice, and for enhancing recruitment and retention of international students, while suggesting pointers for further research in this important area.

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CHAPTER 11

The role of language in student mobility

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Abstract. Many papers on international student mobility have considered different factors influencing the destination choices of international students. However, only a limited number of studies have analysed the role of language proximity on international educational choices. This chapter examines its role in international degree-seeking student flows, arguing that language proximity simplifies academic, cultural and socio-economic integration of international students in the destination country and, as a result, makes adaptation to the new environment easier and smoother.

Keywords: language proximity, international student destination choice, international student mobility, international student decision-making process, Indo-European languages.

Molti studi sulla mobilità internazionale degli hanno preso in considerazione diversi fattori che influenzano le scelte di destinazione degli studenti internazionali. Tuttavia, solo un numero limitato di studi ha analizzato il ruolo della prossimità linguistica nelle scelte educative internazionali. Questo capitolo esamina il suo ruolo nei flussi di studenti internazionali in cerca di laurea, sostenendo che la vicinanza linguistica semplifica l'integrazione accademica, culturale e socio-economica degli studenti internazionali nel Paese di destinazione e, di conseguenza, rende più facile e agevole l'adattamento al nuovo ambiente.

Keywords: prossimità linguistica; scelta di destinazione degli studenti internazionali; mobilità studentesca internazionale; processo di decisione degli studenti internazionali; lingue indo-europee.

Introduction

Although the concept as well as the approaches towards Higher Education Internationalisation are undergoing some changes due to the influence of economic, political, social and cultural factors (de Wit, 2019), international student mobility remains one of its most important parts. In the Communication from the European Commission on achieving the European Education Area by 2025, learning mobility is listed as one of the ways to attain quality in education. Interestingly, learning foreign languages and enhancing foreign language skills is listed next (European Commission, 2020). As the authors note, "being able to speak different languages is a condition for studying and working abroad, and fully discover Europe's cultural diversity" (p. 6).

Indeed, language is an indispensable part of education abroad and it plays a role at different stages of the process. This is true both for short-term credit mobility programmes and for longer diploma, or degree mobility, study abroad. Students participating in mobility use their language skills to take courses (either in the official language of the country of destination, or English/another popular language as a *lingua franca*), and their language skills may determine their choice of destination country and study abroad aspirations in general. Furthermore, international students use their language competences for communicating in the destination country. Participation in education abroad, both for credit or full diploma programmes, can also contribute to enhancing a student's foreign language skills and thus to increasing their linguistic capital (Gerhards, 2014).

The discussion of language proximity in this chapter is centred on diploma mobility students, i.e., those who go to a destination country to pursue a degree or other form of award at a higher education institution in the country, usually for a period of a year or longer. These students generally stay longer in the destination country than short-term, credit mobility students and are consequently more exposed to the culture and language of the country in addition to the language of instruction. The analysis takes a macro level approach and considers the official language(s) spoken in the home and destination countries. This means that meso level factors to do with, for example, the decision of an institution to deliver programmes in English or another lingua franca are excluded. Micro level factors, such as any second languages spoken by individual students, are explored separately in a forthcoming paper (Ovchinnikova et al., under review).

Language as a factor in education abroad

Despite the perhaps obvious role of language in the decision-making process for study abroad, until recently it has not been a key focus of research studies on factors affecting international student mobility.

According to Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1975), the decision to move for study purposes to a particular country is made based on the analysis of costs and benefits. Studying in a linguistically close country can be one way to increase the student's human, social and cultural capital and at the same time lower the costs of migration. The ability to communicate in a destination country is vital for successful integration of international students for study related reasons, possible job opportunities in the future and overall well-being in the destination culture. Linguistic proximity can facilitate the process of acquiring a foreign language and thus assist adaptation, enhancing the arrival experience and the ease of settling into the new country.

Existing research indicates that the factors influencing international student mobility, including language, can be situated at the macro, meso and micro level (for a more detailed and recent overview of determinants of international student mobility see, for example, Choudaha & Van Mol, 2022). A micro level analysis of mobility drivers focuses on the individual factors and motivations of international students. At this level, individual foreign language competences can be both a source of attraction for specific mobility destinations as well as a deterrent from study abroad opportunities when students are less proficient in the destination language. A desire to improve their knowledge of a foreign language is one of the aspects international students consider when they decide to participate in study abroad programmes (see e.g., Bell, 2016; Bourke, 2000; Cubillo et al., 2006; Lesjak et al., 2015; Rodriquez Gonzalez et al., 2011). At the same time, lack of confidence or competence in a foreign language may deter students from engaging in such international programmes (see e.g., Beerkens et al., 2016; Findlay et al., 2006; Van Mol & Timmerman, 2014).

At the meso level, the chosen language of instruction in higher education institutions may influence the decision of an international student to study abroad. The role of English as a medium of instruction is undeniable in driving international student mobility and in attracting students to a given university (Waters & Brooks, 2021). Some students aspiring to study abroad see studying in a language other than English as one of the most serious barriers to mobility (Bamberger, 2020; Doyle et al., 2010). However, paraphrasing Caruso and de Wit (2014), higher education institutions as well as the language of instruction in these institutions "do not operate in a vacuum" (p. 18) and consequently cannot be considered independently of the country and its official language. While some students mention studying in a language other than English to be a problem, others report that they want to avoid speaking

English outside the university as it prevents them from becoming more fluent in another foreign language – the official language of the country (Bell, 2016). Indeed the OECD reports that an average of 25% of international students change their student status in the host country, mainly for work-related reasons (OECD, 2021). This means that the importance of learning the official or most common language of the destination country is likely to be higher for some students, and linguistic proximity may facilitate its acquisition (Chiswick & Miller, 2004).

Finally, the macro level analysis – which is the focus of this chapter – concentrates on country-related factors in international mobility including the official or most widely spoken language of a country. The studies that analyse the role of language as a macro factor find, in the main, that international student flows are generally directed to countries either with the same language as their own, to English-speaking countries, or to countries where other popular languages are spoken (Abbott & Silles, 2016; Beine et al., 2014; Kahanec & Kralikova, 2011; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Van Bouwel & Veugelers, 2013). However, as also evidenced in a number of research studies (Brown et al., 2016; Goodman, 2007; Kingeski & Nadal, 2020), the influence of language on international students' destination choice is a more complex phenomenon which is not always limited to the role of shared and popular languages. In particular, as discussed in this chapter, linguistic proximity (in other words the degree of similarity and difference between languages, defined in more detail later on in the text) also plays a role in student destination choices.

Language as a macro factor in international student mobility

Traditionally, researchers who have considered language factors at the macro level have generally studied it in terms of "speaking the language of the destination country" (Abbott & Silles, 2016; Beine et al., 2014; Lee & Tan, 1984; Perkins & Neymayer, 2014). These papers showed that the existence of a common language between two countries positively influences international student flows. Studying a new language can be costly, and so moving to a country where the same language is spoken removes the need for such study, thus lowering the cost of study migration. It can also facilitate adaptation.

Abbott and Silles (2016) indicate that the effect of a common language might be especially important for students from low-income countries. Their results are in line with Wei et al. (2019) who also find that students from developed countries tend to be less deterred from mobility aspirations based on whether the same language is spoken between home and destination countries. Hou and Du's (2020) study, devoted to the emergence of new regional hubs and drivers of international student mobility, also demonstrates a significant influence of the same language on the choice of a destination country in addition to economic, political, and historical ties. As the authors note, 'similar cultural backgrounds and language can shorten the psychological distance between people and reduce the sense of strangeness. Therefore, students from some Asian, African, and Latin American countries prefer European countries with historical colonial connections and similar languages to their home countries as their study destinations' (Hou & Du, 2020, p. 20).

An alternative approach to studying the role of language at the macro level is to analyse the influence of the most popular languages as attraction factors for certain destination countries. The studies using this approach observe that student flows to countries where major languages are spoken (English, Spanish, Italian, French, German) are usually higher than to other countries (Kahanec & Kralikova, 2011; Rodriguez Gonzalez et al., 2011). Consequently, according to the OECD (2021), the most popular countries for international students in 2019 were the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada, Germany, and France.

All the studies mentioned above treated the language factor as a binary variable, meaning either a shared language between home and destination countries or destination countries where major languages are spoken. However, we wanted to know whether language can be a factor in decision making if the language of the destination may be acquired more quickly as a result of linguistic proximity. An analysis of nursing students' mobility intentions by Goodman et al. (2007), on the one hand, aligns with the binary approach, in that the study revealed a strong preference for English speaking countries among UK students. However, the other group of students in the same study, from Spanish universities, indicated Italy as the most preferable destination followed by the UK and USA. Interestingly, one of the explanations put forward by the authors in this case was that Spanish students were not deterred from choosing a country where they do not speak the language since "Italian is one of the easiest languages for Spanish speakers to learn" (p. 381). This suggests that the role of language may not simply be limited to a binary measure i.e., whether students speak the destination language or not. It suggests instead that linguistic proximity might also play a role in international students' choice of study abroad destinations.

Similarly, another analysis by Kingeski and Nadal (2020), of the drivers of international student mobility from Brazil to Spain, finds that proximity between the languages and cultures is one of the most important factors in choosing Spain as a destination country. As the authors explain, "the Spanish language represents a more accessible option for studying than a country where English prevails" (Kingeski & Nadal, 2020, p. 102); two-thirds of the respondents planned to study in Spain, and only one-third indicated the UK and the USA as the most desired destinations.

Returning to Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1975), it suggests that moving to a linguistically proximate country, or to a country with the same language, can lower monetary and non-monetary costs by reducing the number of hours, or minimizing the efforts, needed to learn the language. This can also facilitate social integration and reduce psychological barriers. Chiswick and Miller's (2004) analysis of language proficiency among immigrants in the US and Canada empirically showed that, when there is greater distance between a native language and the official language of the destination country, the result is a lower level of language proficiency compared to speakers coming from countries which are linguistically closer.

The evidence in this section suggests that there is more to be considered than simply analysing the influence of a shared language or flows to countries in which the most commonly used and studied languages are spoken. Although this binary approach can shed some light on the role of language as a macro factor driving international student mobility, it does not reflect all possible influences of language on the process, and deeper analysis is required, with linguistic proximity apparently playing a role.

The nature and role of language proximity in international student decision-making

Language proximity, or linguistic distance, seeks to understand the degree of similarity and difference between languages. The idea of what language is, as well as the views about how language develops and how languages differ from each other, has been changing throughout the centuries. The first attempt to find links between languages and classify them was undertaken in the 16th century by the French-Dutch linguist Joseph Justus Scaliger. This was significantly developed in the 18th century by the philologist, William Jones, who postulated that there existed a relationship between European and Indo-Aryan languages, which later became known as Indo-European languages. However, it was not until the 19th century that comparative historical linguistics became the focus of linguistic thought.

Languages are complex phenomena that differ in syntax, morphology, phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and so on. Analysing similarities and differences of these aspects of languages can lead to a better understanding of the history of a language and can be used to measure the degree of relatedness between them.

One of the first classifications that included the analysis of grammar, lexical, phonetic and syntactic similarities is a genealogical classification which shows the relationship between languages from a historical perspective. In this classification, language families are divided into branches, groups and subgroups of related languages. Each stage of fragmentation unites closer languages in comparison with the previous, more general one. The index takes the value from 0 to 1 depending on the number of levels (branches, groups, subgroups of the language family) the languages share.

Another approach to measuring distances between languages is based on the phonetic structure of the compared languages. Levenshtein (1966) suggested an algorithm that calculates the number of phonetic alterations required to change the word from one language to another and thus determine the distance between languages.

Lastly, when comparing languages, historical analysis of the similarities and differences in the vocabulary of two languages plays a very important role. The lexico-statistical approach is based on analysing words that historically belonged to the language, such as numerals (up to ten), words denoting parts of the body, names of some animals, plants, tools, and so on. This therefore excludes possible borrowings as a result of migration and contacts with other languages. This classification was developed by linguists (Dyen et al., 1992) at the end of the 20th century. In contrast to the genealogical classification for which distances have to be decided in case of each particular analysis, the distances based on a lexico-statistical analysis have also been imputed by Dyen et al., though only for Indo-European languages. As the current study focuses on countries in which Indo-European languages are spoken, such a classification fits well.

Despite significant attention to the question of language proximity in the literature on migration flows (see e.g., Adsera & Pytlikova, 2015; Belot & Ederveen, 2014; Pedersen et al., 2008), where the positive influence of this factor has been empirically evidenced, the role of language proximity in international student decision making has not been analysed to any great extent as yet. This is even more surprising since international students are increasingly considered highly-skilled migrants (Kahanec & Kralikova, 2011), for whom language plays an important role at different levels of the study abroad process.

Our recently published paper on the role of language proximity in the flows of degree-seeking students (Ovchinnikova et al., 2022) brings the focus on linguistic proximity to the forefront. In order to study its role in shaping international student mobility flows, we used the distances between languages, based on the lexico-statistical classification (Dyen et al., 1992). We analysed degree-seeking student flows between 21 countries of the European Economic Area, but excluded English-speaking destinations, given the overriding attraction of the English language for internationally mobile students.

In order to understand the role of language proximity on international flows among 21 countries of the EEA, we applied a gravity model. In our specification of a gravity model we used language distance instead of geographical distance. In economics, which in turn adopted Newton's law of gravity, gravity models are used to explain international trade flows. The trade between any two countries is assumed to depend positively on the GDP of both countries and to be inversely related to the geographical distance between these countries. This methodology has also been successfully adapted to analyse migration and international student flows, typically by replacing the GDP of countries by their total student population and considering the distance between country capitals (Abbott & Silles, 2016; Thissen & Ederveen, 2006).

We estimated our model at three different time periods (2005, 2010 and 2015), and we also ran a pooled regression. All three time periods (2005, 2010, 2015), as well as the pooled model, revealed a statistically significant influence of language proximity on the flow of international students from one country to another in the 21 European Economic Area countries examined.

The results hold true after controlling for confounding factors such as geographical distance, difference in tuition fees, reputation of educational systems and GDP per capita between home and destination countries as well as the effect of cross-border networks. The latter, measured as the total stock of migrants from the country of origin in the destination country, is important from different perspectives. First, it acts as an incentive for the students (an important network can reduce adaptation costs in the destination country). Second, it can also partly capture the influence of cultural proximity on migration, thus helping to reduce the confusion between linguistic and cultural proximity in the estimates.

We believe that this is the first time a statistically significant positive influence of language proximity on international student flows has been explicitly identified. Interestingly, the influence of geographical distance – used as a confounding factor – is not always significant, which suggests that at least in the analysed region of our study, limited to EEA countries, the distance between capital cities does not play as important a role as is usually shown in the literature (Abbott & Silles, 2016; Thissen & Ederveen, 2006; Van Bouwel & Veugelers, 2013).

Conclusion and future research

Language plays an important role at different stages in the study abroad process. It influences a student's decision over whether to embark on a study abroad programme and which particular country to choose. It is used to communicate in the destination country both during studying and, more broadly, for living in and experiencing the country (for a discussion of educational tourism see, for example, Castillo Arredondo et al., 2018).

However, a typical research approach used to analyse the role of language at the macro level does not allow us to capture the indirect influence of the language determinant. Instead, these studies largely focus on either the same official language between home and destination countries, or the influence of the most popular languages on attracting foreign students. Language proximity in our research is seen to have broader dimensions. It can influence the decision to participate in study abroad programmes in the first place, but it can also be seen as an influence in terms of the time required to learn a non-proximate foreign language, with a consequent reduction in capital investment on the basis of costs and benefits.

Language proximity can also strongly correlate with cultural proximity and reflect historical and cultural contacts between countries. The latter (isolating the language factor from cultural ties) can also be proposed as one of the questions for future analysis. However, cultural proximity is more difficult to measure and quantify. One of the ways to delineate the influence of language proximity used in our analysis is to control for the cross-border network effect which may also capture the effect of cultural proximity.

Another prospect for future research could be trying to establish a causal relationship between the language proximity variable and the choice of destination country. In our analysis we focused only on 21 countries of the EEA, in all of which Indo-European languages are spoken. Studying the role of language proximity could be expanded to more countries and other language families for which other language classifications discussed above could be used.

This focus on a particular area and a specific language classification can be considered a limitation. As seen in our brief literature review, the role of language may vary depending on the geographical area, approaches to the language variable, data and type of mobility. For some flows, most common languages play an important role, for others shared languages or language proximity matter more. Moreover, as the patterns of international student mobility undergo some changes, the role of language among other factors may change, too.

Finally, most papers on factors influencing international student mobility focus on official or most common languages of a country rather than language proficiency of students in specific foreign languages. Further analysis of such micro as well as meso perspectives could add to the present macro level study and provide a more comprehensive picture of the role of language – at the individual and institutional levels – in international student decision-making processes.

Our analysis has contributed to the field by demonstrating the importance of linguistic proximity for international student mobility among 21 countries of the European Economic Area. We found that student flows to linguistically proximate countries are higher than flows between those which are more distant. We have argued that, in line with Human Capital Theory, language proximity simplifies academic, cultural, and socio-economic integration in the destination country making adaptation to the new environment easier and smoother.

While several studies have shown that the most common world languages influence the direction of international mobility flows, the vital contribution of our research is that language proximity also plays a significant role in destination choices.

This has been demonstrated to be one important factor to be taken into account for future research and analysis around the complex decision-making processes driving international student mobility.

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CHAPTER 12

International graduates' navigation of the home and host labour markets: critical issues and practical recommendations[1]

Ly Thi Tran and Huyen T.N. Bui

Abstract. Enhancing graduate employability has become crucial to the commitment to improving human capital by nation states and universities across many countries. Within this broader context, international students' employability and employment outcomes have become increasingly important to universities' internationalisation agendas, especially in major destination countries such as Australia, Canada, the US, UK and New Zealand. Recent reviews provide strong evidence about the growing emphasis accorded to employment prospect and career goals in international students' decisions about their overseas study. Host universities and countries which can provide sustaining support for international graduate employability and demonstrate positive employment outcomes for this cohort will be better positioned in the current competitive education export market. International graduate employability and employment outcomes are regarded not only as a key indicator of destination attractiveness and institutional capacity to achieve both immediate and long-term enrolment goals but also as institutional commitment to fulfilling their ethical responsibility to international students. Providing career and employability support for international students beyond graduation is critical but challenging in the current context, where there is an imbalance between institutional resources for career and employability support and the prominent demands for ongoing and extended support beyond graduation for international students. This article focuses on international graduates' navigation of the home and host labour markets, including the key factors that enable or inhabit their participation in the workforce across these different contexts and the strategies used to gain employment. It also proposes key recommendations for practice and further research and charts the way forward to support international graduate employability and employment outcomes.

Keywords: international students, international graduates, employability, employment outcomes, career development, navigation of home and host markets, international education.

Migliorare l'occupabilità dei laureati è diventato fondamentale per migliorare il capitale umano degli Stati nazionali e delle università di molti Paesi. In questo quadro, l'occupabilità e i risultati occupazionali degli studenti internazionali sono diventati sempre più importanti per le agende

[1] Adapted and reprinted with permission. Tran, L.T. & Bui, H.T.N. (2019), 'International graduates: navigating the host and home labour markets', International Education Association of Australia (IEAA). https://www.ieaa.org.au/documents/item/1743.

di internazionalizzazione delle università, soprattutto nei principali Paesi di destinazione come Australia, Canada, Stati Uniti, Regno Unito e Nuova Zelanda. Recenti studi forniscono prove evidenti della crescente importanza attribuita alle prospettive occupazionali e agli obiettivi di carriera nelle decisioni degli studenti internazionali di studiare all'estero. Le università e i Paesi ospitanti in grado di fornire un sostegno duraturo all'occupabilità dei laureati internazionali e di dimostrare risultati occupazionali positivi per questa categoria di studenti si posizionano meglio nel mercato competitivo delle esportazioni di istruzione. L'occupabilità dei laureati internazionali e i risultati occupazionali sono considerati non solo un indicatore chiave dell'attrattiva della destinazione e della capacità istituzionale di raggiungere gli obiettivi di iscrizione immediati e a lungo termine, ma anche un impegno istituzionale ad adempiere alla propria responsabilità etica nei confronti di tali studenti. Fornire un supporto alla carriera e all'occupabilità degli studenti internazionali anche dopo la laurea è fondamentale ma complesso, in cui vi è uno squilibrio tra le risorse istituzionali per il supporto alla carriera e all'occupabilità e le richieste crescenti di un supporto continuo e prolungato oltre la laurea per un numero di studenti internazionali in rapida crescita. L'articolo si concentra sulle modalità di accesso dei laureati internazionali ai mercati del lavoro di origine e di accoglienza, compresi i fattori chiave che facilitano o ostacolano la loro partecipazione alla forza lavoro e le strategie utilizzate per ottenere un impiego. Il contributo propone raccomandazioni per la pratica e per ulteriori ricerche e delinea la prospettiva per sostenere l'occupabilità e i risultati occupazionali dei laureati internazionali.

Keywords: studenti internazionali, laureati internazionali, occupabilità, risultati occupazionali, sviluppo della carriera, navigazione nei mercati di origine e di accoglienza, istruzione internazionale.

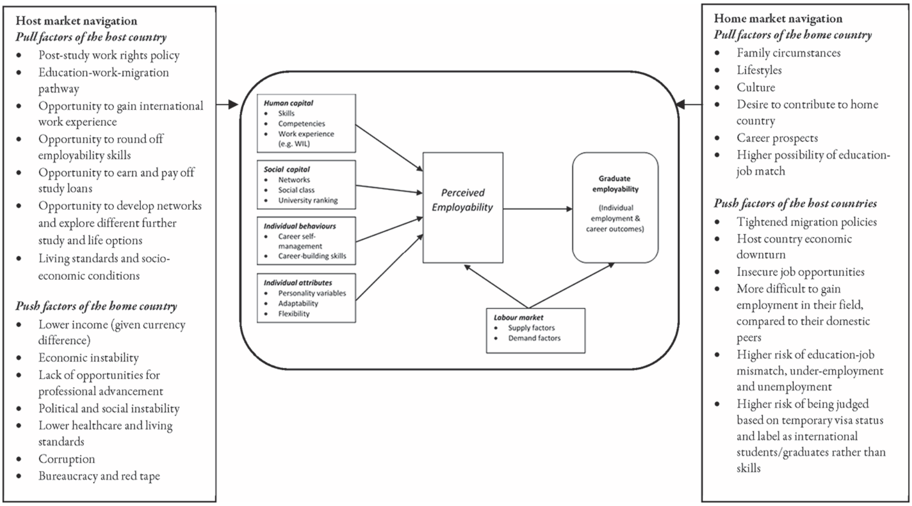
Introduction

Graduate transition to employment is becoming complex and challenging because the structures and demands of labour markets within/between occupations as well as within/between economies are highly differentiated and changing (Brown et al., 2012). In addition to factors such as discipline-specific knowledge, soft skills, attributes, work experience, foreign language proficiency and professional networks, international returnees' employability and employment outcomes are subject to how their foreign credentials are valued in their home labour market and how their skills and knowledge fine-tuned during their overseas study are seen as relevant by local employers. The extent to which international returnees' acquisition of foreignness and retention of native-ness is judged as relevant to their chosen occupation and professional adaptation to the home workplaces is crucial to their career development back home.

The discussion in this article is underpinned by a framework for international graduate employability and home/host market navigation (Figure 1). This framework is developed based on an adaptation of Clarke's (2018) model with the addition of the push and pull factors influencing international graduates' decision to remain in the host country or return home. Clarke's model outlines four main components of graduate employability: human capital, social capital, individual behaviours and individual attributes. It also considers how graduate employability is subject to the supply and demand of the labour market. The adapted framework extends these components and identifies the political, socio-economic and legal factors that govern the broader context in which international graduates' decision to stay on or return and their negotiation of the labour market are embedded.

Figure 1

Framework for international graduate employability and home/host market navigation



Note. This Figure was adapted and extended from Clarke (2018, p. 9)

International graduates' navigation of the host labour market

Post-study work rights policy and host labour market

The fast growth of international graduates who stay in the host country as temporary migrants has been associated with the introduction of the post-study work rights policy (PSWR). This policy has been implemented as a primary tool to attract international students across major destination countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand and European countries including Germany, Ireland, Sweden and the Netherlands. The UK has recently announced the return of a two-year post-study work visa policy, expected to apply for international students who commence their study in the UK in the academic year 2020-21 (UKCISA, 2019). The UK PSWR policy was originally introduced in 2004 and eliminated by then Home Secretary Theresa May in 2012. The re-introduction of the visa is regarded as a crucial step to allow universities in the UK to potentially regain their competitive advantage on the education export market.

In Australia, the re-introduction of the temporary graduate visa – often referred to as subclass 485 – by the Gillard government in 2013, was the result of a key recommendation from the Knight review in 2011. This recommendation stresses that an expanded post-graduation work visa was critical to boost Australia's destination attractiveness. Indeed, our recent study shows that 74 per cent of survey respondents considered the opportunity to acquire work experience in the host country was important in their decision on study destinations (Tran et al., 2019).

In a review report, Berquist et al. (2019) point out a gap between international students' intent to stay and join the market of the host country after graduation and the actual uptake. International student surveys often show around 60%-80% of them plan to remain and seek employment in the host country, but OECD data indicates a long-term stay rate across the OECD of only around 25% (Berquist et al., 2019; OECD, 2011). An analysis of compiled visa grants statistics by Ziguras and Joshi shows a take up rate of approximately 40% of the temporary graduate visa in Australia (cited in Chew, 2019). The actual uptake rate of post-study work rights tends to be higher for international students from countries with a lower GDP per capita, for example the sub-continent countries such as Pakistan, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka (cited in Chew, 2019).

There are several paradoxes in the way temporary international graduates are positioned in the international education sector, in the host labour market and in the community. First, they have made significant ongoing contributions to the host country's net income while being international students, and then temporary international graduates. In particular, this cohort accounts for around 0.7% of Australia's labour force and contributes taxes to the Australian economy but is not entitled to subsidised government services due to their non-citizenship status. In addition, across major destination countries, international graduates are often positioned by the government, universities, and the international education sector as valuable assets to the host economy. Their extended stay in the host country enabled by the PSWR policy is deemed to provide local businesses and employers with an opportunity to access talented graduates from around the world, who are educated in host universities (in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and UK, for example) with multilingual and intercultural capabilities, international experiences and transnational knowledge and connections. In Australia, international graduate employability and employment outcomes are accorded growing emphasis and state and territory governments are exploring innovative programmes to support international student employability and employment opportunities (Austrade, 2019). However, despite their substantial contributions and being positively positioned by the key stakeholders, international students and graduates seem to be positioned in the host labour market as a marginalised, insecure, or too complex segment of the workforce (as opposed to valuable resources) that many employers do not fully understand or hesitate to recruit (Tran et al., 2020a, 2020b).

Second, while this temporary workforce is welcome by a segment of the host society, others in the community see them as posing a competition for the local workforce even though research points out that there is little evidence of the negative impact of temporary graduates on the local workforce (Tran et al., 2019). International students and graduates might be stereotyped as "mere PR hunters" who are only interested in gaining permanent residency rather than learning, leading to unfair treatment and marginalisation of this cohort (Tran & Vu, 2016).

Third, there is a dissonance in international graduates' self-positioning and the way they are positioned by the labour market. Many international graduates initially position themselves as having the capacity to acquire their career goals, the potential to gain employment in respective field and bring benefits to themselves as well as to local businesses. However, they often face considerable barriers, related to both subjective and structural factors, in their endeavour to seek relevant employment and achieve their career goals in the host labour market (Tran et al., 2020a, 2020b).

Fourth, in the literature, international students and graduates are often positioned as a cosmopolitan mobile group who can enjoy "flexible citizenship" due to their transnational mobility and opportunity to access international education. Yet, the condition of temporality and sometimes "forgotten" status while being on temporary visas can lead to the state of being "inflexible" or "passive" citizens who desire for "more flexible citizenship" rather than being "flexible citizens" (Ong, 1999) themselves.

Finally, and importantly, by means of becoming international students and engaging in international education, they are often positioned as having a potential to be adaptable to the new environment. Ironically, the common recruitment practice of drawing on "best fit" or good "cultural fit" in the host labour market (Blackmore & Rahimi, 2019) tends to exclude international graduates. The recruitment practice that is based on the best fit principle could position this temporary international segment of the workforce as lacking the "desirable" characteristics to fit in or adapt to "our" local workplace.

These paradoxical situations need to be tackled through a coordinated and holistic approach involving different related stakeholders in order to create a more equal footing for international graduates and allow them to gain a foothold in the host labour market. Conversely, recent research consistently suggests that Australia has yet to tap on this young and highly educated workforce to deliver benefits to its economy and to related stakeholders, such as local businesses, international trading partners, universities, local communities and international graduates themselves (Chew, 2019; Tran el al., 2019). Hawthorne indeed refers to the potential contribution of the international student workforce to the host economy as "productivity premium" as "they are far younger than mature migrants selected offshore (typically aged twenty-four years) and... they face no regulatory barriers, with careers likely to span decades" (Hawthorne, 2018, p. 199). How to capitalise on this "productivity premium" is an urgent and critical question for key stakeholders.

Challenges facing international graduates in the host labour market

The challenges facing international students and graduates in the host labour market can be related to both subjective factors and structural conditions. However, it is important to situate the issues of international graduate employability, career exploration and employment outcomes in the destination labour market within the broader social, cultural, economic and legal environment of the host country. Existing literature suggests that, for a proportion of international students and graduates, the lack of professional networks, local work experience and language proficiency as well as the inadequacies in soft skills can be important factors that can restrict their ability to find a foothold in the labour market (Berquist et al., 2019; Nunes & Arthur, 2013; Tran et al., 2019). These deficiencies can be attributed to subjective or/and structural conditions. These can result from a lack of effort and agency on the part of international students and graduates themselves to hone soft skills and develop work readiness. Alternatively, these issues can stem from the lack of work integrated learning (WIL) opportunities and career development support provided by host institutions.

A study into sixteen international students' transition into the workforce in Canada six months after their graduation (Nunes & Arthur, 2013) found that international graduates were disadvantaged due to their international status, their lack of professional networks as a form of social capital and work experience as a human capital in Claire's (2018) terms (see Figure 1). Extending this finding, our own research on international students in Australia pointed out that being marginalised or excluded with regards to employment opportunities and being treated with less equity at the workplace could be forms of subordination associated with the non-citizenship status of international students/graduates (Tran, 2017). Being positioned as subordinated and being judged based on their non-citizenship or temporary residency status rather than on their skills and capabilities in the host labour market can undermine international students' and graduates' confidence in themselves and their future, their aspiration to contribute to the host society and their sense of human being. Such treatment also shows that international graduates' employment prospects are subject to the culture of the host labour market and the conventional way in which this cohort is positioned rather than merely on their possession of forms of capital and capabilities.

The structure of the labour market and employers' perceptions or misperceptions are also identified as key barriers to international students' and graduates' access to the host labour market. Across a number of major economies that are also the key destinations of international students, the demand for graduate jobs likely exceeds the supply, making international graduates less likely to be judged on a more equal footing as their domestic peers in the host labour market. Our recent research shows that the temporary status of the international graduate visa can be a source of concern, ambiguity or insecurity for employers (Tran et al., 2019, 2020a, 2020b). In the Australian context, many employers might unconsciously marginalise international graduates through their best fit or cultural fit recruitment practices and lack of awareness of the temporary visa, which almost 92,000 international graduates have held; they may prefer those with permanent residency or citizenship, or be pushed back by the misperception that the paperwork involved in recruiting this cohort is complex or sponsorship is needed (Tran et al., 2019, 2020a, 2020b).

Research into international students' employment exploration and job application shows that the lack of information and resources from career support services is one of the key factors hampering their success in acquiring work experience in the US labour market (Sangganjanavanich et al., 2011). The situation is more challenging for international students beyond graduation because not all universities are able or committed to providing extended employment support. Evidence from our recent research shows that there is a mismatch between international graduates' demand for accessing continuing career support beyond graduation, university staff's desire to provide such extended support and the availability of resources (Tran et al., 2019, 2022b). We therefore call for more urgent investment from related stakeholders and universities on their institutional career and employability support services so that these are sufficiently resourced to respond to the needs of international students following graduation, especially those who temporarily stay in the host country on a non-citizenship status. Such continuing support is critical to ensuring not only delivery on promise, long-term international recruitment goals but importantly the positive whole experience of international students beyond graduation.

Strategies to gain a foothold in the host labour market

International graduates who stay in the destination country on a temporary visa are often determined to find their feet in the host labour market. They exercise various forms of agency to overcome the structural barriers and achieve their career goals. As Robertson and Runganaikaloo (2014) argue, despite the positions of vulnerability, temporary migrants "find ways to strategize and cope as their desires for mobility, flexibility and capital interact with the desires of the state" (p. 223).

A Canadian study that followed international students six months post-graduation found four out of their sixteen international student participants secured a foothold in the host labour market with two in part-time and two in full-time employment (Nunes & Arthur, 2013). The key strategies used by these four international graduates to find work in their field are reviewing job advertisement websites and seeking advice from their locally formed professional networks, including mentors or members in their occupational field (Nunes & Arthur, 2013). Another related study exploring the transitional experiences of ten Chinese international students in New Zealand echoed the value of local professional connections in facilitating their access to the host local market (Dyer & Lu, 2010). The study also reinforces finding that securing permanent residency gives international graduates more of a chance to land a job in their chosen profession in the host labour market (Tran et al., 2019, 2022a, 2022b).

Our recent study shows the following common strategies international graduates draw on to get a "foot in the door" in the host labour market (Tran et al., 2019, p. 7; Tran, 2020a):

- explicitly explaining their work rights to prospective employers
- being persistent and demonstrating to employers their willingness to work and their interest in the job
- targeting small businesses and their own universities
- using diversified and alternative job search channels such as Gumtree, Indeed or Glassdoor instead of predominantly seek.com.au or career.com.au
- vigorously applying for jobs and being willing to accept entry level jobs/lower pay
- reskilling
- being resilient by taking smaller steps and constantly striving to develop employability capabilities
- self-sourcing or seeking internships by undertaking a Professional Year
- networking and strategically using networks
- developing local professional and social connections and increasing local cultural and social understandings
- pro-actively building employability capital
- creating jobs for themselves and their international peers.

International returnees' navigation of the home labour markets

Home labour market and employment opportunities

The substantial trend of international graduates returning home coupled with an increase in high quality local graduates has resulted in a growing competition in the home labour market (ICEF Monitor, 2018). The negotiation of home labour market constitutes an "interactive process" between initial capitals and ongoing accumulation of capitals, which shapes returning graduates' positioning and repositioning in the market (Tran & Bui, 2021). In the early days, international graduates were often positioned as a high-skilled workforce and their possession of an internationally recognised degree was sufficient to secure relevant employment in their home country (Hao & Wetch, 2012). This is because an overseas degree, as a form of cultural capital has high exchange value and is expected to provide international graduates with a symbolic capital that helps them stand out when navigating the home labour market (Blackmore et al., 2017). However, this positioning has been changed and possessing a foreign degree is unlikely to be a guarantee for employment in their home countries for international student returnees (Cannon, 2000; Hao et al., 2016; Hao & Welch, 2012) because the value of such cultural capital is accumulated based on its scarcity (Bourdieu, 1986) that is no longer scarce in this increasingly competitive labour market. In addition, returnees might be regarded by employers as lacking the localised knowledge needed to work in local companies (Tran et al., 2021). However, they might have an advantage of possessing a dual local and international guanxi thanks to overseas study (Tran et al., 2021).

The competitive gap between domestic and international graduates in the home country was even found in reverse, meaning that local graduates are more competitive than returning international graduates. Redden (2019) reported, on average, job applicants among Chinese international graduates from the US are 18% less likely to receive call-back than domestic graduates. However, this phenomenon does not mean that international graduates are not as capable as their local counterparts; rather, it shows that employers often assume that US-trained graduates often require a higher salary, enjoy more employment options and will be more challenging to hire and retain this cohort (Chen, 2019). Despite the increased challenges international graduates encounter when looking for a job back home, there are still positive employment opportunities for them as the demand for overseas graduates remains high. This is especially applicable to those who seek to accumulate multiple skills, competencies, and work experience as human capital as well as develop their professional and social networks as social capital (see Figure 1). These candidates create their own competitive advantage, as added value to their internationally recognised degree (Clarke, 2018; Pham & Saito, 2019; Zhao & Su, 2016), that may help increase their employment prospects.

Challenges associated with international graduates' home labour market navigation

There are various motivations for international graduates, who are often referred to as "sea turtles", heading home. Among them, professional opportunities, family circumstances, lifestyle and culture (Harvey, 2009), the home country's booming economy and low cost of living (Bathke, 2018), graduates' desire to contribute to their home country (Ghimire & Maharjan, 2015) have been seen as pull factors for highly qualified returnees (see Figure 1). In addition, shortened economic gaps between host and home nations, economic downturn and insecure job opportunities in host countries have been observed as push factors for the returning home trend (Zakaria & Gabriela, 2014). Changes in migration policies which tighten or break the direct pathway from study to migration, in destination countries like Australia could also be a critical push factor influencing international graduates' decision to return home (see Figure 1).

Zweig and Ge (2018) posited that whether returnees achieve a high income and are happy with their life after relocation depends on their major, overseas work experiences, and their motivations for returning home. For example, those returning home primarily because of family ties are often found to struggle with low salaries, job and life dissatisfaction, and spend prolonged time searching for job. On the contrary, returnees motivated by opportunity enhancement and cultural and emotional reasons are found to be satisfied with their life back home (Zweig & Ge, 2018).

However, Trice and Yoo (2007) revealed that while 77% of their survey participants have an intention to return home after graduation, only 32% actually prepare for an immediate re-entry to China following their study completion. Although the majority of Chinese international students are aware that the recruitment season takes place one year in advance of their graduation, many of them are not able to start their job search on time due to either their demanding study schedule or their intention to find employment in the host country (Lockin China & Guccu, 2018). In addition, being away from the domestic labour market is another barrier preventing international students from applying for local jobs from abroad. For example, the majority of Chinese international students only intensively commence their job searching after graduation, as there might be requirements for face-to-face interviews or internship placements with prospective employers as part of the recruitment process that they cannot attend remotely (Zhao & Su, 2016).

Upon their negotiation of access to the home labour market, international graduates are often reported to lack job seeking skills including writing a CV that is locally contextualised, and have limited interview experiences (Lockin China & Guccu, 2018). To address these challenges, some host universities provide international students with career counselling services as an intervention measure that helps guide the students in their career planning and future career options (Shih & Brown, 2000).

However, international students often reportedly hesitate to seek professional help due to language barriers, discrepancy in cultural values and norms, and less experience in looking for counselling services (Crockett & Hays, 2011). In addition, there exists a mismatch between the services provided and international student needs. Research in the US context found that students' negative perception about career counselling services and limited service provision are among the causes of their underuse of these services (Shen & Herr, 2004). Thus, career counselling services for international students should be tailored to meet their different needs and career orientations, depending on whether they stay in the host country, return home or relocate to a third country. Also, in today's ever changing and increasingly complex work environment, career development and career counselling have become an ongoing task rather than a one-off event. Career counselling should assist students with developing a career mind-set that is resilient and that can cope with the ever-accelerating changes in the world of work (Hite & McDonald, 2012).

A lack of information about their home country is another challenge for student returnees as contextual factors in the home country such as sector characteristics, types of employers, economic performance and cultural practices have significant impact on returnees' labour market navigation experiences and employment outcomes (Tran et al., 2022a). Many returnees only know top leading employers and industries that offer the greatest pay, but are uncertain about what they want to do and what they are suitable for (Lockin China & Guccu, 2019). Likewise, in evaluating employment alternatives, they are reported to have low self-awareness and unrealistic expectations about salary and promotion as they still consider their overseas qualifications to be distinctive, and therefore struggle to balance between their investment in an overseas qualification and return on investment when they are back home (Hao & Welch, 2012; Tran & Bui, 2021). This is because the conversion from cultural capital to economic capital is a process involving the individual's investment of time and effort and in some cases it appears to be less profitable than expected (Bourdieu, 1986). International graduates have also been reported to have little understanding of the home recruitment process (Lockin China & Guccu, 2018). That is, in the US as an individualist culture, job hunters often rely on individual search behaviours to gather information whereas in the Chinese job market, driven by collective culture, people are inclined to rely on family and friend networks to secure employment (Song & Werbel, 2007).

Losing the connections with their home labour market is another disadvantage for international returnees. While domestic graduates often enjoy access to prospective employers facilitated by their local institutions' strong links with local employers, the connection between host institutions and employers in international graduate returnees' home country is often weaker (Chen, 2019), which contributes to international graduates' low social capital when navigating the home labour market. Although there are a growing number of Chinese enterprises accessing overseas university campuses for overseas talent recruitment (Lockin China & Guccu, 2018), home employers find recruiting international graduates in the US expensive and difficult as they have little experience of recruiting graduates from abroad as well as limited knowledge about US education (Chen, 2019). They may select job applicants primarily based on university world ranking, which may lead to overlooking candidates from universities that might be relevant to job vacancies (Lockin China & Guccu, 2019).

Students returning home not only experience the *transition from education to employment,* but also from *host to home environment*. They have to culturally adjust to fit in their home country environment as part of their navigation of the home labour market. Returning students are often reported to experience reverse culture shock back home after a certain period of studying abroad (Presbitero, 2016). One of the causes of reverse culture shock is their unpreparedness for the journey back and unreadiness to readjust to their home country (Thompson & Christofi, 2006). In addition to personal life adjustments, adjusting work expectations and work life is another challenge associated with students' home relocation (Gill, 2010): they are often reported to struggle with re-entry, difficulties with work relationships and with the development of professional networks (Cannon, 2000). In a study of Singaporean returnees, Robertson et al. (2011) revealed that those who are not able to immediately secure a job when first returning to Singapore experience a period of readjustment of their career expectations. This includes changing career pathways within their broad field or taking a part-time or casual job while waiting for their preferred one. In addition, our own research on international Chinese and Indian graduate returnees reveals while they are often reported to possess good communication and presentation skills and a 'big picture' perspective, employers see them often lacking the willingness to work under pressure and the "competitive spirit" needed to engage in some home markets (Blackmore et al., 2018).

Different working culture and systems often hinder returnees from employing the knowledge they gained abroad in their daily work. Pham (2017) posited that Western cultural acquisition during students' overseas time is not always a key to success for Asian returnees when home and host cultures are so distinctive. For example, new ideas or innovations are not always welcome by experienced managers at home, who are often reluctant about change because they are afraid of losing their current power due to changes in the system (Pham, 2017).

In short, international graduates' navigation of their home labour market is an interactive process between returnees as individuals and the home labour market as an environment and is a process of capital accumulation and conversion. While international graduates enjoy the multiple advantages of being trained in an international education system and being exposed to transnational experiences, there are challenges associated with moving back home that need to be tackled for a successful return.

Strategies to navigate the home labour market

In preparation for a transition from education to employment, international students and education providers have employed different strategies to improve the students' cultural and social capitals. These include embedding a capstone subject in training curricula (Lee & Loton, 2019), soft skills training including communication, adaptability of change, teamwork and result orientation (Succi & Canovi, 2019), internships, placements, part-time employment, extracurricular activities, professional association memberships and community engagement (Kinash et al., 2016). In addition, university career services also prepare students with job-seeking skills including writing application letters and CVs, and job interview training and practice, as well as organising networking and industry events to improve graduates' employability prospect (Kinash et al., 2016).

Previous research (e.g., Lockin China & Guccu, 2018, 2019; MBA Crystal Ball, 2018; Tran & Bui, 2021) has also documented the following strategies international graduates often employ in navigating their home market

- Planning ahead: For example, 60% of Chinese overseas students start planning for job navigation six months in advance of their graduation (Lockin China & Guccu, 2019)
- Attending returning preparation programmes at host universities
- Maintaining contacts with friends and family back home
- Expanding their contacts using social media and reaching out to Human Resources departments and managers of targeted employers
- Reading news, searching information and updating themselves with demands and characteristics of their professional field and labour market in their home country
- Reaching out to alumni chapters and using their alumni support services
- Actively searching for employment opportunities in their home country using different job search channels including overseas-oriented recruitment sites, campus career support centres, on campus recruitment fairs, social media and friend referral
- Culturally and psychologically adjusting to their home country after their return
- Managing and adjusting their employment expectations including salary and career promotion

- In countries where international qualifications are perceived to be 'different' and preventing international graduates from integrating, they often hide their international education background to facilitate their belonging to local communities.
- Gradually changing themselves to fit the local environment by behaving in appropriate ways to the home context.

Conclusions and recommendations

This article responds to a critical need to have nuanced understandings about the key constraints and opportunities for international graduates' participation in the workforce across the home and host contexts and the strategies used to gain employment.

Although international graduates' labour market navigation often involves similar steps including job search, alternative evaluation, and employment outcomes which are influenced by the interaction between them as an individual and the labour market as an environment, their capital accumulation and conversion during the labour market navigation process is different as detailed in Table 1:

Table 1

Comparison of international graduates' navigation of host and home labour markets

Host market	**Home market**
Host country qualifications do not provide a distinctive advantage for international graduates when navigating host labour market.	Overseas qualifications are still regarded distinctive across a number of home labour markets, which helps returnees stand out when navigating their home market.
International graduates' English proficiency is seen as a competitive disadvantage as they possess lower levels of this cultural capital compared to local students. Multilingual capability should be seen as a valuable asset to local businesses but is currently not fully recognised and sought after by many employers in the host labour market.	Equal levels of English proficiency to those of international graduates who stay in the host country are seen as cultural capital, which provides international graduates with a marker of distinction in the home market.
Cross-cultural adjustment starts when international students first arrive in the host country and is an ongoing process during the students' overseas study. If international graduates exercise agency, by the time they graduate, they have accumulated a certain amount of cultural and	International graduates experience a re-acculturation process which may involve culture shock and require time and effort to adjust to the home environment. This re-adjustment when re-entering the home labour market significantly affects returnees'

Host market	Home market
social capital. Therefore, their cross-cultural adjustment is often a continuous and on-going process.	labour market navigation.
Recruitment practices in the host labour market might filter international graduates' eligibility for the job initially based on their visa status and the temporality of their post-study work visa might be a disadvantage for this cohort.	Returnees are unlikely to have such problems
The employment expectations of international temporary graduates are often more modest e.g., gaining a foothold in their field of study, have some income and settling in the host country.	International returnees are often seen to have high employment expectations including high salary and promotion as an immediate conversion from cultural capital (credentials) to economic capital.
Higher risk of qualification-job mismatch, under-employment and under-payment.	More likely to achieve education-job match
International graduates often possess social capital that has been accumulated during their stay in the host country which could be beneficial when they navigate the host labour market.	Losing home connections and networks due to their overseas stay translate into low social capital returnees held when they navigate the home labour market.

Recommendations for practice

Stakeholders involved in international students and employability including universities, communities and practitioners should provide international students and graduates a holistic and sustaining support mechanism to assist them with the development of employability. Support programmes to enhance international graduate employability can include a range of activities from the onset of the course and vary across different contexts but the following key issues should be considered:

1. Curriculum design to enhance graduate employability

- A coherent and structured approach to integrating the development of graduate employability the curriculum is needed.
- Graduate employability development activities should be embedded into the curriculum, starting from the first year rather than being ad-hoc or fragmented additions towards the end of the Bachelors or Masters programme.
- In particular, generic/soft skills development should be integrated into course design, development, delivery and outcomes (Tran et al., 2018).

- The curriculum, pedagogy and assessment should be designed with greater emphasis on the development of students' ability to learn how to learn, to be flexible and adaptable and to apply knowledge and theories into real life and work situations. (Tran et al., 2014)
- Embedding a capstone subject, with strong focus on building work readiness and connections with the professional field, is encouraged.
- Developing and strengthening Work Integrated Learning programmes to assist international students in integrating academic and work-related activities, contributing to the students' successful transition from education to work.

2. Career counselling services provision

- It is crucial to both organise workshops on preparation of CVs, application letters and job interviews and create a community of sustainable support involving not only institutional career support services but also support from peers (local and international), alumni, local communities and relevant professional bodies.
- It is important for career counselling to assist students to develop capabilities to learn how to learn and to openly engage in continuous learning (Tran et al., 2014) and a career mind-set that is resilient and that can cope with the ever-accelerating changes in the world of work (Hite & McDonald, 2012).
- Customising student career support services including providing international students with an ongoing update on host and home labour market trends, employers' expectations, and opportunities and challenges so that they will be able to successfully navigate the labour market and manage their employment expectations.
- It is important to not only ensure arrangement of extra-curriculum activities and volunteer activities but also assist students with the skills to articulate the meaning of those activities and translate what they have learnt through these activities into employability skills.
- It is crucial to educate international students to develop their professional portfolio from the first year and throughout their programme of study where they pay attention to not only building up but also evidencing different forms of capital, skills, attributes and experiences (Tran et al., 2018).
- It is critical to leverage the development of digital technologies and explore collaboration with edtech organisations to enhance the quality of WIL and career counselling services and digitalise career development learning.

3. Network development opportunities

- Providing opportunities for international students to develop professional networks in both host and home markets through different projects and programmes such as industry link projects and industry workshops.
- Connecting international students with university alumni networks which will be of paramount importance especially for those returning home after graduation
- Creating mentoring programmes to provide opportunities for international students to gain advice about their career planning, connect with and learn from mentors as professionals on how to enhance employability and to be successful in the workplace.

4. A coordinated approach to enhancing employability

- Good practices in enhancing international graduate employability and building partnerships with employers in providing professional experience and enhancing employment outcomes for international graduates across various institutions, states and countries need to be shared and learnt in a more holistic and coherent manner
- It is important to ensure better promotion of initiatives by the institutional, sectoral, community and state government bodies (for example, initiatives by Study Melbourne and Study Queensland) to international students and graduates.
- It is important to have effective coordinated and concerted efforts among related stakeholders in the international graduate employability space: universities, local businesses government at different levels, federal, state to local councils, industry and community organisations and third-party organisations providing career and graduate employability support.

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CHAPTER 13

Do international and domestic internships differ? How do they compare with other international experiences?[1]

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Abstract. Using a game-based analytics tool to predict behaviours associated with employability skills, this study considers whether employability is associated more with international over domestic internships, and also compares it with other kinds of international experience. The relationship between 33 behavioural descriptors, measuring skills such as leadership, diligence, social intelligence, and learning agility, was examined with a view to better understanding whether any value is added through the international internship experience. Two overarching elements emerged through Exploratory Factor Analysis: A *Social* element – how people relate to each other and engage with the world; and a *Cognitive* element – how new information is learned and the motivation to learn. Previous studies have found that social and interpersonal skills are associated with international internship participation. Surprisingly, our study found that international internship participation predicted the *Cognitive*, but not the *Social* element.

Keywords: Employability, internships, international experience, game-based analytics, behaviours.

Utilizzando uno strumento analitico basato su un modello di gioco per prevedere i comportamenti associati alle competenze di occupabilità, questo studio esamina se l'occupabilità è maggiormente associata agli stage internazionali rispetto a quelli nazionali e li confronta con altri tipi di esperienza internazionale. Nella fattispecie, è stata analizzata la relazione tra 33 descrittori comportamentali, che misurano abilità come la leadership, la diligenza, l'intelligenza sociale e l'agilità di apprendimento, al fine di comprendere se l'esperienza di stage internazionale apporti un valore aggiunto. Attraverso l'analisi fattoriale esplorativa sono emersi due elementi principali: un elemento sociale – il modo in cui le persone si relazionano tra loro e si confrontano con il mondo; e un elemento cognitivo – il modo in cui si apprendono nuove informazioni e la motivazione ad apprendere. Studi precedenti hanno rilevato che le competenze sociali e interpersonali sono associate alla partecipazione a stage internazionali. Sorprendentemente, il nostro studio ha rilevato che la partecipazione a un tirocinio internazionale prevedeva l'elemento cognitivo, ma non quello sociale.

Keywords: occupabilità; stage; esperienze internazionali; analisi basata su modelli di gioco; comportamenti.

[1] This chapter is based on a number of sources: Predovic et al. (2022), where further detail of methodology and results can be found. Also Predovic & Dennis (2019); Predovic, Dennis & Jones (2018). All articles are listed in the bibliography.

Introduction

Industry recruiting strategies have shifted from graduates with sound academic knowledge to those who can demonstrate knowledge application and skills transfer in the workplace (Jackson, 2014). Consequently, employability has become a key issue both for higher education institutions (HEIs) (Kinash et al., 2016; Sarkar et al., 2016) and governments around the world (Yorke, 2006).

Work placements in businesses, industrial, and other professional settings (henceforth "internships") are increasingly included in the curriculum at HEIs in many countries. The study described here uses the *Knack*, a digital game-based analytics tool, to examine employability in international internships.

Internships and international experiences

The context for the research is our understanding that internships represent a form of experiential learning directly related to the field of study (Helyer, 2015), integrating knowledge and theory in the classroom with practical application and skill development in a professional setting. A more casual form of work experience is not directly related to the student's field of study (National Association of Colleges and Employers, n.d.). We use the term domestic internships for activities in the country where study is taking place, whereas international internships are undertaken in any other country.

Experiential learning provides the theoretical framework for the study in seeking to explain how and why internships and international experiences can enhance employability. Through such experiences, students can develop technical and transferable skills, translating them into workplace behaviours which are valued by employers. Domestic internships have been found to have a positive influence on employability skills development (Jackson, 2015; Rudiger, 2012) and have been investigated from both employer (Hall et al., 2010; Jaaffar, 2016; Stirling et al., 2017) and student perspectives (Edwards, 2014; Helyer & Lee, 2014; Jackson & Wilton, 2017; Mahmood et al., 2014). Following an internship, students have been demonstrated to develop self-efficacy and the ability to identify their skills (Drysdale et al., 2016; Helyer & Lee, 2014). Research with employers confirms these findings (Gamble et al., 2010; Jaaffar, 2016).

A range of studies have considered the effect of any international experience on graduate employability (Archer & Davison, 2008; Crossman & Clarke, 2010; European Commission, 2014; Felton & Harrison, 2017; Jones, 2013). More specifically, Van Mol (2017) has analysed employer perspectives on study abroad versus international internships in 31 European countries, finding that employers value international internships more than international study, although results did vary across countries.

While earlier research investigates gains in terms of employability skills and employment status (European Commission, 2019), our current and previous studies (Predovic et al., 2022, 2018; Predovic & Dennis, 2019) look at how international experiences can be transformed into desirable workplace behaviours (Pang et al., 2019).

Defining and measuring employability

We use Bennett's (2018) definition of employability, "the ability to find, create and sustain meaningful work across the career lifespan" (p. iv). The challenge for HEIs and employers has been to measure the translation of technical and transferable skills into effective workplace behaviours (Blackmore & Rahimi, 2019).

Our research uses the *Knack*, one of the new generations of digital game-based assessments informed by behavioural science, artificial intelligence, and smart video games (Clapper, 2017; Galloway, Lippman et al., 2017). These enable psychometric tests to examine both strength and potential, based on principles of human behaviour. Behavioural variations among individuals have been demonstrated to match observable differences in personality traits and cognitive ability, which reflect workplace behaviours and are highly predictive of job performance (Galloway et al., 2017).

The *Knack* is a smartphone application with an embedded game-based assessment tool, which does not interrupt the flow of interaction during game play (Chin et al., 2009), while individual behaviours are measured in different situations. The end score is not the key focus, but rather the tracking of movement within the gaming interface along with the timing of gestures, processed at the millisecond level. This generates behavioural markers representing, for example, how quickly a player processes information or how efficiently they see and attend to social cues such as emotional facial expressions. These are then integrated with higher-level psychological constructs such as intelligence or growth mindset which, taken together, are commonly regarded as basic graduate employability skills for securing and maintaining employment (Jackson, 2013).

The *Knack* has been found to reliably predict workplace performance in terms of a range of cognitive abilities, personality traits, emotional and social abilities, mindsets, and aptitudes (Gray et al., 2016; Grimmett, 2017; Or et al., 2019). The tool is quite unique, in that it does not rely on self-report measures, and therefore, employers in many fields rely on the *Knack* to identify and select potential candidates for specific employment opportunities (Georgiou et al., 2019; Povah et al., 2017).

The study

This study assessed whether internship (domestic or international), gender, age, study abroad, and casual work experience (domestic or international) predicted the development of employability as measured by the *Knack*. Previous research had suggested these variables should be included, given the variation in undergraduate employability skill acquisition in terms of gender and age (Jackson & Chapman, 2012), as well as international experience (Jones, 2013, 2014), domestic work experiences (Jaaffar, 2016; Jackson, 2015), and study abroad (Farrugia & Sanger, 2017; Potts, 2019).

Students from 28 Italian universities submitted resumes, cover letters, and completed two *Knack* games as part of a larger project with a multinational consulting company[2]. Demographics, fields of study, and experience of participants are shown in Tables 1-3:

Table 1
Age range of the sample

Table 2
The work and internship experience of the sample

Table 3
The disciplinary majors of the sample

Age		**Previous experience**	**% Yes**	**Major**	
>25	11.7%	International internship	23%	Economics, business, management	64.3%
25	20.5%	International casual work	6%	Engineering	29.7%
24	39.4%	Domestic internship	62%	Sciences	2.2%
23	22.7%	Domestic casual work	32%	Humanities	1.4%
<23	5.3%	Study abroad	59%	Other	2.4%

[2] Data was made available to the lead author for analysis as part of her doctoral studies and a confidentiality agreement was signed. The authors acknowledge, with gratitude, the company's willingness to share data for research purposes.

Measures

The *Knack's* 33 behavioural descriptors are shown in Table 4 and are measured on a scale from 0 (lowest) to 100 (highest).

Table 4
The 33 Behavioural descriptors measured by the Knack

Engagement	**Impact**	**Learning**	**Relationships**	**Thinking**
Diligence	Leadership	Learning agility	Social intelligence	Logical reasoning
Tenacity	Drive	Quick thinking	Teamwork	Numbers
Self-control	Self confidence	Growth mindset	Customer focus	Creative problem solving
Open-mindedness	Taking ownership	Coachability		Creative insight
Managing ambiguity	Leadership initiative	Intellectual curiosity		Systems thinking
Problem solving	Inspirational leadership	Data fluency		Resourcefulness
Attention to detail	Consensus building			
Action orientation	Executive presence			
Planning execution	Grit			

Results

The 33 *Knack* descriptors were reduced during this study through Exploratory Factor Analysis to a smaller number of summary descriptors, resulting in two overarching factors. The first is described as *Social* – most of the behavioural descriptors relate to social capabilities. The second is termed *Cognitive* – most descriptors relate to cognitive capabilities. These are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Summary descriptors: social and cognitive

Social	**Cognitive**
Collaborate well with others, work effectively in teams, and quickly learn new cultures or customs (social intelligence)	Learn new skills easily, adapt easily to unfamiliar environments, open to new ideas (learning agility)
Enjoy working with different types of people, understand group dynamics, prefer to build team consensus, but will disagree when needed (teamwork)	Thrive in fast-paced environments, take in information quickly, make accurate decisions under time pressure (quick thinking)
Understand the customer's point of view, open to feedback from customers (customer focus)	Make connections between seemingly unrelated ideas, see problems differently, come up with novel solutions (creative insight)
Be open to new ideas and ways of doing things, handle the stress and challenge of learning new things (coachability)	Excel at thinking through tough problems, open to data revealing new ideas, thorough, and detail-oriented (data fluency)
Be organised, get things done on time, carefully follow the procedure (diligence)	
Be careful and thoughtful, take the time to check and double-check (attention to detail)	

Six behavioural descriptors were found to have a strong relationship with the *Social* factor, and four with the *Cognitive* factor, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Links between behavioural and summary descriptors

Behaviour (group)	**Social**	**Cognitive**
Quick thinking (learning)		
Social intelligence (relationships)		
Self-control (engagement)		
Diligence (engagement)		
Resourcefulness (thinking)		
Inspirational leadership (impact)		
Learning agility (learning)		
Teamwork (relationships)		

Behaviour (group)	**Social**	**Cognitive**
Attention to detail (engagement)		
Customer focus (relationships)		
Tenacity (engagement)		
Managing ambiguity (engagement)		
Data fluency (learning)		
Growth mindset (learning)		
Coachability (learning)		
Creative insight (thinking)		

Using linear regression, we found that gender, age, internship (international or domestic), study abroad, casual work (international or domestic) did not predict behavioural performance for the combined factors, or those grouped into the *Social* factor.

However, both gender and international internship predicted those behaviours grouped into the *Cognitive* factor, while neither study abroad nor age did so. These results indicate that males and anyone who has done an international internship are associated with higher values for the capabilities represented by the *Cognitive* factor (i.e., quick thinking, learning agility, data fluency, and creative insight). At the same time, neither age nor having studied abroad were associated with these higher values.

Discussion

The study indicates a positive relationship between work experiences, in either a domestic or international setting, and employability, which is consistent with previous research (see Gault et al., 2010; McMurray et al., 2016). Students who have done work-integrated learning (WIL) score higher on Maths and problem solving (Drysdale et al., 2016), have higher perceived employability whether measured with the DOTS framework (Jackson & Wilton, 2017), based on expectations of gaining employment (Qenani et al., 2014) or comparing their pre- and post-internship ratings on employability skills (Stack & Fede, 2017). Our study extends the value of work experience aligned with the programme of study (internship) since casual work experience (either domestic or international) did not show significant results.

Earlier research, which relies on some version of self-report measures, has sought to demonstrate that the skills developed by international experiences are those most valued by employers. For example, Potts (2019) argues there is a strong connection between international study experience and professional skills development, including the ability to interact with different individuals, communication skills, quick learning, teamwork, critical thinking, and problem-solving, grouping these as "professional skills". Consistent with this, Farrugia and Sanger (2017) found that the most significant gains were reported within the interpersonal and cognitive competency domain and, to a lesser degree, teamwork, and leadership (p. 12).

Our study not only builds on those findings but offers something more. It is not based on self-reporting but measures participant behaviours, which are then used to identify the two overarching groupings, i.e., *Cognitive* and *Social* factors. Establishing that not all transferable skills are the same, we were able to demonstrate that *Cognitive* skills are associated with international internships. Importantly, neither study abroad nor casual international work experience had the same association with *Cognitive* skills in our study.

The result that emerges from our analysis is that only international internships significantly impact the ability to successfully apply cognitive skills like quick thinking, learning agility, data fluency, and creative insight into workplace behaviours.

Significance of the findings

Several significant results arise from our analysis.

1. Participant behaviours and not their own self-reported responses were used in this research. Since skills often develop without students realising it, game-based analytics like the *Knack* that measure behaviours can be quite helpful in identifying such hidden skill acquisition.
2. Participant behaviours, as measured by the *Knack*, were found to group into two distinct factors – i.e., Cognitive (e.g., learning agility and quick thinking) and Social (e.g., social intelligence, teamwork, etc.)
3. Across both genders, students who had participated in an international internship performed better on *Cognitive* factor skills than those who had done a domestic internship. This means they were better able to learn from their mistakes (learning agility), think faster (quick thinking), and find solutions more creatively (creative insight) while being able to use information more effectively (data fluency).
4. Unexpectedly, and in contrast with findings from previous studies, we found that students who had taken part in an international internship did not perform better on *Social* factor skills than those who had done a domestic internship.
5. Importantly, we found that no other international or domestic experience (domestic/international casual work, domestic internship, or study abroad) was associated with the *Cognitive* factor, and so experiential learning as a methodology in itself could not provide an explanation for this difference.

Game-based analytics allowed us to gain insight into the hidden behaviours associated with the skills that employers value most (Pang et al., 2019). It also offered an opportunity to think more creatively about transferable skills development through international experiences, with the result that this research is among the first to demonstrate the association of *Cognitive* skills with an international internship, as opposed to the *Social* or interpersonal skills which are usually identified. The reason for this association is unclear, but we speculate that skills like learning agility and quick thinking may be necessary for the successful completion of an international internship, as opposed to other kinds of international experience. We have to acknowledge that self-selection bias may have a role to play. However, this is complex, since other forms of international experience did not produce equivalent associations (see Limitations below).

Outcomes

Our results suggest the need for HEIs to differentiate between various kinds of employability skills. Employability is not a fixed set of attributes that should apply to all graduates, "but a diverse, heterogeneous set of factors" (Canner et al., 2015). Digital assessments allow the clustering of employability skills which best fit a given line of work, to go along with any required technical skills. For example, teamwork or customer focus might help define employability for front-office employment, while data fluency and diligence might be required for health care workers.

They also demonstrate that students who have completed an international internship are predicted to have strong cognitive skills. Both the international and the internship elements appear to be important dimensions in addition to the experiential learning itself. In terms of the internship, we note once more the importance of the experience aligning with the field of study.

The findings add impetus to the need for purposeful design and delivery of international and intercultural experiential learning, aligned with the subject of study, to facilitate the development of these cognitive skills for non-mobile students, who represent the vast majority of those in higher education (Jones, 2014). Relevant practice might include internships or curriculum-related service learning in workplaces or organisations with strong cultural diversity, or other kinds of intercultural experiential learning within teaching and learning processes, including virtual and other forms of online learning opportunities.

Limitations

The study has limitations, in particular: self-selection bias, generalisability, and gender differences.

Regarding self-selection bias, the current research did not include a before and after snapshot of employability skills, and therefore we do not know whether those who scored highly on the *Cognitive* factor possessed those very skills before departure. Further research is needed, as this echoes Wiers-Jenssen's (2013) finding that study abroad students are self-selecting, and Jones (2013) who argues that international mobility programmes may appeal more to those who possess certain transferable skills before departure. However, it is important to note that, if our findings had been affected by self-selection bias, the *Social* factor skills might have shown a similar association with international over domestic internships, and this was not the case.

Furthermore, it might be expected that self-selection would influence results for all international experiences, including study abroad or international casual work but, again, this was not the case. Moreover, it is important to note once more that international experiential learning associated with the programme of study seems to be key to these outcomes, specifically, an international internship.

As for the limitation of generalisability, our sample included only Italian students and was dominated (64%) by those studying economics, business, and management. The applicability of these findings across other disciplines, therefore, needs further investigation.

Regarding gender differences, it should be noted that previous research with the *Knack* (Galloway et al., 2017) has never found a gender bias. However, previous research suggests a general gender bias in digital gaming, with findings indicating that males prefer digital games, tend to be more competitive, and have enhanced spatial skills, which are relevant when analysing digital gaming performance (Quaiser-Pohl et al., 2006). Future research should examine whether gender-based performance is a general issue for game-based analytics research methodologies.

Future research

Our findings indicate the need for further research on the role of internship destination, for example where wider cultural differences between home country and destination are perceived by the individual involved. In addition, future research might investigate whether internships in multinational companies or those having a diverse, multicultural workforce, could influence the development of certain employability skills and behaviours, compared to those with a less heterogeneous group of employees.

The study finds that *Cognitive* skills are associated with international experiential learning over and above internships at home. It also finds that *Social* skills do not appear to be associated with international internships in the same way. Importantly, the positive association appears to be with programme-related international experiential learning as opposed to casual international work experience or study abroad. There is a need, therefore, to understand exactly which aspects of the international internship experience play key roles in developing these skills. This is vital in informing efforts to develop employability through experiential learning by internationalising the curriculum at home (Jones, 2014; Leask, 2015).

According to Cavanagh et al. (2015), students rate higher-order cognitive skills as the most difficult to develop for work. Our study did not measure whether students possessed these skills before their international internships. Nor did it compare directly those students who did an international internship with those who did not. Further research is needed in both of these domains. It should be noted, however, that skills often develop without students realising it, and game-based analytics like the *Knack* can help identify such hidden skill acquisition, because it measures actual behaviours rather than self-reported responses.

Conclusion

Using game-based analytics enabled us to test whether international internships predicted performance on a range of behaviours. Unexpectedly, we found that an international internship translates into behaviours involving the highest order cognitive skills (e.g., learning agility, quick thinking, creative insight, and data fluency). This contrasts with more social, interpersonal, and organisational skills normally reported as outcomes of international experiences, such as self-confidence, effective team working, self-efficacy, self-sufficiency, and/or people skills (Jones, 2013).

Measuring behaviours associated with graduate employability, using the *Knack*, offered us an opportunity to see which transferable skills develop through international internships as a form of experiential learning, over and above an equivalent domestic experience.

We believe this is the first study to demonstrate that international internships are associated with behaviours related to cognitive skills. These skills reflect the highest cognitive domain in Bloom's taxonomy of educational learning objectives (1956) and are especially valued by some employers (Accenture, 2017; Pang et al., 2019). While further research is needed, the study makes an important contribution by distinguishing international from domestic internships, as well as from other kinds of international experience.

Continuing to identify more clearly the nature of experiences abroad will build our understanding of how similar beneficial skills and behaviours might be developed through the curriculum in domestic contexts. Although collaborative online international learning is involved in an increasing number of programmes, armed with more detailed knowledge, we believe that more could be done to actively simulate international workplace environments in virtual classrooms. This would enable educators to offer such experiences to the entirety of the student body, not just the mobile minority. Designing 'international' internship activities into curricula at home could present unexpected and exciting potential.

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CHAPTER 14

Supporting international students during the COVID-19 pandemic: a study of student satisfaction in a hybrid university environment

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Abstract. As the COVID-19 pandemic unfurled and borders between nations closed, higher education institutions around the world scrambled to adopt a digital delivery of academic content and support services for their students. Particularly impacted by the debacle were international students, who found themselves stuck overseas and detached from their loved ones due to travel, health, and safety restrictions. In this study, we investigate the relationship between the hybrid university environment and international students' academic, living, and sociocultural experiences during the health crisis. While our analyses revealed that students were generally satisfied with their institution, they clearly demonstrated that the non-traditional, hybrid university environment had a negative influence on their college experiences, including their sense of belonging. Our findings also shed light onto students' main sources for assistance during challenging times, leading to important implications and recommendations for university officials tasked with supporting students' experiences and success.

Keywords: international student experience, COVID-19 pandemic, virtual learning, hybrid university environment, support services.

In seguito allo scoppio della pandemia COVID-19 e alla chiusura delle frontiere tra le nazioni, gli istituti di istruzione superiore di ogni parte del mondo si sono adoperati per adottare una distribuzione digitale dei contenuti accademici e dei servizi di supporto per i loro studenti. Particolarmente colpiti dalla catastrofe sono stati gli studenti internazionali, che si sono trovati bloccati all'estero e allontanati dai loro cari a causa delle restrizioni di viaggio, salute e sicurezza. In questo studio si analizza la relazione tra l'ambiente universitario ibrido e le esperienze accademiche, di vita e socioculturali degli studenti internazionali durante la crisi sanitaria. Le analisi hanno rivelato che gli studenti sono stati generalmente soddisfatti della loro istituzione, ma hanno chiaramente dimostrato che l'ambiente universitario ibrido e non tradizionale ha avuto un'influenza negativa sulle loro esperienze universitarie, compreso il loro senso di appartenenza. I risultati hanno anche fatto luce sulle principali fonti di assistenza agli studenti nei momenti di difficoltà, con importanti implicazioni e raccomandazioni per i dirigenti universitari incaricati di promuovere l'esperienza e il successo degli studenti.

Keywords: esperienza degli studenti internazionali, pandemia COVID-19, apprendimento virtuale, campus ibrido, servizi di supporto.

Introduction

COVID-19 took the world by surprise at the beginning of 2020 and by March of the same year, the World Health Organization (2020) declared it a global health pandemic. Fear of the virus stemmed from a lack of knowledge about its communicable nature and transmission patterns, causing both crisis and emergency response measures to be taken to contain the disease (Munster et al., 2020; Ranney et al., 2020). The immediate reaction to the pandemic revolved around border closures, travel bans, mask requirements, and social distancing measures (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020). In the higher education context, many institutions in the United States (U.S.) and around the world closed their campuses, suspended face-to-face student learning and student services, and prepared for remote and virtual delivery of classes and services (Ammigan et al., 2022; Neupane, 2021). Although the online delivery of education services and e-learning was not new to institutions in 2020, it was not pervasive (Murphy, 2020). Student support services in digital mode, however, emerged on many campuses globally in response to COVID-19 (Ludeman & Schreiber, 2020).

Over the years, in-person support services to students have grown to include a variety of programs and resources, including tutoring and academic advising, mental wellness and counselling, career readiness and advancement, library resources, and orientation and transition programmes (LaPadula, 2003). The U.S. higher education sector saw a significant increase in the number of international students in the 21st century and, as a result, International Student Services (ISS) evolved nationally into a specialised area of expertise, offering both academic and non-academic resources and support services on American campuses (Bardill Moscaritolo et al., 2016; Ping, 1999). With the spread of the pandemic in 2020, ISS offices had to reimagine how to deliver their services and quickly moved to the digital mode to support international students whose acculturation and adjustment to campus had been exacerbated due to COVID-19. How ISS personnel adjusted to provide digital services to international students was investigated in seminal, qualitative work by Veerasamy and Ammigan (2021). The scholars found that ISS staff extended themselves in sometimes onerous ways, without the necessary training and equipment to perform their duties and to deliver advisory services online. They also concluded that, in the wake of a pandemic, neither ISS personnel nor institutions had been given the time to evaluate skills needed to serve this body of students holistically in the digital space. As the health crisis persisted, universities implemented strict health and safety guidelines on their campuses and exclusively adopted virtual delivery of teaching and student services on campuses. Slowly however, campuses gravitated towards hybrid modes of delivering classes and student services using a combination of face-to-face and online platforms.

The current study takes a student perspective and uses quantitative methods to explore the experiences of international students who were enrolled at a mid-size, undergraduate and graduate degree-granting university in the Mid-Atlantic region of the U.S. While the 200 students who participated in this research were physically present on campus, they were enrolled mostly in online classes as a result of the pandemic. Support services and engagement programmes, such as immigration advising, counselling services, and social and wellness programmes, which were until the pandemic delivered solely face-face, were now available in a hybrid format, with the majority of services offered virtually. We refer to the campus setting described above as a "hybrid university environment," which is typically defined as an academic environment that uses a mixture of face-to-face instruction and web-based, virtual, or online information and communication technologies (ICTs) to foster student learning and engagement (Klimova et al., 2015; Saichaie, 2020).

With the purpose of better understanding how to support the international student community at a time of crisis, we used the following two questions to guide our research:

1. To what extent did the hybrid university environment influence international students' satisfaction with their campus experiences during COVID-19?
2. Who did international students turn to for help and concerns during the global pandemic?

Literature review

International students in the U.S.

Internationally mobile students are usually admitted by a country other than their own country of citizenship, under special permits or visas, for the specific educational purpose of taking a particular course of study at a postsecondary institution in the host country (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2022). Over 6 million international students were enrolled at higher education institutions worldwide in 2019, representing an increase of 2 million since 2000 (UNESCO, 2021). In the U.S., more than one million international students have consistently enrolled at American institutions each year since 2017 (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2020). In 2020, international students represented 5.5% of total enrolment on U.S. campuses (IIE, 2020), and accounted for a $44 billion revenue stream and 460,000 jobs in the local economy (U.S. Department of Commerce, n.d.). Historically, international students have served as a source of soft diplomacy on U.S. campuses where their cultural contributions have been viewed as advancing campus internationalisation, broadening inclusivity, and contributing to improve diversity efforts across the institution (Smith, 2020; Veerasamy 2021). Yet, at the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, changes to immigration laws and politically charged rhetoric heightened concerns and anxiety among many international students (Laws & Ammigan, 2020; Todoran & Peterson, 2020). Amidst the Trump administration's efforts to block international students from enrolling in exclusively online courses, and subsequent lawsuits by Harvard and MIT, international student numbers in the U.S. dropped by 15% in 2019-20 (Redden, 2020). Enrolment numbers for new and incoming international students rebounded in 2021 with a 68% increase over the previous year, showing the first signs of a post-pandemic recovery (IIE, 2022).

International student experiences during the pandemic

At the onset of the pandemic, emotional stressors for international students were triggered by physical distance from family members, health safety, and financial uncertainties (Aucejo et al., 2020). Travel restrictions and strict immigration regulations were also of concern, as were racial micro and macro aggressions on students from China, Korea, Japan and Vietnam (Chirikov & Soria, 2020; Study International, 2020). Arnove (2020) found that students who were already experiencing marginalisation suffered even more when their school closed as they did not always have access to a computer, the internet, or a safe and conducive study environment. Given the risks involved in returning home along with limited residential options, some international students were relocated to emergency off campus housing as universities closed their campuses (Cheng, 2020; Crawford et al., 2020; Sahu, 2020). Interruptions in their academic performance and progress, fear about their safety and that of their family, social isolation, reduced social interactions, managing complex health insurance coverages, and learning how to carefully navigate their new surroundings around unimaginable uncertainties added to layers of mental stress and anxiety (Son et al., 2020). COVID-19 disrupted students financially as well. Many lost their on-campus employment while others were impacted by financial hardships experienced by their own parents and family members (Lederer et al., 2021). Furthermore, cultural differences around mask wearing affected international students causing them to worry about their personal safety and security (Lowrey, 2020). In terms of e-learning, many students had difficulty in adapting to synchronous or asynchronous online learning conditions due to unfamiliarity with new information and communication technologies, language barriers, and a lack of direct, in-person interaction with faculty and peers (Beckstein, 2020; Cohen, 2020; Peters et al., 2020). As the pandemic progressed, students were expected to adapt to the virtual and hybrid environment and access specialised academic resources and support services remotely.

Student satisfaction during COVID-19

Research on student satisfaction with their institution's handling of the pandemic reveals that students expected better communication about health and safety protocols and welcomed more structure in the set-up of online classes from their institution (Edsights, 2021). International undergraduate and graduate students reported overall satisfaction with the way in which their institutions addressed the pandemic and indicated that they adapted well to online learning (Chirikov & Soria, 2020). In that same study, 69% of undergraduate students from China, the top sending country of international students to the U.S., said they coped well or very well with online instruction. Similarly, 75% of graduate and professional students from China adapted well or very well to the virtual academic environment compared to others (Chirikov & Soria, 2020). However, other studies have pointed out the difficulties experienced by international students in adapting to online instruction during the pandemic, underscoring the importance of the quality of learning and the virtual learning systems that support it (Gantasala et al., 2021). In 2020, Misirlis et al. (2020) examined the correlations between international students' psychological well-being and their satisfaction with their university and found that a strong connection exists between the two variables. Their study further called for institutions to build stronger relationships with their international student community through programming and outreach activities.

Supporting international students in a health crisis

As the impacts of the pandemic became more prevalent, factors that influenced international student experiences were diverse and students expected help to come from their host university and governments (Firang, 2020). Some students felt that institutional support during COVID-19 was inadequate and that their universities could have done a better job caring for their foreign nationals (Nguyen & Balakrishnan, 2020). In the U.S., practitioners called for institutions to revisit existing policies and address gaps in the delivery of their services to better support this vulnerable group in moments of crisis (Cheng, 2020). Adopting a positive lens through appreciative inquiry, Ankomah (2022) states that factors that contributed to international student engagement during the pandemic came largely from institutions and existing networks of family and friends. As institutions enhanced virtual access to campus and improved their information and communications technologies, so did their digital delivery of courses which ensured that students remained on target academically. Student involvement also steadied based on increased responsiveness from instructors, improved professionalism from non-academic staff, reduced travel time to campus, and availability of employment opportunities (Ankomah, 2022). The emotional and financial support from families and extracurricular activities with friends (which took place virtually in most cases) also proved to be essential for the wellbeing of students. According to Chen et al. (2020), international students faced more difficulty in maintaining their mental health during the pandemic compared to local peers, thus revealing the importance for institutions to intentionally check on their wellness and provide the necessary counselling services and social support in person or via telehealth appointments. Another study that looked at the experience of international doctoral students and quality of learning during COVID-19 reported that students were dissatisfied with their universities' research support services, including access to lab equipment, the availability of software to support their dissertation writing, and library services (Abdul-Rahaman et al., 2022).

Conceptual framework

We used Briggs and Ammigan's (2017) Collaborative Programming and Outreach (CPO) model to frame our understanding of the provision of services and engagement opportunities for international students, and to support the goal of our study, which was to investigate the relationship between the hybrid campus setting and students' academic and non-academic experiences during the health crisis. The CPO model was designed to encourage collaboration between various stakeholders on campus and in the local community when delivering programmes and services that enhanced international students' experiences and success. It is characterised by four pillars of programming, namely: 1) programmes to support international student success; 2) programmes to understand government regulations; 3) programmes to promote international understanding; and 4) programmes to connect with the local community. As a holistic model which takes into consideration sociocultural and academic student needs, the CPO model has long been shared and utilised as a preferred organisational structure in the delivery of international student services and engagement at U.S. institutions (Findlay, 2020). With a view to adopting a student-centric advising paradigm during the pandemic, Veerasamy and Ammigan (2021) extended the model to integrate the delivery of services to international students in a virtual setting. The scholars recommended the following steps be taken by higher education institutions in their efforts to better support students: (1) prioritise employee education and training for delivering online ISS; (2) ensure remote access to visa services and immigration advising; (3) implement virtual orientation and transition programmes; (4) optimise communication and outreach strategies; and (5) emphasise reinvestment into institutional resources and support services.

Methods

The aim of our quantitative study was to investigate how the hybrid university setting, adopted by a mid-size university in the Mid-Atlantic region of the U.S. during the COVID-19 pandemic, influenced international students' academic, living, and sociocultural experiences on campus. Additionally, we sought to examine the sources for help and assistance that students turned to during that time. Findings from this research were intended to provide support service offices and staff, primarily at the university site, with data-driven insights and recommendations for improving the experiences and success of their international students during a time of crisis. A combination of descriptive and inferential statistical techniques as described below were used to analyse student satisfaction across various dimensions of the experience, including their satisfaction ratings with the overall university experience.

Participants

Of the 1,756 degree-seeking international students present at the university site in fall semester 2021 (September to December), 200 completed the survey, representing an 11.4% response rate. About 48% (n = 96) were doctoral students, 21.5% (n = 43) were master's students, and 30.5% (n = 61) were enrolled in an undergraduate degree programme. The average age of participants was 26.6 years, with 40% (n = 80) ranging from 21-25 years. Around 51% (n = 102) were male and 49% (n = 49) were female. Of the 44 countries represented in the sample, 34.5% (n = 69) were from China and 14% (n = 28) were from India. Students were enrolled in 31 different academic disciplines, with 20% (n = 41) in Engineering disciplines and 14% (n = 28) in Arts and Sciences subjects. All 200 respondents in this study were physically on campus but were primarily enrolled in online classes at the time they responded to the survey. Support services, such as immigration advising, counselling and career guidance, and engagement programmes, were available to them in a hybrid format, with the majority delivered virtually.

Instrument

A 100-item survey, designed using the Qualtrics software, was structured around 13 different components including a demographic section (6 variables) and 8 categories of institutional experience: 1) arrival experience (8 variables); 2) learning experience (12 variables); 3) living experience (14 variables); 4) support services experience (12 variables); 5) personal experience (8 variables); 6) sociocultural experience (6 variables); 7) community experience (16 variables); and 8) safety experience (5 variables). The survey also included an item each for students' overall satisfaction with their institution, their sense of belonging, and the impact of the hybrid setting on their university experience. A 4-point Likert scale was used to measure satisfaction ratings: *1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = satisfied,* and *4 = very satisfied*. Students rated the impact of the hybrid environment on their experience on a similar scale, with *1 = negative, 2 = somewhat negative, 3 = somewhat positive,* and *4 = positive*. The last component on the survey captured information about sources that students would turn to for help and assistance during the pandemic. It contained 10 variables, using the scale: *1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often.* The survey was piloted with a small, randomly selected sample to test for understanding and functionality before it was launched to the wider student audience. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient indicated a high level of internal consistency on the scales in this study.

Procedure

The International Student Services office at the university site invited all enrolled international, degree-seeking students to complete the online survey by email from October to November 2021. Students were primarily identified by their country of citizenship and the visa status that they held in that particular semester. The purpose, risks, and benefits of the survey were explained to students before they gave consent to participate in this research. Data was collected at a time when the university site was operating in a hybrid environment, with most classes, support service units, and engagement and social events still being offered in a virtual format. Institutional Review Board approval for research on human subjects was granted for this study.

Data analysis

All analyses were conducted on unidentified responses using IBM's SPSS software. Descriptive statistics, in the form of percentages, means, and standard deviations, were employed to summarise and display demographics and students' level of satisfaction with their institution. Bivariate correlation analyses were performed to determine associations between students' hybrid setting experience and their satisfaction with various aspects of the university environment.

Findings

Impact of the hybrid environment on international students' experiences

International students were generally satisfied with their overall university experience (M = 3.62, SD = .59) despite a shift in the traditional mode of learning and campus services in that semester. Within the dimensions of experiences, they rated their sense of belonging at the university the highest (M = 3.52, SD = .53), followed by their learning (M = 3.51, SD = .52), arrival (M = 3.45, SD = .62), and support services (M = 3.43, SD = .56) experiences – see Table 1. However, when asked specifically about the hybrid campus environment, 82.5% (N = 165) of survey participants reported that it had a negative impact on their university experience. This prompted us to run bivariate correlational analyses to examine the associations between the influence of the hybrid setting and the various aspects of students' university experiences.

Interestingly, the Pearson's correlation coefficients that we computed showed negative, statistically significant relationships between the hybrid campus environment and all dimensions of university experience, indicating that studying in an environment that was not face-to-face was negatively associated with their satisfaction ratings. As shown in Table 1, the strongest correlation was with the sense of belonging of international students (r = -.372, p < .01), followed by arrival (r = -.337, p < .01), learning (r = -.335, p < .01), living (r = -.307, p < .01), and safety (r = -.306, p < .01). In other words, in a more pronounced hybrid setting, students were less likely to feel a sense of belonging and were less satisfied with their institution.

To distinguish between the experiences of undergraduate and graduate international students, independent sample t-tests were also conducted to compare overall satisfaction means across students' level of study. We found no statistically significant difference in the satisfaction means reported by undergraduate students, compared to those at the graduate level.

Table 1

Associations between the hybrid setting and overall dimensions of student experience

Dimensions of experience	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***r***
Overall sense of belonging	191	3.52	.53	-.372**
Overall arrival experience	191	3.45	.62	-.337**
Overall learning experience	200	3.51	.52	-.335**
Overall living experience	191	3.36	.57	-.307**

Dimensions of experience	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***r***
Overall safety experience	200	3.19	.52	-.306**
Overall sociocultural experience	200	3.27	.60	-.302**
Overall community experience	191	3.36	.63	-.285**
Overall support services experience	191	3.43	.56	-.284**
Overall personal experience	200	3.39	.62	-.253**
Overall university experience	200	3.62	.59	-.237**

Note: [1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = satisfied, and 4 = very satisfied]

Note. N = Sample Size; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; r = Correlation Coefficient
***Significant at $p < .01$*

To investigate this research question further, we looked at associations between the hybrid setting and different satisfaction variables within each of the dimensions of university experience. Out of a total of 81 satisfaction variables from the survey developed for this study, 16 were found to be significantly associated with the hybrid campus environment. All 16 variables had negative correlation coefficients. As outlined in Table 2, the strongest correlation was reported with the quality of virtual learning systems ($r = -.446$, $p < .01$), meaning that the higher the quality of virtual learning systems were, the less likely the hybrid set up would influence the university experiences of international students. Access to physical classroom and lab facilities ($r = -.358$, $p < .01$), making friends locally ($r = -.326$, $p < .01$), entertainment options ($r = -.320$, $p < .01$), and health and wellness support ($r = -.308$, $p < .01$) were among the other correlates identified. This suggests that the hybrid campus set up led to students being less satisfied with their access to physical classroom facilities, opportunities for making friends, and health and wellness support services, among other variables.

Table 2
Associations between the hybrid setting and student satisfaction variables

Satisfaction Variables	***Dimension***	***M***	***SD***	***r***
Quality of virtual learning systems and technology	Learning	3.59	.70	-.446**
Access to physical classroom and lab facilities	Learning	3.60	.68	-.358**
Assistance from academic advisors	Arrival	3.67	.66	-.356**

Satisfaction Variables	***Dimension***	***M***	***SD***	***r***
Help finding satisfactory housing	Personal	3.36	.89	-.352**
Public transportation off campus	Community	2.77	.76	-.344**
Quality of accommodation and housing	Arrival	3.43	.85	-.339**
Feel and quality of campus environment	Living	3.62	.63	-.331**
Making friends locally	Sociocultural	3.42	.85	-.326**
Transportation around campus	Living	2.89	.68	-.323**
Entertainment options	Community	3.41	.86	-.320**
Supermarkets and grocery stores	Community	3.46	.84	-.318**
General shopping	Community	3.45	.83	-.310**
Health and wellness	Support	3.53	.74	-.308**
Programmes and services to make feel welcome	Sociocultural	3.46	.80	-.307**
Support from faculty and academic staff	Learning	3.65	.62	-.306**
Cost of living (food, transportation, social, etc.)	Living	3.45	.84	-.304**

[1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = satisfied, and 4 = very satisfied]

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; r = Correlation Coefficient

***Significant at p < .01*

Sources of support for international students during the global pandemic

The second research question of this study explored the sources that international students turned to for help and concerns during the global pandemic. The results from our analysis link to direct implications for university officials in their efforts to support their international student community. International students reported that family (M = 3.64, SD = .73) was their main, preferred source for assistance, despite most of them being in a different country of residence. This was followed by professors and department staff (M = 3.44, SD = .73), friends from their home country (M = 3.09, SD = .65), friends locally (M = 2.98, SD = .67), and the International Student Office staff (M = 2.72, SD = .69). While many universities made it a priority to make information for students available online, especially when operating remotely, international students very rarely depended on websites and social media platforms when in critical need of guidance and assistance.

Table 3
Preferred sources of support for international students during the pandemic

Source of Assistance	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Family	200	3.64	.73
Professors or department staff	200	3.44	.87
Friends from my home country	200	3.09	.65
Friends other than from my home country	200	2.98	.67
International Student Office staff	200	2.72	.69
Health and Wellness staff	200	2.60	.79
Home embassy or consulate	200	1.90	.71
Religious and spiritual leaders	200	1.86	.74
Housing and apartment staff	200	1.49	.86
Online resources (websites, social media, etc.)	200	1.21	.71

[1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often]
Note. N = Sample Size, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

Discussion

The COVID-19 pandemic has proven to be one of the biggest challenges and tests of resilience for institutions of higher education worldwide. Amid health and safety concerns, universities were forced into rethinking their mode of delivering academic programmes and support services to their students, with very little preparation and training. Faced with an unexpected and unimaginable crisis, educators and support staff struggled to ensure the institutional experiences and success of their students in an unaccustomed e-learning or hybrid campus environment. The university site in this study was no exception, and it prompted us to investigate the role of the hybrid campus setting on the academic and non-academic experiences of international students, whose lives had been upended due to travel and immigration restrictions and other impacts of the pandemic.

While our findings indicated that students were generally satisfied with the academic and institutional support services they received during the health crisis, they also revealed that the non-traditional, hybrid campus environment was negatively associated with their university experience. In our correlational analyses, we found that studying in the hybrid setting resulted in a negative association with all the main dimensions of experiences, including students' sense of feeling welcomed and part of the university community. Furthermore, and perhaps not surprising to many, the negative correlations extended to various satisfaction variables, which led to important considerations for university officials when supporting international students during emergency situations. These implications, along with five recommendations, are discussed below.

Implications and recommendations

Of utmost importance to participants was the quality of virtual learning systems for adapting to new technological practices in the academic environment and for feeling part of an inclusive curriculum, especially at a time when access to physical classrooms and laboratories was limited. This finding aligns with research from Gantasala et al. (2021), who confirmed the relationship between student satisfaction and the quality of learning during COVID-19. The effective delivery of online curricula and support services requires enhanced technology and software licensing, which institutions must prioritise as an investment priority for supporting the experiences of their students virtually. Veerasamy and Ammigan (2021) also called for institutions to strengthen their virtual learning systems, along with the need to prioritise employee education and training for delivering online services to international students during emergency situations. International students in our research underscored the role of faculty and academic advisors in supporting their experience during the pandemic. Academic resources and support services that promote academic enrichment, study skills, and time management, for example, must continue to be made available to students online.

Second, the satisfaction variables that influenced students' experiences in the hybrid environment are related to various dimensions of service provision in the curricular and co-curricular areas of the university. Support services such as academic advising, student counselling, career guidance, immigration advising, social engagement, etc., require effective campus-wide partnerships so that accessible and integrative resources can be developed to enhance the experiences and well-being of international students (Briggs & Ammigan, 2017). It is therefore key for units within academic affairs and student affairs to collaborate regularly on establishing services for students. The international services office, which generally acts as the designated support office for international students on university campuses, must develop emergency response and crisis management protocols for coordinating and delivering programmes and resources to students in a hybrid environment. As highlighted in the study by Misirlis et al. (2020), the counselling and student wellness offices, for instance, must continue to focus on inclusive programming to support the emotional well-being of students and address discrimination and xenophobia in the local community. Engagement opportunities, such as virtual coffee hours and networking sessions, can also help create avenues for students to meet new people and make friends online.

Third, to ensure that students feel welcome and develop a sense of belonging on campus, especially during difficult times, host institutions must provide innovative and engaging orientation, transition, and support programmes that help students overcome challenges and achieve academic and personal success. This corresponds with the recommendations from Cheng (2020), Crawford et al. (2020), and Sahu (2020). For new and incoming international students, universities must set clear guidelines on what to expect and how to access campus resources such as health and safety, academic support, financial, residential, and emergency assistance, in a virtual or hybrid learning environment. Institutions must also orient their students to resources available in the local community and guide them on how to access these services. Information on supermarkets and grocery stores, general shopping, off campus transportation options, and public safety and security resources can be very helpful to newcomers as they navigate their new local environment during challenging times.

Fourth, as supported by research from Edsights (2021) and Ammigan and Laws (2018), institutions and their support offices must be strategic in their outreach and communication efforts to ensure that students are able to effectively access information electronically and remotely. This includes how information is structured and organised online. The use of video and teleconferencing, direct and mass email, social media, e-newsletters, and website updates, can be critical in how students access information during a global crisis. Cross-campus collaborations can be critical in ensuring the successful implementation of a holistic communications strategy for relaying vital information to the international student community. It goes without saying that universities must continue to assess the needs, challenges, and experiences of students, through both qualitative and quantitative methods, to gain real-time insights and feedback on the constantly changing student experiences and preferences.

Finally, students indicated that they first turned to their family members and friends overseas for emotional support and financial assistance. This highlights the need for institutions to facilitate students' access abroad during difficult times. Universities must provide services such as reliable internet access, affordable phone plans, and financial procurement and wiring services to make sure students can keep in regular touch with their loved ones and access personal resources during a crisis. Additionally, faculty members and academic department staff, whom students identified as their second most likely source for assistance and support, must receive relevant training on how to respond to student emergencies, which would serve as a source of early detection and referral for relevant intervention by support units and experts on campus.

Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic cast a spotlight on the challenges that international students face within their new academic, social, and cultural environment overseas. Data from our study shows that it is imperative for host institutions to continue to provide intentional and just-in-time resources and support services to this community to protect their university experience and enhance their potential to succeed, especially during times of crisis. We recommend that future studies evaluate and analyse higher education institutions' policies relating to the international student experience to establish the extent and relevance of their practices. To address the limitations of the present study, a larger-sampled comparative analysis of student experiences across different countries, student nationalities, study levels, and institution types would strengthen existing literature on international student satisfaction during COVID-19. Although not generalisable as this study was conducted at only one, mid-sized, research-intensive institution in the U.S., our findings could serve as a point of reference for international educators and administrators managing similar situations across the globe.

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PART IV

STUDY ABROAD, IMPACT AND SUPPORT SERVICES

CHAPTER 15

Interculturality and its local impact: focus on rural career and technical U.S. community college students

DAWN WOOD AND ROSALIND LATINER RABY

Abstract. This chapter examines the process of interculturality experienced by rural and Career and Technical Education (CTE) students at a U.S. community college. The study uses interculturality as the theoretical framework to provide a distinct perspective on international experiences applied to a local context. This mixed methods study first statistically measures a demographic profile of rural and CTE students who participate in intercultural experiences through study abroad and virtual abroad programmes. The study then amplifies the voices of rural and CTE students through surveys and interviews. Findings show that interculturality is present in the stories portrayed by students and are illuminated in three themes: life struggles and second chance, localising international experiences, and personal growth in appreciation for diversity. The impact of providing intercultural experiences to under-represented students is clearly profound and particularly noteworthy in the area of diversity appreciation and immediate application to the local context.

Keywords: community college; rural; career and technical education; diversity; interculturality; inclusivity; internationalisation; TVET.

Questo capitolo esamina il processo di interculturalità sperimentato dagli studenti rurali e di Educazione Tecnica e alla Carriera (CTE) di un community college statunitense. Lo studio utilizza l'interculturalità come quadro teorico per fornire una prospettiva distinta sulle esperienze internazionali applicate a un contesto locale. Questo studio di tipo mixed methods innanzitutto misura statisticamente il profilo demografico degli studenti rurali e di CTE che partecipano a esperienze interculturali attraverso programmi di studio all'estero e virtuali. Lo studio amplifica poi le voci degli studenti rurali e di CTE attraverso sondaggi e interviste. I risultati dimostrano che l'interculturalità è presente nelle narrazioni degli studenti e si manifesta attraverso tre temi: le difficoltà della vita e la seconda possibilità, la localizzazione delle esperienze internazionali e la crescita personale nell'apprezzamento della diversità. L'impatto dell'offerta di esperienze interculturali agli studenti insufficientemente rappresentati è chiaramente profondo e particolarmente degno di nota nell'area dell'apprezzamento della diversità e dell'immediata applicazione al contesto locale.

Keywords: community college; rurale; istruzione tecnica e professionale; diversità; interculturalità; inclusività; internazionalizzazione; TVET.

Introduction

Interculturality, as defined by the Council of Europe, is the "set of processes through which relations between different cultures are constructed" (Leclerq, 2003, p. 9). The aim of interculturality is further described as being "based on equity and mutual respect" (Leclerq, 2003, p. 9). Within the construct of the internationalisation of higher education, interculturality is experienced by students in a learner-centred environment wherein education accompanies the phenomenon of interculturality. There is emerging literature on interculturality but no specific literature concentrating on the richly diverse experiences of U.S. community college students. This chapter examines interculturality in two groups of under-represented student populations: rural students and Career-Technical Education (CTE) students. U.S. community colleges provide an ideal setting to study these populations where they enrol in proportionally larger numbers.

The exploration of interculturality among rural and CTE students challenges two common claims found in internationalisation of higher education literature. The first claim is that internationalisation is a neoliberalist concept where economy is the driver rather than the betterment of society or the holistic education of humankind (Jones et al., 2021). This study challenges this claim determining that the driver for U.S. community college internationalisation is the common good (Godwin & de Wit, 2020) that serves local communities (Raby, 2022).

The second claim is that interculturality occurs primarily among the elite at elite institutions that send 1000 or more students abroad, enrolling students whose profiles are largely from wealthy urban populations (Baer, 2019). The stereotype that non-elite populations do not heavily participate in internationalisation fosters research primarily on elite institutions. This study unequivocally confirms that non-elite institutions such as community colleges do indeed advance interculturality and thereby include broader non-elite populations such as rural, CTE and other categories classified as non-elite.

The concept of bringing the global to the local is endemic to community colleges where colleges serve students located within a local radius and naturally have embedded ties to local communities (Topper & Powers, 2013). Raby and Valeau (2016) show how the local and global are intertwined due to the imprint of globalisation. Local context, when connected to interculturality, can provide more evidence that internationalisation efforts can and do impact community college student populations (Wood & Raby, 2022).

This chapter is guided by two research questions: 1) What is the profile of rural and/or CTE US community college students who participate in international education programmes? and 2) How is interculturality experienced by rural and CTE students? Descriptive statistics of students answer RQ 1 while student survey and interview responses answer RQ 2. The concepts of counter-elitism and applying interculturality as a meaningful process in a local setting frame resulting discussions.

Literature review

Understanding rurality

Rurality is a case in point for issues of local-ness or difference (Leibowitz, 2017). Worldwide, research on rurality tends to be general rather than focused on rurality's relation to higher education and even less on rurality and international education. Rural students are defined broadly as students who originate in a non-metro area. Studies in the US show that rural populations attend two-year institutions at a greater rate than four-year universities (Ardoin, 2018) often attributed to lack of choice caused by issues of transportation, family, and other life situations, leading them to attend community colleges. Rural community colleges that offer international education are under-studied (Wood & Whatley, 2020). The SARiHE project in South Africa (Leibowitz, 2017) examines rurality and education, by using "rurality not only as a useful construct for investigating life or education in rural areas, but a case in point for larger issues, of local-ness or difference" (Leibowitz, 2017, p. 4).

Research on CTE

Career and Technical Education (CTE) also known globally as TVET (Technical and Vocational Education and Training) plays a critical role in furthering internationalisation of higher education due to its diverse student demographics (Green, 2007). In the United States, 38% of all community college students study in CTE programmes (AACC, 2018). The CTE sector offers one- to two-year pathways to careers with curricula that align to local needs, such as Agriculture, Technicians, Plumbing, etc. CTE programming is often the most accessible option and affirms rural student choices of career future. These careers are necessary to local sustainability and important in the global economy.

CTE international education research in U.S. community colleges exists (Raby & Valeau, 2009), but it mostly focuses on international student mobility (Dempsey & Tran, 2017). When rural and CTE students are provided opportunities to engage in interculturality, they participate in high numbers, sometimes higher than their non-CTE non-rural counterparts and experience profound impact (Wood & Whatley, 2020). This study fills a void by amplifying CTE student voices to explain the impact of interculturality on local communities.

Intersectionality of rural and CTE students

Both rural and CTE students are labelled as marginalised groups. Rural students are often not separated out with a unique identity but rather combined with other disadvantaged students (Leibowitz, 2017). Similarly, CTE/TVET students are consistently labelled as non-traditional with characteristics of rural, poor, refugees, immigrants, students of minoritised status and are often identified as intersecting with ethnicity, race and class. Rural and CTE students may even be labelled as disadvantaged and at a deficit despite the fact that research indicates that rural students, for example, possess characteristics of resilience and determination enabling them to be more successful in education (Leibowitz, 2017; Montgomery, 2020).

Theoretical construct

In this study, we utilise the theoretical construct of interculturality to explore the experiences of seldom heard and often ignored identities of rural and CTE students. Jackson (2018) shares that "interculturality translates a process and something in the making when two individuals from different backgrounds meet" (p. 5). Intercultural is something between diverse individuals with diverse identities whether they be from different nations or cultures or from a different understanding of their identities (Abdallah-Pretceille, 2006; Dervin & Jacobsson, 2016; Jackson, 2018). Interculturality as a theoretical construct is closely tied to intersectionality which explains how an individuals' identities are not siloed but rather overlapping (Cho et al., 2013; Crenshaw, 1989). Intersectionality is an open-ended investigation of the overlapping dynamics of race, gender, class, sexuality, nation and other inequalities (Lutz et al., 2011). This study focuses on the dynamics of intersectional identities of rural geography and CTE education.

Methods

This chapter is part of a larger study that utilises a mixed methods explanatory sequential research design (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) to unpack rural and CTE student experiences with interculturality at a U.S. community college. Quantitative research builds a demographic profile of the students and qualitative research captures their stories.

Participants

This study includes 13 study abroad students and 12 virtual abroad students who engaged in interculturality at a U.S. community college. Of the 25 students, 11 identified with both rural and CTE identities, three students as rural but not CTE, and 11 students as CTE but not rural. Study abroad students provide a long-term perspective on intercultural experiences that occurred over a ten-year time period from 2010-2019. Virtual abroad students provide a recent perspective based on 2020 intercultural experiences. Intercultural experiences were faculty led and involved intentional engagement with culturally different people and environments, thus the process of interculturality.

Data collection

A multi-step data collection process was used. First, descriptive statistics identified student demographics of those engaging in interculturality compared to overall college enrolment. Frequency tables and a chi-squared analysis identified relationships in the categorical data (Field, 2016) and illustrated differences in these demographics. Second, a survey with Likert-style and open-ended questions (Farrugia, 2019) was administered to former study abroad students to discover long-term impact. Third, semi-structured interviews (Spradley, 1979) were conducted via Zoom video with 13 rural CTE study abroad students who completed the survey and 12 rural CTE virtual experience students. The interview protocol included descriptive, open-ended questions and allowed for guided conversations so that students could expand upon topics they found relevant (Saldaña, 2016). Study abroad participants were interviewed once while virtual participants were interviewed twice, pre-experience and post-experience.

Data analysis

The total student enrolment dataset was analysed to flag rural and CTE student records who participated in intercultural activities. Descriptive statistics compared participation rates by student type. Survey and interview transcripts were transcribed and coded using in-vivo coding methods to capture words and phrases that contained meaning (Saldaña, 2016). Videos were reviewed and student stories summarised noting particular themes and observations (Spradley, 1979). A Dedoose mixed methods software platform sorted codes into themes using grounded theory and two different methods of categorical sorting to establish reliability (Saldaña, 2016).

Validity/trustworthiness

Validity and trustworthiness were ensured through the use of multiple question types based on previously published surveys and the use of consistent interview questions. Triangulation of statistical, survey, interview, and research memos established trustworthiness and member checks confirmed the correctness of the responses and established reliability. The survey and interview protocols were not specifically designed to capture interculturality, however the coding process specifically looked for codes that captured students' experiences.

Limitations

Generalisability of these findings is one limitation because the study focused on one community college and on rural and CTE students. Caution should be applied in generalising findings to other rural communities that possess different economic and cultural characteristics.

Researcher positionality

This research study is based in a US community college where the first author is Dean of Global Learning whose job is closely connected to the college's mission, vision and goals to ensure that international experiences are part of all students' college experience. The author's Midwest rural background shares similarity with the participants. The second researcher has studied community colleges for 35 years and has advocated for increased focus on the CTE sector nationally and internationally. Both authors have dedicated their careers to internationalisation in community colleges, thus possessing a marked bias toward the idea that intercultural experiences are *good* for both students and society at large. Both authors note that their knowledge of international education leadership guided data analysis, influenced data interpretation, and provided a unique perspective to the study participants.

Findings

Findings answer the RQs: 1) What is the profile of rural and/or CTE who participate in international education programmes? and 2) How is interculturality experienced by rural CTE students? The survey respondents are noted by their anonymised number and the interview respondents by their pseudonyms.

Rural CTE student participation in intercultural experiences

Table 1 shows that rural and CTE students engage in intercultural experiences in high numbers. 45 percent of total study abroad students identified as CTE, despite CTE being only 31 percent of total enrolment. Virtual abroad enrolment is also high with 53 percent of virtual abroad enrolment attributed to CTE students. The analysis shows that CTE students do participate and actually participate more frequently than their non-CTE peers. These findings are in opposition to literature that presupposes that this population does not participate in high numbers (Baer, 2019).

Rural students participate in interculturality experiences at a greater rate than their non-rural counterparts and at higher rates than overall student enrolment. Table 1 shows that rural students make up 21 percent of total enrolment, but 32 percent participated in study abroad and 41 percent participated in virtual programmes. Non-rural students exhibit the opposite trend comprising 79 percent of total enrolment, 69 percent of study abroad and 59 percent of virtual students. In both cases, rural and CTE, students are more highly represented than university literature claims. The larger research studies conducted a chi-squared analysis, the findings of which are presented here (Wood & Raby, 2022).

Table 1

Study abroad and IaH students compared to total enrolment

	Percentage of Total Enrolment	**Percentage of Total Students who Study Abroad**	**Percentage of Total Students Participating in Virtual Abroad**
Career and Technical Education Student	31.35%	45.01%	52.73%
Arts Sciences and Humanities Student	68.64%	54.99%	47.27%
Rural Student	21.20%	31.43%	41.02%
Non-Rural Student	78.80%	68.57%	58.98%

Interculturality in internationalisation experiences

Findings from the student survey and semi-structured interviews portray the student participants' interculturality. Three themes emerge: life struggles and second chance, localising international experiences, and personal growth in appreciation for diversity. These themes show that interculturality is a process and that education is undoubtedly the best place to learn about, practise, and reflect on interculturality (Dervin, 2015; Dervin & Jacobsson, 2016).

Life struggles and second chance

Rural CTE students routinely express their personal challenges and life struggles related to their educational goals. This is not seen as limiting or in deficit, but rather as an asset. Rural CTE students speak frequently about their *second chance* educational opportunity after previous attempts at education, and/or other life events that interrupted their progress. These life struggles impact their experience of interculturality as Jenn shares about her struggle:

> I think that probably I changed in empathy. Not to say that I was judgmental before, you know stereotypes and generations but um… I really did. I assumed that Iraq and the entire country of Iraq was nothing but war and troops and rubble and just terrible. I think now that I have met these people and stuff, you know, they have like their homes are like sanctuaries. They are happy there and they have struggles, just like every other person, but they really make them work and then being students, you know, they are working towards future goals and bettering their life so I think I have a lot of empathy so now I'm more considerate I guess.

Josiah also shares "being from a single parent home, I just understand the struggles of life sometimes and I'm definitely empathetic for others".

Localising interculturality

Rural CTE students recognise how their process of interacting with other cultures applies to their local environment by focusing on similarities rather than differences. Denzel's virtual experience allows for a very real local interaction. Utilising videoconferencing, Denzel experiences interculturality at home, essentially bringing the interaction into his living room.

> They wanted and were very interested in seeing where I live, they thought it was surprising that I owned my own home because you know it's mostly apartments and stuff over there. I showed them around my house, the street that I live on, and my music studio.

Shawn indicates that the experience seemed relevant to him because of shared career interests with international virtual partners: "I'm more interested about just being able to work with a group of people that share the same passion that I do".

When asked about how the experience impacted him, Shawn emphasises cultural similarities:

> Me just coming from a small city, you know, a lot of things going on, a lot of situations I had to go through, not having, not always making money. I definitely went through certain situations and that's where I can really empathise with people that go-

> ing through those same types of things where just having regular day-to-day or life problems.

Personal growth and appreciation for diversity

Students share a clear story of career application, professional growth, and personal growth through interculturality. Survey respondents share that their experience led to a desire for more diverse friendships and social networks. 91% said that they now accept differences in people and 87 percent adapt more in diverse workplace environments. Several even note growth among their peers. Moe, an immigrant to the US in a CTE programme with vast international and life experience shares how he witnessed growth in classmates:

> When some people are just living in a special area with a specific sort of people and they don't have contact with other, they just have some prototype just in their mind. They don't have that experience. When that becomes part of their studies, or part of their syllabus... this will break a lot of barriers between the people. From discussions, I see a lot of Iraqi people and many of our American colleagues didn't have any background about each other, they just listen to the media and they have heard about each other from the media and they have that thing in their mind. When we talk to each other, when we melt that iceberg, we will be better. Especially those who are poor, they don't have opportunities to learn about each other.

Carlos, a virtual experience CTE student, shares:

> I would say that not everybody comes from a diversified background, especially if you grew up in the country or isolated. You know your people and those are your people. Everybody else is an outsider. So I'd say this was good, like in the sense of teaching people how to work with people who are completely foreign.

Students express an enhanced level of empathy. Julio notes how it is now "easier to see how people feel" and another of the survey respondents shares "I am much more open minded to things happening outside this country. I also don't jump to conclusions as quickly as I used to. I hear people's story out more."

Themes and interculturality

The three themes of life struggles and second chance, localising international experiences, and personal growth in appreciation for diversity relate directly to interculturality. Luis explains how cultural similarities were more evident than the differences:

> Like sure we shared different taste preferences in food and like things to do but we really like our experiences were very similar. The experiences at our comparative colleges were very similar and that was very shocking to me because I did not expect that.

While Luis was geared toward expecting differences between himself and the people he met from another culture, he instead finds similarities.

Discussion

Three themes show how the theoretical framework of interculturality applies to community college students: 1) interculturality focuses on similarities and identities; 2) interculturality focuses on capabilities rather than deficits; and 3) social justice and anti-elitism are interconnected with interculturality.

Identity and similarities

Interculturality as a process involves making sense of an intercultural experience, connecting that experience to daily life in practical and authentic ways. Similarities are important connectors in encounters between individuals and they depend on navigating multiple identities, such as being a rural and CTE student simultaneously. This is in opposition to much of Internationalisation of Higher Education (IHE) and intercultural study that focuses on cultural differences rather than similarities.

Rural CTE students clearly focus on similarities over differences. Similarities are seen as students navigate a range of identity markers including class, geography, and level of education. By interacting with people of other intersecting identities, students become more aware of their identity a central concept in interculturality (Dervin, 2015). The students detail interculturality as they share how similarities advanced learning. Although the experiences themselves are global in nature, students gain an understanding of how identity facilitates internal learning. That understanding then impacts their local experiences and local community. Interculturality validates that local and global can co-exist grounded on similarities.

Capabilities over deficits

Neo-liberalisms and the gaining of marketable skills is a focus of TVET literature (Kreamer et al., 2020) and IHE literature (Fakunle, 2021). The capabilities theory criticizes these narrow views and proposes a broader framework for understanding interculturality beyond the economic narrative. The capabilities theory advocates self-cultivation or self-formation and a holistic understanding of why students engage in interculturality.

The capabilities theoretical framework examines graduates' lives beyond skills toward an emphasis on the importance of holistic education benefits for the whole person and for society (Moodie et al., 2019). Internationalisation of Higher Education for Society (IHES), a parallel movement, outlines international education's social responsibility to make a meaningful impact on local communities and the common good (Brandenburg et al., 2019). CTE students in this study note post-graduation changes in career and salary, expanded social networks, and potential for social mobility because of their international experience.

Social justice and anti-elitism

Rural and CTE students and other under-represented student categories or intersections thereof are significant to the overall vision and goals of international education, particularly with the emblazoned focus on social justice for marginalised groups in our society (Legusov et al., 2022). Many international education practitioners envision international education as a potential means for bettering society (Brandenburg et al., 2019). If rural students are concentrated in community colleges enrolling in CTE programming because it is the only, as opposed to the best, opportunity, then this represents a great source of educational inequality. Yet, as this study shows, once in these programmes, there is likelihood that they will receive the same international experiences as students in elite institutions. Rural and CTE students in this study engage in internationalisation as part of their education and understand in a broader sense how their work and decisions impact their local world and also global society. Rural and CTE student voices reveal that exposure and collaboration with other cultures enhance their understanding of a bigger world and how they fit in it. As a result, the local context is maximised as students reflect on new global viewpoints.

Conclusion

A twofold challenge was proposed at the outset of this chapter: to defy the neoliberalist concept of internationalisation and to recognise the participation in interculturality by non-elite students. Findings met the challenges showing that interculturality exists among the non-elite with profound impact on both students themselves and the greater society, indicating an impact beyond economic gain. Past university studies supporting a deficit narrative are countered by the widespread participation of this community college's diverse student population, who are provided opportunities to engage in interculturality. Especially when related to students' field of study, community college students capitalise on the opportunity and realise impact on their personal and professional lives. Indicative of the post-pandemic period of 2021, the findings speak on two levels: to job skills needed and to an appreciation of social justice. The student-narrated stories directly contradict deficit-thinking, plainly highlighting that institutions and students who strongly identify with struggle and are labelled as disadvantaged do access international opportunities and do have profound international experiences.

A unique opportunity exists for future comparative research on rural CTE students as well as on other under-represented populations prevalent in the TVET/community college sector engaging in interculturality. Administrators, policy makers, international education practitioners, and researchers seeking to diversify and democratise study abroad for wider student representation need to provide resources enabling interculturality directly in community colleges and like institutions where under-served diverse students study. Rural CTE students experiencing interculturality ultimately apply their learning directly in local communities, resulting in a better and more socially just society.

These research findings embolden international educators to critically question stereotypes, broaden their lens on interculturality while expanding their perspective on who participates and how it occurs. Rather than limiting scope to cultural differences between nations, international educators must look to the assets of diverse students who bring diverse identities and learned experiences of value with them to their educational experience. Interculturality exists among the non-elite and is not reserved for the elite. Valuing the intersectionality of diverse identities and the array of diverse knowledge bases, interculturality provides a new and provocative method of navigating untold contexts. In this way international education will serve as the means by which greater good and more just societies can rise.

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CHAPTER 16

International students' perceptions of their needs when going abroad: services on demand[1]

ADRIANA PEREZ-ENCINAS AND JESUS RODRIGUEZ-POMEDA

Abstract. In this article, we analyse international students' perceptions of their needs when going abroad. The trend toward internationalisation and the increase in mobility drives the agenda for globalisation in many higher education institutions, and in some cases without any clear strategy for identifying the possible needs of international students. Are universities aware of the international students' perceptions and needs? The purpose of this article is to reflect on the different needs that international students have when visiting new countries, and what particular services they require. Little research exists on this aspect of student mobility. We offer a new approach to it by using Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), a probabilistic topic model that has been used to analyse 59,662 student opinions and to group them into categories. To ensure a holistic approach and reliable visualisation of the data, we also use a network analysis tool that allows us to collect together students' perceptions and needs in a distilled format.

Keywords: international students, perceptions, needs, mobility, services.

In questo articolo analizziamo la percezione che gli studenti internazionali hanno dei loro bisogni quando intraprendono un viaggio di studio all'estero. La tendenza all'internazionalizzazione e l'aumento della mobilità guidano l'agenda della globalizzazione in molti istituti di istruzione superiore, in alcuni casi senza una chiara strategia che consenta di identificare i possibili bisogni degli studenti internazionali. Le università sono consapevoli delle percezioni e dei bisogni degli studenti internazionali? Lo scopo di questo articolo è quello di riflettere sulle diverse esigenze che gli studenti internazionali manifestano quando si recano in un nuovo Paese e quali servizi particolari richiedono. Esistono poche studi su questo aspetto della mobilità degli studenti. Nel presente contributo, si offre un nuovo approccio al tema utilizzando la Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), un modello probabilistico di argomenti che è stato utilizzato per analizzare 59.662 opinioni di studenti e classificarli in categorie. Per garantire un approccio olistico e una visualizzazione affidabile dei dati, è stato utilizzato anche uno strumento di analisi di rete che ha permesso di raggruppare le percezioni e le esigenze degli studenti in un formato distillato.

Keywords: studenti internazionali, percezioni, bisogni, mobilità, servizi.

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Introduction

Students have become increasingly more globally mobile over the last decade; in fact, there currently exists a truly global market for students and academic staff (Altbach et al., 2009). Taking into account global mobility numbers, we can state that student mobility flow is one of the main discussion topics in the field of the internationalisation of higher education, not only at the European level but around the world. In global terms, the number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship has increased more than threefold, from 1.3 million in 1990 to almost surpassing 5 million by 2015 (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2015). The rapid expansion of tertiary education worldwide reflects not only the movement of those students willing to move from one country to another to gain a full degree (degree mobility) but also credit mobility, in which students spend a period of study in another country and transfer their earned credits to their home degree (De Wit, 2012).

For the purpose of this article, we define international students as those who have crossed borders (OECD, 2013). The UNESCO Institute for Statistics, the OECD, and Eurostat define international students as those who are not residents of their country of study or those who received their prior education in another country.

We deal with the perceptions of international students when they go abroad in relation to services regarding their needs, independently of whether they are degree or credit mobility seeking students. In fact, we analyse perceptions from international students from all over the world, gathered from the "Key Influencers of International Students Satisfaction in Europe" report (Van der Beek & van Aart, 2014). This collects reviews from a survey conducted on the online platform "Student Experience Exchange," referred to as STeXX. This is a new online forum for gathering students' opinions and reviews during their study experience, to be widely shared online. The platform collects data and reviews from students from 167 countries. In the 73,715 collected reviews, international students express their feelings on a range of services and influencers from within the host universities and cities.

Different methods are available for text mining. Probabilistic topic modelling is one of these methods, providing "a way of identifying patterns in a corpus" (Brett, 2012, p. 1). This facilitates distant reading, because it deals with corpora (not with isolated texts) looking for a hidden structure constructed upon a basic element called a topic. A topic is "a recurring pattern of co-occurring words" (Brett, 2012, p. 1). The basic probabilistic topic model is the so-called Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA; Blei, 2012a). LDA assumes that any text is the result of a probability distribution over sets of words (called topics). Therefore, LDA is a statistical model that can solve the problem of "discovering the set of topics that are used in a collection of documents" (Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004, p. 5229). Applying LDA to the corpus of students' perceptions, we can discover their most prevalent words. Hence, analysis of the texts produced by international students concerning their needs while abroad is adequate for our research aim.

A new methodological approach is thus used to discover international students' perceptions and needs when going abroad using a large database and a probabilistic approach. More information about this method is offered in the Methods section.

Literature review

The increasing number of international mobility students has driven the agendas of many higher education institutions over the last decade, reflecting the expansion of tertiary education systems worldwide (OECD, 2013). Currently, a more comprehensive approach to the internationalisation of higher education is claimed (Hudzik, 2015) to increase awareness that it is becoming more inclusive and less elitist, focusing predominantly on mobility but also on the curriculum and on learning outcomes (De Wit et al., 2015). One indicator of this inclusiveness and change of focus is the recently released definition of internationalisation (De Wit et al., 2015):

> 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 (p. 33).

This definition in heavily informed by the commonly used definition proffered by Knight (2003): "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 2). Consequently, service provision can be a competitive factor for the internationalisation of higher education because it serves to attract and retain international students by offering them an inclusive and comprehensive service within an institution.

This section is divided into two parts. The first examines the service provision and the types of services offered to international students, while the second part explores international students' perceptions and needs regarding satisfaction influencers.

Provision of services to international students

The provision of student services is becoming a key topic in the internationalisation policies of higher education institutions due to increasing numbers of mobile students (Pérez-Encinas, 2015). Despite the growing sense that student services matter, very little research has shown exactly what degree-seeking students desire and expect from support services (see Kelo et al., 2010 on non-European students).

Bianchi (2013) identifies the provision of two types of services: core (which are related to teaching and learning) and peripheral (those related to the living conditions and the environment of the host country, such as security, cultural and social activities, accommodation, transportation, and visa/entry requirements). Knight and de Wit (1995) highlight the relevance of extracurricular activities and institutional services, focusing on a list of special services to support the university internationalisation strategy: international student advice services, orientation programmes, social events, international student associations, accommodation for students and scholars, international guest organisations, and the provision of institutional facilities for foreign students and scholars (such as libraries, restaurants, medical services, sport facilities, etc.). Knight and De Wit also posit that a university's internationalisation strategy should not be evaluated on the assumption that it must develop all the above-mentioned activities before it is integrated in the plan. In other words, the key point is that institutions identify their internationalisation priorities regarding the integration of activities in their strategic plans (de Wit, 2012; Knight & de Wit, 1995).

Table 1
Stages of different types of services for international students (Kelo et al., 2010).

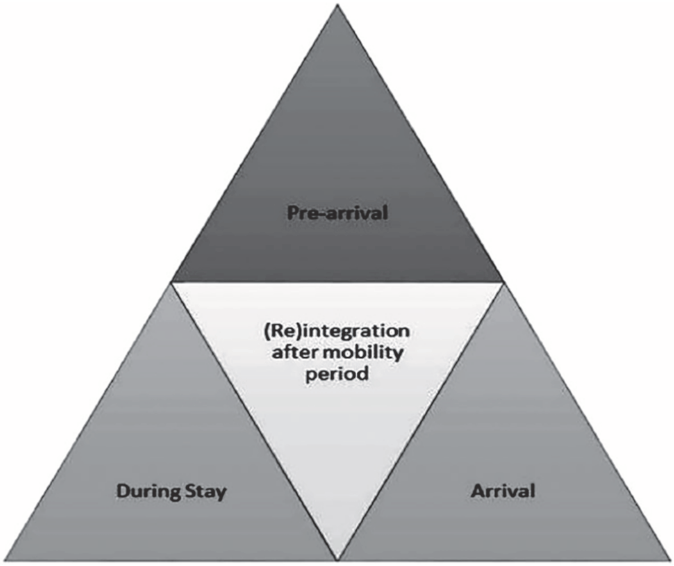
Stage	Most important service	Least important service
Pre-arrival	Finding somewhere to live	Information about area
On arrival	Finding somewhere to live	Formal welcome
During period of study	Support for academic problems	Language support

Furthermore, they also identify many different activities as key components of internationalisation that are divided into two main categories: programme strategies and organisational strategies. The first category is related to academic activities and services that integrate the international dimension into the higher educational institution. The second category refers to the development of appropriate policies and administration systems to ensure the international dimension (de Wit, 2012; Knight & de Wit, 1995). Universities are eager to assess issues that concern the academic curricula and the learning environment, although little research exists on the organisational elements related to support services and student needs and perceptions. To provide a holistic approach to the internationalisation of higher education, we need to focus on all aspects and activities taking place in institutions as well as in university strategies (both programme-based and organisational) so as to ensure the mission of the institution.

International students may have different needs depending on the stage of their study period abroad, as shown by the UK International Higher Education Unit report (Archer et al., 2010), the Australian Education International report elaborated by International Education Association, ISANA (Principles of Good Practice for Enhancing International Student Experience Outside the Classroom, 2012), and the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) report (Kelo et al., 2010). The international student life cycle developed by the UK Higher Education Academy (2014) deals with the stages generally experienced abroad. These stages are as follows: issues before arrival or pre-arrival information, arrival support, induction and welcome, learning in the classroom (academics) and learning in a new environment or life outside the classroom, and completion and return (reverse cultural shock). The more relevant issues are not only those related to academic programmes, student exchange, and research and scientific collaborations but also those related to extracurricular activities and external relations and services (de Wit, 2012; Knight & de Wit, 1995).

Universities provide different types of services to international students. Most of them are developed through different stages of the international student life cycle. Kelo et al. (2010) identify three stages in this process. The first comprises the prearrival services, the second covers those services provided on arrival, and the last one is related to services during their period abroad. In Table 1, we identify the abovementioned stages, including the most and least important services. For our purpose, we propose three stages plus a fourth related to integration into the host country and reintegration into the home country. This fourth stage is innovative and receives less attention within the literature, but we consider that it deserves the same attention as the other stages because of its relevance to the mobile experience. This stage is related to (re)integration, and it has two aspects. One relates to the return of the student, normally known as reintegration, and the other is related to comprehensive integration into the host university and the country to find employment and establish a life after the student's period of study. The four stages are represented in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Stages of the international student life cycle



Based on the aforementioned studies related to an Australian and a European perspective, Table 2 lists the stages and main support services that institutions should provide during a student's mobility period.

The previous framework shows the similarity in some stages between the reports mentioned. It is also important to notice the difference in the last stage between the ACA report (Kelo et al., 2010) and the ISANA report (2012). For credit mobility students – the main target for European mobility – a range of services that might not always include employment services for students staying abroad for only a short period are offered. However, the ISANA report recognises in the last stage a broader dimension in the provision of services, covering longer periods of stay, as well as integration into the host country through employment and career services. For instance, Kelo et al. (2010) state that the most important support service areas identified by students are concerned with information and orientation, integration activities with local students, the institution, and/or surrounding community, language support, and other practical considerations, including assistance with administrative procedures. Depending on the stage they are at, their needs and service perceptions are likely to vary. As Choudaha said in his 2012 report, not all students are the same.

Table 2
International student mobility main stages

Stages	ISANA (Australian report)	UK (Higher Education Academy)
Pre-arrival	Pre-arrival info and advice	Application and arrival
Arrival	Arrival and orientation	Application and arrival
During stay	Maintaining social networks	Cultural and social integration
	Accommodation	Learning infrastructure
		Environment
		Teaching methods
		Learning support
	Health and well-being	
	Critical incidents	
	Finances	Fees, finances, and funding
Integration	Employment	Career and employability
Reintegration	Completion	Career and employability

Taking into account the types of services demanded at each stage, as well as the provision of services offered, universities should work to identify the range of services most suited to the needs of international students at each stage. Furthermore, it helps institutions to be a part of the global market by offering a wider variety of quality services and practices to achieve greater satisfaction and to improve retention rates among international students. In the following section, we therefore identify services which international students themselves identify as important to their overall satisfaction.

Services on demand and international students' needs through their own eyes

Due to the fact that there is increasing competition for attracting international students into global higher education (OECD, 2013), it is advisable for universities to focus not only on the academic aspects of the student experience but also on the needs that international students might have concerning services and matters related to their stay and their comfort.

Higher education is changing swiftly, as is the perception by international mobility students of services and the quality of institutions. Among the indicators for analysing the quality of higher institutions, de Wit (2010) mentioned that internationalisation is an indicator of quality in higher education, although from a student satisfaction perspective, educational quality is not the only indicator. International students place greater emphasis on their stay in the country than with the quality of their studies (Escrivá Muñoz et al., 2015). Hence, one of the key drivers for campus internationalisation could be the level of satisfaction of students with a comprehensive provision of support services. In fact, a good satisfaction rating can increase the number of potential students, as well as the retention of students, and increase university reputation and visibility.

De Wit (2008) and Souto-Otero et al. (2013) identify a series of push and pull factors for degree mobility. They operate both in the home and the host country. Some of them can be influencers of credit mobility related to friends and family, the condition of mobility, financial issues, and, of course, the type of information provided (Souto-Otero et al., 2013). Information specifically for students studying influencers of credit mobility abroad is as yet scarce; nevertheless, it is greatly valued by students, enabling them to be well informed to identify enablers and obstacles within the whole process of going abroad.

The relevance of information on mobility is connected to student satisfaction. Thus, in the 2014 StudyPortals report "Key Influencers of International Students Satisfaction in Europe" (Van der Beek & van Aart, 2014), three factors influence student satisfaction: first, city atmosphere; second, the quality and attitudes of the host university's teachers; and third, the approachability and friendliness of the locals. It is clear that there is a relation between the StudyPortals results (Van der Beek & van Aart, 2014) and those results identified by ISANA, ACA, and the Higher Education Academy.

Moreover, a series of categories have been identified in the StudyPortals report (Van der Beek & van Aart, 2014). These categories are the following: city and culture, academics, university services, social life, personal and professional development, surroundings, costs, and overall topics (Van der Beek & van Aart, 2014). According to these categories, our analysis identifies the main perceptions and needs of international students, not only European students but those also of international students all over the world when they travel to different countries. In the following section, we explain the method based on the identification of topics through a probabilistic method and a clustering software. Those topics are related to the Van der Beek and van Aart (2014) results, but embrace a wider vision of the required support services as well as having a broader dimension for the worldwide data analysis, because the method employed allows for the identification of nuances not previously apparent in the wider range of student perceptions.

Methods

Our main research objective is to identify international student opinions when they go abroad, specifically needs and perceptions. We use a new methodology in this field due to our large data set. This comprises a social and scientific text analysis that highlights the structural patterns of everyday practices from the perspective of the author of the text (Bauer et al., 2014, p. xxi). Even when there are very different textual analysis methodologies, the burgeoning approach of probabilistic topic modelling has interesting aspects for higher education investigations with aims similar to ours. This is because, first, it is unsupervised (the researcher does not need to annotate the texts), it is explicit (other researchers can replicate the analysis), it is inductive (the researcher can discover the hidden structure of the corpus without imposing any priors on the process), and, finally, it recognises the relational feature of meaning (terms can vary in meaning if they are analysed in different contexts) (DiMaggio et al., 2013). This hidden structure determines the dominant frames – or "semantic contexts that prime particular associations or interpretations of a phenomenon in a reader" (DiMaggio et al., 2013, p. 578) in the students' mind-set.

Topic modelling considers that each of the texts comprised within a corpus is a bag-of-words built from the themes discussed by the text's author (Meeks & Weingart, 2012; Mohr & Bogdanov, 2013). Topic modelling provides algorithms based on Bayesian statistics to show the "hidden thematic structure in large collections of texts" (Blei, 2012a, p. 1). The basic probabilistic topic model is the so-called LDA (Blei, 2012a; 2012b) which can be conceptualised as a "generative probabilistic model of a corpus" (Blei et al., 2003). This implies that each text or document "is generated by choosing a distribution over topics and then choosing each word in the document from a topic selected according to this distribution" (Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004, p. 5528). LDA allows for estimation, first, of the different proportions (or probabilities of occurrence) that topics have within the corpus. Then, "each word in each document is drawn from one of the topics... where the selected topic is chosen from the per-document distribution over topics" (Blei, 2012a, p. 78). The analytical power of LDA lies in its capability to offer a representation of the hidden structure of a corpus.

We used MALLET 2.0.7 (MAchine Learning for LanguagE Toolkit; McCallum, 2002) to run an LDA analysis on our data. MALLET is open-source software designed to enable text classification and information extraction. Researchers using MALLET must feed the algorithm with a predetermined number of topics, "looking for a distribution of topics to documents that does not clump too heavily" (Graham & Blades, 2012). The literature suggests selecting a short number of topics when the dimension of the data set is similar to ours (Blei & Lafferty, 2009; Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004; Rodriguez-Pomeda & Casani, 2016; Steyvers & Griffiths, 2007). We therefore selected 20 topics.

MALLET then generates documents with the higher topic probabilities. We then issued a descriptive label for each of the topics with higher probabilities to deal with the interpretation of the results. Any acceptable interpretation of the topic model's results is based on the researcher's appreciation of the semantic coherence of the words within a topic (Chang et al., 2009). Thanks to a careful consideration of the topic's links (through appropriate graphical representations), the researcher can analyse differences in topic usage between different groups within a corpus. In sum,

> topic models must find what we know is there. Ultimately, a topic model's trustworthiness must be determined by informed human judgments. In particular, the model must find the broad trends and facts known to be true by the practitioner of the domain. Without such support in finding the known, topic models have limited value in discovering the unknown – i.e., quantifying known trends or discovering unexpected ones. (Ramage et al., 2009, p. 4).

The next step is to make a graphical representation of the two networks to show the main groups of countries and topics.

Data gathering

The data were collected from an extensive StudyPortals database and their platform, STeXX. The collection of students' perceptions began in 2011 and ended in 2014. STeXX is a social platform on which students share their foreign study experiences and review their university. It is an initiative of StudyPortals together with a group of renowned international student associations such as AEGEE (Association des Etats Généraux des Etudiants de l'Europe), ESN (Erasmus Student Network), ESTIEM (European Students of Industrial Engineering and Management), and SIU (The Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Higher Education). STeXX is supported by the European Commission. The authors have signed an agreement with StudyPortals B.V. (www.StudyPortals.com) allowing them to use its STeXX data for academic research purposes only.

The data set used for the current study comprised 73,715 reviews written by international students from 167 countries. All reviews have been checked and processed to eliminate movements within the same country, data sets in a language other than English, and stop words; stop words are those very common words (such as conjunctions or definite and indefinite articles) that do not add any relevant content to the analysis (DiMaggio et al., 2013) and must be removed to elaborate an LDA model. As a result of this pruning process, our final database included 59,662 reviews. The authors created a label code from the resulting groups of words from each topic. The code name "proposed label" applies to a data set of words as in Table 3.

Findings

We depicted the network of the 20 topics and the 59,662 reviews. MALLET offers a table that gathers each topic's relative percentage contribution to the composition of each student's perception text. Following Graham and Blades (2012), these percentages can be considered as the weight of the links between discourses and topics. Therefore, following Graham and Blades (2012), "we can represent the 'topic-space' as a kind of network map" (p. 8).

We selected the topic having the highest probability in the composition of each student's perception file. The composition probabilities can be interpreted as the weights of the connections' strength (Meeks, 2011). Using GEPHI (an open-source software for the analysis of graphs and networks; Bastian et al., 2009), the two networks appear as follows – considering that we deployed two networks (incoming and outgoing students) constituted by two types of nodes – the 20 topics obtained from MALLET, as well as the countries. For the incoming network, the countries considered are those that students go to; for the outgoing network, the countries considered are those from which students return from. The edges of each network represent the student reviews. For the nodes representing a topic, the size is proportional to the number of edges (or student reviews) going to that topic. For the nodes representing a country, the size is proportional to the number of edges (or student reviews).

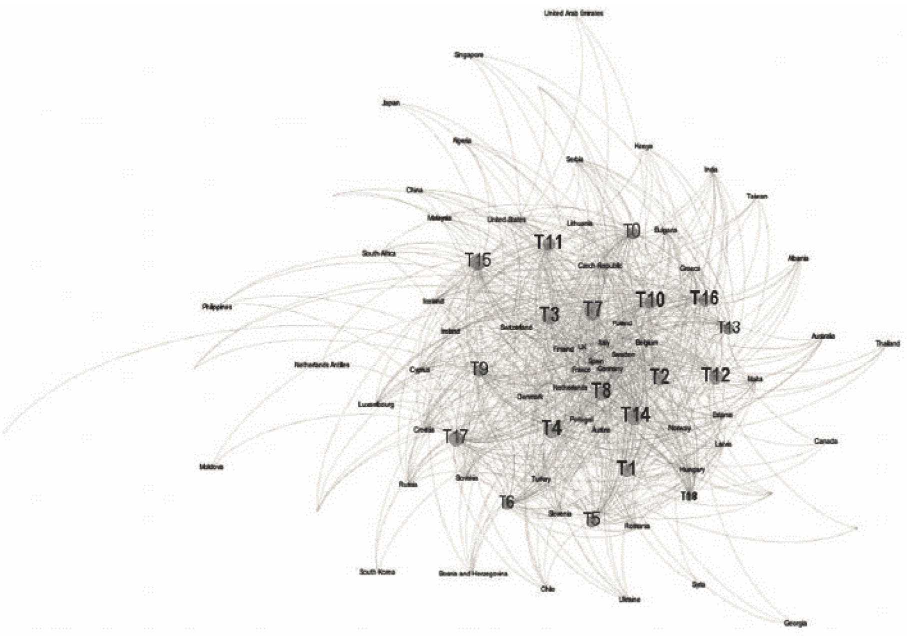
Table 3
Topics and proposed labels

Topic	Proposed label	Selected words in the topic
0	Buddy services	students, ESN, people, Erasmus, activities, local, events, friends, trips
1	Living expenses	euros, expensive, food, room, rent, living, cheap
2	Language skills	Language, English, learn, speak, Spanish, German, French, Italian
3	Academic level	high, university, level, good, education, quality
4	City offerings	city, people, big, great, recommend, nice, cultural, town
5	Abroad experience	high, university, level, good, education, quality
6	Looking for a university	university, wanted, study, choosing, choice, reason, choose
7	What a good university is	good, university, friendly, teachers, professors, atmosphere, life

Topic	Proposed label	Selected words in the topic
8	Enjoying life	time, enjoy, life, stay, experience, friends, advice, fun, travel
9	Expensive country	expensive, money, country, living, costs, prices
10	Convenient accommodation	find, accommodation, place, room, flat, good, house, residence, apartment
11	Some things are expensive, other ones are cheap	expensive, cheap, food, buy, transport, beer, bus, eat
12	Weather	winter, cold, weather, warm, clothes, summer, snow, spring
13	Future benefits derived from studying abroad	strong, international, study, research, world,work, future, experience, education
14	Solid teaching	courses, teaching, methods, good, teachers, classes, professors, exams
15	Interesting courses	courses, good, study, interesting, subjects, level, studies, faculty
16	Traveling abroad	city, travel, countries, beautiful, visit, history
17	Academic burdens	time, work, hard, semester, problems, study
18	Friendly people, amazing culture	people, nice, amazing, culture, life, place, recommend, friendly, Spain
19	Stopwords not removed	

GEPHI also allows for the identification of students' perception files groupings through the finding of similar compositional patterns in those groupings. In other words, two files are linked if both show the same main topic with similar probabilities. The whole network can be partitioned according to these groupings. The quality of the partition of a network can be measured with the modularity (Blondel et al., 2008). The modularity's positive values express a particular quality of the partition better than negative ones do. In the following section, we offer modularity value of our network.

Figure 2
Incoming students



Results and discussion

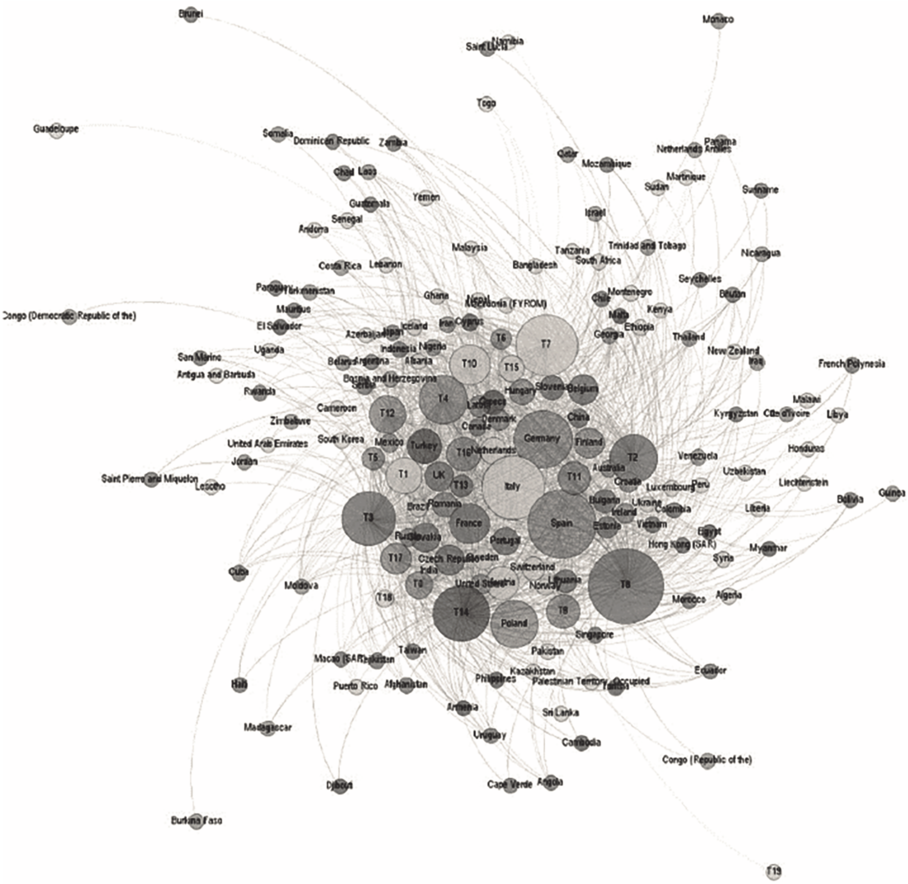
By running MALLET with 20 topics, we obtained an acceptable quality in the partition of the network of topics and countries (modularity of 0.013 in the incoming network, and a modularity of 0.027 in the outgoing network). The incoming network shows 111 communities, and the outgoing 24 communities. Each community represents a definite homogeneous configuration of the mind-set shared by specific student groups based on a common frame elaborated with specific words in each topic.

The reader could certainly reconstruct our research project by replicating the following steps. After the application of the LDA model to our dataset (as described above in the Methods section), we focus on those communities showing higher percentages of nodes. This enables us to select the more relevant communities. Our method initially identified a small number of communities defined by the high number of nodes linked to them, and therefore, we extracted those topics within each community that showed a higher weighted degree.

By displaying the network, it is easier to see the implicit connections between documents derived from topic proportions previously hidden (Blei, 2012a). Hence, we show the results for each network (comprising the perceptions of incoming and outgoing students) in Figure 2 (incoming) and Figure 3 (outgoing).

LDA determines which student perceptions in each network are dominated by those ideas included within the quoted topics (or dominant frames). Topic labels offer an exploratory characterisation of those frames. Both international student groups (incoming and outgoing) agreed on the perception of five common topics after running MALLET with 59,662 reviews. Those topics are ordered by weight in the composition of the whole set of reviews, and therefore also by importance: what comprises a good university, living expenses, sound teaching, expensive country, and city offerings.

Figure 3
Outgoing students



Our research has identified some interesting aspects of the five common topics quoted. How do international students perceive what a good university is? (Topic 7). The answer includes friendly teachers and professors that sustain an agreeable atmosphere, in other words, a valuable university experience. Their perceptions about living expenses (Topic 1) is dominated by high monetary demands (Euros, high costs). The main concerns with living expenses for them are food and accommodation (food, room, rent), so they underrate the other costs associated with their experience abroad, such as transport, medical costs, insurance, and academic expenses. On sound teaching (Topic 14), the students in our sample see that this is dependent on those who deliver the education (teachers and professors), but that they should apply suitable teaching methods, well organised learning (courses, classes), and a fair assessment (exams). Concerning expensive country (Topic 9), they obviously make a connection with the living expenses topic, but Topic 9 concerns are widened to include macroeconomic issues (money, country, costs). Concerning the last of the main topics, city offerings (Topic 4), student perceptions focus on the people they encounter in the city, and in the variety and choices that a large, diverse town with a full cultural agenda can offer. Students' personal experiences, if satisfactory, would motivate them to recommend the city to friends and colleagues.

Table 4
Suggested actions for universities

Topic	Label	Suggested actions
7	What a good university is	To improve teaching techniques, shorten students/professo ration; enhance the university experience; offer comprehensive information, offer internationalisation at home
1	Living expenses	To build facilities and alliances to offer a good value-for-money; relationship
14	Solid teaching	To design and develop updated and internationalised curricula; encourage good teaching techniques; apply better student's evaluation schemes
9	Expensive country	To implement deals with public agents to smooth student's costs, considering that the host country benefits from mobility students' expenses
4	City offerings	To develop integrated networks for the full enjoyment of all the city aspects (cultural, social)

The literature has clearly established that services offered to international students' matter, but our findings represent a deeper view of the issue, because this study indicates certain aspects of the five main topics considered above. Universities should be aware of this group of concerns that students have and should implement the appropriate strategies to fulfil their expectations.

Along with these suggestions (see Table 4), the results of our study show that the reputation of the host university is highly relevant to student perceptions, and consequently to their decisions concerning their experience abroad. Academics, costs, culture, friendliness, and information are the dominant issues in the perceptions of mobile students regarding their experience abroad, which is assessed by students as a whole. As stated in the literature review, there are some push and pull factors when students decide to go abroad. Educational, social, and economic factors are taken into account (de Wit, 2008). In accordance with our results, we can conclude that for both groups of students (incoming and outgoing), university reputation, finances (living in a new city), and teaching can be either push or pull factors, depending on the university, the city, and the country characteristics.

Conclusion

We conclude this article by illustrating the perceptions of international students when they go abroad, relating them to service provision and offering some suggested actions for institutions in providing a good service for such students.

Thanks to the LDA new methodology, we are able to conclude with a deeper understanding of students' perceptions. Previous research focused on the main drivers of international students' judgements about their experience abroad. Our study sheds light on the main ideas that comprise those drivers.

Some of the findings are related to the quality of the university itself, such as living expenses, the quality of teaching, finances, and city offerings. Even though some of the findings are far from the services that universities can provide, there is still much to be done to understand the needs of international students and to form strategies that will welcome them to a better international environment. University-related concerns are the major needs among the sample used in this study. Teaching techniques, comprehensive information channels, internationalisation at home, and the creation of a university culture should be considered alongside the strategies implemented by universities to improve international student experience. Others, such as finances (living expenses) and city offerings, can be provided in an informative package for ensuring that international students are made aware of their destination characteristics.

The literature shows that internationalisation is a complex issue, deserving a comprehensive approach to attain even higher international mobility numbers. This aim requires removal of the main obstacles detected (those we have labelled living expenses and expensive country) to increase the international students ranks. The result should be a fairer and more inclusive university internationalisation strategy. However, organisational, cultural, and budget limitations impede universities in applying a wide range of internationalisation strategies. As a consequence, universities should identify their priorities if they wish to maximise the impact of their internationalisation strategies. In this sense, our findings are relevant to the internationalisation agenda of universities, and therefore for their strategies. The strategy, as the literature review shows, presents two aspects: programme-related actions and organisational-related aspects. We have found that, if universities try to include international students' perceptions and needs within their strategies, the focus should be on those elements that contribute to the building of a good university (friendly teachers and professors and an enjoyable atmosphere) and to assure sound teaching (good professors teaching with adequate methods, fair student assessments). Both topics (good university, sound teaching) combine programme- and organisational-related actions. Therefore, a wise mix of both types of actions is advisable.

The consequence for universities could be to attain stronger positions within the higher education global market, because they can attract more international students due to the high satisfaction showed by previously enrolled students. The provision of adequate support services by universities would result in a higher level of satisfaction for international students.

A sound knowledge of the determinants of international student satisfaction would allow for a tailored provision of services for them. Thus, a well-attuned service provision could be a competitive factor for universities in the global higher education landscape.

It would be advisable for university executives to follow up student perceptions on the services provided, using a methodology similar to ours. The result should be updated with in-depth information on programme-related as well as organisational-related actions within the internationalisation strategy. From the starting point that we have offered, it is clear that universities must prioritise their main actions (programme and organisational), such as improvements to teaching quality, enhancing learning methods, upgrading the course organisation, and ameliorating student assessment. Students also indicate, however, other topics relevant to their experience: living expenses, expensive country, and city offerings. Even when universities are unable to control macroeconomic circumstances, they can certainly help reduce the costs of food and accommodation within the campus and provide accurate information about the host country. Universities should also try to ensure that regional and local authorities offer improved conditions to students, considering that they represent additional income for locals. The aim should be to implement a more inclusive university internationalisation strategy. Finally, universities and local authorities should collaborate to improve city offerings in general, especially those related to culture.

Limitations and further research

Our study shows the issues that shape mobility students' perceptions about their international experience; nevertheless, gaps in our knowledge persist concerning the interactions of those issues. It would be useful for university internationalisation strategies to understand how reputation, academics, costs, friendliness, information, and culture interconnect with each other. When this knowledge becomes available, universities should be able to design and implement gradual and more focused strategies, dealing first with those issues having strong effects upon others.

Finally, having used a large collection of student reviews on their own perceptions, the availability of even more of those perceptions should offer new opportunities to understand this matter in greater depth.

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CHAPTER 17

Social justice-centred education abroad programming: navigating social identities and fostering conversations[1]

Malaika Marable Serrano

Abstract. This chapter opens with foundations and theoretical frameworks for social justice, intersectionality, and social identities. The identities of all stakeholders – students, education abroad administrators, and faculty – influence and shape programme design, marketing and recruitment, orientation, programme implementation, and evaluation. Previous research and discussions around historically marginalised students tended to centre on individual character deficits, without considering systemic inequalities. The chapter then transitions into the practice of creating brave spaces, to enable faculty and education abroad administrators to engage in difficult conversations related to social identities and the dynamics and changing nature of social identities in different contexts. The chapter concludes with tactical recommendations and guiding questions to build more equitable and inclusive education abroad programmes.

Keywords: deficit narrative, social identity, brave space, marginalised students, education abroad.

Questo capitolo si apre con i fondamenti teorici della giustizia sociale, dell'intersezionalità e delle identità sociali. Le identità di tutte le parti interessate – studenti, amministratori di corsi di formazione all'estero e docenti – influenzano e modellano la progettazione del programma, il marketing e il reclutamento, l'orientamento, l'attuazione del programma e la valutazione. Le ricerche e i dibattiti precedenti sugli studenti storicamente emarginati tendevano a concentrarsi sui deficit caratteriali individuali, senza considerare le disuguaglianze sistemiche. Il capitolo si sofferma poi sulla pratica della creazione di brave spaces (ovvero, spazi coraggiosi), per consentire ai docenti e agli amministratori dei programmi di istruzione all'estero di impegnarsi in conversazioni delicate relative alle identità sociali e alle dinamiche e alla natura mutevole di esse in contesti diversi. Il capitolo si conclude con raccomandazioni tattiche e domande guida per costruire programmi di istruzione all'estero più equi e inclusivi.

Keywords: narrazione del deficit, identità sociale, brave space, studenti marginalizzati, istruzione all'estero.

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Introduction

There are several definitions and interpretations of social justice. The definition that defines my work is "full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs. Social justice includes a vision of society that is equitable, and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure" (Adams et al., 2007). In an education context, social justice sits at the centre of inclusive pedagogy, which invites us to consider our choices around both the content we teach and the means through which we deliver it. Additionally, inclusive pedagogy argues that the social identities of both student and teacher have a direct impact on the learning experience. Self-awareness is therefore an important point of entry into inclusive pedagogical practice (Georgetown University, n.d.).

Working from this definition, it is clear that the social identities of all stakeholders – students, study abroad administrators, and faculty programme leaders – influence education abroad programme design, marketing and recruitment, orientation, programme implementation, reflection, and reentry.

Consequently, the students' identities and context of the programme directly impact their education broad experience. No two students will have the same experience, and it is imperative for all stakeholders to recognise this reality. Likewise, the identities of the teacher (or study abroad administrator) are central to the learning process and outcomes for the student. In 2018, Diversity Abroad issued a State of the Field Survey to assess the demographics and experiences of faculty and professionals who deliver international education experiences for higher education students. Seventy-one percent of the survey respondents identified as White and the remaining 29% identified as Black/African American, Hispanic/Latinx, Asian, Middle Eastern/Arab, or multiracial (Lopez-McGee, 2018). These numbers closely mirror national statistics on the race and ethnicity of students who study abroad (Institute of International Education, 2018). Social identities and the need for continuous self-reflection and awareness, as well as the discussions surrounding them, are the tenets of inclusive pedagogy.

This chapter begins with foundational definitions and theoretical frameworks around social justice, social identities, intersectionality, and deficit model thinking, as well as why those concepts are crucial to contemporary education abroad. The chapter then moves into the practice of creating brave spaces for students, faculty, and staff to engage in honest conversations around identity. Finally, it discusses inclusive programme design considerations. Storytelling is a tool that I use to model vulnerability and connect social justice and identity theories into my practice. Throughout the chapter, I share my experiences as an African American education abroad administrator and faculty programme director. In keeping with the tenets of inclusive pedagogy, I believe that teachers and administrators need to be doing more of this: telling their stories through a diversity, equity, and inclusion lens. Of critical importance is the need to lift up and amplify the voices of international educators from minoritised social identities.

Identities

Names and naming stories can provide windows into our social identities – that is, a person's sense of who he or she is based on group membership(s). One of my favourite icebreaker classroom activities is to ask students to share the story of their name: "What is your full name?" "Who named you and why?" "What is the meaning of your name?" I then share the story of my name: in 1970, my father studied abroad for his junior year at the University of Nairobi in Kenya. While he was there, he heard a song called "Malaika" and said to himself, "If I ever have a daughter, I'm going to name her Malaika." I like to share the story of my name because it is rooted in, and has ignited within me, a lifelong passion for discovering new people, places, ideas, and beliefs.

My story

My social justice journey began nearly 20 years ago as a graduate student on a short-term faculty-led study abroad programme. The course was on Afro-Brazilian culture, and we spent a month in Salvador, Brazil, learning basic Portuguese, meeting artists, practising *capoeira* (a Brazilian dance of African origin that incorporates martial arts movements), and *candomblé*, (an African-Brazilian religion combining African, Roman Catholic, and indigenous Brazilian elements) (Merriam-Webster, 2019). In addition, we participated in a pre-Carnival celebration and *intercambios* (language and cultural exchanges) with local students.

From the minute I landed in Brazil until the moment I left, my race was no longer classified as "Black"; I had become "mulata". This was earth-shattering for me because for the first 22 years of my life, I had always self-identified as Black/African American. This racial identity was assigned to me before I was born and is prominently placed on my birth certificate. My "Blackness" is a source of pride, reinforced by my parents and family with messages of "Black is beautiful."

It has also been a source of pain in the form of microaggressions – being told, for example, that I was "very articulate for someone of my heritage". But in Brazil, suddenly my race changed. I desperately wanted to understand and process this experience with my professors and peers. Out of the 16 students on the programme, only three of us self-identified as African American. I found great comfort in speaking about this shifting racial construction with my colleagues of colour, for they too were going through a similar experience. However, when we brought this up during class, many of our classmates were dismissive and we received little support from our professors.

In retrospect, I now know that the entire class needed stronger preparation by the faculty programme leaders around issues related to social identity construction in Brazil, in order to engage in conversations about race. My words are not meant to be disrespectful of the faculty members who led the programme. It is because of this programme that I fell in love with Latin America and spent the following year teaching English in Venezuela. My story illustrates a serious issue that is not often discussed in the field of international education: faculty members and study abroad administrators are often not adequately prepared or trained to engage in some of the difficult conversations related to social identities and the dynamics and changing nature of social identities in different contexts. This chapter intends to advance discussions on the need and opportunities for creating, promoting, and advocating for social justice centred education abroad programmes.

The face of U.S. college students is rapidly changing. Today's college students do not fit the pervasive narrative of a "typical" college student. Nearly 45% of postsecondary students self-identify as students of colour, nearly 40% receive Pell Grants, more than 45% are 21 years of age or older, and less than 50% live on campus (Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2019). The profile of study abroad participants is shifting as well and requires institutions to rethink their approaches to education abroad.

Study abroad participant profile

Social justice-centred education abroad resonates strongly with Generation Z (Gen Z), who were born between 1997 and 2012 and are many of today's college students (Dimock, 2019). Gen Z is the most racially and ethnically diverse generation in the United States (Parker et al., 2019). Gen Zers are likely to have friends from all over the world and have spent time researching their own identities abroad (e.g., Black in China, LGBTQ in Morocco, women in South Africa). They are more likely to know someone who uses gender-neutral pronouns and are generally more supportive of LGBTQ marriage and interracial relationships than previous generations (Parker et al., 2019). Many of these students are also coming to campus equipped with the language, agency, and expectations to have frank conversations around identity. This awareness is essential, given that students' identities have a direct impact on their learning experience, in the classroom and abroad.

The new reality of the changing college student population in the United States presents an urgent need to reevaluate the way education abroad programmes have historically been constructed and how processes have traditionally been executed (Serrano et al., 2019). Images of predominantly White or racially ambiguous, heterosexual, cisgender, upper-middle class, traditional-age students leave little room for alternative narratives. A social justice-centred approach to education abroad programming, however, will counter this mismatched narrative. To set the foundation for productive programmes, education abroad administrators and faculty should begin integrating discussions around social identities into recruitment and predeparture orientations.

Social identities

Social identities contribute to the formation of a person's sense of self, based on the individual's group membership(s) (Tajfel & Turner, 2004) along certain characteristics such as sexual orientation, age, race, religion or spirituality, immigration status, first language, and other characteristics. People are told which group(s) they belong to, from the earliest stages of life onward. Group membership is reinforced by parents, family, neighbours, school, houses of worship, institutions, and the media, among other social and societal structures. Identities are, thus, socially constructed.

How identities "present" in a U.S. context might be different in another country and context – a divergence that many students may confront for the first time when they go abroad, as I did in Brazil. For example, identities that are most salient in the United States may not have the same level of salience in a different space. This difference in reception and emphasis can be particularly jarring to students, regardless of their racial or ethnic background, who visit or study in countries where their sense of racial and/or ethnic identity is challenged (e.g., a Korean American student who is consistently told that they are Chinese or a White student in the Dominican Republic experiences becoming a racial minority for the first time). For international educators, understanding social identities can provide a holistic view of students who are from underrepresented backgrounds and their experience abroad.

In my own experience, my first awakening to the fluidity of social identity construction occurred during a semester abroad in Australia. Up until that point in my life, I had been told and socialised to believe that "all-American" was synonymous with "White, blonde, and blue-eyed." However, when I landed in Australia, suddenly I was identified by my U.S. nationality first, and my race second. It was revolutionary, and from that point forward, I began to see and recognise my nationality as a salient identity in Australia.

I also lived in Venezuela from 2001 to 2002, during which time my national origin presented as Trinidadian, not someone from the United States. Why? Because in a Venezuelan context, a person with *café con leche* complexion and braids was not "all-American." I had people argue with me in confusion and disbelief that I was from the United States because my existence had disrupted their construction of the "American" image. These two examples underscore the impact of study abroad and international travel, not only for the participant but members of the host community as well.

Self-reflection

Social identity exploration is the foundation of an inclusive mindset. For international educators, this means grounding our practice and attitude in an inclusive space. Before we can adequately advise students, we must start with ourselves and begin "unpacking" our social identities. Next, we must identify those affiliations that are most salient, the ones that frequently affect daily life. This identification is truly a process of continuous self-reflection. Tools such as the "Social Identity Wheel" (University of Michigan, n.d.) or "My Multicultural Self"[2] can be used by education abroad professionals, faculty, and students alike. Once the "unpacking" has taken place, we need to determine which of these identities are "visible" (e.g., race, gender) and which of these identities are "invisible" (e.g., sexual orientation, religious or spiritual affinity).

It can be tremendously impactful to both the faculty members and students, and boost their agency as they navigate a new context, if they have a better understanding of their own social identities, the identities that are both visible and invisible, the identities that are most salient in a U.S. context, and, finally, how all of these identities may "present" in the education abroad location. Faculty programme leaders and in-country staff who support education abroad programmes should engage in self-reflective work alongside the students. This recognition will create a feeling of openness, trust, and support for students, as well as foster an experience that is learner centred.

Figure 1 illustrates the social construction of race, ethnicity, and national origin. Each of these identities have been ascribed to me at one point in time: as a study abroad student, as a professional teaching English abroad, as a study abroad adviser participating on international site visits, and as a faculty programme director in the

[2] See, for example, materials from the University of Denver, found at https://www.du.edu/sites/default/files/2020-09/wk%201-Culturally-Responsive-Classroom-Circles-of-My-Multicultural-Self.pdf.

Dominican Republic and Colombia. A similar exercise can be performed by study abroad administrators, students, and faculty programme leaders to illustrate the fluidity and social construction of identities, which may be a new concept for many.

Social identity theory opens the door to "intersectionality," which is a framework for conceptualising a person, a group of people, or social problems that are rooted in historical and systemic oppression. Legal scholar Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989) coined the term "intersectionality" as a framework to describe the oppression of Black women, but it can be applied to other groups of people as well. A person's constellation of identities (Figure 1) frames and shapes his or her interactions with the world and how the world views the individual. This theory acknowledges overlapping identities and experiences to understand the complexity of prejudices that people – in the case of Crenshaw, Black women – may face.

Marginalised identities are the ones we tend to think about most often, whereas privileged identities – "unearned benefits afforded to powerful social groups within systems of oppression" – are the ones we think about less often (Case et al., 2012). Our marginalised and privileged identities shift depending on context. For example, in a U.S. context, my race (African American) and gender (cis woman) are my most salient identities. However, as a study abroad student in Australia, my nationality (American) quickly rose to become one of my most salient identities. My identities shifted again when, years later, I visited an exchange partner in South Africa. There, I learned that people with my complexion, generally those who have mixed-race ancestry, are assigned the racial category of "coloured," not "Black" as I had been accustomed to being labelled in the United States.

This was a lightning bolt moment for me. I had travelled and lived abroad on several continents, but I had never encountered a reclassification of my race before. Immediately, my mind started reeling. How am I preparing students for this reality? Other than my firsthand experience, what other resources are available? Is the wider education abroad community engaging in these types of discussions and reflections?

Figure 1
Illustration of the social construction of race, ethnicity, and national origin

Support from the field

Conversations about navigating social identities abroad have progressed in international education spaces. Additionally, national governments and higher education leaders alike are paying more attention to social identity dimensions and the underrepresentation of students from historically marginalised communities in education abroad (Aurora Universities, 2018; Centennial College, 2018; de Wit & Jones, 2018; Institute of International Education, 2018; Lincoln Commission, 2005). NAFSA: Association of International Educators, the Diversity Abroad Network, the Forum on Education Abroad, and the Institute of International Education (IIE) are just a few organisations that have made diversity and inclusion a priority in international education. These and other organisations support educators in preparing students to deal with issues surrounding their marginalised and privileged identities abroad.

NAFSA, Diversity Abroad, and others are also taking an inward look at the profession by exploring the identities of education abroad practitioners and faculty as well as lifting the question, "How can we diversify the profession?". In acknowledging that the demographics of the profession mirror the students who are going abroad, it invites dialogue around why over/underrepresentation exists and how to identify strategies to diversify the field. Intentional action around fostering more inclusivity in the education abroad profession will increase diversity of thought and experiences, which will positively benefit all students.

Deficit model

Deficit model thinking is a framework that has been used in primary and secondary educational contexts for decades (Anzul et al., 2001; Han & Thomas, 2010; McKay & Devlin, 2016). Deficit thinking places the "blame of underachievement" on historically marginalised populations, without considering structural and institutional racism. With their own unconscious biases, some teachers and administrators may see only the "deficit" and discount and ignore the assets that marginalised, and historically disadvantaged students have developed over a lifetime. Examples of deficit thinking in education abroad include the following:

- An adviser thinking, "If only the student's parents valued the study abroad experience..."
- A programme director thinking, "If only the student didn't wait until the last minute, they could have found courses that fit with their major..."
- A financial aid administrator thinking, "If only the student started saving up sooner, they wouldn't have to drop out of the programme due to financial constraints..."

Current discourse in education abroad around historically marginalised populations tends to centre around students' deficits (e.g., financially disadvantaged, lacking family support, etc.). By framing the issue from a deficit perspective, it dismisses culpability from the institutions (e.g., about transfer credit, on using financial aid, etc.). However, when we are cognisant of deficit thinking and instead engage in critical assessment, we can reframe our programmes and policies from a deficit model to a social justice-centred perspective. With this new frame, not only will the barriers to entry for education abroad participation be lowered for historically underrepresented populations, but all students will benefit from increased diversity of thought, life experiences, and expressions in conversations on the education abroad experience. Understandably, it may be an adjustment for some faculty, education abroad administrators, and other key stakeholders to adapt to this new way of thinking about underrepresented students in education abroad. However, if international education professionals maintain a learner-centred focus and position, it will truly be in the best interest of all students as they prepare for their international education experiences.

Social justice dialogue

Programme directors and facilitators can create spaces for students to engage in respectful and honest social justice–centred dialogue in predeparture orientations, reentry workshops, and other forums. Arao and Clemens (2013, pp. 139-140) offer a theoretical framework of ground rules for engaging in social justice dialogue that can be applied in education abroad spaces:

> [A]uthentic learning about social justice often requires the very qualities of risk, difficulty, and controversy that are defined as incompatible with safety. For agent group members, facing evidence of the existence of their unearned privilege, reflecting on how and to what degree they have colluded with or participated in oppressive acts, hearing the stories of pain and struggle from target group members, and fielding direct challenges to their world-view from target group members, and fielding direct challenges to their world-view from their peers can elicit a range of emotions, such as fear, sorrow, and anger, agent group impulse to classify challenges to one's power and privilege as actions that detract from a sense of safety is, in itself, as manifestation of dominance.

People of colour are then expected to constrain their participation and actions to conform to White expectations of safety – itself an act of racism and White resistance and denial.

Arao and Clemens (2013) illustrate how detrimental a "safe space" can be for participants from historically underrepresented groups if it is formed without intentional thought. When ill-conceived, conversations in those spaces can actually reinforce dominance, in which case, rather than making progress toward understanding different experiences and points of view, a safe space can then potentially cause more harm to underrepresented students. Instead, international educators need to create brave spaces that open up dialogues on how social identities are socially constructed and fluid. In particular, in some contexts, students may be labelled and identified by the local contexts in ways that are unfamiliar to them.

In Arao and Clemens's (2013) Brave Spaces framework, the participants must adhere to the following conditions to engage in social justice-centred dialogue that is empowering for all students:

- Controversy with civility: participants enter the conversation with an understanding that another party may say something they disagree with, but the discussion will be civil and respectful;
- Intentions and impact: participants recognise and accept their contributions rather than not "taking things personally";
- Challenge by choice: participants choose how far to challenge themselves; if participants are holding back, facilitators will respect their position and ask them to examine what is holding them back from challenging themselves;
- Respect: participants are asked to describe what respectful dialogue looks like to them;
- No attacks: participants are asked to describe what an attack might look like to them.

Facilitators can ask the group members whether they feel that the guidelines are appropriate and feasible. This shared agreement is fundamental for creating and maintaining trust. Facilitators may also want to open with a personal story or anecdote that supports the wider topic of discussion. By modelling vulnerability and demonstrating openness, facilitators can draw participants in and encourage them to share honestly, without fear of reprisal or being shamed.

Activation

International educators must develop social justice-centred education abroad programmes with an inclusive mindset. When the community takes up a cause, the results can be profound. For example, not too long ago, science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) students were considered underrepresented in education abroad. The international education community rallied with conferences, workshops, countless sessions, articles, and other resources to educate administrators and faculty about the needs of serving this student population. The results have been amazing, with the percentage of STEM students going abroad at a record high of 25.5% in the 2016-17 academic year (IIE, 2018). The education abroad community should rally around other historically marginalised groups in a similar way to see greater numbers going abroad.

Inclusive programme design considerations

When developing inclusive education abroad programmes, faculty programme directors should incorporate the following considerations into curricular and cocurricular, student recruitment, preparation, and reflection activities (Ledesma & Serrano, 2019):

- Who is the education abroad programme intended to serve? Will the programme be accessible to all students? Does the programme design effectively communicate respect for the diversity of identities represented among students, programme leader(s), and the local community?
- What is the recruitment and outreach plan? Will the approach be collaborative? How are essential programme requirements communicated? With whom?
- How will students' families be engaged during the study abroad application and predeparture orientation process?
- How will the programme abroad foster community among participants, before, during, and after the experience?

- Does the course content reflect diversity in the local context? Are diverse authors reflected and cited in the required course reading? Do speakers represent a diversity of identities, perspectives, and viewpoints?
- Do cocurricular activities incorporate diverse experiences and learning environments? Are excursions accessible for all students?
- Will the programme create a welcoming and affirming space for all students as they navigate shifting social identities in a cross-cultural environment? How will students be guided through emotionally intense learning experiences? Who will guide them?

Furthermore, to establish social justice-centred experiences, there are several questions education abroad professionals should consider from the outset regarding the student experience:

- What is the status of race/ethnic relations in the host country? How should students be prepared for differences in relations?
- What are the cultural attitudes toward sexual orientation and gender identity in the country?
- What are the implications of studying in a location that is (or is closely linked to) a student's family's country of origin? How will "heritage" students be perceived by the host culture?
- Are there required excursions that require a certain level of physical mobility to access?
- Is the cost of living higher, lower, or the same as the United States?
- How will students finance the programme? What funding resources are available, and when are applications due?
- How will meals be taken? Are there opportunities for students to prepare their own meals?
- How difficult will it be to bring or obtain prescription medications?
- How difficult will it be to obtain products for all hair and skin types?

Programme implementation

I tried to incorporate these concepts in a study abroad programme that I led to the Dominican Republic in 2014. The course was designed to examine social and racial inequalities from multinational perspectives: the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and the United States. Prior to arriving in the Dominican Republic, the students participated in two required predeparture orientation sessions, where they created group norms, engaged in several team-building exercises, and discussed social identities – first in a U.S. context and then the Dominican Republic context. The students spent a week engaging in literature and online discussion forums around several social justice issues, including poverty, education, race, and health care.

There was a connected strategy to the development of the programme itself. By contracting with a study abroad provider who had an established partnership with community-based organisations in the Dominican Republic, service-learning was central to the course. The students applied scholarship to practice, used critical reflection to explore how one's experiences and identities inform approaches to addressing a wide range of social issues, and were introduced to asset-based strategies for combating social inequalities. From the pre-departure discussions to the reflection work done in-country, the students and I created a community of trust that was critical to the success of the programme and opened the door for important and, sometimes, difficult conversations around identity.

Conclusion

Social justice work is ongoing and can sometimes be intense. It is important for both facilitators and students to unpack and name the identities that are salient and recognise how these may shift in various contexts. Educators must show up fully, model vulnerability, and work toward fostering brave spaces in the classroom, at work, and in everyday life. This intentionality will foster a deep sense of trust between the facilitators and the students, as well as create psychologically safe environments to engage in healthy social justice dialogue.

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CHAPTER 18

Support services at Spanish and U.S. institutions: a driver for international student satisfaction[1]

ADRIANA PEREZ-ENCINAS AND RAVICHANDRAN AMMIGAN

Abstract. Many institutions of higher education are promoting campus internationalisation as a core principle through international student mobility and, as a result, have expanded rapidly in enrolment. To effectively serve this growing population, university campuses have had to strengthen their student support services. However, while many have well-developed programmes for students in general, not all services are designed to specifically cover the needs of international students. The purpose of this paper is to provide an overview on research conducted on the topic of international student satisfaction with university support services as a means to ensure a positive student experience. It also provides a new research approach for comparing how support services for international students are structured at Spanish and U.S. institutions.

Keywords: support services, satisfaction, international students, assessment.

Molti centri di istruzione superiore stanno promuovendo l'internazionalizzazione dei campus come principio fondamentale attraverso la mobilità internazionale degli studenti e, di conseguenza, hanno registrato una rapida crescita delle iscrizioni. Per servire efficacemente questa popolazione in crescita, i campus universitari hanno dovuto rafforzare i propri servizi di supporto agli studenti. Tuttavia, mentre in molti casi esistono programmi ben sviluppati per gli studenti in generale, non tutti i servizi sono progettati per rispondere in modo specifico alle esigenze degli studenti internazionali. Lo scopo di questo articolo è quello di fornire una panoramica sulla ricerca condotta sul tema della soddisfazione degli studenti internazionali nei confronti dei servizi di supporto universitari, come mezzo per garantire un'esperienza positiva agli studenti. Inoltre, il contributo fornisce un nuovo approccio di ricerca che consente di confrontare il modo in cui i servizi di supporto agli studenti internazionali sono strutturati nelle istituzioni spagnole e statunitensi.

Keywords: servizi di supporto, soddisfazione, studenti internazionali, valutazione.

[1] Reprinted with permission. Perez-Encinas, A., & Ammigan, R. (2016). Support Services at Spanish and U.S. Institutions: A Driver for International Student Satisfaction. *Journal of International Students*, 6(4), 984-998. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v6i4.330.

Introduction

Over the past 50 years, many institutions of higher education around the world have seen record-high enrolments of international students on their respective campuses. Globally, the number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside of their country of citizenship increased more than three times, from 1.3 million in 1990 to nearly 5 million in 2015 (OECD, 2015). While we must carefully differentiate between the two types of mobility involved – degree-seeking mobility and credit mobility – there is an overall increasing interest in students going to study abroad. The presence of international students on university campuses can be seen as a major benefit in providing campuses with diversity, pluralism, and opportunities for cross-cultural learning and engagement (Willer, 1992), but this continued growth in enrolment is calling for a closer look at the needs of this population and its level of satisfaction with university services.

While international student enrolment is a key strategy and often the measure for comprehensive internationalisation at many institutions, it is important that the support services offered match the needs of this population. Doing so allows for the wider university community to benefit from the global perspective these students bring along with them and to maintain an inclusive climate that supports the academic and personal growth on campus (ACE, 2015). As Choudaha and Hu (2016) point out, a majority of institutions still struggle to allocate adequate resources and expertise needed to meet the university expectations and experiences of their high-paying international students, potentially leading to lower levels of satisfaction and a negative impact on future recruitment. It is therefore imperative for student affairs professionals and support staff to provide essential services to this community and help move "the internationalisation of higher education from vision to reality" (ACE, 2015).

This paper discusses the role of support services for international students as an important driver in the internationalisation efforts of a university and provides an overview of assessment tools that institutions in Spain and the U.S. are using to measure international student satisfaction. Since support services can be a key factor in attracting and retaining international students, we offer a strong argument for why universities need to better understand the level of satisfaction of these students with the support services they offer.

A review of existing literature was conducted on support services for international students as well as the most-widely used tools and measures by institutions to assess the satisfaction of international students with campus services. Moreover, a quantitative survey focused on international student satisfaction with support services at selected Spanish and U.S. universities was launched. In doing so, it was also important to identify the context of student mobility relevant to universities in both countries. Due to a lack of literature or comparable study addressing similar questions in a Spanish and U.S context, it was important for us to reflect on the first main difference between both countries – the definition of credit mobility. In Spain for instance, credit mobility, which is described as temporary mobility in the framework of ongoing studies at a "home institution" for the purpose of gaining credit, is the most common type of mobility for international students (Kelo et al., 2006). On the other hand, in the U.S., most international students participate in degree mobility programs, which is described as learning mobility for a degree purpose, even if only a part of the program is studied abroad (Colucci et al. 2012).

Student support services: meaning and importance

According to national and local sources, such as the UK International Higher Education Unit report (Archer et al., 2010) and the Australian Education International report elaborated by Ziguras and Harwood for ISANA: International Education Association (2015), most students who have been abroad for a period of their studies will recommend their stay to their peers. In fact, international students look more satisfied with the stay in the country abroad than with the quality of their studies abroad (Fellinger et al, 2013). However, while most international students recommend their experiences abroad, there are a few other aspects to consider in order to improve student satisfaction on campus. Three of the most important concerns about studying abroad are: the academics (professors, lessons in different languages, methods used), city and culture (where the city is located), how the atmosphere is and university services (such as accommodation, counselling, information desk, integration activities) (Ellis et al, 2013). Figuring out the best way to meet the needs of international students is not an easy process (ACE, 2015). Even international students at any single institution face different issues and might need a diverse set of support services.

In their report on international student support in European Higher Education, Kelo at al. (2010) suggest that student services have a potentially important role to play in terms of attracting and retaining international students, as well as building momentum for future recruitment of high-quality students. Additionally, they point out that feedback from international students must be sought and assessed in order to identify their needs and provide the best support service to increase their satisfaction. Providing programmes and services to more international students is becoming central to the work of all students' affairs professionals at the university, and not just those who work in the international office (ACE, 2015). One could therefore argue that support services and international student satisfaction can be achieved if all stakeholders at the university work together to enhance the campus internationalisation process, which "has become an indicator for quality in higher education" (de Wit, 2011). In other words, the satisfaction of international students with provided services could be one of the key drivers for campus internationalisation.

Several studies and reports have agreed with the fact that international students might have different needs depending on their length of studies abroad. In the report *International Student Lifecycle* by the Higher Education Academy (2015), best practices are gathered and categorised by different phases of experience or periods of time. For example, issues before arrival or pre-arrival information, arrival support, induction and welcome, learning in the classroom (academics) and learning in a new environment or life outside the classroom and the completion and return (reverse culture shock). It is therefore key to emphasise the importance of support services in the satisfaction of international students as they are not only influenced by their academic or learning experience in the classroom. According to the last report from i-graduate (2015), student satisfaction is not necessarily correlative with the quality of the programmes being taught. They also mention that the analysis is intended to shed light on international student experience, rather than course quality, which is related to different support services for international students.

One of the well-received services by international students occurs in their very first days at their new institutions. Such programmes are usually called orientation programmes, welcome days, or induction days. According to Evans et al. (2009), the transition to university can be exciting, unfamiliar, and challenging for both domestic and international students. They arrive to a new culture, environment, climate, and usually a different language. For that reason, many universities offer a variety of support services, such as orientation programmes.

There are different types of services that universities provide to their international students. The Academic Cooperation Association report (2015) states that the most important support service areas identified by students included information and orientation, integration activities with local students, the institution, and/or surrounding community, language support, other practical considerations, including assistance with visas and other administrative procedures; housing; support for families; and career and internship guidance (Kelo et al., 2010). From a different perspective, the American Council on Education (2015) recommends four key areas to provide the best student experience – welcoming international students, adjusting services and programmes to meet their needs, facilitating integration between international and other students, and assessing students' experiences. Depending on the phase international students are in, their needs and service perception might change. A favourable level of satisfaction is important in all phases of their international student lifecycle.

These first few days are critical for international students to engage and integrate with the university, the new culture, environment and new friends. There are different orientation models that have proven to be effective, but the successful ones usually involve a collaboration of support offices across campus and participation by their staff. As such, it is crucial for all stakeholders within their university to understand the importance of internationalisation and be provided with relevant training and knowledge in order to be able to provide the best services possible to international students. The REACT project (2013), funded by the European Commission, has developed a project to include and integrate all members of the staff in the internationalisation process. Their aim was to put together a compendium of good practices to better understand the needs of international students. The main objective of the REACT project was to provide tools for improving staff members' skills on supporting international students, broadening administrative staff's perception of students' needs, opening and sensitising them to their problems, making people aware of the necessity to improve their knowledge of foreign languages, and introduce training in cultural differences and student-client care.

The continued growth of mobility numbers in terms of students willing to study abroad has pushed many universities to focus not only on the academic aspects of the student experience but also on the needs that international students might have concerning services and matters related to their stay and comfort. In that sense, it is argued that European higher education must recognise that student services represent a powerful tool for enhancing the quality and sustainability of the internationalisation agenda, not to mention the overall competitiveness of the sector (Kelo et al., 2010).

International student satisfaction tools

In an effort to identify a group of providers that offer a survey instrument for assessing student satisfaction, we found that both Spanish and U.S. institutions use a variety of assessment tools that focus on campus support services. Below, we present five of the most-widely used tools.

International Student Barometer. The International Student Barometer (ISB), developed by the company i-graduate International Insight company, offers a tool that tracks and compares the decision-making, expectations, perceptions, and intentions of international students from application to graduation, including the scope of support services in various countries around the world (i- graduate, 2015). It enables institutions to make informed decisions to enhance the international student experience and drive successful recruitment and marketing strategies.

Ruffalo Noel Levitz. Focused on international students only in the U.S., the Ruffalo Noel-Levitz survey asks students to rate their satisfaction with key areas of student life and learning, as well as the importance of each of these issues (Noel-Levitz, 2015). The data reveal what these students value and how they compare to domestic students. These results can help campuses not only understand how to attract international students to their institutions, but how to keep these students satisfied and guide them to graduation.

Studyportals. Studyportals is the global study choice platform. One of their main priorities is to gather the most comprehensive information on study opportunities from all over the world. They analyse the satisfaction of international students with a unique focus on what students think about studying abroad, gained by reviewing the comments made by international students on the student experience exchange platform.

National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). The NSSE survey, launched in 2000 in the United States and Canada, assesses the extent to which students engage in educational practices associated with high levels of learning and development (NSSE, 2015). The questionnaire collects information in five different categories: participation in dozens of educationally purposeful activities; institutional requirements and the challenging nature of coursework; perceptions of the college environment; estimates of educational and personal growth since starting college; and background and demographic information.

QS Student Satisfaction. The QS Stars university rating system (QS Top Universities, 2015) evaluates an institution against 50+ different indicators and awards universities between one and five stars over eight wider categories, in addition to an overall rating. One of the indicators measures overall student satisfaction with the university as well as its quality of teaching.

On a national level, governments across the world have launched initiatives to assess and evaluate the quality of education. The Australian Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, in partnership with the International Education Association, carried out a project as part of the Study in Australia 2010 initiative. The project aims to present principles of good practice for enhancing international student experience outside the classroom. In the UK, the UK Council for International Student Affairs (UKCISA), a national advisory body serving the interest of international students and those who work with them, launched a comprehensive report and guide for international students in relation to their mobility status and support services, such as accommodation information, along with a webpage that contains a wealth of information and practical guides for students and staff.

Comparing both perspectives: Spain and U.S.

Spain perspectives

In Europe and especially in the Spanish context, the Erasmus programme keeps the mobility record and their well-known position as an exchange programme. This type of mobility has grown significantly in the last years. According to the European Commission report Erasmus Figures and Facts (2013), more than 3 million students went abroad for a part of their studies in the 2012-13 academic year. Spanish mobility has been famous for the last years to be the first country with the most incoming and outgoing students under the Erasmus programme, according to EC data from 2012-13. Credit mobility is predominant at Spanish institutions as compared to the U.S., where most international students are degree-seeking. According to the Strategy for Internationalisation of Spanish Universities (Ministerio di Educación 2014), Spain receives 2.5% of international students studying worldwide, as compared to the U.S. that has 16.5% of the market share.

In October 2014, the Spanish government launched a Strategy for Internationalisation of Spanish Universities 2015-2020, which includes the following objectives: gather together staff with international experience, raise the number of mobile students (incoming and outgoing), provide internationalisation at home for those students who do not study abroad, increase the attractiveness of the universities and therefore the attractiveness of the campuses, create welcome services (support service for arrival, stay and departure) and identify the potential demand sources for university products and services as well as intensify the Spanish presence as a supplier of university services in other parts of the world. Beyond the directive to formalise the internationalisation process at Spanish institutions, these objectives also point to the importance of identifying the needs of international students that can in turn provide them with a satisfactory stay during their programme.

Along with service provision and student satisfaction, it is also important to take into account the influencers that impact the international student experience. Studyportals' 2013 study (Ellis et al. 2013), entitled *Key Influencers of International Student Satisfaction in Europe*, states that no Spanish institutions appear in the Top 20 of European universities rated for the level of their international student satisfaction. This is a key factor for institutions to consider as they set their strategic priorities for attracting and retaining international students on their campuses.

Most Spanish universities are set up to have an international relations office with admission, enrolment, and general administrative responsibilities. Co-curricular activities and extra-curricular activities are not centralised in one office at universities but mainly organised by volunteer-based student organisations. There is a strong sense of collaboration and co-ownership at Spanish universities in how support services are provided. Responsibility is spread across the institution as opposed to one dedicated office.

While some institutions use general feedback-oriented surveys that were developed in-house to measure student satisfaction, few use well-grounded benchmarking assessment tools such as the International Student Barometer (ISB) or QS. There is also no assessment carried out nationally on student support services and international student satisfaction as they relate to the internationalisation of Spanish universities (Kelo et al., 2010).

United States perspectives

The number of international students studying at U.S. colleges and universities has increased drastically over the past 50 years and enrolment continues to grow. According to the Institute of International Education, 974,926 international students studied in the U.S. in 2014-15, representing a 10% increase from the previous academic year (IIE, 2015). This makes the U.S. the premier destination for international students, from a degree mobility standpoint, and their presence on university campuses brings to administration a whole new set of responsibilities and challenges for providing effective support services.

In that sense, attention is increasingly being drawn to the role of U.S. universities in providing support services to international students particularly in the form of a welcoming campus environment, sufficient infrastructure and resources for learning (Burdett & Crossman, 2012). As Choudaha and Hu (2016) point out, international students often receive less despite paying more for their educational experience, and their integration and acculturation to the larger campus and local community has become an issue and challenge at many U.S. universities.

Increased immigration regulations and compliance requirements implemented by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security in recent years have created a need for more services for international students. Most colleges and universities in the U.S. have specialised offices dedicated to assisting students with navigating complex rules and regulations, in addition to providing cultural programming and engagement opportunities. These services, which are often referred to as a one-stop shop, along with the need to survey students, are essential to the initial and ongoing success of international students and scholars (Wang, 2007). University support services are important for international students' successful lives in the host university and society (Cho & Yu, 2014).

It is common for institutions of higher education in the U.S. to centralise support services for international students through one office, unit, or department. Such offices, often named Office for International Students and Scholars, Office of International Services, or Office of Global Programs, serve as the designated office at the institution to provide support on immigration and student advising, cross-cultural adjustment, housing, English proficiency, and opportunities to integrate in the campus and local community, to name a few. The role of international student advisors and personnel is critical in sustaining the mission of these offices and ensure a positive experience for students as they provide assistance across different cultural, social and academic expectations (Dalili, 1982).

In their study, Lee et al. (1981) developed 12 categories to assess the needs and satisfaction of international students at colleges and universities in the United States. These categories were grouped into sections labelled as academic needs, student support services, and psycho-social needs. Lee et al. found that perceived importance exceeded satisfaction for all the categories. Munoz and Munoz's study (2000) focused on the current support services provided at a Southern postsecondary U.S. institution to international students, such as admission information, immigration advising, orientations for new arrivals, personal counselling, housing assistance, contact family programme, and social activities. They found that international students agreed that they had received substantial support from the international office for their most important needs. However, they were not as interested in increasing the variety of services provided by the office but mostly in improving the quality of these services.

Table 1
Survey categories to assess support services at Spanish and U.S. institutions

Demographics	1. Location of institution 2. Number of enrolled international students 3. Percentage of international students at institution
Support services	1. Name of designated office for support services 2. Organisational structure of office 3. Number of personnel employed 4. Types of support services provided by office
Effectiveness	1. Development of assessment tool 2. Process evaluation 3. Data quality and effectiveness
Usefulness	1. Ability to implement findings 2. Challenges involved with implementation 3. Impact of changes on support services

There are several research studies on assessment that were developed internally and conducted at U.S. colleges and universities to measure international student satisfaction with campus support services, namely at Iowa State University (Korobova, 2012), Delaware State University (Ikwuagwu, 2011), University of Southern California (Wongpaiboon, 2008), Claremeont University (Otsu, 2008), and Kent State University (Nieman, 1999). Each one of them highlights the importance of assessing student satisfaction as an international recruitment, retention, and student experience tool at their respective institutions.

In addition to the previous findings, the authors of this article piloted a survey to assess and analyse issues related to international student support services. The pilot study contextualises both Spain and U.S higher education. A limited sampling of 40 institutions from Spain and the U.S. were invited to participate in a 15-item, anonymous online survey. A response rate of 68% was achieved (15 institutions from Spain and 12 from the U.S.), representing different types of institutions ranging from privately to publicly owned, small to large student population, low to high percentage of international student enrolment, and different reporting and organisational structures. Survey items were chosen carefully to assess the main types of support services used in both countries. The survey was developed around 4 primary components: 1) demographics; 2) type of support services; 3) effectiveness; and 4) usefulness.

A scarce body of literature specific to our research interest draws attention to the importance of this pilot study. Our findings reveal how support services are organised and how student satisfaction is assessed at our sample of participating universities. As discussed in the results section of this paper, we found that not all universities use a standard assessment tool or an external service provider to measure support services and international student satisfaction.

Results and discussion

The comparative perspective in assessing international student satisfaction on university campuses highlights the importance of how terms are being defined globally. While this paper only looks at support services at institutions in two countries, it identifies multiple differences that need to be addressed. Results presented are aligned with the literature review and the preliminary findings on the pilot study.

The biggest difference was in mobility type and mobile student numbers in global terms. While Spain is the premier destination for credit mobility in Europe, the U.S., on the other hand, is primarily host to degree mobility seeking students. The definition of terms used in Spain versus the U.S. is another challenge. In the U.S., an international student is defined as one who holds a non-immigrant visa to study in the U.S. This excludes visiting scholars, employees, permanent residents, refugees, asylees and other immigrant visa holders. Contrastingly, in Spain, all the students from other countries studying at Spanish Universities are defined as international students.

They include short-term, transfer students who participate in programmes like Erasmus Mundus (Project Atlas, 2001).

Support services provided by institutions in each country were defined by and aligned with the type of student mobility. In the U.S., while some international student support offices also include enrolment management functions, most focused on providing immigration and employment advising services, and programmes that promote academic success, international understanding, acculturation sessions and campus and community engagement. Support service offices in Spain were primarily set up to provide services on admission, enrolment, and other administrative issues and, in some cases, health and accommodation information. Language support service was also a common and important service offered to not only international students but also for Spanish students planning to study abroad, a service not widely available across U.S. institutions.

It is common for U.S. institutions to have centralised offices on their campus to serve their international student community. The staff members of such offices have the mission, responsibility and accountability to provide support services to international students. In Spain, however, there is more of a collaborative and co-ownership approach in how support services are provided, where responsibility is shared across the institution as opposed to one specialised office.

How institutions in Spain and the U.S. were assessing the level of international student satisfaction with support services is still unclear as many survey instruments and assessment tools were developed in-house and not available to the general public. Many U.S. universities measure the general satisfaction and engagement level of their students, but few instruments focused specifically on international students. Results from the pilot survey showed that 66% of participating institutions (60% Spain, 75% U.S.) used an assessment tool of some sort to measure the level of international student satisfaction with support services on their respective campuses. Most instruments were developed in-house. Others used external services such as the International Student Barometer. About 33% of support offices found their assessment tool to be effective in providing important feedback to university officials and were, in turn, able to implement necessary changes based on the received recommendations. These changes occurred in the areas of customer service, student advising, programming and outreach, and educational training. When asked what challenges were faced in the development and deployment of their satisfaction surveys, several offices indicated issues around the definition and goals of the survey and how survey items remained in alignment with these goals. The length of the survey, response rate, language barrier, and data analysis were other constraints mentioned.

While it was clear that service quality and general satisfaction studies were common at some institutions, others were doing very little to seek feedback from their students as a way to improve support services. Those actively surveying their students were using different assessment tools to measure level of satisfaction. That said, there was a limited number of options, in terms of assessment tools, available and many of them were specific to a specific country or audience. Many institutions also chose to develop their own survey instrument and conduct their data analysis in- house.

Table 2
Comparative framework: Spain and U.S.

	SPAIN	**U.S.**
Predominant mobility type	Credit mobility	Degree mobility
Premier destinations	First country in Europe in receiving international students	First country in the world in receiving international students
Definition of International Student (adapted from Project Atlas, 2001)	Students from countries other than Spain studying at Spanish Universities. This includes short-term, transfer students who participate in programmes such as Erasmus Mundus.	Students studying in the U.S. on a non-immigrant visa. This excludes visiting scholars, employees, permanent residents, refugees, and asylees.
Global mobility numbers	2.5%	16.5%
Type of University Support Services (in ranking order)	1. Admission (acceptance letters) 2. Academic issues 3. Language support 4. Practical information 5. Community resources	1. Immigration and visa compliance 2. Academic success 3. Cultural adjustment 4. Employment options 5. Community resources
Management of services	Decentralised Collaborative and co-ownership approach	Centralised
Assessment tools for international student satisfaction	Mostly developed in-house	Mostly developed in-house

To further explore how institutions of higher education in both Spain and in the U.S. are assessing the level of international student satisfaction with university support services on their campuses, the authors plan to devise a research study that will be deployed to a larger number of institutions in both countries. They hope to contribute to further literature on this topic by presenting findings that support a better understanding of what assessment tools institutions are currently using to assess the satisfactions of international students with support services on their respective campuses.

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PART V

INTERNATIONALISATION CASE STUDIES

CHAPTER 19

European universities initiative (EUI) alliances: a new type of multilateral cooperation with a 'transformational potential'?

ALBERT NIJBOER AND FRANCESCO GIROTTI

Abstract. With its pilot phase coming to an end, the European Universities Initiative is about to enter a new phase of consolidation and maturation. It is a natural moment to look back at the past three years. How has the initiative developed and what has been achieved, against the background of the initiative's main objective – the transformation of European higher education? In this paper the authors describe the evolution of the initiative from Macron's 'Initiative for Europe' speech at the Sorbonne University (Macron, 2017) through its pilot phase (2019-2022) to the 2022 Erasmus+ call, aimed at the "development of new or the intensification of prior deep institutional transnational cooperation". After describing distinctive types of multilateral academic partnerships, the question is raised if the European university alliances represent a new type of multilateral cooperation. The paper ends with possible ways to study the transformational potential of the initiative for the universities involved.

Keywords: European Universities Initiative (EUI); Networks of HEIs; Internationalisation of HE; Transformational change; European Programmes; European Education Area (EEA).

Con la fine della fase pilota, l'Iniziativa delle università europee sta per entrare in una nuova fase di consolidamento e maturazione. È un momento opportuno per guardare indietro agli ultimi tre anni. Come si è sviluppata l'Iniziativa e quali risultati sono stati raggiunti, sullo sfondo dell'obiettivo principale dell'Iniziativa – la trasformazione dell'istruzione superiore europea? In questo capitolo gli autori descrivono l'evoluzione dell'Iniziativa dal discorso di Macron "Iniziativa per l'Europa" all'Università della Sorbona (2017) attraverso la sua fase pilota (2019-2022) fino al bando Erasmus+ del 2022, finalizzato allo "sviluppo di una nuova o all'intensificazione di una già profonda cooperazione istituzionale transnazionale". Dopo aver descritto i tipi distintivi di partnership accademiche multilaterali, la domanda che ci si pone è se le alleanze universitarie europee rappresentino un nuovo tipo di cooperazione multilaterale. Il contributo si conclude con le possibili modalità di approfondimento del potenziale di trasformazione dell'Iniziativa per le università coinvolte.

Keywords: Iniziativa delle università europee (IUE); Reti di IIS; Internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore; Cambiamento trasformazionale; Programmi europei; Spazio europeo dell'istruzione (SEE).

Introduction

On the 26th of September 2017 French president Emmanuel Macron delivered his 'Initiative for Europe' speech at Paris' Sorbonne University, in which he called on Member States, the Council and the European Commission to create at least 20 'European Universities' by 2024. Five years later there are 44 transnational alliances of European universities whose explicit purpose is to set the standards for the transformation of European higher education. While the Commission is starting its roll-out initiative under the new Erasmus+ programme (2021-2027), we have already seen three years of piloting by European Universities, starting their efforts when the world entered the first global health pandemic in human history, with an enormous impact on social life, including higher education and internationalisation efforts. After three years of intensive multilateral cooperation between universities and external stakeholders the pilot phase of the European Universities Initiative (EUI) is coming to its end, a natural moment of reflection. What do we observe?

In this paper we describe the development of the initiative since its first call in 2019, as a process of co-creation between the EU Institutions[1], in particular the European Commission as funder and initiator, and the stakeholders in the field: from (pre) existing international networks of universities to – in a later stage – the already funded EUI alliances. We also try to locate the EUI alliance in the landscape of existing multilateral academic partnerships. Do we observe a new form of transnational institutional cooperation? Is the initiative in this sense really innovative, i.e., a rupture with the past? Or is it just a new variation on the existing range of multilateral academic partnerships, between product-oriented consortia and relationship-oriented institutional networks? We will then focus on the transformational potential of the initiative for the universities involved and conclude with suggested research routes to further explore this potential.

Understanding the initiative's capacity to transform European higher education is crucial for all stakeholders involved in this EU flagship initiative now and in the future: EU Institutions, Member States, HEIs and external stakeholders. Exploring the dynamics within the newly created alliances and the way in which transformation actually takes place contributes to this understanding.

[1] Among the seven main EU institutions defined in the Treaties, in this paper, when mentioning the EU Institutions, we refer to the European Commission, The European Council, The Council of the European Union and the European Parliament.

Origins and current state of the European Universities Initiative

Macron's vision aimed at the creation of 'European Universities', defined as networks of European HEIs to become drivers of educational innovation, overcoming barriers to mobility of students and staff and introducing real 'European Diplomas' (Macron, 2017). The EU Institutions immediately embraced the discussion and the European Council meeting held in Gothenburg on December 2017 called Member States, the Council and the European Commission (EC) to work together towards the implementation by 2024 of "some twenty European Universities consisting in bottom-up networks of universities across the EU which will enable students to obtain a degree by combining studies in several EU countries and contribute to the international competitiveness of European universities" (European Council, 2017, p. 3). It was the start of what became the 'European Universities Initiative' (EUI) and gave input to a consultation process organised by the EC in order to shape and embed a new specific funding scheme within the Erasmus+ Programme. The process resulted in the first pilot call for the EUI launched in 2019, stimulating a high level of interest among European HEIs. A second pilot call of the EUI followed in 2020. The funding allocated for the first two rounds was 180 million euro (European Commission, 2019a, p. 119 and European Commission, 2020, p. 132), topped up by 82 million euro allocated to the 41 Alliances from the Horizon 2020 budget.

The initiative has been fully embedded in the new Erasmus+ 2021 – 2027 Programme and the first 17 Alliances have already had the opportunity to re-apply for continued funding of their projects for a period of four more years. The EUI is now operative with 44 funded projects (Alliances from now on), 17 under the first call, 24 under the second and four new ones under the call 2022. Of the 17 funded Alliances under the 2019 call, 16 Alliances were selected for funding under the 2022 call (one of the first call Alliances was not funded under the third call). The initiative now involves around 340 European HEIs from 31 countries.

Table 1

Pilot call 1 of EUI alliances (August 2022): size, geographical coverage and distribution

Pilot call 1 (2019-2022)

No.	**Alliance acronym***	**No. of institutions***	**Geographical regions*****	**West**	**East / Centre**	**North**	**South**
1	ECIUn	11	3	3		5	3
2	YUFE	8	3	4		1	3

No.	Alliance acronym*	No. of institutions*	Geographical regions***	West	East / Centre	North	South
3	CIVIS	8	4	3	1	1	3
4	EPICUR	8	3	6	1		1
5	CIVICA	7	4	2	2	1	2
6	ARQUS	7	3	3		2	2
7	FORTHEM	7	4	2	1	2	2
8	1EUROPE	7	3	4	1		2
9	UNITE!	7	3	2		2	3
10	4EU+	6	4	2	2	1	1
11	EUTOPIA	6	4	3	1	1	1
12	EDUC	6	3	3	2		1
13	SEA-EU	6	3	2	2		2
14	CONEXUS	6	4	1	2	1	2
15	EUGLOH	5	4	2	1	1	1
16	CHARMEU	5	3	3	1		1
17	EU4ART	4	4	1	1	1	1
	Total	114		46	18	19	31

Call 3 (2022 – 2026): existing alliances

No.	Alliance Acronym**	No. of institutions**	Geographical regions***	West	East / Centre	North	South
1	ECIUn+	12 (+1)	4	4	1	4	3
2	YUFE 2030	8 (+0)	4	3	2	1	2
3	CIVIS 2	9 (+1)	4	4	1	1	3
4	EPICUR-SHAPE-IT	9 (+1)	4	6	1	1	1
5	CIVICA	9 (+2)	4	3	2	1	3
6	ARQUS II	8 (+1)	4	3	1	1	3
7	FORTHEM	9 (+2)	4	2	2	3	2
8	UNA.Universitas	8 (+1)	4	4	1	1	2
9	Unite	9 (+2)	4	3	1	2	3
10	1CORE	6 (+0)	4	2	2	1	1
11	EUTOPIA MORE	9 (+3)	4	3	2	1	3
12	EDUC	8 (+2)	4	3	2	1	2
13	SEA-EU 2.0	9 (+3)	4	2	2	1	4
14	EU-CONEXUS Plus	9 (+3)	4	3	2	1	3
15	EU-GLOH 2.0	9 (+4)	4	3	2	2	2
16	CHARM-EIGHT	8 (+3)	4	5	1	1	1
17	Not funded: EU4ART	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Total	139		53	25	23	38

Table 2
Pilot call 2 of EUI alliances (August 2022): size, geographical coverage and distribution

No.	Alliance Acronym**	No. of institu-tions**	Geo-graphical regions***	West	East / Centre	North	South
1	Aurora Alliance	9	4	4	1	2	2
2	EELISA	9	3	3	2		4
3	ENLIGHT	9	4	5	1	2	1
4	Eut	8	4	3	2	1	2
5	NeurotechEU	8	4	3	2	1	2
6	RUN-EU	8	4	4	1	1	2
7	UNIC	8	4	4	1	1	2
8	ATHENA	7	4	2	1	1	3
9	Circle U.	7	3	4	1	2	
10	EC2U	7	4	2	1	1	3
11	ENGAGE.EU	7	4	4	1	1	1
12	ENHANCE	7	4	2	1	2	2
13	EUNICE	7	4	3	1	1	2
14	EUniWell	7	4	4	1	1	1
15	EURECA-PRO	7	3	3	2		2
16	T4E	7	4	1	2	2	2
17	E3UDRES2	6	4	2	2	1	1
18	EuroTeQ	6	3	3	1	2	
19	ULYSSEUS	6	4	2	1	1	2
20	UNITA	6	3	2	1		3

No.	Alliance Acronym**	No. of institu-tions**	Geo-graphical regions***	West	East / Centre	North	South
21	ERUA	5	4	2	1	1	1
22	INVEST	5	4	1	2	1	1
23	UNIVERSEH	5	3	3	1	1	
24	FILMEU	4	3	2	1		1
	Total	165		68	31	26	40

No.	Alliance Acronym**	No. of institu-tions**	Geograph-ical re-gions***	West	East / Cen-tre	North	South
1	INGENIUM	10	4	3	3	1	2
2	EU4DUAL	9	4	3	2	1	3
3	EU GREEN	9	4	3	2	2	3
4	UNIgreen	8	4	2	2	1	3
	Total	36		11	9	5	11

General remark 1: the institutions counted are full member institutions of the funded alliances, retrieved from the factsheets produced shortly after the publication of the results of the three calls. The actual composition of the Alliances might be different, considering that (1) some institutions joined the Alliances funded in 2019 or 2020 at a later stage; (2) some institutions from the UK were eligible in 2019 but lost their eligibility – due to Brexit – in 2022, though are still part of the Alliances with a different status; (3) some institutions from Switzerland are also actively contributing partners, though without being part of the Erasmus+ funding scheme.

General remark 2: though many alliances have at least one member institution from each of the 4 European geographical regions, the distribution varies widely, with some alliances (almost) in a perfect balance and others with a remarkable lack of geographical balance. Furthermore, the central and eastern European region, including a lot of countries, is underrepresented in the Initiative, whereas the opposite is true for Western Europe. The south, with a small number of (large) countries, has also relatively a lot of participating institutions.

* Source: https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/IP_19_3389 > "see Annex" (HEIs from EU countries (including UK) and Norway)

** Source: https://education.ec.europa.eu/education-levels/higher-education/european-universities-initiative: HEIs from EU countries, UK, Norway, Iceland, Turkey

*** Source: Erasmus+ programme guide 2019 version 2, page 128, footnote 115 (https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/erasmus-plus-programme-guide-2019_en_1.pdf): "Please refer to the list of European geographical regions according to the categories set by EuroVoc (the European Union's official multilingual thesaurus managed by the EU Publication office); EuroVoc: https://eur-lex.europa.eu/browse/eurovoc.html > Geography > Europe

The peculiarities of the EUI

In order to see the peculiarities of this initiative, the process of development of the first call, the reactions of the stakeholders and the differences with previous Erasmus+ actions are worth exploring. Firstly, the co-creation process put in place by the EC in the first few months of 2018 was extremely rapid. A few months after Macron's speech stakeholders were invited to Brussels twice to contribute to the draft of the call and to the award criteria proposed. Most of the invited experts participated as representatives of pre-established multi-purpose networks of HEIs, contributing to draft the action that would challenge the existence of those networks in the coming years. Some of the inputs which arose from the stakeholders' meetings were finally included on the first EUI pilot call. This includes the requirements regarding the minimum number of participants and inputs on the award criteria "geographical coverage" (European Commission, DG EAC, *Stakeholders' Meeting Report*, 2018).

During the co-creation process of the EUI pilot call, the first official reactions and position papers from existing networks such as the Coimbra Group, the GUILD and the EUF started to reach the EC (European University Foundation, 2018; The Guild of European Research- Intensive Universities, 2018; Coimbra Group, 2018). Those papers contained positive reactions to the initiative as well as specific recommendations for the future calls and for the funding schemes (Myklebust, 2018). The political interest for the initiative was further confirmed by EC officers and by the Council of the European Union, which attributed to the EUI a key role in the creation of the European Education Area (Council of the European Union, 2018). The interest raised among HEIs in Europe resulted in high participation rates in the initiative and has been confirmed by the EUA Survey on the participation of EU HEIs in the EUI, in which 86% of the institutions participating in the survey declared either to have applied for the EUI or to plan to apply in the second pilot call (Claeys-Kulik et al., 2020).

Since the EUI is embedded in the European funding instrument for Education, the comparison between this Pilot Action with the other earlier Erasmus actions, or more generally to other EU Programmes for HE, could highlight some of the novelties of the EUI. Observing the evolution of EU funding instruments for Education from 1987 to the recently approved Erasmus+ programme 2021-2027, it can be noticed that the policy objectives have radically changed. The first Erasmus Programme aimed to promote the exchange of students in Europe (Council of the European Union, 1987, p. 2) while the current Erasmus+ (and the EUI) aims to shape and transform the European Education Area (EEA) (European Parliament and Council of the EU, 2013, p. 3). The European Programmes developed from 2000 to 2013, i.e., Socrates, Erasmus Mundus and the Lifelong Learning Programmes, progressively increased the possibilities for HEIs to cooperate in transnational and multilateral dimensions to reach the objectives of the Modernisation Agenda for Universities and the creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). The Erasmus+ Programme 2014 – 2020 further integrated the policy objectives of the EU and presented a framework for the multilateral collaboration of HEIs based on sectorial actions. Just to mention some of the instruments specifically addressed to HEIs, the Key Action 2 Strategic Partnerships offered the opportunity to develop innovative formats of education and to foster the transnational collaboration of HEIs and other stakeholders in specific disciplinary or transversal subjects. The KA2 Knowledge Alliances aimed to foster entrepreneurial competences in HE, innovation and the collaboration between HEIs and enterprises. The Erasmus Mundus and the Jean Monnet Actions continued to promote respectively the development of joint degrees and European values within HEIs and civil society (European Parliament and Council of the EU, 2013).

Each one of the above-mentioned Actions permitted the funding of hundreds of project consortia usually developed at peripheral level, thus with a bottom-up approach. The Pilot call of the EUI launched within the Key Action 2 of the Erasmus+ Programme can be considered the *summa* of all the multilateral actions described above. The Call invited HEIs to develop long lasting transnational alliances, despite being initially funded as short-term projects. It encouraged HEIs to approach internationalisation more comprehensively, developing joint vision and strategies with partners and a long-term action plan to implement internationalisation activities. The call promoted the creation of the next level of ambition in internationalisation fostering cooperation among organisations, involving staff at all levels to implement the vision, promoting innovative curricula, collaborative programmes, work-based and challenge-based learning approaches (European Commission, 2019b, pp. 125-

128). In other words, the EUI was calling on European universities to implement all the internationalisation actions – previously fragmented in small short-term projects – in one single, long-term Alliance.

The first phase of implementation of the EUI: reality checks and tensions

While the 17 Alliances funded under the first pilot call were starting their contractual obligations in December 2019, the EC launched two additional initiatives aimed to support the Alliances in overcoming obstacles towards the implementation of the creation of their inter-university campus. The first initiative is a policy project coordinated by the Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands and Flanders (NVAO) on behalf of the Flemish Community. The title is "Developing a European Approach for Comprehensive Quality Assurance of (European) University Networks" (EUniQ). The project aims to develop a framework for quality assurance of EUI, based on a case study of 4 EUI alliances funded in the first pilot call[2].

The second initiative is the study commissioned by the EC within a service framework contract called "Road Towards a European Degree: Identifying Opportunities and Investigating the Impact and Feasibility of Different Approaches"[3]. The contract started in March 2021 and the company in charge has established a dialogue with the funded Alliances to start designing the road map towards a European Degree.

However, the investments in the EUI also increased the expectations of the donor towards the funded Alliances. As confirmed by the recent study of the EUA on the governance models of EUI, the level of expectations of the EU is extremely high as the funded EUI are "put at the forefront of the transformation Agenda" (Estermann, 2021, p. 4). Nevertheless, those expectations had to reckon with the reality faced by the funded Alliances, which soon realised the level of investments required to implement the promised activities in a context deeply affected by the Covid-19 Pandemic.

Thus, some tensions between the funded Alliances and the EU started to emerge, particularly in 2021. One year after the start of the 17 Alliances, the Council of the EU mentioned the "full roll-out of the EUI" in its 'Council Resolution on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training towards the European Education Area and beyond' (Council of the European Union, 2021a, p. 7).

[2] EUniQ Project, https://www.nvao.net/en/euniq.

[3] Multiple Framework Service Contract to Carry Out Studies Supporting European Cooperation in Education, Youth, Sport and Culture, EAC 27/2020.

The EC invited the Rectors of the 41 Alliances to discuss the future roll-out of the initiative and sent them a Background Note mentioning that "European Universities are not a project, but an ambitious long-term vision to build the universities of the future". Alliances were defined as "game-changers" and were called to long-term structural cooperation to create European Inter-university campuses (European Commission, 2021).

Shortly after, on May 17th 2021, the Council of the Ministers of Education of the EU, recalling the European Skills Agenda adopted in 2020, confirmed the envisaged role of the Alliances to set "standards for the transformation of higher education institutions across the EEA and the European Research Area (ERA)" (Council of the European Union, 2021b, p. 3; 5).

Reactions from stakeholders took the form of position papers and statements published in the period April – June 2021, this time involving also some of the funded Alliances. Most of the stakeholders welcomed the full roll-out of the Initiative, which includes a proposal for funding for 6 additional years at the end of their initial funding period. However, since the funds are subject to an evaluation of progress in the "transformation" proposed, stakeholders commonly agree on the fact that more time and a more stable funding instrument is required to reach a full transformation.

The Secretary General of the League of European Research Universities (LERU), Prof. Kurt Deketelaere, declared that "With the upcoming decision on its full rollout, the honeymoon period of the "European University Initiative" is coming to an end. (omissis) To realise the full potential of the Initiative, and make the efforts put into it by the universities and the alliances so far, worthwhile, more time, more support and more funding is needed" (Deketelaere & Keustermans, 2021).

The Coimbra Group Executive Board, led by Ludovique Thilly, Chair and Coordinator of the Alliance EC2U, welcomed the proposed 6 years further funding to ongoing Alliances, advocating for "a long-term structural programmatic funding after that transition". The statement published by the Coimbra Group also warns of the possible danger of the "Project approach" leading Alliances to pay more attention to project requirements rather than to the consolidation of the Alliance (Coimbra Group, 2021).

The Guild of European Research-Intensive Universities Statement published on May 25th 2021 also recommends to "move beyond the project-based funding" promoting the adoption of a structural funding scheme for the Alliances. Moreover, more realistic objectives are claimed as necessary to realise the required transformation at institutional level first, and at Alliance level only at a second stage (The Guild of European Research-Intensive Universities, 2021).

UNA Europa, together with the 'UNITE' Alliance, sent a joint letter asking for the Commissioner of Education to welcome the roll-out but urgently requesting not to bind the additional funding to the strict rules of a Call for proposals.

Stakeholders also highlighted that the transformation would only be possible when national legislation barriers are finally overcome and urged the continuous involvement of Member States in the policy and technical debate.

The roll-out initiative

The third part of the chronological history of the EUI describes the outcomes of the dialogue between HEIs involved in the initiative and the EU on the future of the EUI, resulting in the Call for proposals for the EUI under the Erasmus+ 2021 – 2027. Published in November 2021, the call invited both already existing Alliances and new potential ones to apply for a four-year funding period. The Call integrated some of the main concerns expressed by the stakeholders during the consultation process. In particular, the time frame for the second phase of the EUI was enlarged to four years (with a possible extension of two years), the budget was increased (from 5 M€ to 14.4M€) and the financial provisions should allow for more flexibility during the implementation.

However, the increased available budget is linked to an expanding strategy of the Alliances. Indeed, as announced in April 2021 in the Background Note for the Rectors Consultation Meeting (European Commission, 2021, p. 5), in order to ensure inclusion and the spreading of excellence, Alliances were encouraged to include new partners to reach an average of 9 HEIs per Alliance, with a specific financial incentive for the enlargement. This announcement is reflected in the Call for Proposals of the EUI, where it was indicated that the maximum amount of 14.4 million euro is only available for Alliances composed of at least 9 members, resulting in 400,000 euro per year per institution. Alliances with 8 members can only receive a maximum amount of 8.64 million, resulting in a share of 270,000€ per year per institution institution (European Education and Culture Executive Agency, 2021 p. 22). This incentive presumably led the smaller Alliances to consider opening to new partners.

Despite the evident continuity with the past pilot calls, some characterising elements of the EUI are now more stressed and evident than in the past. The actions that Alliances are called to implement must follow, like in the pilot calls, three strands (1) joint strategy and cooperation mechanisms, (2) inter-university campuses and internationalisation activities, (3) European knowledge creating teams and innovative methods methods (European Education and Culture Executive Agency, 2021, pp. 4-5).

However, some keywords that appeared in policy documents in 2021, such as 'institutional change' and 'transformation', are now central to the call. In particular, EUI are expected to "transform" their institutional cooperation (network/cooperation level), but also to reach long-term structural institutional transformation with positive impact on higher education learning and teaching (institutional level). The "long-term structural institutional transformation with positive impact on higher education learning and teaching" has been also included in the award criteria used by external experts to assess the proposals submitted by the existing Alliances under this new call (criterion 'impact', weighted 25%. European Education and Culture Executive Agency, 2021, p. 19). In 2022, the first 17 funded Alliances had the opportunity to apply for funding under the above-mentioned call and 16 of the previously running Alliances have been successful and started the implementation of the second phase in December 2022. In parallel, the EC has released two important policy documents in which the EUI is at the core.

The first document is the Communication on a 'European Strategy for Universities' (European Commission EC, 2022a), which sets up a vision for the transformation of the HE sector across Europe. The second document is the Commission's 'Proposal for a Council Recommendation on building bridges for effective European higher education cooperation' (European Commission, 2022b) where structural and operational issues to enable a deeper transnational cooperation are proposed as part of a Council Recommendation to Member States.

Building on the first lessons learned by the funded Alliances, the European Strategy for Universities aims to reach 4 objectives by mid-2024 including to strengthen the European dimension in Education and Research. To reach this objective, four flagship initiatives have to be implemented. The first flagship initiative is the EUI itself. The second and the third flagship initiatives are closely linked to the EUI being the development of the 'legal status' for the Alliances and the development of the 'European Degree'.

The 'Proposal for a Council Recommendation' strongly builds on the dialogue between the EC and the funded Alliances and on the initial reports on the implementation of the EUI. The main obstacles for an innovative and transformative transnational cooperation are listed in the Proposal. These obstacles include the different EU accreditation systems, the difficulties in the development of interdisciplinary study programmes, the lack of interoperability between digital infrastructures of HEIs across the EU, the lack of long-term funding for the Alliances and the difficulties for the Alliances in pooling joint resources resources (European Commission, 2022b, p. 3). The proposed recommendation calls Members States to support the funded Alliances with additional financial resources and in implementing and testing the innovative solutions to remove those obstacles, including the Legal Status of the alliances and the European Degree.

The European Strategy for Universities and the mentioned Proposal demonstrate, once again and more strongly than before, that the EUI is at the core of the policy objectives of the EU Institutions and that they are supporting the Alliances, not only with direct funding but also with political actions towards Member States.

The European university: a strategic and transformational network of universities?

After describing the evolution of the initiative and its political relevance, we intend to locate the 'EUI alliance' in the landscape of existing multilateral partnerships. The first question would then be: what is an academic partnership and which types of (multilateral) partnerships can we distinguish?

An academic partnership refers to "any formal or informal working together by two or more higher education entities in pursuit of common goals" (Bullough & Kauchak, 1997). To differentiate between types of partnerships, "critical" or "distinguishing dimensions" are identified by Beerkens (2002) – size, scope, nature of integration and intensity – Gatewood and Sutton (2016) – goals, activities, levels of institutional engagement, partnering entities abroad, types of agreements and impact – and Maringe and De Wit (2018) – size, geographical dispersion, resource availability, and in prestige, power and influence.

A fundamental distinction is made between *transactional* partnerships, which are "product-oriented", "instrumental" and focused on the "exchange of resources", and *transformational* partnerships, which are "relationship-oriented, expansive and ever-growing", "combining resources", and "creating long-term institutional platforms for collaborative work" (Sutton, 2010, p. 61). The latter requires "genuine reciprocity" and brings about qualitative change within the institutions involved (Sutton, 2010). It is this transformational type of partnership the EUI is – according to its official goals – aiming at.

A transformational partnership refers to a process of transformational change within the institutions involved. According to Eckel et al. (1998) "transformation (1) alters the culture of the institution by changing select underlying assumptions and institutional behaviours, processes, and products; (2) is deep and pervasive, affecting the whole institution; (3) is intentional; and (4) occurs over time" (p. 8).

In the December 2017 conclusions of the European Council where the EUI was announced, two other terms stand out when referring to the EUI alliances: (1) "strategic partnerships" and (2) European Universities viewed as "bottom-up networks of universities". The former refers to broad institutional relationships that substantially contribute to the realisation of the strategy and goals of all partners involved. These partnerships, coordinated at the central level of the university, have a long-term perspective, institutional commitment, comprise many (non-) academic fields and include multiple activities. They are selective (non-inclusive) and aim at realising true impact (Rumbley, 2015; Sandström & Weimer, 2016; Sutton, 2016).

An international institutional network, on the other hand, can be defined as "a group of academic units who come together for multiple – academic and/or administrative – purposes, [...] driven by the president's/rector's offices and have an indefinite lifespan" (De Wit, 2004, p. 36). These networks have general objectives and are less focused on specific objectives or goals. They have the potential to become strategic and transformational but there are also important challenges. It can be difficult to guarantee the commitment of academic staff at the department and school level to become effective. (De Wit, 2004, p. 48). Examples are Universitas 21 at a global level or the Coimbra Group and the Utrecht Network in the European context.

Multilateral academic partnerships can also have the characteristics of a consortium, defined by De Wit as "a group of academic units who combine for the single purpose of fulfilling a contract, based on bringing together a number of areas of specialised knowledge" (De Wit, 2004, p. 35). Generally, this type of partnership has a strong transactional character and a fundamental question is what happens when the external funding disappears. In the European context examples are the project-based EU funded consortia constituted in response to calls for proposals within EU programmes for Education and Training (Erasmus+ and its predecessors) and Research and Innovation (the successive framework programmes and Horizon 2020).

A third category in the typology of De Wit is that of academic associations, defined as "an organisation of academics or administrators and/or their organisational units (departments, [...], institutions) united for a common purpose that is related to their professional development (information exchange, training, advocacy, and so on)" (De Wit, 2004, p. 34). Examples are the European Association for International Education (EAIE) and the League of European Research Universities (LERU).

Though the EUI aims at creating European Universities envisioned as "transnational alliances that will become the universities of the future... based upon a co-envisioned long-term strategy" and "inspiring the transformation of higher education"[4], the question is whether the selected Alliances have the potential to become such an ideal model of a strategic and transformational institutional network.

So where should we position the EUI Alliances on the spectrum between consortium and institutional network? What are and what should be their main characteristics and from whose perspective?

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[4] https://education.ec.europa.eu/education-levels/higher-education/european-universities.

First, the selected Alliances do not offer a homogeneous image, as Charret states in a recent contribution to University World News (Charret, 2022): there is no "one model fits all". Some are a continuation of (long) existing institutional networks with a particular profile (e.g., ECIU), others (partly) share a membership of broader institutional networks or "transnational interest groups" as Charret calls these well-known networks like the Coimbra Group, SGroup, LERU and Aurora. Some are built on previous collaborations in more specific areas or activities and others have no joint history at all, but share certain characteristics, conditions and challenges.

Second, the future Alliances were described by the EU Institutions at the initial stage of the initiative as "bottom-up networks of universities", but the initiative itself has some strong top-down features. It all started with a central vision (Macron, European Council) and although the calls have been co-developed with university networks and existing EUI Alliances, the initiative as well as funding decision(s) ultimately lies with the EC, at a central, supranational European level, as well as the Member States.

Third, the Alliances or future European Universities from the very beginning of the initiative were described in such a way that they would perfectly fit in the institutional network box, according to the typology of De Wit (a vision for long-term cooperation; real integration of institutions, programmes and activities; multipurpose character; central coordination; indefinite lifespan). The funded Alliances might however share not *all* or *only* rather have "general goals and objectives". To satisfy and answer the calls for proposals of the EC, they are expected to be sufficiently specific with regard to their plans and work packages. Though participating institutions might not decide to collaborate "for the single purpose of fulfilling a contract" (De Wit, 2004), the initiative is still characterised to a large extent by a project structure, which is not fundamentally changed by extending the lifetime of a project up to four (plus two) years. The design of the initiative necessarily gives the alliances some consortium-like features.

Fourth, although the purpose of the initiative is clearly transformational – it is about, in the words of Sutton (2010), "creating long-term institutional platforms for collaborative work" and transformation of European HE at a system level – the selected alliances might also have certain transactional (product-oriented, instrumental) elements. Is there always "genuine reciprocity" and are all alliances entirely "relationship-oriented" (Sutton, 2010)? In the end the alliances still need to deliver and are constantly evaluated on a relatively short-term basis, due to the project structure of the initiative, which might make developing a real long-term focus challenging.

Finally, the transformation that the EU Institutions aim for should take place at the macro level of European higher education. Of course, this cannot happen without a real transformation at the Alliance and individual university level, but we may ask ourselves if transformation is understood in the same way by all Alliances and individual member institutions and if they aim at the same type and depth of transformation. The existence or lack of a really shared vision influences the transformational potential of Alliances and the European Education Area.

By way of conclusion: open questions and possible research routes

Only five years after Macron's speech at the Sorbonne University his vision has started to become a reality. The EUI has been launched, with 41 alliances selected in the first two pilot calls and four more under the 2022 call. The initiative has been fully integrated in the current Erasmus+ programme and is one of the flagship initiatives of the European Strategy for Universities. A lot of money, time and energy has been invested by the Commission and participating institutions in the development of transnational Alliances with a wide range of cooperation projects and activities. Important parallel actions have been developed simultaneously, like the European quality assurance framework for European Universities (EUniQ).

At the same time there are still important obstacles to a successful functioning of the Alliances, like the absence of national legislations supporting fully integrated joint educational formats, a lack of funding, particularly for joint research activities, and the embedding of EUI alliance structures into regular institutional structures. In addition, though the enlargement of the Alliances in 2022 has increased their budget, it remains unclear what the costs of integration of new partners, entering already developed cooperation mechanisms and educational activities, will be. And although the text of the 2022 call is ambitious in terms of the expected nature of cooperation among participating universities, it remains unclear and uncertain if the initiative will be able to change European HE in such a substantial way that we can really speak of a transformation.

It may be too early to evaluate the added value of the initiative for European higher education and to determine if the intended outcomes are being achieved, but it would be certainly worthwhile to look for answers to the question how alliance membership is already leading to change of a strategic and transformational kind within the participating institutions, as a systemic change will be reached through fundamental changes within the parts that make up the system, and – at a later stage – the spreading or multiplication within the system.

One way to do that is to collect the perceptions of internal stakeholders of the funded alliances. Do they observe real and fundamental change within their academic organisations? To understand how alliance membership leads to change, a particularly interesting perspective could be to look at the network structure and dynamics within an alliance, by means of an intra-alliance case study, focused on the quantity and quality of ties within the selected network, as from social network analysis we know that both tend to have a positive effect on the speed, depth and sustainability of planned change.

This may help our understanding of the complex dynamics within an EUI alliance and offer some of the building blocks for a transnational academic alliance model from the perspective of some of the participating institutions. It may also answer our question about the nature of a European Universities Alliance: can we locate it somewhere on the line between the 'consortium' on the one hand and the 'institutional network' on the other, or has a new type of multilateral partnership been born?

In the meantime, there are still important obstacles faced by the Alliances that need to be resolved to allow the development of their distinctive models of a 'European University' with the potential to transform not only the realities within their member institutions but also to serve as an inspiring example to others.

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CHAPTER 20

Are Erasmus Mundus Joint Master degrees boosting the collaboration among professionals working in higher education?

MARIA-ELVIRA PRIETO

Abstract. Internationalisation of Higher Education promotes partnerships among universities worldwide to develop engaging and collaborative projects. The Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Degrees (EMJMDs) are among the most challenging partnerships between Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). As multifaceted projects, EMJMDs require various and specialised human resources (academics, administrative and blended professionals) and a team-based approach. The literature on the relationship between academics and administrative staff reveals a historical *divide* between these categories. This study explains the perception of such a divide based on an online survey conducted among individuals working in 26 EMJMs consortiums (n = 141). The factors that ensure a productive relationship were considered, such as a collaborative mindset, team effectiveness, and job satisfaction. The analysis particularly suggests that when there is a lack of a consolidated team, the perception of the *divide* is more evident.

Keywords: academic-admin collaboration, blended professionals, teams, joint degrees.

L'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore promuove partenariati tra università di tutto il mondo per sviluppare progetti stimolanti e collaborativi. Gli Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Degrees (EMJMD) sono tra i partenariati più impegnativi tra gli istituti di istruzione superiore (HEI). In quanto progetti dalle molteplici sfaccettature, gli EMJMD richiedono risorse umane diverse e specializzate (accademici, professionisti amministrativi e misti) e un approccio di squadra.

La letteratura sul rapporto tra accademici e personale amministrativo rivela una "frattura" storica tra queste categorie. Questo studio spiega la percezione di tale "divisione" sulla base di un sondaggio online condotto tra persone che lavorano in 26 consorzi EMJM (n = 141). Sono stati presi in considerazione i fattori che garantiscono una relazione produttiva, come la mentalità collaborativa, l'efficacia del team e la soddisfazione lavorativa. L'analisi suggerisce in particolare che, in assenza di un team consolidato, la percezione della "frattura" è più evidente.

Keywords: collaborazione, accademici, personale amministrativo, blended, divide, joint degrees.

Introduction

Different higher education professionals collaborate closely while developing and delivering an Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Degree (EMJMD). In 2008, Conway conducted exploratory research to understand the collaboration among professionals in higher education in general and "to make an assessment of whether the 'divide' was a phenomenon worthy of further investigation" (Conway, 2012, p. 42). From the administrative staff perspective, the results were that the 'divide' was a real and multifaceted phenomenon experienced differently by each professional, depending on their role and the nature of the employing institution (Conway, 2012). Several questions related to the *Third Space* also emerged from her analysis, such as the characteristics needed for a constructive professional relationship. The *Third Space,* described by Whitchurch as "[A]n emergent territory between academic and professional domains, which is colonised primarily by less bounded forms of professional" (2008, p. 377), is characterised by mixed teams of staff who work on short-term and long-term projects, not necessarily located geographically in the same place, so it may also be virtual (Whitchurch, 2008). With Whitchurch's redefinition of the historical binary relationship between academic and administrative staff, the category of *Third Space* professionals appears. It consists of professionals in higher education carrying out borderless or blended roles that include both academic and professional activities (Whitchurch, 2009) without organisational boundaries that limit their activities. This category will be denominated as "blended professionals" for this research.

The study aims to understand the characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of the collaborative relationship between administrative, academic and those who self-identify as blended professionals while developing an international project such as an EMJMD.

Literature review on collaborative practice

Over the years, several attempts have been made to formulate the necessary skills for collaborative practice. "These include the development of skills in communication, teamwork and the management of conflict within an understanding of the professions and their histories" (Barr, 1998, p. 184). Nevertheless, these competencies are usually developed to support a professional within their profession but not interact with other professions (Bainbridge et al., 2010).

According to Barr (1998), competencies with particular reference to collaborative practice should be: (i) Common, i.e., between all professions; (ii) Complementary, i.e., distinguish one profession and complement other professions; and (iii)

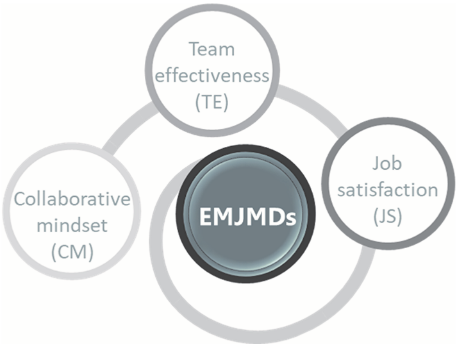
Collaborative, i.e., promote the collaboration with similar professionals, with other professions, with non-professionals, and within and between organisations (p. 184).

It is also essential to keep in mind that although organisations can be influential in establishing collaborative projects, they cannot ensure and be responsible for their success. “Collaboration is, in fact, a process which occurs between individuals, not institutions, and only the persons involved ultimately determine whether or not collaboration occurs” (Henneman et al., 1995, p. 108), and further efforts are needed when “multidisciplinary groups might face additional challenges due to the existing culture and structures” (Manca et al., 2018, p. 527), as is the case of the EMJMDs settings.

The review of several studies on collaboration provided the basis for grasping the essential features of this complex concept, its main components, and the importance of the relationship between personal and shared interests. As a result, a conceptual framework was created to support this research (see Figure 1). The Framework has three main dimensions which enable an enriching relationship among academic, administrative, and blended professionals: (i) Collaborative Mindset (CM); (ii) Team Effectiveness (TE); and (iii) Job Satisfaction (JS). When these three dimensions and their elements function correctly, the achievement of common goals through joint endeavours in complex environments such as an EMJMD is possible. All team members will develop specific behaviours and skills to work together constructively, and the interactions and knowledge exchange among team members should create collaborative roles instead of autonomous roles (MacNaughton et al., 2013). As a result, role boundaries can be organised around interprofessional interactions (autonomous/ collaborative) as well as the distribution of tasks (interchangeable/differentiated) (MacNaughton et al., 2013), contributing to the development of an upbeat version of the ‘divide’.

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework: Key dimensions and elements that influence a positive collaboration among professionals in Higher Education



Dimension I: Collaborative Mindset (CM)

- Individual skills
- Workplace conditions
- Overcoming the 'divide'

Dimension II: Team Effectiveness (TE)

- Goals and leadership
- Team functioning
- Trust and respect

Dimension III: Job Satisfaction (JS)

- Motivation
- Role coherence
- Institutional features

Collaborative Mindset (CM) is intended as the competencies needed for the collaboration between professionals as defined by Barr (1998): (i) Describe one's role and responsibilities; (ii) Recognise the limitations of one's own roles; (iii) Recognise and respect roles, duties, expertise and limitations of other professions; (iv) Know when, where and how to involve other professionals; (v) Work with other professionals to enhance standards, solve problems and conflicts; (vi) Work with other professions to assess, plan, and review; (vii) Tolerate differences, misunderstandings, uncertainties, limitations and changes in other professions; (viii) Create interdependent relationships, and support other professionals; (ix) Learning from other professions; and (x) Facilitate interprofessional meetings, teamworking and networking (p. 185).

The second dimension, Team Effectiveness (TE), is based on a statement of Rubin et al. from the seventies, which was complemented and completed in the following years. Rubin et al. declared, "If a task or job to be done requires the interdependent efforts of two or more people, then a team situation exists" (Rubin et al., 1975, p. 2). Almost two decades later, Katzenbach & Smith (1993) mentioned that "[r]eal teams are deeply committed to their purpose, goals, and approach. High-performance team members are also very committed to one another" (p. 9). A decade after, Lencioni listed the characteristics of team members' behaviour when they are part of a truly cohesive team: (i) They trust; (ii) They participate in unfiltered disagreements around ideas; (iii) They are devoted to decisions and plans; (iv) They support each other for delivering against those plans; and (v) They concentrate on the accomplishment of team results (Lencioni, 2002, pp. 189-190). In the same period, LaFasto & Larson (2001) enriched the concept by declaring that a straightforward relationship is needed for a positive environment because transparency creates confidence, and confidence develops loyalty. In addition, they also mentioned the relevance of clear roles because, in their absence, team members are not capable of fully committing to the advancement of different projects (LaFasto & Larson, 2001, pp. 159-160).

The last dimension, Job Satisfaction (JS), has multiple facets (Al-Jenaibi, 2010), has been part of the research in industrial and organisational psychology (Smerek, 2006; Staples & Higgins, 1998) and appeared in the sixties with Herzberg's dual or two-factor theory (Smerek, 2006; Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). The theory classifies the work aspects into intrinsic job content and extrinsic job context (Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). The first aspect, also called motivators, includes "achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth" (Smerek, 2006, p. 230). The second one or hygiene aspects are salaries, relationships, supervision, status, security, physical working conditions and others (Smerek, 2006; Volkwein & Parmley, 2000).

Besides, "[j]ob satisfaction has been studied as the outcome of some factors (antecedents such as pay, work conditions, and management practices) or as the cause of some effects (consequences such as employee performance, absenteeism, and life satisfaction)" (Staples & Higgins, 1998, p. 212). Due to its multidimensionality, it is erroneous to believe that increased satisfaction in one aspect of a job results in satisfaction with other job aspects (Al-Jenaibi, 2010). For example, employees can be satisfied with job security and dissatisfied with their responsibilities (Jung & Shin, 2015). Consequently, "the management in higher educational institutions should design a pleasant working environment for their employees by taking into consideration their welfare facilities and satisfaction" (Hanaysha, 2016, p. 139).

Methodology

Participating networks and selection procedure

Different EMJMDs were approached from November 2019 onwards, resulting in the participation of 26 consortiums in this research project. The size of the 26 consortiums involved was variable (small to large), and in total, 68 HEIs were engaged in this study (see Table 1). In May and June 2021, I distributed an online questionnaire to administrative, academic, and blended professionals involved in the participating EMJMDs. The aim was to retrieve information about their interaction both inside their institution and with the partners in the consortium.

In total, I invited 260 individuals to participate in the online survey, leading to 133 valid questionnaires – yielding a response rate of 51.15%.

Table 1
EMJMDS consortiums involved in the study

AquaH – International Master of Science in Health Mangement in Aquaculture
ASC – Advanced Spectroscopy in Chemistry Master's Course
ChIR – Erasmus Mundus MSc in Chemical Innovation and Regulation
Choreomundus – International Master in Dance Knowledge, Practice and Heritage
EGEI – Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Degree in Economics of Globalisation and European Integration
emiSS – Erasmus Mundus Master in Soil Science
EMLex – European Master in Lexicography
EMQAL – Erasmus Mundus Master in Quality in Analytical Laboratories
EPS – European Politics and Society: Vaclav Havel Joint Master Programme
4CITIES+ – EMJMD in Urban Studies
GLODEP – Global Development Policy
IMSISS – International Master in Security, Intelligence and Strategic Studies
KEM – Kino Eyes – The European Fiction Master
MARIHE – Research and Innovation in Higher Education
MEDfOR – Mediterranean Forestry and Natural Resources Management
MER2030 – European MSc in Marine Environment 2030
MESC+ – Materials for Energy Storage and Conversion +
Mundus Journalism – Erasmus Mundus Masters Journalism, Media and Globalisation
Mundus MAPP – Erasmus Mundus Masters Program in Public Policy
NOHA+ – Joint Master's Degree Programme in International Humanitarian Action
PIONEER – Master of Science in Public Sector Innovation and E-Governance
SSIs – Joint International Master in Smart Systems Integrated Solutions
TCCM – Theoretical Chemistry and Computational Modelling
TRIBOS+ – Joint European Master in Tribology of Surfaces and Interfaces
TROPIMUNDO – EMJMD in Tropical Biodiversity and Ecosystems
WINTOUR – International Master on Wine Tourism Innovation

Questionnaires designed for the quantitative data collection

The online questionnaire was based on previous studies in higher education, public and business administration, and health. It was structured in three sections. The first section aimed to gather respondents' demographic data (gender, university, consortium, age, level of education, nationality, role, years of service, and others). In the second – the core of the survey – closed-ended statements were used to explore the essence of the professional collaboration considering the Conceptual Framework of this study (Figure 1). Therefore, it had questions related to the three dimensions: (i) Collaborative Mindset – CM; (ii) Team Effectiveness – TE; and (iii) Job Satisfaction – JS. The queries were used to ask respondents how they perceived collaborative behaviours or attitudes in the EMJMD team in their institution and within the consortium. The last section of the survey had two open-ended questions to allow participants to share other relevant information (de Leeuw et al., 2008).

In February 2021, the questionnaire was presented to the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore's Ethics Committee for approval, and in March 2021 – once the approval was received – the questionnaire was set up using Qualtrics, online software for the survey's distribution.

A pilot test was conducted to ensure the questionnaire's reliability. It helped establish the content validity and consistency of the items, improve the questions, and check the presentation, format, wording, length, and instructions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Suggestions and comments from the pilot testing were incorporated into the final version.

Variables

Dependent variable. The dependent variable of this study was the respondents' reply to the statement, "I notice a 'divide' between academic and administrative staff members". Respondents could rate this statement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*. All the questions were posed twice; the first one was related to the institutional setting and the other one to the consortium environment. Therefore, respondents had to indicate how much they agreed with this statement for both the institutional setting and the consortium.

Independent variables. Three five-point Likert scales were used to measure the independent variables of the study. The first one, Collaborative Mindset, consisted of 15 items, some of them adapted from Hinyard et al. (2019), Ushiro (2009), Thomson et al. (2007), and other previous studies. The second scale measured Team Effectiveness and consisted of 16 items borrowed from Sharif (2013), Anderson (1998), Curran, et al. (n.d.) and others. The last one, Job Satisfaction, had 17 items based on Smerek (2006), Spector (1994), Rizzo et al. (1970) and other similar scales.

I reduced the number of items for each scale through a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, and the number of components obtained for these three independent variables was similar, apart from TE in the consortiums (see Table 2).

Control variables. In the analyses, I control for several possible confounding variables, namely gender, role, age, and region. In terms of gender, 51.1% of the respondents were male, 45% female and 3.1% of the participants did not disclose their gender. As for the role, 54.9% of the respondents were academics, 34.6% were administrative, and 9.2% were blended professionals. Concerning the age range, most of the participants were in the group between 46 and 55 years old. Lastly, regarding the region, the majority of the institutions were located in Southern Europe (35.3%), followed by Western Europe (26.3%), Northern Europe (18%), Eastern Europe (12%), and non-EU (3.1%).

Despite the age differences or types of professionals, there were – interestingly – no significant discrepancies by role, age or gender concerning the perception of the 'divide'.

Table 2
Components derived from the PCA

	Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO)	**Bartlett's test of sphericity**	**Explanation of the variance (%)**	**Components**	**Cronbach's Alpha coefficient***
CM Institutions	0.818	0.000 (p-value: less < 0.05)	60.436%	CMI1: Workplace conditions CMI2: Individual predisposition CMI3: Communication skills	0.825 - 0.736
CM EMJMDs	0.814	0.000 (p-value: less < 0.05)	66.790%	CMEM1: Workplace conditions CMEM2: Individual predisposition CMEM3: Relevance of each role	0.723 0.747 0.746
TE Institutions	0.860	0.000 (p-value: less < 0.05)	68.315%	TEI1: Team spirit TEI2: Goals and Leadership TEI3: Team Values	0.829 0.824 0.803
TE EMJMDs	0.885	0.000 (p-value: less < 0.05)	62.044%	TEEM1: Team spirit TEEM2: Goals and Leadership	0.905 0.852
JS Institutions	0.726	0.000 (p-value: less < 0.05)	60.739%	JSI1: Motivation JSI2: Challenges JSI3: Rewards	0.724 - 0.727
JS EMJMDs	0.747	0.000 (p-value: less < 0.05)	53.484%	JSEM1: Motivation JSEM2: Challenges JSEM3: Rewards	0.810 - 0.759

**The components without a value had few variables, and therefore, it was not feasible to obtain an appropriate Cronbach's Alpha coefficient.*

A significant but negative association was found between the perception of the 'divide' in certain European regions[1]. Specifically, in Western Europe at the institutional level and in Western and Southern Europe for the EMJMDs consortiums. These findings suggested that respondents in those regions have a lower perception of the 'divide'.

Analytic strategy

First, the descriptive statistics provided preliminary insights about the perception of the 'divide', the overall job satisfaction and the components obtained for CM, TE and JS from the PCA. Second, the Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression was used to investigate the relationship between the different components and the 'divide' perception.

Results

Descriptive statistics. Table 3 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics of all variables included in the analysis. As can be observed, the overall perception of the 'divide' obtained a slightly higher mean value in the institutions (n = 121, M = 2.72, SD = 1.312) compared to the consortiums (n = 119, M = 2.53, SD = 1.213). On the contrary, the mean score of job satisfaction, was higher in the EMJMD consortiums (n = 126, M = 8.20, SD = 1.670) than in the institutions (n = 127, M = 7.80, SD = 1.782).

[1] The EU regions were divided following the United Nations publication "Standard Country or Area Codes for Statistical Use", issued initially as Series M, No. 49 and currently indicated as the M49 standard. The M49 is prepared by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), previously the United Nations Statistical Office, which serves under the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA). The primary use of the M49 is for the United Nations publications and databases. https://unstats.un.org/unsd/methodology/m49/.

Table 3
Descriptive statistics

Variable	Mean	SD	Range	n		Mean	SD	Range	n
Age	46.93	10.981	27-71	124					
Institutions					EMJMDs consortiums				
Overall perception of the "divide"	2.72	1.312	1-5	121	Overall perception of the "divide"	2.53	1.213	1-5	119
Job satisfaction	7.80	1.782	0-10	127	Job satisfaction	8.20	1.673	0-10	126
CMI1 - Workplace conditions			-3.16-1.45	99	CMEM1 - Workplace conditions			-4.07-1.38	99
CMI2 - Individual predisposition			-2.84-1.65	99	CMEM2 - Individual predisposition			-1.30-3.38	99
CMI3 - Communication skills			-1.12-4.79	99	CMEM3 - Communication skills			-3.42-1.15	99
TEI1 - Team spirit			-2.66-1.14	104	TEEM1 - Team spirit			-4.17-1.04	108
TEI2 - Continuous feedback			-4.42-2.26	104	TEEM2 - Continuous feedback			-3.55-1.22	108
TEI3 - Team values			-4.47-1.15	104	JSEM1 - Motivation			-2.94-1.71	66
JSI1 - Motivation			-3.04-1.52	87	JSEM2 - Challenges			-1.77-2.92	66
JSI2 - Challenges			-2.10-2.40	87	JSEM3 - Rewards			-2.62-2.60	66
JSI3 - Rewards			-2.22-2.21	87					

The correlation analysis showed that in the institutions, there was a statistically significant relationship between the perception of the 'divide' and the communication skills ($r = 0.307$, $p = 0.002$) and the challenges related to job satisfaction ($r = 0.362$, $p = 0.001$). There was also a statistically significant but negative relationship between the 'divide' perception and workplace conditions ($r = -0.297$, $p = 0.003$), team spirit ($r = -0.382$, $p = 0.000$), team values ($r = -0.368$, $p = 0.000$), the motivation related to the job satisfaction ($r = -0.236$, $p = 0.031$), and the rewards ($r = -0.217$, $p = 0.049$).

Similarly, in the EMJMDs consortiums, a significant positive relationship was also encountered in the perception of the 'divide' and the challenges related to job satisfaction ($r = 0.402$, $p = 0.001$). On the contrary, a significant negative relationship in the EMJMDs consortiums was found only among the perception of the 'divide' and the relevance of the role ($r = -0.245$, $p = 0.016$) and team spirit ($r = -0.194$, $p = 0.05$).

Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression. The final step of the analysis was a hierarchical (or sequential) multiple linear regression to find associations between the perception of the 'divide' and CM, TE, and JS, controlling for possible confounding variables.

The stepwise analysis is presented in Table 4. Model I (CM) included the control variables role, region, gender, and age. It showed a negative statistically significant association ($\beta = -0.377$) between the perception of the 'divide' and the workplace conditions, with the Model explaining 33.3% of the variance. Introducing the same control variables in Model II (TE), a negative statistically significant relationship ($\beta = -0.478$) was obtained between team spirit and the perception of the 'divide'. In this Model, 46% of the variance was explained. Instead, there were no significant associations in Model III (JS), and 47.1% of the variance was explained. On the contrary, the same control variables in the Full Model showed again a negative statistically significant association ($\beta = -0.496$) between the perception of the 'divide' and team spirit, with 47.1% of the variance explained.

Table 4

Hierarchical Multiple Regression for the perception of the 'divide' in the institutions

	Perception of the "divide"							
	Model I: CM		Model II: TE		Model III: JS		Model IV: Full	
Variables	β	*Std. E*	β	*Std. E*	β	*Std. E*	β	*Std. E*
CMI1 - Workplace conditions	-0.377*	0.213					-0.209	0.238
CMI2 - Individual predisposition	-0.124	0.165					-0.144	0.170
CMI3 - Communication skills	0.163	0.183					-0.276	0.266
TEI1 - Team spirit			-0.478*	0.267			-0.496*	0.288
TEI2 - Continuous feedback			-0.036	0.205			-0.029	0.217
TEI3 - Team values			-0.188	0.260			-0.188	0.273
JSI1 - Motivation					0.037	0.243	0.037	0.243
JSI2 - Challenges					0.058	0.201	0.058	0.201
JSI3 - Rewards					-0.115	0.218	-0.115	0.218
Role. Reference category: Academic								
Blended	-0.121	0.632	-0.046	0.604	-0.005	0.651	-0.005	0.651
Administrative	0.139	0.494	0.138	0.465	0.147	0.491	0.147	0.491
Universities' region. Reference Category: Southern Europe								
Northen Europe	-0.142	0.580	-0.153	0.545	-0.087	0.637	-0.087	0.637
Eastern Europe	-0.229	0.648	-0.229	0.627	-0.202	0.664	-0.202	0.664
Western Europe	-0.246	0.452	-0.209	0.434	-0.159	0.480	-0.159	0.480
Non-EU	0.059	1.004	0.081	0.938	0.105	0.984	0.105	0.984
Gender. Reference category: Male								
Female	-0.014	0.424	-0.072	0.424	-0.084	0.448	-0.084	0.448
No gender disclosed	0.418*	1.538	0.408*	1.436	0.395*	1.732	0.395*	1.732
Age. Continuous variable	-0.065	0.020	-0.108	0.019	-0.121	0.021	-0.121	0.021
R^2	0.333		0.460		0.471		0.471	

Note. $N = 60$. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p. < .001

The same procedure was run for the EMJMDs consortiums (see Table 5). As can be observed, when introducing the control variables in Model I (CM), there were no significant relationships, and 32.8% of the variance was explained. In Model II (TE), there was a statistically significant negative association between the perception of the 'divide' and team spirit (β = - 0.644), and the variance explained was 41.3%. Instead, there were no significant relationships in Model III (JS) and the Full Model, and the total variance explained was 47.2% in both models.

Table 5

Hierarchical Multiple Regression for the perception of the 'divide' in the EMJMDs consortiums

	Perception of the "divide"							
	Model I: CM		Model II: TE		Model III: JS		Model IV: Full	
Variables	β	*Std. E*	β	*Std. E*	β	*Std. E*	β	*Std. E*
CMEM1 - Workplace conditions	0.135	0.250					0.473	0.347
CMEM2 - Individual predisposition	0.157	0.216					0.057	0.235
CMEM3 - Communication skills	-0.177	0.259					-0.157	0.265
TEEM1 - Team spirit			-0.644*	0.355			-0.559	0.372
TEEM2 - Continuous feedback			0.070	0.276			0.119	0.307
JSEM1 - Motivation					0.116	0.334	0.116	0.334
JSEM2 - Challenges					0.291	0.264	0.291	0.264
JSEM3 - Rewards					0.072	0.202	0.072	0.202
Role. Reference category: Academic								
Blended	-0.225	0.827	-0.250	0.800	-0.201	0.820	-0.201	0.820
Administrative	-0.250	0.530	-0.091	0.544	-0.102	0.557	-0.102	0.557
Universities' region. Reference Category: Southern Europe								
Northen Europe	-0.217	0.656	-0.179	0.645	-0.159	0.676	-0.159	0.676
Eastern Europe	-0.245	0.615	-0.120	0.626	-0.138	0.646	-0.138	0.646
Western Europe	-0.409*	0.523	-0.305	0.521	-0.322	0.545	-0.322	0.545
Non-EU	0.142	1.247	0.162	1.204	0.131	1.213	0.131	1.213
Gender. Reference category: Male								
Female	0.140	0.457	0.070	0.449	0.153	0.480	0.153	0.480
No gender disclosed	0.474*	1.478	0.465*	1.436	0.329	1.624	0.329	1.624
Age. Continuous variable	-0.287	0.021	-0.219	0.021	-0.134	0.021	-0.135	0.021
R2	0.328		0.413		0.472		0.472	

Note. $N = 49$. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p. < .001

Discussion

The findings revealed that some academic, administrative, and blended professionals still perceive the 'divide', which was slightly higher in the institutions than in the EMJMD consortiums.

Specifically, results suggest that when a supportive workplace with standard procedures, defined responsibilities, recognition of roles, and constructive evaluations exists in the institutions, professionals are less likely to perceive a 'divide'. In 2018 Manca et al. declared, "[t]oday, collaboration does not occur only within clearly defined organisational boundaries" (p. 526); it is needed to create synergies between professionals, overcome difficulties, coordinate the roles, and generate a cohesive and complementary set of provisions (MacNaughton et al. 2013). Manca et al. (2018) also specified that besides physical facilities, collaborative workspaces involve other areas such as (i) Information and communication technologies; (ii) Human resources and work practices that contribute to outlining the performances, communication, and flexibility to collaborate across workgroups; (iii) Organisational culture and structure impacting team performance (pp. 527-528). Henceforward, collaborative workspaces identify "a combination of non-conventional layouts, facilities, technologies and work practices that aim to sustain knowledge work performance and innovation by providing an attractive, smart and value-reflecting workplace that aids collaboration, operational flexibility and cultural change" (p. 528). Moreover, if "[t]he workplace environment that is set in place impacts employee morale, productivity and engagement – both positively and negatively" (Chandrasekar, 2011, p. 1), the aim should be to have a positive workplace "for the individuals, the teams, the projects and ultimately for the organisation itself" (Davis & Cable, 2014, p. 3).

Results furthermore suggest that if there is no real team spirit, the 'divide' was more pronounced. According to Hazi (2019), team spirit is a precious resource because it allows an organisation to accomplish its goals, creates in team members a sense of belonging and enables the achievement of "goals more effectively, sustain[s] organisational cohesion, and allows employees to satisfy their social needs" (p. 11). It encourages social bonding and enables members to go beyond their own tasks because they are engaged in common goals (p. 12).

In the absence of teams, an institution moves forward thanks to individual efforts. However, with team building, "workgroups evolve into cohesive units and share expectations for accomplishing group tasks added to trust and support for one another and respect for individual differences" (Fapohunda, 2013, p. 2). There is no best way to create, cultivate and boost highly effective teams; however, the major components should be (i) Clarity of Expectations and Objectives; (ii) Perspective; (iii) Dedication; (iv) Capability; (v) Contract; (vi) Resources; (vii) Power; (viii) Cooperation; (ix) Communication; (x) Creative Improvement; (xi) Responsibility and Accountability; (xii) Harmonisation; and (xiii) Cultural Change (pp. 5-9).

Equally important were the results within the EMJMD consortiums because, as in the institutions, also for the EMJMDs, if team spirit was not optimal; for instance, lack of appraisement of colleagues' contributions, unclear roles and responsibilities, or issues when one openly admits weaknesses and mistakes, the sense of the 'divide' was more pronounced among respondents.

Furthermore, in 2017, Shawn Burke et al. highlighted the effort needed to create and maintain the ideal conditions for a team with members with different cultural backgrounds, as is the case of an EMJMD. "While cultural diversity can provide synergies, research has shown that it can also lead to process loss as members attempt to navigate differences in attitudes, beliefs, and values that often remain hidden under the surface and impact team interaction" (Shawn Burke et al., 2017, p. 186). Nevertheless, the authors also mentioned that when culturally diverse teams learn how to overcome the differences, research has shown that in the long term, they do better than homogeneous teams (Shawn Burke et al., 2017, p. 186).

Conclusions

It was possible to confirm that for academics, administrators and blended professionals participating in this study, team spirit plays a crucial role in developing and achieving the pre-established goals of an international project such as an EMJMD.

Nonetheless, high performing teams take time to evolve and mature, and they usually pass through the different stages of development as described in Tuckman's model to reach the optimal performance: (i) Forming; (ii) Storming; (iii) Norming and (iv) Performing (Tuckman, 1965).

Results suggest that a lack of a consolidated team spirit might have contributed to the awareness of the historical 'divide' in both settings (HEIs and EMJMD consortiums). This result could indicate that working in an EMJMD improves professional relationships and could be implemented as a good practice model to reduce the division between colleagues. Consequently, helping personnel working in HEIs create a positive workplace in which all members promote team spirit will undoubtedly increase the potential of having a better collaboration.

The implementation of a qualitative research methodology using in-depth interviews to obtain more factual information will enable a more accurate elucidation of how the experience of working in an EMJMD could impact a broad spectrum of settings at the institutional level. But, although these are preliminary findings and need to be further investigated, they provide valuable indications of team work and team spirit in the context of an EMJMD but also in other contexts.

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CHAPTER 21

Reshaping Catholic identity in a changing context: the case of Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore[1]

VISNJA SCHAMPERS-CAR AND FIONA HUNTER

Abstract. This chapter explores the relationship between Catholic identity and internationalisation in Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, established in 1921 in Milan, Italy, with a mission to offer higher education true to Catholic beliefs and principles to all Italian Catholics. Over time, the religious environment has changed; at present only around 20% of students choose to study there because of its Catholic identity. In addition, the educational sector has become more competitive and market-like; this requires the university to adopt a new business model and re-shape understanding of its Catholic identity. Internationalisation has always been present in Cattolica, but it has gradually become a core phenomenon. In its strategic policies and practices, Cattolica is searching for a shared understanding of internationalisation and Catholic identity so that they can mutually reinforce one another and enable the university to stay true to its mission while achieving long-term institutional wellbeing.

Keywords: Catholic higher education, Catholic identity, Catholic mission, internationalisation.

Questo capitolo esplora il rapporto tra identità cattolica e internazionalizzazione dell'Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, fondata nel 1921 a Milano con la missione di offrire un'istruzione superiore basata su credi e principi cattolici. Nel corso del tempo, l'ambiente religioso è cambiato; ora solo il 20% circa degli studenti sceglie di studiare in questa università a fronte della sua identità cattolica. Il settore dell'istruzione superiore è diventato più competitivo e orientato al mercato, richiedendo all'università di adottare un nuovo modello di business e di rimodellare la comprensione della propria identità cattolica. Allo stesso tempo, anche l'internazionalizzazione si è evoluta e sta diventando un elemento chiave dell'identità dell'università. Nelle sue strategie, politiche e pratiche, l'università è alla ricerca di una comprensione condivisa dell'internazionalizzazione e dell'identità cattolica, in modo che questi aspetti possano rafforzarsi reciprocamente e consentirle di rimanere fedele alla sua missione, raggiungendo al contempo il benessere e la sostenibilità istituzionale.

Keywords: istituti cattolici di istruzione superiore; internazionalizzazione presso università cattoliche; strategie di internazionalizzazione basate sull'identità.

[1] Reprinted with permission: Car, V., & Hunter, F. (2018). Università Cattolica Del Sacro Cuore (UCSC), Milan, Italy: Re-shaping Catholic identity in a changing context. In H. de Wit, A. Bernasconi, V. Car, F. Hunter, M. James, & D. Véliz (Eds.), *Identity and internationalization in Catholic universities Exploring institutional pathways in context* (pp. 269-283).Brill/Sense.

Introduction

Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore (Università Cattolica or simply UC) was founded in Milan by Father Agostino Gemelli[2] in 1921. Although the university was established in Milan, its focus was never local. It was brought to life for the benefit of all Italian Catholics and its ambition was to make higher education accessible to all talented Catholics in Italy, regardless of their financial means. The establishment of UC as a non-state Catholic university was a project aimed at educating leaders and creating "the center of a cultural movement with broad social and political consequences" (Hammond, 2010, p. 16). The Catholic identity of the university is visible in its declaration "to demonstrate theoretically and to realize in practice the convergence between faith and scientific knowledge" (Bocci, 2009, pp. 32-33 as cited in Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 19).

The success of Gemelli's project is undeniable – in under a century, UC has grown into the largest private[3] university in Europe with 12 schools, over 40 thousand students, around 1600 tenured professors and 3000 contracted professors. Today, UC has four campuses in six Italian towns, Milan, Brescia, Piacenza, Cremona, Campobasso and Rome. In line with the founder's vision, it has become a comprehensive university offering education in a broad range of disciplines including the humanities, economics, law and medicine (Cova, 2007; Bocci, 2008 as cited in Mazzoleni, 2016).

The success of UC has also brought challenges: (1) its growing number of faculties and campuses have resulted in a more fragmented organisational structure and a greater diversity of priorities and ambitions; (2) a large student population is challenging for the level of service the university can offer to its students, such that Gemelli's original idea of small teaching and research groups is no longer feasible; (3) national regulations promoting homogenisation pose a threat for UC's distinctive identity; (4) public funding cuts force the university to look for alternative income streams and compete for students, locally and globally (Mazzoleni, 2016).

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[2] Father Gemelli is considered to be the main founder of Università Cattolica. However, in his endeavours he was assisted by a group of friends, Necchi, Olgiati, Lombardo and Barelli (Cova, 2007 as cited in Mazzoleni, 2015).

[3] The term "private" is used to refer to the non-state university in the Italian higher education system defined as a non-profit organisation recognised by the Ministry for Education, Universities and Research. With state recognition, these universities are bound more or less by the same national legislation as state universities. They are however largely self-financing institutions and receive only minor funding from the state budget. In this sense they are private institutions (Hunter, 2009).

It is interesting to explore how UC is dealing with these challenges, particularly in terms of its (re)defining its Catholic identity in a more global, competitive and market-like higher education sector in which internationalisation has been identified as a key institutional strategic goal.

National educational context

Tertiary education in Italy is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, University and Research. UC is a part of the higher education system in Italy that consists of 77 universities: 55 state universities, 14 non-state (private) universities (of which two are universities for foreigners specialising in Italian Language and Culture), three technical universities and three universities specialised in postgraduate studies (Ministero dell'Istruzione dell'Universita e della Ricerca, n.d.). In legal terms, UC's religious denomination is an internal matter and its position is not different from that of any other non-state (or private) university.[4]

The state higher education sector in Italy is large compared to the nonstate sector, with nine out of ten students in Italy enrolled in state institutions that are funded mainly by the central government (82%) and only 9% by regions and local governments (OECD, 2016).

Although Italy has undertaken a number of reforms in the last 15 years, mainly as part of the Bologna Process, Italian higher education still faces structural challenges. A recent European Commission publication (2017) reports that the Italian educational sector suffers from low expenditure. At 4% of GDP it is one of the lowest-funded in the EU. Higher education expenditure is only 1% of the GDP compared to 1.6% of the OECD average (OECD, 2016).

Although Italy has managed to reach the European 2020 national target with 26.2% of 30 to 34-year-olds attaining tertiary education, the country is still below the EU average of 39.1%. This low level can be partially explained by poor employment prospects and financial returns after completing tertiary education, at 21% lower than the OECD average for men and 35% lower for women (OECD, 2017). Italy also suffers from high dropout rates, with only 55% of enrolled students completing their studies while the average in Europe is 70% (de Wit & al., 2015).

Although Italy was one of the first signatories of the Bologna process in 1999, it does not have a national strategy for internationalisation. While there have been dif-

[4] Although Università Cattolica shares its religious denomination with pontifical universities, legally they differ. While UC is regulated by the Italian laws on higher education, pontifical universities are regulated by the law of the Holy See, *Sapientia Christiana*.

ferent national initiatives regarding internationalisation, it is up to each higher education institution to define, and to a significant extent, fund its own strategic direction. Most institutions focus on having more programmes taught in English, enhancing mobility opportunities, and promoting institutional collaboration. According to Trivellato (2007), the non-state university sector in Italy did slightly better in the implementation of the Bologna process than the state sector due to greater flexibility in selection of student intake and better facilities.

In the international education market, Italy is still underperforming, and Italian universities still attract a relatively low number of international students with only 4% of new entrants defined as international, compared to an 11% OECD average (OECD, 2017). The low number of international students is due to a limited offering of programmes in English as well as linguistic and administrative barriers (Academic Cooperation Association, 2014). Complicated administrative procedures as well as low levels of R&D investment (in 2008 the R&D expenditure in Italy was 1.1% of GDP while the EU average was 1.7% and the OECD average 2.25%) mean that Italy is not an attractive destination for international researchers (OECD, 2011).

The government has been introducing some (often contested) measures to address these inefficiencies. Performance-based funding has been introduced based on the recently introduced research quality assessment exercise (Valutazione della Qualità dei prodotti della Ricerca). A National Plan for Research Promotion was launched in 2016 to increase R&D funding and there is a plan to provide additional funds to hire 500 internationally recognised associate and full professors (Natta Chairs), but this plan has not yet been implemented (European Commission, 2017).

Although the number of English-taught programmes is low in comparison to other European countries, these are growing. In 2016-2017, there were 682 postgraduate, 271 doctoral (compared to 220 in 2012), 192 master's (compared to 135 in 2012), and 219 summer/winter school programmes offered in English at 60 higher education institutions (CRUI, n.d.). Although progress can be considered slow, internationalisation is nevertheless generating change in the Italian higher education system, contributing to its modernisation and promoting greater openness (Hunter, 2015, in de Wit et al., 2015).

Catholic identity of Università Cattolica seen through different lenses

Historical lens

Catholic identity has been a part of Università Cattolica's DNA from the moment of its foundation. It was founded with a mission to contribute to building a modern Italian society, thanks to the education of leaders who were true to Catholic beliefs and principles. It was financed by student fees, but also by donations made by Italian Catholics from all walks of life. On Passion Sunday, instituted in 1924 by Pius XI as *Giornata universitaria*, people throughout Italy, even those who did not have children, donated money through their parishes to finance the university. This collection of funds, although less massive than in the past, is still pursued in some church communities.

The religious context in which Università Cattolica operates has changed considerably, especially after the1960s. Although around 80% of Italians declare themselves to be Catholic, Garelli (2013) describes a shift in the way Catholic religion is being practised. He speaks of a variety of "profiles" that cohabit within Catholicism in Italy: convinced and active, hard-core Catholics; convinced but not always active, Catholics by tradition and education; and Catholics that share only some ideas with the Church. Attendance at Catholic services shows that secularisation has changed religious practices: only a quarter of Catholics in Italy attend a mass at least once a week, while the rest take part in services once a month (15.7%), once a year (36%) or never (21.8%) (Garelli, 2013). This trend is reflected in the UC student population in which institutional research (Schampers-Car & Hunter, 2016) highlighted that only around 20% of students choose the university because of its Catholic identity.

However, despite the changes in UC's religious environment and student population, the ideas of the founder are still very much present at UC: the reference to Gemelli and his ambition to build a Catholic university known for scientific rigour and excellence is regularly made in official speeches, and the name of Gemelli is repeatedly mentioned in UC promotional material and newsletters. Furthermore, his work is often the focus of study and the University is publishing a book series on the history of UC in 2018 (Mazzoleni, 2016).

As UC is approaching its centennial anniversary, the institution still seeks to maintain many Catholic identity attributes in its education and research missions that are rooted in its history, such as nurturing the "sense of united community," across the different schools[5], fostering the interdisciplinary nature of education and the focus on the student as a whole person, and supporting the faith-based vision of the university by carrying out research on solidarity, family, bioethics or Catholic social doctrine (Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 160).

At the time of its foundation, UC was a unique project for two key reasons: (1) it was set up by a private foundation, the Giuseppe Toniolo Insititute for Higher Edu-

[5] In 2015, the university changed the building procurement policy in order to develop a campus model that is favourable to the development of a united university community (Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 158).

cation, which was a new legal construction[6]; and (2) it was founded as a nonstate Catholic university, recognised by the Italian ministry of higher education, rather than as a pontifical university.

This modern governance structure, enabling the university to operate as a nonstate institution, and the development of a modern curriculum – for the time – set it apart from other universities. In Gemelli's view, UC faculty and students "were expected to strive for Christian perfection of their minds, bodies and souls" and as the first rector of UC, he personally hired the first 35 university professors and supervised the development and delivery of education programmes closely (Hammond, 2010, p. 17). His desire to build an independent institution and demonstrate that it was possible to combine science with Catholic beliefs became ingrained in the identity of UC (Campanini & Trainiello, 1982 as cited in Mazzoleni, 2016).

Today, national circumstances have changed, and preserving independence from the state and maintaining distinction from state universities has become a challenge for UC. Mazzoleni (2016) writes about a "process of assimilation" in which "the identity of nonstate universities is threatened" (p. 38). He claims that "in order to survive they have to perform while abiding to state regulations, but at the same time, by doing so, they lose that diversity built on their distinctive identity" (Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 38). Trivellato (2007) also argues that "in Italy there is no private sector as such" (p. 217). He describes the private sector as a coach on the higher education train "that travels neither faster nor slower than other coaches (the public ones); it simply collects people that prefer – and can afford – to reserve a place in that coach. Seats may be cleaner, but stops, and the final destination does not change" (Trivellato, 2007, p. 250).

Although the University has, to this day, preserved a certain level of autonomy[7] and detachment from both the State and the Church, as a state recognised university with a large student body, it is forced to make use of public financing where available and accept limitations on its freedom to determine its own curriculum. Nonstate universities receive only a small budget contribution from the government and this has been decreasing annually since 2008. While this has been a concern for all nonstate universities, UC has "probably suffered more than others for its size and complexity of its unique activities" (Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 40).

These external changes have led to diverging understandings of Catholic identity among the UC university leadership. The University is currently debating its future strategic direction in response to greater competition and financial reduction. While

[6] According to Mazzoleni (2016), this innovative legal form is a part of university's Catholic identity.

[7] University autonomy is regulated by the law 15/5/1977 no. 127.

some university leaders embrace the idea of strong Catholic identity as defined in the past, others argue that the university can only survive if it adopts a model based on economic rationality, and hence a revised understanding of its Catholic identity (Mazzoleni, 2016).

Catholic values and intellectual tradition on campus

The Catholic intellectual tradition is still visible in the UC architecture, especially on the Milan campus located in a Cistercian monastery near the historic Saint Ambrose church. The choice to locate the University here was not accidental. St. Ambrose has a special meaning in Milanese memory[8] and in Gemelli's life: "Ambrose had crucial symbolic importance for Gemelli[9], who would have his Catholic university seated nowhere but the site most closely associated with this saint" (Hammond, 2010, p. 139). Although the university now has almost 600 times more students than in the early years, many Milan campus buildings are still located in the vicinity of this original location. Although other UC campuses do not have such a symbolic importance, they are all organised to facilitate the aforementioned (Catholic) "sense of united community".

The Catholic intellectual tradition is also visible in the main university documents, such as the statutes and code of ethics in which a commitment to offering higher education based on the principles of Christianity is clearly stated. There is a direct reference to the apostolic constitution *Ex corde Ecclesiae* both in the statutes and in the preamble of the code of ethics for employees and students.

The task of UC is to carry out study, scientific research and education "in line with the principles of the Catholic doctrine and with the universal nature of Catholicism and its high and specific needs for freedom" (Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, 2022). When new students enrol at UC, they are required to produce a certificate of baptism, while non-Catholic students are required to sign a document to attest that they have received and understood the code of ethics. All tenured professors at UC need to have approval for their appointment from the Church authorities and other employees are required to sign the code of ethics.

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[8] "Piazza Sant' Ambrogio/Saint Ambrose Square is named after the early Christian bishop of Milan, Ambrose (340-397), the patron of the city, whose legacy has long imbued the history and culture of that city" (Hammond, 2010, p. 137).

[9] In the monastery annexed to Basilica Sant' Ambrogio, Gemelli embraced (again) Catholicism and returned to the sacraments. There, in 1903, he "overcame all rational obstacles to religious faith" (Hammond, 2010, p. 202).

Furthermore, UC declares its engagement with society in its statutes (2022) stating that it "is prepared to address and solve the problems of society and culture, enlightened by the Christian message and Christian moral principles." It has an active Chaplaincy and Pastoral Centre[10] that organises different events related to the Catholic religion (including pilgrimages for students and employees) and activities connected to the Church agenda such as the Year of Mercy declared by Pope Francis.

Teaching and research lens

In carrying out its educational mission, UC seeks not only "to teach and train but also to educate" (Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 158). Despite the abovementioned restrictions of unfavourable state regulations, UC has managed to develop a portfolio of optional interdisciplinary courses that encourage students to think beyond their own fields of study. Compulsory, non-credit-bearing theology courses broaden student knowledge beyond individual disciplines and are of fundamental value in the university's educational and cultural mission, in that they address not only teachings related to theology but also questions of professional ethics. A large collection of literature on Catholic religion offered in the university's bookstore clearly illustrates the institutional commitment to making knowledge on Catholic religion available to students and the university community at large.

In line with UC identity, the Catholic ideas of service to the community and social responsibility are built into many degree programmes. There are also research centres dedicated to work related to Church teachings on social justice and humanity, such as the Centre for Studies on Ecclesiastic and Other Non-Profit Organisations and the Centre for Research and Studies on Disability and Marginalisation. Another example is the research on concepts of freedom, moral education and gender issues conducted within the Department of Education. Through the Centre for International Solidarity, the university is working on several projects that demonstrate its commitment to providing learning and service to the poor and disadvantaged globally.

Conclusion on Catholic identity

In conclusion, it appears that while UC's Catholic identity is clearly communicated through its name, its core documents, campus artefacts and a number of educa-

[10] Recently, the Pastoral Centre has been included (although with no voting power) in faculty council meetings.

tional programmes and research projects, there is a concern about preservation and promotion of this identity over time. The homogenising effect of government regulations and the current unfavourable financial position are seen as a threat that could steer the university away from its Catholic identity and mission.

A changing environment has led to a change in strategic direction. For example, financial constraints have resulted in a "push for the introduction of a centralized decision-making system with strong control over budget allocation and accountability," (Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 118), but, even when making financial decisions, discussions about impact on Catholic identity were never far away. Mazzoleni (2016) points out that "every discussion led to the core identity of the University, or the perception or knowledge that each member of the organization had (or claimed to have) of the said identity, no matter whether the focus was on the budget (salary reduction), the marketing of a degree programme or the dismissal of an out-of-date practice, such as the one of using new envelopes for internal communication instead of recycling old ones" (p. 12).

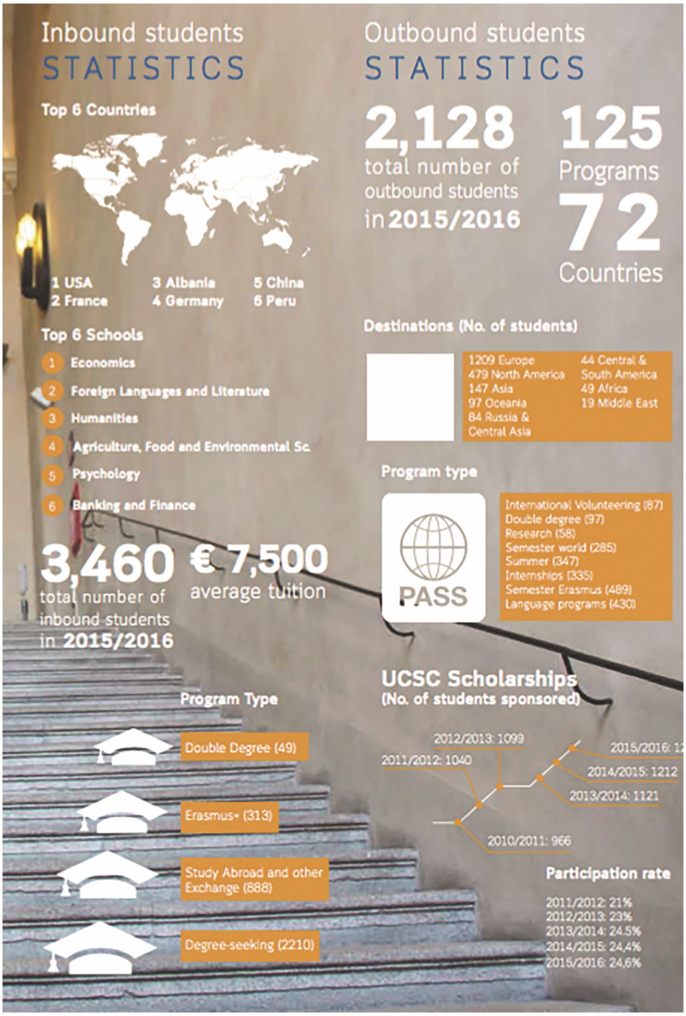
Internationalisation at Università Cattolica

As early as 1926, Rector Gemelli announced the participation of UC in the creation of an international network of Catholic universities[11] "with the goal of fomenting exchanges and assistance between them" (Cova, 2007, p. 73 as cited in Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 22).

In line with this international tradition, UC was one of the first universities in Italy to engage actively in European programmes. It was the only Italian university to receive the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) Label in 2006 and Diploma Supplement Label in 2008 under the Erasmus programme, for recognition of quality work in the field of European mobility and credit and degree recognition. The university, through its International Office, has put significant effort into promoting international student mobility and now 23 % of its undergraduate cohort has international experience. High levels of student mobility and exchange have been possible due to the extensive offering of study programmes in English (Mazzoleni, 2013).

[11] The International Federation of Catholic Universities (IFCU) was founded at the initiative of UC together with the Katholieke Universitiei Nijmegen (now Radboud University) in the Netherlands. The initiative began in 1924, but it only became active after World War II.

Figure 1
Internationalisation at UC in numbers[12]



At the time of going to press, UC is working on a new strategic document in which internationalisation appears as a key pillar. Financial constraints and a consistent decline in student numbers, (10% in 9 years; Mazzoleni, 2016, p. 43), have

[12] www.international.unicatt.it.

made international student recruitment a strategic imperative. According to the (unpublished) UC strategy, internationalisation is driven by three rationales:

- Prestige – through internationalisation, the university wants to enhance its international profile and increase UC's position in international rankings;
- Social – driven by its Catholic mission, UC is engaging in education and training initiatives in emerging economies. An example is the MBA programme developed by ALTIS, UC's Postgraduate Business School, which fosters the development of local businesses by local people in numerous different African countries and is supported by Italian business partners;
- Economic – the university is looking for new (financial) opportunities through international student recruitment and partnerships with universities willing to send fee-paying students, as a means to fund other internationalisation initiatives.

Priority is given to the following activities:

- Increasing global reputation through active international partnerships that can help increase the international reputation of UC and improve positioning in the rankings;
- Increasing the academic portfolio through the development of English language programmes;
- Enlarging international networks in order to increase the number of incoming and outgoing students;
- Increasing the number of visiting professors from abroad and reinforcing global recruitment. Increase of international recruitment is one of the priorities and UC is planning to open offices in China and the United States to facilitate this through their direct presence in these countries (UC internal document, unpublished, 2017).

This new (unpublished) strategic plan envisages a specific role for faculties. They will be required to support internationalisation, increase their academic offering in English, and stimulate not only student exchange, but also faculty exchange. (UC internal document, unpublished).

Conclusion on internationalisation

Internationalisation is one of the main pillars of UC's forthcoming strategy and is based on the many successful international initiatives developed over the last years. The goal of UC's international activities is to "impact the multicultural teaching and research environment, to financially benefit the university and the local and Italian economy, and to contribute to the development of emerging economies through co-operation projects" (Mazzoleni, 2013, p. 151). The new strategy is being developed to help UC enhance its performance in different aspects of internationalisation.

Even though the content of the strategy document has not been published yet, it is known to staff involved in internationalisation, and UC's international activities are being designed and executed accordingly.

However, the current challenge is communicating the importance of internationalisation to all stakeholders, bringing all staff on board and ensuring operationalisation at the university level without a clear strategic document that can guide the process across the different academic and administrative units.

Catholic identity and internationalisation

As far as internationalisation is concerned, article 7 in the UC statutes says that the University collaborates "with other Italian and foreign Universities, especially with Catholic Universities, EU Universities, and with national, community and international organisations" (Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, 2016, p. 13). However, statistics show that, in terms of mobility and partnerships, Catholic identity and internationalisation are rather weakly linked and Catholic identity does not play a strong role in the international context (Schampers-Car & Hunter, 2016)[13].

For instance, outbound mobility to Catholic institutions is low, with only 75 out of 2240 students being hosted by Catholic universities in 2015. UC students go to other Catholic institutions mainly through the charity and volunteering programmes offered by the Pastoral Centre. However, the number of students interested in these programmes and the number of such programmes have grown over the last years. Although the International Office is also trying to recruit degree-seeking students from Catholic countries and Catholic schools, in 2015 the inbound mobility from Catholic universities was rather low, with only 32 out of a total of 742 incoming students. There was also only a very limited number of teachers who were going to Catholic institutions through the Erasmus teaching mobility programme.

By 2015, UC had signed partnerships and MOUs with 359 universities, 255 in Europe and 104 in other parts of the world. UC has a partnership with 33 European Catholic universities (12.94%) and with 29 universities (27.88%) in the rest of the world. Most European Catholic partners are in France (12), and, outside of Europe, the highest number is in the United States (11).

Although statistically, Catholic partners play a modest role, Catholic identity can become important in particular contexts:

[13] Statistical data on internationalisation is gathered from this source.

- For small Catholic universities abroad partnered with UC, the Catholic identity of UC is an added value in student recruitment, since students from these universities are interested in coming to UC because of its size and its academic reputation. However, UC students are less interested in attending these partner institutions;
- The International Office is developing contacts with the Association of Jesuit Colleges and Universities to attract study abroad students with a growing focus on Latin America. Here, Catholic identity is used as a lever where it is perceived as a sign of quality. On the other hand, activities in the African market are still limited, although there is some inbound activity based on scholarships aimed mainly at Catholic priests or seminarians;
- UC is planning to build stronger connections between its Catholic identity and internationalisation, primarily through international charity work. The number of international charity work programmes is to be increased in the coming years by sending 300-350 students to missionary programmes in Africa and Latin America. The International Office is currently seeking funding to support this project.

Conclusion on Catholic identity and internationalisation

Although much has changed since the university was founded, not the least the size of the student body that now exceeds 40,000 students, compared to 68 students when it started in 1921, internationalisation is not a new phenomenon at UC, but rather was part of its mission from the very beginning. Already in the early years of UC, internationalisation was fostered by the founder, Father Gemelli. Although the UC statutes state that special attention will be given to UC's collaboration "with other Italian and foreign Universities, especially with Catholic Universities," statistics show that Catholic partners play only a modest role. However, the International Office is searching for alternative ways to leverage its Catholic identity abroad, mainly through cooperation projects with universities in emerging countries.

UC has identified both internationalisation and identity as key pillars for its new strategic direction. Yet, there is still much discussion underway as to how these two elements should be conceived and interact with one another, in response not only to the challenges UC faces in its external environment, but to how it should redefine itself as a local, national and international player in ways that enable it to be true to its mission and guarantee its long-term sustainability. Whatever the shape of the plan that emerges, it is hoped that UC will reach a shared understanding of both identity and internationalisation in a way that they can mutually reinforce one another and enable UC to reinvent itself as a leading twenty-first century Catholic institution.

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CHAPTER 22

Shifting models and rationales of higher education internationalisation: the case of the Netherlands

MARINE CONDETTE AND HANS DE WIT

Abstract. The Dutch approach to internationalisation can be seen as efficient if one only looks at the high proportion of international students in a small, non-English speaking country. Changes to this approach have appeared in recent years, with new measures in place to control the number of English-taught programmes and the influx of international learners. This paper looks at the evolving forces driving internationalisation agendas, and how they apply to the Dutch context. Unintended consequences of internationalisation have recently challenged the Dutch higher education sector, with concerns around quality, accessibility and funding, as well as more practical issues such as accommodation shortages. The populist political context has contributed to the push for a new internationalisation model. Lessons can be learned from the Dutch experience, representing an interesting case for other countries as they build or mature their internationalisation plans.

Keywords: internationalisation; globalisation; higher education; populism; neonationalism; neoliberalism; Netherlands; student mobility; international students.

L'approccio olandese all'internazionalizzazione può essere ritenuto efficiente se si considera solo l'alta percentuale di studenti internazionali in un Paese di piccole dimensioni e non anglofono. Negli ultimi anni si sono verificati cambiamenti a tale approccio, con l'adozione di nuove misure per controllare il numero di programmi di insegnamento in inglese e l'afflusso di studenti internazionali. Questo articolo analizza l'evoluzione delle dinamiche di internazionalizzazione e la loro applicazione al contesto olandese. Le conseguenze indesiderate dell'internazionalizzazione hanno recentemente messo in discussione il settore dell'istruzione superiore olandese, con preoccupazioni relative alla qualità, all'accessibilità e ai finanziamenti, oltre a questioni più pratiche come la carenza di alloggi. Il populismo ha contribuito alla spinta verso un nuovo modello di internazionalizzazione. Dall'esperienza olandese si possono trarre insegnamenti, rappresentando un caso interessante per altri Paesi che stanno costruendo o maturando i loro piani di internazionalizzazione.

Keywords: internazionalizzazione; globalizzazione; istruzione superiore; populismo; neonazionalismo; Paesi Bassi; mobilità studentesca; studenti internazionali.

Introduction

The Netherlands offers one of the world's most internationalised educational environments (Ellis, 2022; OECD, 2019). If one takes the proportion of international students as a measure of success, the Dutch internationalisation approach appears efficient with 23% of all degree-seeking students enrolled at research universities coming from abroad in 2021, representing an increase of 206% of international students in 10 years (Elfferich et al., 2021). Calls for changes to the Dutch model have appeared in recent years, with new measures put forward to control the growth of English-taught programmes and the number of international students. This paper aims to identify the key reasons behind this reorientation.

In order to understand the motivations to recalibrate some of the Netherlands' flagship internationalisation measures on inbound student mobility, it is important to consider the forces driving them in the first place. We will therefore start by contextualising the Dutch trajectory within a broader discussion of the academic, economic, political and socio-cultural rationales justifying internationalisation activities. The economic rationale appears dominant in its recent internationalisation trajectory, therefore depicting a market-driven, neoliberal approach. Two agents of change are examined in an attempt to shed light on the revised discourse on internationalisation. Firstly, the paper argues that the neoliberal dimension of the Dutch approach resulted in unexpected capacity, accessibility and quality issues that became the argumentative basis for a switch to a more liberal approach. Secondly, the rise of populist voices in the country has over the past two decades publicly elevated the debate about the societal impact of internationalisation, with a particular emphasis on language and culture. This *anti-international* populism challenges the more globally oriented and engaged orientation more common at the centre and left of Dutch politics, a sensitive mixture of neoliberalism and social values. We will conclude with some observations and suggestions on potential future research in this area.

Main forces of internationalisation of higher education

There is no universally agreed-upon definition of internationalisation in the higher education academe. It is rather a protean concept that has been approached from different perspectives in the literature. One major stream of research connects today's internationalisation with globalisation (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Foskett & Maringe, 2010). Internationalisation and globalisation are frequently used interchangeably to refer to the same phenomenon, or to emphasise the *reactive* nature of internationalisation to the processes of globalisation. The definition of internationalisation most commonly accepted by academics and practitioners reads as follows:

> 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 et al., 2015, p. 29).

The internationalisation of higher education is seen here not as an end-goal or a response to globalisation, but as a process with the aim of eventually improving the quality of higher education. It is more normative and directive as an agenda for the future of internationalisation than the more neutral working definition previously developed by Knight (2003) which did not use the word *intentional*, and did not define the purpose of the process. The aforementioned literature and definition of internationalisation suggest that (1) as much as globalisation is inevitable, internationalisation is not any more a *nice-to-have* but a *must-have* in the higher education enterprise, since (2) internationalisation is a process that is expected to increase the quality of education and be a positive force for society. Looking at the latest IAU survey on the Internationalisation of Higher Education (Marinoni, 2019), the first point seems to be a reality across the globe: "An overwhelming majority of institutions (more than 90%) have internationalisation mentioned in their mission/strategic plan" (Marinoni, 2019, p. 25). The results of the same survey indicate that internationalisation is agreed to be an intrinsic element of today's higher education and that it is perceived as a force for good, which tends to confirm the second point.

Internationalisation in the Dutch context

In the aftermath of World War 2, the internationalisation outlook of the Netherlands focused on capacity-building programmes in former colonies and other strategic developing countries (van Donselaar et al., 2022, p. 87). With the furthering of European integration, characterised by the Erasmus programme facilitating student mobility and the Bologna Process promoting degree harmonisation, the Netherlands gradually turned its attention towards the North. Although it kept links with developing countries, most notably through the Netherlands Education Support Offices (Neso) and scholarships for students in these regions, the country focused on new types of internationalisation measures and partners. Dutch internationalisation efforts evolved to become global endeavours, with the development of mobility programmes inside and outside Europe. Student mobility, associated with the development of English-taught programmes, was and still is the most practised type of internationalisation measures in most countries (Veugelers, 2020), and the Netherlands is no exception.

Looking at quantifiable output measures, the country has performed beyond average at many levels:

– In 2021, around 23% of the whole student population was international at the bachelor's and master's levels (Universiteiten van Nederland, 2022b). The total number of international students enrolled in these programmes has shown an increase of 67% since 2017. In spite of the COVID-19 pandemic, in academic year 2021-2022 the growth of enrolled students at Dutch universities (+4%) is primarily due to incoming international students (+14.2%), the number of Dutch students being relatively stable with +1.2% (Universiteiten van Nederland, 2022a).
– Students come from across the globe: around 73% of all degree-seeking students are from the European Economic Area (EEA), and non-EEA students represent a growing group, with China leading the way as a country of origin (Elfferich et al., 2021).
– A spearhead country in that regard, in 2020 the Netherlands offered 78% of its master's programmes and 29% of its bachelor's programmes fully in English (Universiteiten van Nederland, 2021). Some institutions made the decision to operate solely in English (Maastricht University and Wittenborg University of Applied Sciences).
– Dutch research universities consistently appear on international rankings, and are considered to be among the top 2% worldwide (Universiteiten van Nederland, 2020). This is in spite of the size of the country, the public, non-selective and multidisciplinary nature of Dutch universities, and the limited research funding, that would normally not position them favourably in the international university competition landscape (Altbach, 2004).

Dutch governments have been among the most committed to internationalisation (Ilieva et al., 2019), and the quantifiable data presented above seem to show that state support and cooperation among and with universities have been an accelerator, rather than an inhibitor, of internationalisation endeavours (Hénard et al., 2012), although primarily as mentioned above with respect to inbound student mobility.

As we look at the exponential number of international students in a short period of time, it seems necessary to understand the motives and priorities that supported the Dutch approach. For that purpose, we will use in the next section a framework developed by de Wit and Knight (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 1999; Knight & de Wit, 1995) and apply it to the Netherlands.

The why of internationalisation: overlapping rationales

As articulated in the 2015 definition of de Wit et al., internationalisation is considered as a process that can have a meaningful impact on society. This is however a wide-ranging purpose that needs to be drilled down to more specific goals, in turn justifying the variety of internationalisation strategies and measures one can observe across countries and institutions.

A framework to understand the drivers of internationalisation efforts based on expected outcomes was developed by Knight and de Wit. Four categories of rationales were identified: academic, economic, political, and social/cultural. In 2004, Knight further developed this interpretative framework by recognising that the heightened international competition among higher education systems and institutions has made *branding* an essential aspect of internationalisation goals, and she considered it embedded within all four rationales. The 4+1 rationales are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1
4+1 rationales for internationalisation, adapted from Knight (2004)

Academic Internationalisation is a tool to improve quality and help learners exchange knowledge and acquire attributes to succeed in today's world. It enables a country to be part of the global knowledge economy.	*Economic* Higher education is considered an export product and a way to develop the necessary human capital for the local workforce. Student mobility is recognised as a way to gain profits from international students' tuition fees and related expenses.
Political Internationalisation contributes to enhancing the reputation and prestige of a country on the global and regional stage. Higher education is used as a soft power tool, or 'knowledge diplomacy'. Student mobility and faculty collaborations create stronger bonds between countries.	*Social/cultural* Internationalisation facilitates a closer connection between cultures, in turn increasing mutual understanding and developing the next generation of global citizens.
▲ Branding ▼	

Each rationale represents a distinctive *why* of internationalisation, but they are not mutually exclusive. In fact, there is an increasingly evolving mix of motivations underlying internationalisation activities. This was reinforced by Haapakoski and Pashby (2017) in their analysis of internationalisation strategies of European universities. The authors mapped the types of rationales found in strategy documents and connected them to three discursive conceptualisations of internationalisation:

1. Neoliberal: demonstrated by a focus on market imperatives, which can be related to the economic rationale described above;
2. Liberal: a focus on academic rigour and quality, connected to the academic rationale;
3. Critical: a focus on social justice, linked to the social/cultural rationale.

In their analysis, Haapakoski and Pashby pointed out that no strategy can be identified as purely one of the three conceptualisations. The motives for internationalisation are rather intersecting, and for instance a mix of academic and economic purposes is classified as a *neoliberal-liberal* approach to internationalisation. This overlap of rationales is also reflected in the IAU survey, where no dominant expected benefit of internationalisation can be singled out, and the ranking of benefits has also evolved throughout the different editions of the same survey.

The next section will apply the rationales' interpretative framework to the Netherlands. We will refer to official parliamentary reports and position papers from higher education stakeholders published in recent years in order to highlight the publicly stated motives for internationalisation. It is not looking at the actual implementation of suggested measures and guidelines, but represents how higher education actors are signalling their international engagement. In addition, we are focusing here on the most referenced internationalisation measures (English taught programmes, student mobility) and it is therefore not reflective of today's larger scope of internationalisation and related activities (e.g., internationalisation at home).

Drivers of internationalisation in the Netherlands

Most official documents from Dutch higher education stakeholders put multiple motives forward, confirming the multi-layered aspect of internationalisation motives stressed earlier. For instance, the "Make it in the Netherlands!" action plan 2013-2016 was put together by the government in collaboration with Dutch higher education actors. It starts with the following quote, aiming at academic, political, and economic benefits:

> We want to retain international students: this will boost the quality of education and academic success rates among both Dutch and international students, improve international students' academic experience, strengthen the image of Dutch higher education worldwide, and improve the labour market in the top sectors (such as science and technology) while also yielding considerable economic benefits. In short: developing stable, long-term relationships with international students will strengthen the Netherlands' knowledge economy. (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 2).

In a similar way, when in 2014 the Minister of Higher Education, Culture and Research mentioned the benefits of internationalisation, she depicted it as a process that will make all students smarter, more creative, and entrepreneurial (*academic* and *economic* rationales), which is what the market needs (*economic*) (Ministry of Education, 2014). Founding pillars of the national alumni strategy proposed by Nuffic (2018a) are trade opportunities (*economic*), knowledge exchange, innovation and education (*academic*), and public diplomacy (*political*).

Nonetheless, the economic rationale and branding dimension have been forefront themes in the Dutch approach. In 2009, the equal treatment in tuition fees for non-EEA international students with Dutch and EEA was abolished, and higher education institutions were allowed to charge full cost fees (EMN, 2012, 56-57). The joint Internationalisation Vision from Dutch universities published in 2014 showed a marketing and economically-driven positioning: "Knowledge institutions are taking up the challenge to establish the Netherlands as a global brand to ensure a place in the top five knowledge economies". This means engaging in a "war for talent" by using "unique selling points" in order "to spread the message that the Dutch system of higher education and research, in all its facets, ranks among the best in the world" (VSNU & VH, 2014). It was calculated that the country spent 5.9 million euros in 2018 on the "Study in Holland" campaign led by Nuffic (Ilieva et al., 2019).

This marketing investment further highlights the importance given to inbound mobility in the internationalisation agenda. In 2014, the Minister of Higher Education, Culture and Research referred to knowledge as a valuable and significant "export product", and a "business card" for the country (Ministry of Education, 2014). She later referred to the importance of combining industry and educational actors to reach economic goals abroad (Ministry of Education, 2016). The 2015-2025 Strategic Agenda for Higher Education includes a section on internationalisation, where the relevance of attracting and retaining international talent was reinstated, with a quantitative emphasis on their positive economic impact (Ministry of Education, 2015).

The positive impact of internationalisation on academic currency has also been put forward in public discourses. Referring back to the Haapakoski and Pashby's model, this would reflect a neoliberal-liberal orientation: "The idea of academic rigour and reputation, tied to a liberal orientation, interfaces with a marketisation rationale, a neoliberal orientation" (Haapakoski & Pashby, 2017, p. 368). Yet, it has been argued that guidelines flagged under an academic motive can cover long-term economic goals (Haapakoski & Pashby, 2017; Knight, 1999, p. 19). In the case of the Netherlands, attracting foreign students was presented as necessary to internationalise the classroom and develop intercultural competencies and a global mindset for all learners (*academic* rationale), yet one of the most prominent measures in governmental reports was a campaign aimed to encourage these students to stay in the country after graduation and fill labour market gaps (*economic*). As such it could be argued, using Haapakoski and Pashby's model, that the Netherlands tends towards a predominantly neoliberal framing of internationalisation.

This is mostly justified by the financial imperatives of a high-income, graying country like the Netherlands. Demographic trends show a decline in the future supply of graduates: the OECD estimates a 20% decrease of Dutch student intake for the next 15 years in comparison with 2018 levels, all other variables remaining the same (OECD, 2019). This downward curve impedes economic growth due to a lack of qualified workers to recruit and adds a financial burden to other sectors sustaining an ageing population such as pensions and health care. In addition, it was estimated that international students who are staying and working in the Netherlands after graduation bring 1.64 billion euros per year to the economy (Nuffic, 2018b), which in the long-term offsets the costs of incoming mobility. A study concluded that a ratio of as little as 2.5% of international students remaining in the Netherlands after their study would already be contributing positively to public finances. The actual staying rate is in reality closer to 20-25% five years after graduation (Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, 2012). This direct profit, combined with the need for a qualified workforce, explains the drive to attract, educate and keep international learners, in an increasingly competitive global environment.

Motives related to the political rationale have also been visible in the Dutch discourse on internationalisation, although less evident than in the post-war era when developing programmes were initiated with former colonies. This political dimension is, in our view, not sufficiently reflected in Haapakoski and Pashby's conceptualisation of internationalisation discourse. Official papers refer to "kennisdiplomatie" or "knowledge diplomacy", and how "higher education is an eminently valuable theme for the international relations of the Netherlands" (Ministry of Education, 2016). One of the main arguments for the launch of the Holland Alumni programme was to facilitate public diplomacy and soft power, and to support capacity development (from aid to trade; Nuffic, 2018a). Although the government decided to close the NESOs entities, it called for a closer cooperation between Dutch universities and the network of consulates and embassies in order to strengthen the Dutch presence in the global higher education scene, rather than focusing on specific countries. In addition, the government in 2014 opened the door for transnational education opportunities, including joint degrees and branch campuses, which remain underdeveloped in the Dutch higher education sector (Van Donselaar et al., 2022, p. 94). While it is presented as a way to enhance outbound mobility opportunities, it also increases the country's presence and influence abroad. This more globally envisioned and engaged orientation is a sensitive mixture of neoliberalism and social values, or what the Dutch colloquially call the tension between the koopman (salesman) and the dominee (minister). An example of the latter are higher education capacity building programmes, administered by Nuffic, which were a dominant feature of international education before the 1990s and still exist but in a more marginal form.

The mainstream use of student mobility measures in the Netherlands in order to meet economic targets, and to a lesser extent academic and political goals, appeared efficient given the rapid increase of international students in the country. Yet in the last few years universities have reached out to the government and requested regulatory tools such as a cap on international student numbers and a possibility to further increase tuition fees for non-EEA students. The intent of these series of measures is to eventually slow down the international student inflow, which comes across as a radical shift in their internationalisation approach. The universities' reasons underlying their requests are in our view founded on the less positive impacts that high international enrolment numbers have had on the quality of the sector and its services (a call for a more liberal and less neoliberal approach) and on society in general (the debate between nationalism and internationalism). The next section will elaborate on these unintended internationalisation outcomes and how they became drivers for change in the Netherlands.

Impact and risks of internationalisation

As we have seen, identifying the motives is necessary to get a better understanding of a country's internationalisation trajectory. These rationales are however based on *expected* positive outputs, eventually leading to the improvement of higher education quality and society in general. The authors of the 2015 definition deliberately kept it generic and non-prescriptive, recognising that the process of internationalisation needs to be adapted to the stakeholders' context to reach its goals. The motives will and should vary from one country or institution to another, and so will the measures implemented and their impact (de Wit, 2011; Knight, 2011; Van Gaalen, 2020).

In the higher education literature, while the theorisation and analysis of trends in internationalisation have evolved rapidly in the past decades, limited attention has been given to the downsides of internationalisation, and how certain choices can negatively impact some aspects of the higher education sector, and society at large. Knight (2011) talks about myths, and de Wit (2011) refers to misconceptions of internationalisation. Empirical studies on the damaging consequences of a higher education system's internationalisation path are scarce (Veugelers, 2020). Yet the academic community has long identified the worldwide tendency to replicate the neoliberal, revenue-generating elements of globalisation into internationalisation models, and some scholars have started warning about the risks associated with this approach (de Wit & Hunter, 2015). Where the focus is on student mobility, anglicisation and global competition for talent, limitations can be met in terms of capacity and accessibility, potentially affecting quality. In addition, Knight advised that internationalisation should "build on and respect local context", not only to be successful but also in order to avoid societal tensions:

> Internationalisation is intended to complement, harmonise and extend the local dimension, not dominate it. If this fundamental truth is not respected, there is a strong possibility of backlash and for internationalisation to be seen as a homogenising or hegemonic agent. Honouring local culture and context is a tenet of internationalisation. (Knight, 2014, p. 84).

Accordingly, internationalisation approaches should be customised and take local needs into consideration, rather than being a duplication of measures that have been dominant in other contexts. Kerr (1990) also touched upon this by underlining two *laws of motion* affecting universities. They must manage both an internationalisation imperative to ensure the relevance of their teaching, and a need to align their goals with national interests. We will see next that the Netherlands provides an example of a neoliberal approach of internationalisation resulting in unintended consequences.

Capacity, accessibility and quality concerns

On the capacity side, significant physical, financial and human resources are necessary to accommodate a growing number of learners. It became challenging for a number of Dutch institutions to keep up with staffing and infrastructure needs, and for the main student cities to provide sufficient housing options. This latter issue is escalating to the point that in July 2022 a number of universities urged international students not to come to the country unless they had secured housing (de Gruijter, 2022). The most recent annual report of the University of Amsterdam (2021) notes that the number of international students in their bachelor's programmes has increased by 160% between 2016 and 2020. A majority is coming from the EEA, which is explained by the fact that the Dutch open enrolment policy does not allow for admission requirements at the bachelor's level. In accordance with European Union regulation, EEA students are allowed in Dutch universities on the same admission basis, without number limitations, except for some specific degrees, and with similar fees. In addition, Dutch universities receive state funding based partly on the expected number of Dutch and EEA students enrolled and degrees awarded. This financial model has encouraged them to attract EEA students to save the overall public allocation when domestic student numbers are decreasing, but this public funding is not taking into account the necessary investments related to internationalisation activities. Such expenses can be counter-balanced by direct income from non-EEA students, but that will in turn increase the total number of students. Studies commissioned by the Dutch government showed that currently the growth of students equates to less average funding per capita, but they estimated that if the number of students does not stabilise, the financial pressure will eventually either impinge on other sectors such as research, or require a tax increase, or further lower the funding per student with the risk of impacting quality (Ministry of Education, 2019a).

In addition to capacity issues, accessibility concerns have arisen in some countries from the accrued competition between local and international students since universities are globally competing for the best talents. In the Netherlands, such accessibility concerns resulted from the growing number of English-taught programmes, at the expense of programmes in Dutch or in less internationally attractive study fields. This can create new educational barriers for some students, who may not be selected, or may even choose not to apply because of their level of English (Breetvelt, 2018) especially those from disadvantaged or migrant backgrounds (OECD, 2019). In addition, consumer forces have led to an increased focus on academic disciplines that are most popular among international students, such as business and engineering programmes in English, to the detriment of less internationally popular ones, such as humanities in Dutch. It has created turmoil in the recent past and reinforced the debate around English vs. Dutch-taught programmes (Agterhof, 2019).

Capacity, accessibility issues and related quality concerns have been discussed within the Dutch higher education sector in recent years, as noted in a joint VSNU/VH publication on the Internationalisation Agenda of Higher Education:

> It is becoming increasingly clear that internationalisation comes with its own challenges. Education institutes are noting that it is more and more difficult to steer the inflow of international students in an open education system and a globalising world. This has resulted in urgent issues, for example in the fields of language policy, accommodation, accessibility and inclusivity. (VSNU & VH, 2018).

In parallel to the concerns of the Dutch Higher Education sector and the Dutch government pertaining to the quality of internationalisation, in the Netherlands a growing attention can be observed of the media and populist parties on the number of international students and its societal impact.

Societal tensions fuelled by populism

The influence of neo-nationalist movements on higher education has become apparent across the world (Douglass, 2021). Globalisation and the free market have been challenged in the last years in Austria, Denmark, Hungary, Poland, and the UK, countries which have long supported and benefited from open borders. According to Rodrik (2018), there are varied forms of neo-nationalism, going from populist movements to authoritarian regimes, but it is always characterised by "an anti-establishment orientation, a claim to speak for the people against the elites, [and] opposition to liberal economics and globalisation" (Rodrik, 2018, p. 12). Higher education is considered in many European societies as an intrinsic element of the welfare state, and what was seen as a marketisation of the sector became a target of populist critics.

While higher education internationalisation was originally a country's strategic response to globalisation, it became the focus of anti-globalisation voices affected by financial inequalities and leading to societal cleavages (identity or income divides, depending on the populist variety in the country; Rodrik, 2018). Although globalisation has reduced poverty globally, more inequalities have emerged at the national level (Bensidoun & Elkouby, 2019), and the same could be argued for the internationalisation of higher education. A portion of the population appears to feel excluded from the benefits of globalisation and calls for an alternative model, and this backlash also reached the 'internationalised' higher education sector (Van Damme et al., 2018). Student mobility is one example of such inequities. Such mobility schemes are more prominent than internationalisation at home activities, and while the latter gives a chance to all students to benefit from intercultural learning opportunities, the former is reserved to a small category of students (Beelen & Jones, 2015).

The Netherlands has experienced a political move to the right since the 1990s, with the populist Party for Freedom (PVV) and more recently the Forum for Democracy (FvD) being at the forefront of the political debate. As explained by Douglass, neo-nationalist sentiments have recently been revived due to three factors: (1) the increase of inequalities emanating from open markets; (2) the pace and scope of immigration; and (3) Internet and social media fostering the rapid propagation of populist discourses (Douglass, 2021, p.vii). It is suggested that it is the case in the Netherlands, where a great number of news outlets have relayed public concerns about the growing presence of international students, not only because their costs are covered by tax-payer money in the case of EEA students, but also because they put extra pressure on university facilities and an already-stretched housing market in major student cities (van der Wende, 2021). The significant number of English-taught programmes is also a ready-to-use argument in nationalistic discourse. The fear of losing the Dutch identity and values, in addition to capacity and accessibility concerns, are arguments put forward in Dutch media and used by populist movements, putting the spotlight on the internationalisation of Dutch higher education (Altbach & de Wit, 2018).

In this populist societal context and in response to the universities' calls for more control options over student flows (the liberal factor), the Ministry of Education proposed a balanced and nuanced internationalisation strategy that may vary depending on the study field, institution and programme. It suggested a "conscious language policy", meaning that it has to be based on quality arguments and not for marketing reasons, and encouraged internationalisation activities to be more embedded in the curriculum and part of every student's classroom experience (Ministry of Education, 2018). In 2019, the government presented a new Language and Accessibility Bill, yet to be adopted by the Parliament. It aims to regulate the possibility to offer programmes in English, and open the possibility to restrict the number of students in English programmes when a Dutch alternative of the same programme is available (Ministry of Education, 2019b). In addition, the government proposed to redirect the focus from inbound to outbound mobility, with fewer scholarships offered to international students, and decided to close the NESOs in an aim to further reduce the promotion of Dutch higher education abroad.

Conclusion and observations

This paper aimed to understand the drivers for the proposed reorientation of the Dutch internationalisation approach. With its initial ambitions to respond to labour market needs by attracting, educating and retaining international talent, the country managed to exponentially increase its share of international students in a short period of time. Although justified by economic imperatives and seemingly efficient, the Dutch approach has been questioned domestically, leading to a reformulation of the existing model. This was specifically due to a combination of structural and cyclical factors. On the one hand, there was the sector's intention to ensure quality, capacity and accessibility for all, while struggling to accommodate the growing number of students. On the other hand, the rise of neo-nationalist voices exacerbated the tension and debate around unintended consequences of internationalisation.

Three observations can be drawn from this analysis, which can in turn stimulate further research in the area of higher education internationalisation. First, it tends to confirm that although it is true that one of the different approaches to internationalisation (neoliberal, liberal, critical or political) is in general dominant, the approaches are not mutually exclusive and can change over time. This was noted by Van der Wende (2001), when she spoke of a shift in the internationalisation paradigm from cooperation to competition, that did not exclude the continuation of cooperative elements. In the Dutch case the dominance of neoliberalism did go hand in hand with a liberal approach, and a struggle was visible between positive (internationalism) and negative (nationalism) political factors. The future will tell what national and geopolitical factors will influence the internationalisation direction and dominance of one of the different approaches.

Second, internationalisation does not automatically lead to the assumed positive outcomes that are largely expressed in the higher education field. More careful attention should be paid in the internationalisation literature and practice on the analysis of the diverse outputs and outcomes of internationalisation. The analysis will need to go beyond economic returns, with a greater focus on the less positive impact that internationalisation choices can have on higher education and society, and how these can be mitigated. This type of study is not only pertinent for alerting countries that are highly internationalised. This is also relevant for countries that are developing their internationalisation initiatives since they tend to mimic more established and commercially-oriented models from the global North, without necessarily evaluating the local applicability and the long-term risks (de Wit et al., 2019).

Lastly, the Dutch case articulates the tension between global aims and local relevance of higher education pointed out by Knight (2014) and Kerr (1990). A comparative study of the sectorial responses in countries with similar contexts of public concerns and high internationalisation levels would be valuable. It would allow further exploration of these global/local tensions, assess the measures taken, if any, by governments and institutions, as well as the impact of these responses on internationalisation trajectories. In the longer term, should changes be implemented in the practice of internationalisation, it would be worth observing whether the quality and capacity issues previously identified have been resolved, and if new ones have appeared.

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CHAPTER 23

Internationalisation of higher education: global trends and Japan's challenges

Hiroshi Ota

Abstract. This paper discusses the meaning of the internationalisation of higher education in Japan, based on a review of global trends. Globalisation has brought major changes to higher education, and in order to deal with them, the Japanese government has promoted internationalisation as an important policy for higher education reform with a series of competitive funding programmes. Universities in Japan have made efforts to internationalise. Despite the government's policy initiatives, the internationalisation of Japanese higher education has not been understood as a high-priority issue at the institutional level, with many examples of superficial or partial add-ons of the international aspect; it has even been criticised as unable to contribute to transformative university change. Internationalisation tends to be used as a means to prevail in the domestic competition between universities and does not necessarily result in initiatives which lead to the improvement of learning in a globalised environment. All in all, the government's competitive funding projects for internationalisation have intensified domestic competition among universities. However, it is not certain that the funds have increased the international competitiveness and compatibility of Japanese higher education as a whole.

Keywords: internationalisation; globalisation; policy initiatives; international students; study abroad.

Questo contributo analizza il significato dell'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore in Giappone, prendendo in rassegna le principali tendenze globali. La globalizzazione ha portato grandi cambiamenti nell'istruzione superiore e, per farvi fronte, il governo giapponese ha promosso l'internazionalizzazione come importante politica di riforma dell'istruzione superiore con una serie di programmi di finanziamento competitivi. Le università giapponesi hanno compiuto sforzi volti all'internazionalizzazione. Nonostante le iniziative politiche del governo, l'internazionalizzazione dell'istruzione superiore giapponese non è stata intesa come una questione di alta priorità a livello istituzionale. Vi sono infatti molti esempi di aggiunte superficiali o parziali alla dimensione internazionale e si è persino criticata l'incapacità di essa di contribuire al cambiamento trasformativo delle università. L'internazionalizzazione tende a essere utilizzata come mezzo per emergere nella competizione interna tra università e non necessariamente si traduce in iniziative che portino al miglioramento dell'apprendimento in un ambiente globalizzato. Nel complesso, i progetti di finanziamento competitivo del governo per l'internazionalizzazione hanno effettivamente intensificato la competizione interna tra le università. Tuttavia, non è chiaro se i fondi abbiano aumentato la competitività e la compatibilità internazionale dell'istruzione superiore giapponese nel suo insieme.

Keywords: internazionalizzazione; globalizzazione; iniziative politiche; studenti internazionali; study abroad.

Introduction[1]

Globalisation, which transfers people, goods and services, money, information and ideas rapidly across national borders, is having a major impact on higher education. Rapid economic development, centred on Asia, is accompanied by a rise in the global demand for post-secondary education, and in response to this, the massification and diversification of higher education are moving ahead, bringing about the marketisation and commodification of higher education together with increasing access. At the same time, the gap between the universities supporting the fringes of massified higher education and leading universities is growing ever wider. In addition, huge academic networks linking the world's universities are being set up, with international competition and cooperation in education and research taking place simultaneously. Representative examples of competition are the growing influence of world university rankings and the creation of world-class universities. Examples of cooperation include international university alliances centred on research-intensive universities, consortia for international student exchange, cutting-edge scientific and technological research carried out by global networks of researchers, and the diffusion of joint, double, and dual degree programmes. Moves to increase the international mobility of students and researchers are also becoming ever more prominent, and against a background of the emergence of English as the de facto international common language of academia and research, the number of EMI (English as a medium of instruction) courses and programmes offered by universities in non-English speaking countries (particularly in Europe and Asia) continues to grow (Rose & McKinley, 2017).

However, when it comes to the burden imposed by globalisation, wealth is increasingly polarised and poverty more prevalent, leading to terrorism and insurgency. Against a background of such problems, nationalist, anti-immigrant and xenophobic sentiment have been rising in recent years in a backlash against globalisation; moves to prioritise the interests and the prosperity of one's own nation are intensifying; and there are concerns that the internationalisation of higher education may be affected (Altbach & de Wit, 2017).

This paper discusses the meaning of the internationalisation of higher education in Japan, based on a review of global trends in this area. It goes on to examine the pol-

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icies and challenges of the internationalisation of Japanese higher education and to discuss the outlook for the future.

Global trends in internationalisation of higher education

In the mid-1990s, a process or organisational approach to internationalisation at the institutional level was introduced by Knight (1994). She defines internationalisation as the "process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution" (p. 7). This definition has been widely used to describe internationalisation. However, considering the limitations of the institutional-based definition and the generalisation of the definition, Knight (2008) proposed an updated definition, stating that "[i]nternationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education" (p. 21).

In addition, Hudzik (2015) has propounded "comprehensive internationalization," defining the concept as intentional, institutional commitment and action to infuse and integrate international, global, and comparative content and perspective throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. Beyond such basic functions of higher education institutions, he argues that the comprehensive approach is the overarching intention to integrate internationalisation into the core institutional ethos, values, and mission (Hudzik, 2015). Furthermore, he emphasises that for "comprehensive internationalization," it "is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units" (Hudzik, 2011, p. 6).

From the above definitions of internationalisation by Knight and Hudzik, it can be said that internationalisation is a multifaceted and multidimensional process integrating international, intercultural, and global content and dimensions into the functions and aims of higher education institutions and systems. Therefore, they suggest that simply putting in place add-on programmes labelled 'international', of the so-called 'island programme' type, cannot be called internationalisation in the original sense of the term. Since many of the programmes of this kind are not designed to integrate with the existing internal structures or education and research activities, they may act as a form of window dressing, raising the university's international image externally, without fundamentally changing its substance. In its original form, internationalisation is not its own purpose or goal. The goal is university reform and qualitative improvement from a global standpoint, and internationalisation is the means and the process of realising this. The emphasis is on internationalisation as an ongoing and continuing effort, with an evolutionary or developmental quality to the concept (Knight, 2008).

Recently, 'globalisation' has come to be used more frequently than 'internationalisation' in higher education; in many cases, it can be observed that in spite of the persistence of a similar orientation, internationalisation has simply been replaced by globalisation, with an eye to novelty. Examples are 'globalisation of the university', 'globalisation of students and staff', 'globalisation of the curriculum', etc. University faculties, departments, and sections are increasingly using 'global' in their names rather than 'international'. However, Knight (2008) separates the two conceptually, saying that globalisation promotes internationalisation (globalisation is a catalyst for internationalisation), while internationalisation is a reactor for globalisation. At the same time, the two are said to relate to each other as mutual agents of change. Therefore, when compared with a country such as America which spearheads and drives forward globalisation, there is a tendency towards reactive or passive internationalisation in Japan and other non-Western, non-English speaking countries. Whatever the case, internationalisation at the level of individual universities can be said to be a means and process of redefining the nature and role of one's university in a globalised world, and of reforming the university in this direction (Ota, 2011).

In the past three decades, internationalisation has shifted from the fringe or periphery of universities to become part of their core territory, and attitudes towards internationalisation have changed from reactive to proactive. At the same time, the understanding of internationalisation has moved from being one of concept and rhetoric to one of action and reality. Internationalisation initiatives, too, have changed from imitating or attempting to catch up with other universities, based on the mindset of 'doing what others do (keeping up with the Joneses)', to mission-oriented initiatives based on the characteristics of each individual university. Internally, too, there is a visible trend away from the creation of add-on and ad-hoc international programmes by each faculty or department in favour of a strategic and institution-wide approach towards internationalisation (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011; Hudzik, 2011; Ota, 2014). In relation to such trends, leading universities in many countries have come to adopt mid-to-long term strategies which bear in mind responses to globalisation and the global competition between universities. Internationalisation is then addressed as a central issue by such university strategies.

In the worlds of higher education and of scholarship, the global dominance of US higher education has been reinforced through the diffusion of American systems and practices as the global standard. For instance, the introduction of the credit-based system and of the two-cycle system of Bachelor's and Master's degrees in Europe under the Bologna Process could be called the import of the American university system

(Ota, 2014). Such trends are linked to the linguistic dominance of English under globalisation, leading to an increase in the number of international students aiming to study at universities in America and other English-speaking countries. Moreover, the policy of charging international students the full cost of academic programmes in the UK and Australia, and the application of out-of-state tuition fees by US state universities, led to an increase in university income. As a result, in universities in those countries in particular, intense competition to acquire self-funded international students arose in the name of 'internationalisation'. At the same time, higher education was positioned as a service industry, and a trade and revenue generation approach towards the recruitment of international students and an international student market became established (OECD, 2004).

Against a background of economic development, population growth, and insufficient domestic higher education provision in Asia, international student mobility was greatly massified, changing from study abroad for the elite with government support for the sake of national development, to study abroad funded by the individual (ordinary students) for the sake of self-realisation. Currently, many countries are promoting the internationalisation of higher education as a national policy. In particular, international student recruitment targets are being set, such as 350,000 students in Germany, 450,000 in Canada, and 500,000 in China, not only intensifying the worldwide competition for highly-skilled human resources ("talent war"; British Council, 2017), but also leading to the problem of a brain drain from developing countries. Accordingly, universities have made an effort to appear attractive to international students by promoting internationalisation. On the other hand, a wariness is spreading in Asia towards an overly business-oriented approach to international student recruitment by universities and their agents, and the ethics and dignity of the internationalisation of higher education are being called into question.

In non-English speaking countries, since it is difficult to generate revenue through a trade and business-oriented approach to internationalisation such as the one used in English-speaking countries, internationalisation is seen as high-cost and low-return. Additionally, not only were transparency and accountability demanded with regards to the education and research activities of universities, evaluation using key performance indicators (KPIs), a core feature of a focus on outputs, has been introduced. Thus, there are demands for outcomes to be made more visible as the evaluation of international programmes becomes widespread[2]. However, short-term evalua-

[2] For example, as the duration of study abroad shortens, where government scholarships are provided to students or subsidies are given to universities to develop programmes, the demands to clarify students' learning outcomes or the benefits of the programme become stronger.

tion of internationalisation which overemphasises quantitative outputs, e.g., the numbers of study abroad students, international students, partner institutions, and courses offered in English, overlooks qualitative outcomes and the long-term impacts of internationalisation as well as creating a situation in which internationalisation itself becomes the purpose or the goal and the achievement of numeric targets becomes the top priority. Although policies of internationalisation through quantitative expansion have been able to add a veneer of internationality or increase the outward-facing international image, it cannot be said that internationalisation initiatives are being used as a means for qualitative reform of the university as a whole. It has been pointed out that this tendency is strong in the Japanese government's policy initiatives for the internationalisation of higher education through competitive funding projects (de Gayardon et al., 2015).

In order to encourage the efficient distribution of resources for internationalisation and the appropriate analysis of results, the development of highly effective assessment methods is being called for, but this process is still underway and is encountering many problems. For example, assessments based on self-evaluation tend to become a mere formality, with the conduct of the assessment itself frequently becoming the aim. In addition, the quantitative expansion of international programmes is stretching universities to their limits, leaving no spare capacity for the collection of assessment-related data (Ota, 2014).

Globalisation of higher education increases not only the international mobility of students, researchers, teaching and administrative staff but also the mobility of education institutions and programmes such as branch campuses and offshore programmes. Moreover, while global higher education is tending to converge, regionalisation (regional integration) is occurring in Europe and Asia under internationalisation with the examples of ERASMUS+ and the Bologna Process in Europe and the ASEAN University Network (AUN) in Asia. Opinions diverge as to whether to see this as resistance to or as a stage on the way to globalisation (Kuroda, 2016).

Internationalisation of Japanese higher education

In Japan, universities have had a close relationship with internationalisation ever since the Meiji era. For Japan, a country in which higher education developed relatively late, internationalisation could justifiably be called a national strategy, and in this sense, internationalisation had the aspect of a systematic undertaking (Ota, 2012). While the roles played by foreign (Western) professors and Japanese students who were sent to study abroad by the government in the early Meiji era may have been a classic example of passive or reactive internationalisation, they were highly significant. In other words, the Westernisation and modernisation of Japanese higher education, a process oriented towards its inclusion in international society, can be understood in the same way as internationalisation (Huang, 2006). The development of higher education and the promotion of internationalisation took place simultaneously. Nevertheless, during the process of modifying the universities established on a Western (German) model in order for them to become independent, they became progressively more Japanese, creating a higher education system with the University of Tokyo at its pinnacle. The problem with this Japanese system is the low rate of mobility between universities of academics and students. Where domestic mobility was low, international mobility became even lower, acting as an impediment to internationalisation (Kaneko, 2007).

With the subsequent development of the country and its universities, the Japanese government made substantial efforts to promote international exchange programmes, such as the Japanese Government Scholarship (started in 1954) and the 100,000 International Students Plan (from 1983 to 2003). As a result of these intentional efforts to internationalise, Japan has become one of the most popular destinations for study abroad students in Asia.

In the process of the development of the internationalisation of Japan's universities, the internationalisation of the curriculum and of educational content were not treated as core issues in comparison with initiatives related to international student mobility. This is because, from the Meiji era right up through the present, Japanese universities have played the role of importing the most advanced Western knowledge, science and technology and of teaching this to students. Even without touting the internationalisation of the curriculum, teaching materials and lecture content were fundamentally based on Western models. In addition, courses dependent on individual expertise were the rule, and there were insufficient attempts to separate the curriculum from faculty and to develop it independently. As a result, there were few examples of international study programmes developed in conjunction with the curriculum, or of the increase in international students having an influence on educational content or curriculum development (Ota, 2011).

Nor were there many cases in which the university as a whole tackled internationalisation systematically. This is likely to have resulted from the high degree of academic autonomy of each faculty or department, especially within national universities. This autonomy meant that the institutionally organised activities of the university were relatively weak, particularly with regard to internationalisation, and there was little leadership for exploring comprehensive internationalisation strategies for the university as a whole. However, this tendency was to change significantly as a result of the Japanese government's policy initiatives for university internationalisation, which are described below.

Internationalising Japanese higher education: policies and challenges

Amid the remarkable rise of Asian nations such as China, South Korea, and Singapore, the relative decline of Japan's national strength and appeal is striking. Japan was the first in Asia to enter the group of developed nations, and its success in reaching number two in the world in terms of economic strength deserves to be commended, but ironically, this was connected to a weak sense of urgency in the face of the major turning-point between one era and the next represented by globalisation, and there are more and more voices pointing out the delay in responding to globalisation. Higher education is by no means an exception, and the Japanese government has pushed ahead with internationalisation as an important policy for higher education reform.

This section reviews the government's policy initiatives for the internationalisation of Japanese higher education as well as examining universities' responses to such initiatives and challenges, including unintended consequences.

(1) Internationalisation Policy

In recent years, a series of national policy initiatives have promoted internationalisation, with a particular focus on student mobility, educational partnerships, and international rankings. Key examples include the 300,000 International Students Plan, Global 30, Go Global Japan, the Inter-University Exchange Project, and the Top Global University Project, which, collectively, entail three major quantitative targets as follows (see also Table 1):

- Increase the number of international students studying in Japan from 135,000 in 2013 to 300,000 by 2020 (300,000 International Students Plan, Global 30, and Inter-University Exchange Project).
- Increase the number of Japanese students studying abroad from 60,000 in 2010 to 120,000 by 2020 (Japan Revitalisation Strategy, Go Global Japan, and Inter-University Exchange Project).
- Situate 10 Japanese institutions among the top 100 universities in world university rankings within ten years, i.e., by 2024 (Top Global University Project).

Table 1
Government's policy initiatives for interracialising Japanese higher education with numerical targets

		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
1	300,000 International Students Plan (Inbound mobility)	Inbound: 300,000 in total															
2	Japan Revitalisation Strategy (Doubling the number of study abroad students)						Outbound: 120,000 in total										
3	Global 30 (Inbound mobility)		13 universities Inbound: 10,000														
4	Inter-University Exchange Project (Two-way mobility)																
	CAMPUS Asia and ASEAN				13 programmes Outbound: 1,687; Inbound: 1,867												
	North America and EU				12 programmes Outbound: 2,484; Inbound: 1,673												
	ASEAN					14 programmes Outbound: 3,045; Inbound: 3,631											
	AIMS with ASEAN						7 programmes Outbound: 746; Inbound: 759										
	ICI-ECP (EU)						5 programmes Outbound: 69; Inbound: 61										
	Russia and India							9 programmes Outbound: 1,086; Inbound: 1,130									
	Latin America & the Caribbean, and Turkey								11 programmes Outbound: 1,159; Inbound: 1,295								
	CAMPUS Asia and ASEAN									25 programmes Outbound: 3,279; Inbound: 3,789							
	Russia and India										9 programmes Outbound: 1,157; Inbound: 1,084						
5	Go Global Japan (Outbound mobility)					Type A (University-wide): 11 univs.; Type B (Faculty-specific): 31 univs.; Outbound: 58,500											
6	Top Global University Project (Comprehensive internationalisation)							Type A (Top Type): 13 universities Type B (Global Traction Type): 24 universities									

Source: Assembled by the author based on MEXT (2017a), (2017b), (2017c).

Note 1: CAMPUS Asia stands for Collective Action for Mobility Program of University Students in Asia and is a trilateral student exchange programme run by China, Japan and Korea, as the East Asian version of the Erasmus Programme in Europe.

2: AIMS stands for ASEAN International Mobility for Students Programme and is a government supported multilateral educational programme in the ASEAN region, launched in 2010 by coordinated efforts of Malaysia-Indonesia-Thailand and the current members including Vietnam, the Philippines, Brunei, and Japan.

3: ICI-ECP (Industrialised Countries Instrument – Education Cooperation Programme) refers to EU cooperation with Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and Korea in the field of higher education and vocational education and training.

The internationalisation of Japanese universities has been driven by competitive funding projects such as those listed above. Universities which applied for these competitive funding projects were judged not only on their concepts, aims, plans, targets, and concrete programmes, but also on whether these were systematic initiatives by the university as a whole. In particular, since the Top Global University (TGU) Project, which began in 2014, was a large-scale policy initiative with the intention of promoting comprehensive internationalisation, raising the university's position in world university rankings, and responding to global standards, this point was emphasised. The TGU demanded of applicant universities the formulation of action plans covering 24 items grouped under the three main headings of internationalisation, governance, and education reform, and the establishment of 16 main numeric targets with their subordinate targets[3]. These numeric targets become key performance indicators (KPIs), with the degree of attainment of the selected universities being monitored by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) at periodic intervals. Global 30, Go Global Japan, and the Inter-University Exchange Project also involved the setting of KPIs, although comparatively fewer than those for the TGU, and the establishing of concrete numerical targets is a condition of application for candidate universities.

Why did MEXT start to build KPIs into their funding projects? The reason is that MEXT believes that these KPIs can increase transparency and fulfil accountability for a large proportion of funds allocated to a small number of universities. However, the problem is that achieving the KPIs has often become a purpose or goal in itself at the selected universities. Eventually, the administrative side tends to end up counting all the apparently relevant numbers for each numerical target so that it be-

[3] See the following website (MEXT, 2016) for details about the 16 main numerical targets. http://www.mext.go.jp/en/policy/education/highered/title02/detail02/sdetail02/1395420.htm.

comes a kind of "numbers game" of KPIs. Numerical targets should be considered as a means or a guide to achieving the vision and goals of the funding projects as well as of the university's internationalisation efforts. In reality, however, achieving numerical targets becomes the first priority. The internationalisation efforts of those universities selected for the funding projects focus on the micro-management of the numerical targets in order to cope with periodic checkups by MEXT and to continue to receive funding throughout the designated period (Shimmi & Yonezawa, 2015). Moreover, as mentioned above, competitive funding projects require applicant universities to set all the numerical targets at the application stage, which causes another problem. On one hand, some universities tend to set unreasonable numbers in the hope of being selected for a competitive funding project. On the other hand, many universities give up on applying for a funding project since it is too difficult for them to set all the numerical targets, which appear as harsh requirements due to their limited institutional capacity for internationalisation. Yoshida (2016) argues that the distribution of competitive funds based on the principle of selection and concentration is creating competition within a limited scope while denying a large number of universities the opportunity to participate and making a small number of "winners" stronger and stronger as a result. The winner institutions then often struggle to achieve the too ambitious targets which they themselves set, and their students also suffer since the numerical targets, for instance TOEFL or IELTS scores, do not take into account the reality of students' abilities. Nevertheless, universities would still like to be the winners of this competition since successful selection for a competitive funding project can be used as an effective recruitment tool in the domestic student market by arguing that they are among a few institutions selected as models of "global universities" by MEXT. Media coverage boosts this effect still further.

MEXT's competitive funding projects for internationalisation have indeed intensified domestic competition among universities. However, it is not certain that the funds have increased the international competitiveness and compatibility of Japanese higher education as a whole. Under these competitive funding projects, the internationalisation strategies and efforts of selected universities are becoming more similar due to the frameworks, goals, and targets stipulated by MEXT from the application stage. There does not appear to be much freedom for universities to devise their own, unique ways of internationalisation. Furthermore, MEXT's competitive funding projects have a structural problem. Such funding projects were originally intended to provide seed money (funds) to selected universities, using which they would work to develop programmes which would become models (good practice) and which would be disseminated to other Japanese universities. However, contrary to these intentions, there is a strong tendency for universities which obtain a subsidy to use specially appointed professors and contract staff employed only for the duration of the funding period to move ahead with internationalisation on the 'island' model. In many cases, when the provision of subsidies comes to an end, the programme also disappears. There are some cases in which new funding is obtained and the programme continues, but these are few in number. The ripple effects of new programmes set up through competitive funding projects on the university as a whole are limited, and attempts to continue such programmes within the university using the institution's own funds (internalisation) after the funding period and to make them sustainable face major difficulties. Ultimately, the promotion of internationalisation has a tendency towards over-reliance on MEXT funding, and the current situation is a far cry from autonomous university internationalisation (Ota, 2016).

In addition, the TGU programme has a fundamental problem. Raising universities' positions in the world university rankings on one hand and improving the quality of internationalisation and international education on the other are two separate matters that do not seem directly connected (Yoshida, 2016). The position in rankings is a result of the enhanced quality of education and research. Thus, enhancing the quality of education and research through internationalisation should come first. Raising the position of universities in the rankings should not be a purpose or goal in itself.

(2) Language

When it comes to the internationalisation of education, it is important to improve the quality of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) courses and programmes at the same time as increasing the number thereof. In Japan, arguments against EMI, including from those based on an ideological standpoint, remain deep-rooted even today. Nevertheless, considering the improvement of the English language abilities of students in non-English speaking countries and the spread of EMI, the provision of quality EMI courses and programmes not only increases the potential to attract a variety of international students from around the world, but also enables the students of one's own university to be sent around the world on student exchange and double or joint degree programmes (two-way student exchange between multiple countries increases). Moreover, it can contribute to the cultivation of global citizens with intercultural communication skills. The quantity and quality of EMI courses and programmes are becoming an indicator of a university's level and prestige, and have come to influence whether or not student and researcher exchange with world-class universities will take place. Put another way, the ability to conduct education and research in English has come to determine the degree to which Japanese universities can get involved with global academic networks centring on world-class universities, and the degree to which they can function as important hubs in these networks (Ota & Horiuchi, 2017).

However, internationalisation is not simply a case of conducting as many courses in English as possible. What is demanded is the duality of Japanese and English (the use of two languages), taking into consideration the academic discipline and the nature of the course, even if it entails high costs. Moreover, since English is gaining greater currency in Asia, mechanisms to use English as a gateway to increase study experiences in Asia for students and to induce them to study Asian languages are also important.

A point about Japanese language education also deserves to be made here. Even if EMI courses and programmes increase, the need for Japanese language education in no way diminishes. Rather, the number of international students hoping to learn Japanese from the beginner level grows, making the enhanced provision of education suitable for a broad range of Japanese language learners a necessity. Japanese is undergoing a shift from being an entrance requirement for studying at university to becoming part of the content learned (taught) at university (Ota, 2015). Considering the fact that there are currently only 60 active Japanese language institutes affiliated with Japanese universities and colleges (Federation of Japanese Private Colleges and Universities Associations, 2017), the government should support Japan's leading universities in taking the initiative to create Japanese language education hubs and, by providing a diverse range of Japanese language education, from short-term to long-term and from beginner to advanced level, becoming an entry point to study in Japan. In doing so, partnerships with existing private Japanese language schools should be included from the standpoints of resource sharing and greater efficiency (Kato, 2012).

(3) Study Abroad

The Japanese government is moving ahead with a policy of raising the number of Japanese studying abroad to 120,000 by 2020 under the Japan Revitalization Strategy, and is increasing the budget to expand study abroad programmes and participants, such as the Inter-University Exchange Project (support for universities), and for scholarships for study abroad (support for students). MEXT's budget for study abroad scholarships was expanded greatly from 600 million yen in 2009 to 9.2 billion yen in 2015, and stands at 8.1 billion yen in 2017 (MEXT, 2017b). Due to these policy initiatives, short-term study abroad participants during university study are rapidly increasing. The number of short-term study abroad students, which was around 36,000 in 2009, rose to more than 96,000 by 2016, more than doubling. The number of those studying abroad for less than a month, in particular, grew significantly, reaching 60,000 students, 62% of the total, in 2016 (those studying abroad for less than six months accounted for 82%). On the other hand, long-term degree-seeking study abroad numbers peaked at 83,000 students in 2004, and had fallen by 35% to 54,000 in 2015 (MEXT, 2017c). Study abroad by Japanese students is shifting from study abroad for a degree to study abroad for credits (McCrostie, 2017). MEXT's support for universities' study abroad programmes and scholarships for students has expanded the range of study abroad participants. How, however, can universities encourage students to aim for the heights of success after their first, short-term study abroad experiences? This issue becomes even more important when we consider the return on investment for study abroad. According to the policy evaluation of the promotion of global human resources development carried out by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, the perception on the corporate side is that a study abroad period of six months or more is necessary in order to develop various skills including language ability, intercultural understanding, and the ability to accept a diversity of values. The evaluation, therefore, pointed out a mismatch between the increase in study abroad by university students and corporate needs (MEXT, 2017d).

In the English-speaking world, study abroad for credits is already the norm, with much importance attached to short-term study abroad positioned as part of the university curriculum as "education abroad" and to the learning of each individual student, leading to the development of 'learning abroad', made up of diverse overseas experiences including volunteer work, service learning, and internships. Assessments of the learning outcomes of study abroad and of the impacts on students' lives and careers are also carried out as part of the process. It is essential that Japanese universities collaborate with these initiatives. As the opportunities for students to gain study abroad experiences increase, universities should consider the whole period which students spend with them from matriculation to graduation, setting out a roadmap which keeps in mind the stratification of study abroad programmes and progression routes (relating study abroad to future careers or further study) (Ota, 2016).

(4) International Students

One of the major issues surrounding internationalisation is perhaps that even now, when the target of the 100,000 International Students Plan has been reached and the number of international students at higher education institutions is over 180,000, Japanese universities have not substantially changed. Universities have perhaps been content with the ability of the many international students from Asia, in particular China, South Korea, and Taiwan, to fit in well to Japanese universities, and have not taken the initiative to reform themselves qualitatively – in other words, to undertake transformative internationalisation. China, South Korea, and Taiwan are rapidly developing their economies and higher education with the intention of converting themselves from source countries for international students to host countries. The fact that the numbers of international students from these three countries, which have a shared linguistic background based on Chinese characters, are now flat or even declining is connected to a stagnation in the number of international students at Japanese higher education institutions (a growth of 46,000 students since 2010). It is pointed out that the falling numbers of students from the above three major source countries are being compensated by an increase in study at Japanese language schools by students from Vietnam, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. However, for international students from these new source countries, acquiring the Japanese language ability needed for university study within two years (the maximum period of study at Japanese language schools laid down by the Immigration Law) is difficult; moreover, since these students have few economic resources, the number going on to study at university is not increasing. Furthermore, the rise in the number of international students aiming to find work in Japan is becoming a social issue; despite the fact that the original aim of the 300,000 International Students Plan was to secure highly-skilled human resources from overseas, the actual situation is that they are currently being utilised to make up for a shortage of unskilled workers (Osaki, 2017).

As globalisation advances, Japan's universities are required to integrate the education of the nation's citizens and international education from a global standpoint. It is necessary to raise the international applicability and compatibility not only of the content of university education, but also of systems, such as the academic calendar, and of the operational side, such as the language used for instruction (EMI). In addition, since a transition is underway from the "era of increasing international students in order to internationalize," as seen in the 100,000 International Students Plan, to an "era in which international students from around the world gather at internationalized universities," it should be realised that Japanese universities' slowness to internationalise is one of the causes of the stagnation in international student numbers at universities over the past ten years (Ota, 2016). As the transition to a knowledge-based economy and globalisation move rapidly ahead, it can be said that the recruitment of excellent international students and their retention after graduation is what determines a country's economic strength. In Japan, where the working-age population is set to decline sharply in the near future due to a low birth rate and aging society, proactively and continuously attracting high-quality human resources from overseas to sustain the society and economy is an urgent issue. Nevertheless, affected by the enhancement of support for Japanese students to study abroad, the MEXT budget to support international students has been steadily reduced, from 34.7 billion yen in 2009 to 26.3 billion yen in 2017. For this reason, projects to support international students and their host institutions, such as Subsidies for Tuition Reduction and Exemption for International Students and Assistance for International Students' Medical Expenses, have been abolished (MEXT, 2017b).

As stated in the outline of the 300,000 International Students Plan, it is necessary to create a framework in partnership between industry, government, and academia, to secure international students from abroad, develop them within Japan to become highly-skilled human resources, have them take jobs at Japanese companies, and allow them to settle in Japan (MEXT, 2008). Bold systemic reform and deregulation by the government, along with the introduction of an immigration policy, will provide the impetus to promote this policy. For universities, it is essential to create an environment in which international students study and live together with Japanese students, which will lead to the cultivation of human resources who can act as bridges connecting Japan with various foreign countries (Ota, 2016).

Implications and conclusion

This final section analyses the trend of the government's policies for the internationalisation of Japanese higher education and presents the policy implications for universities.

The internationalisation of Japanese universities developed with the promotion of hosting international students at its core, as is shown by the two major policies, the 100,000 International Students Plan and the 300,000 International Students Plan. However, from the mid- 2000s, the Japanese government has come to place greater importance on support for Japanese students studying abroad. This policy change is tied in with the lengthy economic slump and political climate in Japan. MEXT has moved rapidly to promote greater outbound mobility in order to reverse the trend of a prolonged decrease in the number of Japanese study abroad students. Vigorous promotion of outbound mobility has been carried out, backed by robust funding. Although this policy change has generally been welcomed by Japanese students, their parents, and the higher education community, it has led to a reduction in assistance for international students enrolled in Japanese higher education institutions and has been partially responsible for the recent stagnation in student inflows from overseas. The ultimate goal of those funding and scholarship programmes is to revitalise the Japanese economy. More specifically, it is for Japanese graduates to work for Japanese companies that will do business around the world, enabling these to become more successful. Powerful economic pressure favours this policy initiative. The demand for global human resources is growing, and higher education is being asked to cultivate such human resources. However, the term "global human resources" is used here to refer specifically to Japanese students, and furthermore is overly biased towards the improvement of English language ability (Yoshida, 2016). Rather, what is increasingly required is the nurturing of global citizens, both international and Japanese students, who can play active roles in global society, something which goes beyond the development of human resources who will be useful in the global economy.

Regarding the relationship between a globalising world and Japanese higher education, it has been pointed out that Japanese universities are influenced by the fact that their raison d'être was the translation of the most advanced Western scholarship, science and technology and the pursuit of ways to apply (utilise) this in Japan. In turn, the universities have always been protected by the language barrier of Japanese and have not been subjected to true global competition (Kariya, 2014). Therefore, despite many governments' initiatives, the internationalisation of Japanese higher education has not been understood as a high-priority issue at the institutional level, with many examples of superficial or partial add-ons of the international aspect, and has even been criticised as unable to contribute to transformative change at universities (Ota, 2014). The fact that internationalisation tends to be used as a means to prevail in the domestic competition between universities (inward-facing internationalisation) and does not necessarily result in initiatives which lead to the improvement of learning in a globalised environment can be adduced as a cause of these problems. One example of this phenomenon is that in recent years, the number of International Studies and Global Studies faculties have increased, but although the majority of such faculties conduct classes in English, they are not open to the world regarding international admissions, acting as EMI programmes for Japanese students (Ota & Horiuchi, 2017).

In many Asian countries, higher education is developing rapidly alongside economic growth, with the simultaneous promotion of university internationalisation. Japan imported the university model from the West in the Meiji era, building a distinct, mature higher education system at an early stage. However, this has become a factor delaying the response to globalisation. If the internationalisation currently required of Japanese higher education were to be divided into several elements, these could be stated as the incremental raising of universities' (1) international applicability and compatibility, (2) openness, (3) flexibility, (4) connectivity, (5) mobility, and (6) diversity. If (1) can be achieved, this will lead to (2), and if (2) can be achieved, it will lead to (3). In this way, moving ahead with (1) through (6) as a chain reaction will result in the advancement of internationalisation at the institutional level. Bold deregulation and broad expansion of university autonomy by the government are essential in order to facilitate this chain reaction model of internationalisation.

Internationalisation plays the role of a catalyst, prompting universities to reform themselves in order to be able to respond to the demands of the global knowledge society. This means that the coming era will see intense questioning of higher education and of the quality of its internationalisation, and that the true value of Japanese higher education will be interrogated from a global standpoint.

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PART VI

PERSONAL REFLECTIONS ON THE CHEI PHD EXPERIENCE

My PhD journey

RAVICHANDRAN AMMIGAN

The 2012 NAFSA conference was in full swing in Houston, Texas, and there I was at a networking reception hosted by one of our Italian partner institutions, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore. Little did I know that the connections I made that evening would lead to life changing experiences in my academic and professional career. Soon after I met with the CHEI Programme Director and faculty members about the programme, I had made up my mind to attend a research seminar in Milan, Italy the following year. I was blown away by the wealth of knowledge among the CHEI faculty and the network of scholars and the platform for future research which the Centre would provide to me as an aspiring doctoral student. This was exactly the academic programme that I was looking for, combining research and professional practice in higher education internationalisation within a focused, global learning community. The research seminars did not disappoint, and my subsequent three years in the PhD programme were even more invigorating and intellectually stimulating. CHEI enabled me to grow as a doctoral student, researcher, and international educator, despite having over 15 years of experience in the field at the time I began my PhD. I remember the programme getting particularly rigorous, more demanding, and constructively competitive as I progressed through the degree. But along with that came the unwavering support and invaluable guidance from my academic advisors, and greater access and feedback from the Centre's scientific committee, faculty, staff, and students. Above all, I had made lifelong friends, with whom I am still in regular touch and continue to learn from, almost five years after my graduation. Being part of the CHEI community, even as a non-traditional, part-time international student, propelled me to become a better scholar in the field and it continues to positively impact my professional career as a higher education administrator. Congratulations to all at CHEI on your 10-year anniversary, and thank you again for the inspirational, compassionate, and transformational experiences you empower your students with!

Balancing the roles of action researcher and facilitator of professional development

JOS BEELEN

The PhD trajectory at CHEI has given me the opportunity to take a step back from professional practice and to look at my experiences and practices in the field through a theoretical lens.

From a methodological perspective, it has given me the chance to develop different approaches to action research, balancing the roles of researcher and facilitator. The research trajectory at CHEI also led to meeting other PhD students in the field of international education and benchmark research topics and methodologies. The research seminars at CHEI provided good opportunities for this and discussions with fellow researchers and supervisors were always intensive and rewarding. This was true for discussions with my own supervisors, Hans de Wit and Betty Leask, but other research supervisors contributed their input and perspectives.

The CHEI PhD trajectory prepared me well for my own current role as supervisor of research within my own university, but also at the University of Groningen and other universities in my network.

It is vitally important to be a member of a research community, since that gives you the support that you really need as a PhD student. The diversity of the researchers, coming from all over the world, adds to the truly international atmosphere of CHEI. Another element of the attraction of CHEI is the wide variety of topics from the field of internationalisation that are being researched. This leads to perspectives from the wide world of international higher education that you would otherwise not get.

The research seminars were always highlights of the year because they provided the setting for immersion in research for several days at a time. The welcoming environment of Cattolica formed the perfect setting for this. I was one of the first PhD students at CHEI and initially, the research seminars were on a small scale. They have now grown into much larger events which is a big achievement and will lead to more research, which the changing world of international higher education really needs.

My PhD journey at CHEI

Marina Casals Sala

Before embarking on a PhD journey, I had heard that it was a tough journey, a personal journey, a lonely journey, a journey that would seem daunting and even impossible many times. I heard that completing this journey would require a lot of stamina, resilience, long hours of reading and longer hours of writing. This is what I had heard.

Then I embarked on my PhD journey at CHEI and it is indeed a tough and personal journey, but not a lonely one. I have met wonderful mentors, researchers, academics and peers, who I am lucky to call friends. I will not lie: it does seem daunting many times, and yet you know that you are not alone, that the support that you get is real, true and kind. You know that you are learning from the best and alongside the best. It certainly requires resilience, long hours of reading and longer hours of writing, not to mention the many compromises in both family and personal life. I have found myself fighting the many shades and sizes of impostor syndromes of all sorts and resisting the recurring temptation to find the exit door and not look back. To me, this journey is not only or mostly about growing as a researcher or academic, but about growing as a person, and being able to do this as part of the CHEI community is truly precious.

A diverse, welcoming and supportive CHEI community

Marine Condette

This book intends to celebrate the ten-year anniversary of CHEI and to put the spotlight on work from CHEI students, alumni and faculty. Beyond the research piece, they are expected to contribute to the book by showing the significance of CHEI on their professional development. Although I have decided to pursue my doctoral journey at another institution, CHEI and its community have had a profound impact on me when I followed the research training seminar in September 2021. It gave me a concrete sense of what the doctoral world is like and connected me with students and academics, with whom I have had many fruitful and stimulating conversations, inside and outside the classroom. I remember very well how diverse, welcoming and supportive all participants were, irrespective of their stage in the programme. They were also intellectually curious about each other's topic of interest for the doctoral thesis, which is a real plus in a study programme where one can easily feel *alone* in the process. My short CHEI experience convinced me that pursuing a doctoral programme in higher education was the right path, and helped me refine my research interests. For that I will always be grateful to the Centre. The fact that I am still in touch with some of the students and professors I met during the training week shows the strong community feeling and dedication to the field created and fostered by CHEI. Past founders and current staff and board members can be commended for developing a solid and unique programme, but even more for building such a community – this cannot be done overnight! For all these reasons, it is a real honour to contribute to this publication, and to write an article together with Professor Hans de Wit, one of the CHEI founding scholars, and the first director of the Centre.

Is there a proper age for a unique doctoral programme?

Francesco Girotti

I came across CHEI many years ago, when I heard Hans de Wit speaking about the new doctoral programme at the EAIE. I approached him with some questions to better understand the profile of the participants in the programme. Probably I just wanted to confirm to myself that I was too old for a doctorate.

And that was exactly what I retained from that meeting. If I think back to that meeting now, after maybe eight or nine years, I realise that I was actually too young for this unique programme.

Life took its direction. The doctorate also grew up, and the CHEI academic community enlarged.

I came across the CHEI doctoral programme again in spring 2021 when I was looking for a space where I could channel my need to contextualise the transformation I was observing in my job.

It was pandemic/lockdown time, my first Brescia spring seminar was online but this did not prevent me from understanding how rich the CHEI academic and students' community is. And how different (innovative) the CHEI doctorate is, if compared to the regular Italian "dottorato".

Quality management, rethinking the format all the time to improve it, innovating the pedagogies, challenging the learners, being supportive, providing opportunities to spread students' research, developing methodological skills, keeping students informed about recent developments on the field. These are the elements that make this doctorate programme unique.

Am I old enough now for this programme? They think so...

I am now a first-year student, just starting the programme, old enough for the doctorate but still young in this community, surrounded by those names that I read in papers and books. And those names are now faces, and those texts are now voices. Voices of people isolating themselves from their busy jobs to make my research experience possible, to make the knowledge on internationalisation of higher education grow. And my voice, the voice of a recent member, is given the same value as anyone else's.

Thank you CHEI!

Community, community, community

JEANINE GREGERSEN-HERMANS

It was autumn 2012 and early days for CHEI when I first attended its research seminar. Looking back, I remember the exhilaration and the sense of freedom when I walked up Via Carducci and entered the university. Yes, I was going to be a student again and finish my PhD. I remember the nervousness walking up the stairs and entering the small lecture room, meeting the other PhD students and the staff. I remember my confusion from the one-to-one feedback sessions, the rethinking of the focus of my research. Most of all, I remember the sense of friendship and learning from the other students, the chats during coffee and the dinners. Since that time, CHEI has really evolved into a research community of practice. Returning as a PhD mentor and supervisor in 2021, it was a joy to find the same sense of friendship and community again.

However, CHEI had grown into an amazing hub of PhD students and researchers on higher education internationalisation from all around the world. It is the excellence and friendship they all bring to the Centre that brings back the same sense of exhilaration and freedom, when I took my first steps along Via Carducci. Congratulations to CHEI and all that are part of it with the ten year anniversary.

A personal and academic journey

Jennifer A. Malerich

The students and scholars at CHEI are a vibrant and diverse community. My time at CHEI allowed me to further develop my sense of self as an academic and a researcher in a supportive, yet challenging, group dynamic. The research seminars were a special time, where I had the opportunity to set aside other roles and identities such as employee, parent, and spouse, and lean in to my research and reflect critically about what I was learning. Not only did I develop friendships and relationships that I am confident will extend past my time as a PhD student, I now feel more confident in my skills and abilities, and more secure about my voice at the table in my professional roles. My recommendation to those considering a doctoral programme such as this one is to remember that the product at the end of the process isn't the dissertation, it is the new version of you that has developed through it all.

Studying at CHEI – professional and scholarly growth among a thriving community of experts

Amit Marantz-Gal

I started studying at CHEI during an exciting period when internationalisation in higher education was becoming more central in the strategic approach of academic institutions across Israel. I felt that this would be an incredible opportunity for me to develop in the field and position myself as an expert. Studying at CHEI was an extremely meaningful and transformative experience on many levels.

On a personal level, the opportunity to take my practical experience and look at it from a research perspective contributed to an accelerated development of my professional growth, and today I feel that I can make a bigger impact with the expert knowledge I have accumulated and produced during my time at CHEI, and which I keep developing.

From an academic perspective, the programme is well structured, with clear guidelines and milestones for the research project. Moreover, throughout the research process I was continuously directed and supported by my advisors, Prof. Betty

Leask and Dr. Fiona Hunter, who provided me with ongoing supervision, feedback and tons of encouragement.

Finally, from a community perspective, studying at CHEI means becoming part of a network of top practitioners in the field of internationalisation, who are always happy to share their experiences and knowledge from different national, geographical, and institutional contexts. It also gives students unmediated access to key scholars who are affiliated with the programme and are always willing to support the students and share their expertise. In many senses, CHEI is all about the people engaged with it – once you start, you never really leave, because the community is always active, lively and welcoming.

Learning and growing in an international community

ALBERT NIJBOER

As a starting PhD student I have learned and developed in so many ways: from writing and analytical competences to presentation skills, but also content-wise. At the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) academic staff and fellow PhD students have experience in and knowledge of a diverging range of topics within the field, from "micro" (e.g., critical incidents in the intercultural classroom) to "macro" (e.g., the international mapping of national internationalisation strategies). We learn from each other at the CHEI research seminars as well as in the online sessions, and being part of this learning community and network is enriching and beneficial for all of us involved.

I would like to highlight however one specific experience I have had during my first year as a PhD student at CHEI. Encouraged by CHEI's academic team, a fellow PhD student and I decided to work together on a joint research paper, which is now included as a chapter in this book. Working together on our first contribution to an academic publication has been an exceptional opportunity for both of us, not only to learn how to write a publishable paper, but to complement each other and to exchange and add knowledge and perspectives. Discussing each other's ideas and perceptions led to new insights. Working together with a peer with a different professional and cultural background and experience, different knowledge and perspective(s) has helped me to sharpen my mind and to learn on our shared research topic. CHEI stimulates this co-publishing, training its PhD students in one of the core activities of the scholarly endeavour.

As a policy advisor for internationalisation and research at a small higher education institution, being part of an international learning and expert community helps me to continuously learn about the state of the art in the field as well as new topics, trends and developments from academics and peers, who enjoy reflecting on their own professional practice. I'm convinced that this will help me to improve my role as a policy advisor for the benefit of my institution.

My journey to CHEI, my journey into research life

Adriana Perez-Encinas

The visits to Milan, to CHEI at Università Cattolica were well prepared and came after a year's expectation. I remember preparing my luggage with care, packing the motivation, the ideas, the insecurity (as well), together with lots of enthusiasm and passion for internationalisation of higher education.

After my first contact with Prof. Hans de Wit, I felt excited to learn about a new doctoral programme that was being established in Cattolica. Once I arrived there, for the first seminar, I remember the nervousness of getting into the building and going up to the small room. However, this feeling lasted only for a short time, as soon after I felt that I was in the "place to be" and I felt the warmth from the people, staff and prospective students. Due to personal circumstances, I was not enrolled at CHEI as a doctoral student. However, Prof. De Wit was my thesis supervisor and guided me all the way along to achieve the PhD and beyond. Thanks to the relation between UAM and CHEI, I could be a visiting scholar at Cattolica for some months, where I studied and conducted research at the institutional level.

Digging into research for the first time is not easy. There is a lack of knowledge that needs to be acquired with seminars, readings, and training but also, in most cases, there is a lack of focus on the main research idea and the gap to be identified. Normally, the idea is too broad or too unrealistic to be achieved, due to constraints like time, access, knowledge, finances, amongst others. I still remember the seminars, where we received valuable feedback and inspirational talks. I clearly remember Prof. Fiona Hunter telling me to narrow down the scope of my research idea and helping me find the way to the key part of it. Also, the individual talks with Prof. Elspeth Jones, where she shared all her knowledge on internationalisation of higher education and international student experience. This was an eye-opener for me as well.

From all this, I keep very good memories, and not only from everything that I learned but also for the friendships that flourished during all this time. I would say that we naturally created a cohort of doctoral prospective students, a support group, a group of friends that still chats and connects nowadays everywhere we meet in the world.

Just to finalise, I would like to say a big thanks to CHEI and all the people working behind it. Being part of CHEI was one of my first steps into research and marked the academic journey for me as a professional in academia.

From a kaleidoscopic jumble to clarity and focus

DOLLY PREDOVIC

For many years, I have been helping students both with their internship choices and the transition into the world of work. I have always observed a significant change in the determination and focus of the students after an internship experience and a shift in their way of thinking about their future life and career paths following an international experience. It is from these observations that I started cultivating my research interest in this field.

To better understand the reasons behind these changes, I read more on the topic and talked with students, career centre professionals, and employers, but as a result, my thoughts were even more confused. I needed to dig deeper into these topics and start some real research.

I walked into my first CHEI PhD seminar in Brescia. I was met there by Dr. Fiona Hunter, who welcomed me with a smile. During the first few hours of the seminar, I met faculty members, PhD candidates, and many other researchers who shared a strong interest in the same topics I had been wondering about for years. I immediately felt a strong desire to be part of this research community, but I never could have imagined that during this journey I would have learned so much and enjoyed it so much.

Among the many things I have learned in CHEI, two are, for me, the most significant and unexpected ones.

The first big lesson I learned was about data collection. I wanted to measure employability in students with a domestic and international internship before and after the experience. But more than one year into my research, the data I collected on the employability measures after the internship were too scarce to make a before vs after comparison. With the support and direction of my supervisors, I learned how to best use the data I already had and still find an answer to the research question, even if the direct comparison of the employability levels before and after was no longer possible.

My background is in finance and my idea of research has always been post-positivist. I felt that to have some significant findings; I had to use numbers and investigate the relationship between an independent and dependent variable. Learning about all the different research that was going on in CHEI, both from my peer researchers and faculty, I discovered that some of the most relevant papers for my research with the most significant findings are qualitative research papers. Social sciences are about human behaviour and trying to capture with numbers the multifaceted dimensions of human behaviour can be risky. I still carry with me my old self (a woman from finance) and feel uncomfortable if I do not use numbers to prove things. I now look forward to a new stage in my research at CHEI still trying to decide if it's going to be qualitative or quantitative.

Pursuing a PhD at CHEI – a life-changing experience

Maria-Elvira Prieto

My interest in the internationalisation of higher education started several years ago when I had the opportunity to work at a Colombian university in some activities we had developed with partner institutions. In that period, I understood the relevance of all the actions embedded in this field of expertise. I genuinely believe that it is only through education that it will be possible to promote an enriching interaction between different cultures and ethnicities, aiming to reach an equitable and just society.

Since then, I have wanted to learn more about the multiple facets of this knowledge area. Hence, developing my skills in the field became a priority to improve my career and professional development. In parallel, I heard about the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) as one of the few research centres in the world focusing on this area. Besides, CHEI is also part of the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, a globally recognised institution. Consequently, being part of CHEI and having a doctorate from this University became an important goal in my life.

One of the most inspiring aspects of CHEI is that the Founding Scholars – who are also the first academics and promoters of this field – have been part of the Academic Board, together with worldwide renowned professors and practitioners. This gives CHEI a unique feature: It is possible to learn and receive suggestions from those experts who created and promoted the internationalisation of higher education around the globe. The gain is not only the privilege of having such a prestigious Academic Board, but above all, their constant availability to guide the students, encourage them during their studies, support them in difficult situations, and share their expertise – all in a peer-to-peer relationship and a safe and inclusive environment. Another distinctive component that makes CHEI an exceptional setting is the chance to learn from colleagues on various research topics, from studying abroad to the internationalisation of administrators, from partnerships to inclusiveness, and many others.

To conclude, I am genuinely honoured to be part of the CHEI community and extremely grateful to all its members: Director, Academic Board, professors, and administrative staff. I consider my experience at CHEI an extraordinary human and professional experience. I highly recommend it as a choice for those who want to pursue their doctoral studies in this field because it is possible to obtain a degree with outstanding academic rigour but with the needed support and in an enjoyable manner. I will never be able to thank you enough my supervisors: Prof. Fiona Hunter, for her remarkable intuition and guidance in helping me fine-tune the subject matter of my research and for making me passionate about a topic which deeply touches my personal and professional experience; Prof. Christof van Mol for his extraordinary patience in sharing his expertise with me, which gave me the needed knowledge to move forward. I could not have done anything without them.

Much more than a personal journey

Jérôme Rickmann

The first time I heard about CHEI was in London 2015 during an internationalisation conference. A loud snore cut through a momentary silence in the lecture hall, followed by a couple of strong short snorts. Undoubtedly, the guy in front of my colleague Adriana and me was sleeping through the presentations. We had a hard time suppressing our laughter having been quite sleep-deprived ourselves. Drying her eyes, Adri turned to me: "Jérôme – have you heard about the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation? Hans de Wit..." In 2017, I applied for admission to CHEI's doctoral programme and got admitted. The rest is history.

Fast forward four years. "The Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation at UCSC Milan and its doctoral programme have been an inspiring and supportive study environment. There is a sense of community, which exemplifies the very best of the international higher education sector." That's how I summarised four amazing years in the acknowledgement section of my doctoral dissertation. And I meant every word.

There are a few points which really stood out for me:

1. Not only the expertise of my supervisors but the amount of time they were willing to invest in my project and me was incredible. I am very independent in my work but having regular check-ins and discussion opportunities has been invaluable support.
2. The "programme culture": most PhD-students are already pretty advanced in their career. We were not competing with each other, but it is a supportive community of peers and incredible place to make friends and expand your professional network.
3. The structure of the programme, meaning foremost the mix of onsite/offsite tuition and supervision, was perfect. It was extremely flexible, allowing me to keep working and essentially move countries twice during my PhD-period. While at the same time the onsite periods in Italy were so intense but community-spirited, that one never felt alone or without peer-support. Even when COVID-19 hit, the community remained.

The impact of this programme on my life has been significant. The reputation of CHEI is strong internationally, which has made moving countries but remaining competitive in the labour market rather easy. The expertise I acquired during the PhD has helped me successfully win and execute a number of consultancy projects.

The network has been there for me, whenever I needed professional advice or to expand my expertise.

This journey has been full of inspiration, often humbling, but also, or maybe better because of it, strengthening my academic and professional self-confidence. In short, the time at CHEI has been an incredible personal growth experience.

Taking the PhD plunge

VISNJA SCHAMPERS-CAR

For many years, I had a strong desire to write a PhD and to look for more depth than my teaching job at the university could offer. By a twist of fate, some articles led me to the theme of internationalisation of higher education and the work of scholars aligned with the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI).

I can still pinpoint the exact moment when my PhD story started, on March 8, 2014, when I wrote an email to Professor Dr. Hans de Wit, then Director of CHEI, to discuss with him the possibility to engage with the academic field of higher education internationalisation. Following his advice, I visited the spring seminar of CHEI where I had an opportunity to learn about the topic of the relationship between the Catholic identity and internationalisation in Catholic institutions of higher education. It is then that I also met my future PhD supervisor, Dr. Fiona Hunter.

My PhD journey represents a unique case when all stars align because the topic and the timing of my dissertation came together precisely when the preparations for a research project entitled *Catholic Universities; Identity and Internationalisation*, initiated by the Center for International Higher Education (CIHE) of Boston College, led by Dr. de Wit, were already in the making. This resulted in a unique model of integration of a doctoral dissertation with the community of practice, which is not easily repeated.

Looking back now, the opportunity to publish my doctoral research was one of the most fortunate things, a great opportunity you do not get every day and one of the important directional changes that helped me to develop my 'voice', shape my own style and become a more competent and confident researcher and scholarly writer.

Although my PhD journey officially ended when I acquired my PhD title in 2018, I still continue my collaboration with CHEI where as an alumna I can further advance my academic skills.

Navigating a global pandemic and honouring intersecting identities – PhD journey reflections

Malaika Marable Serrano

When I reflect on my research journey, I feel a sense of gratitude for the experience. The first research seminar I attended was in the fall of 2018. I was excited, confused, nervous, and overwhelmed, yet deeply inspired and energised by the CHEI community. Even though I did not have a solid research topic at the time, I was determined to move forward and wanted to make an impact.

Throughout my journey, I encountered a number of joys and challenges. Caring for two school-aged children, a demanding job, cross-country move, and a global pandemic – while pursuing a PhD – was no easy task. I had to get comfortable asking for help.

When I submitted my human subject ethics review proposal in March 2020, the global pandemic had descended upon us, and our lives were completely upended. Just as I was experiencing all of this as a working professional and graduate student, so too, were my participants.

The dual pandemics of COVID-19 and social injustice laid bare serious inequities in our society. During the data collection process, I learned a great deal about my subjects and myself. I realised the critical importance of creating psychologically safe spaces for participants to recount painful memories and reflect on the impact of the pandemic. I also recognised how my intersecting identities as an African American woman, diversity, equity, and inclusion professional, and study abroad alum, influenced and shaped my project.

In spite of the obstacles, there have been many positive outcomes. The genuine support that I received from my thesis supervisors, Prof. Elspeth Jones and Prof. Ly Tran fuelled me, even during challenging times. The CHEI community has become a vibrant academic home and Sunday writing sessions with Dawn and Marina will forever be a highlight.

None of this would have been possible without the love and support of my family – my children, siblings, and most of all, my mother.

Including all identities: democratising intercultural experience

Dawn Wood

Reflecting on my CHEI experience and research, I recognise that I was in a very different place four years ago when I first started my CHEI journey. My experience as a doctoral student at CHEI has been an enormous professional growth opportunity as a full-time practitioner in the field of international education and as a human being. Growing up on a farm in Iowa, I know what it means to identify as rural, as low income, and as a first-generation college student. I relate to being regarded as deficit due to these identities that I value and cherish. In a parallel way, working in internationalisation at an Iowa community college, I also know what it means to be regarded as 'lesser than' by elite institutions who often assume that community colleges are not engaged and/or unworthy to be engaged in internationalisation of higher education. This labelling of deficit drove my desire to tell the story and unseat the myths surrounding those identities. It gave me purpose in my research more than I might have imagined at the outset. Through the pandemic and the many Zoom interviews with students while isolating in my home office secluded from my usual travel and outside world, I found great meaning from interviewing and hearing student stories of interculturality. The research affirmed for me that global learning and intercultural experiences are vitally important in our world, no matter what the adversity, and not just for some people but for all people, regardless of identity, background or educational affiliation. With optimism, I hope that my research will embolden other community college practitioners, administrators, leaders and educators to publish more data about internationalisation's impact on people of all identities. The community college sector in higher education internationalisation may indeed be the most imperative sector toward our mission to democratise intercultural opportunities and achieve global understanding for all.

ANNEX

PhD dissertations supervised at the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore

Completed

2016 Gabriele Weber-Bosley

Towards a sustainable pedagogy: development of intercultural competence in the context of institutional commitment to internationalisation and the preparation of students for global citizenship

2016 Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans

The impact of an international university environment on students' intercultural competence development

2017 Jos Beelen

Obstacles and enablers to internationalising learning outcomes in Dutch Universities of Applied Sciences

2018 Felix Wang

Moderators and mediators of global identity development: implications from the EI model and BEVI method

2018 Ravichandran Ammigan

The international student experience: a comparative study of student satisfaction across institutions of higher education in Australia, the UK, and the US

2018 Visnja Schampers-Car

Catholic universities: identity and internationalisation. exploring the links in four Catholic universities in Europe

2019 Amit Marantz-Gal

Internationalising the curriculum in an Israeli college: responses, motivations, interpretations and enactment across three academic disciplines

2019 Ann Hubbard

Study abroad and employability: assessing a reflection session for students to articulate their transferable skills

2021 Dolly Predovic

International internships: a digital game-based assessment approach to measuring the transformation of employability skills into behaviors

2021 Jérôme Rickmann

Market smart, not market driven: organizational processing at Swedish universities after the introduction of tuition fees for international Non-EU-students

2022 Liudmila Pliner

A study on the impact of the Russian Excellence Initiative Project 5-100 on internationalisation of Ural Federal University and three of its academic units: rationales, strategies and services

2022 Jennifer Malerich

The impact of short-term study abroad on online learners

Current students (in alphabetical order)

Marva Antoine

Rekindling the flame: developing students' glonacal agency by connecting service learning and the internationalisation of higher education in Mexico

John Binkley

Exploring critical incidents during intercultural learning: internationalisation at home, identity and collaborative engagement

Cara Bonnington

Massification of student mobility: a vehicle for values-driven institutional change

Marta Busquets Calopa

Assessment of international capacity building projects in higher education: value and effectiveness for direct stakeholders

Marina Casals Sala

The internationalisation of administrative staff at home: Professional development and organisational change

Grace Cleary

Hybrid Global Experiences and Their Impact on Global Learning: An Exploration into Global Education Programmes that Link Virtual Exchange and Study Abroad

Fabio Coelho

Internationalisation and positioning of higher education in Indonesia

Francesco Girotti

The potential of the European Universities Initiative in transforming internationalisation policies, structures and practices of European Higher Education Institutions

Agata Mannino

Comprehensive internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions through stakeholder engagement: communication as a possible key for success

Albert Nijboer

The strategic and transformational potential of international institutional networks: a collective case study of European Universities Initiative Alliances

Elena Ovchinnikova

Linguistic proximity and foreign language skills as drivers of international student mobility

Maria-Elvira Prieto

Administrative and academic staff collaboration in the internationalisation of Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Degrees

Malaika Serrano

Education abroad for all: moving beyond deficit narratives and amplifying the voices of historically marginalised students

Antonio Vanni

Social and academic integration of international students. exploring Erasmus Mundus Joint Masters students experiences

Lucie Weissova

Professional development for internationalising the curriculum at home at higher education in Sweden: what, why and how?

Dawn Wood

Exploring interculturality in low-income, first-generation, technical, and rural (LIFTR) populations: lessons learned from U.S. community college students

Questa pubblicazione è stata stampata e confezionata
nel mese di maggio 2023
con materiali e tecnologie ecocompatibili
presso la Litografia Solari
a Peschiera Borromeo (MI)

This book celebrates the first 10 years of the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Milan Italy. CHEI has attracted students and scholars from around the world and continues to build a supportive community of learners who are able to advance knowledge and improve practice in an ever-growing range of topics on internationalisation of higher education.

Studying at CHEI means becoming part of a network of top practitioners in the field of internationalisation, who are always happy to share their experiences and knowledge from different national, geographical, and institutional contexts.
Amit Marantz-Gal, CHEI alumna

Being part of the CHEI community, even as a non-traditional, part-time international student, propelled me to become a better scholar in the field and it continues to positively impact my professional career as a higher education administrator.
Ravichandran Ammigan, CHEI alumnus

Not only did I develop friendships and relationships that I am confident will extend past my time as a PhD student, I now feel more confident in my skills and abilities, and more secure about my voice at the table in my professional roles.
Jennifer Malerich, CHEI alumna

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web: www.educatt.it/libri

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