CIHE Perspectives No. 21

Innovative and Inclusive Internationalization:

Proceedings of the 2022 WES–CIHE Summer Institute Boston College

Rebecca Schendel and Marisa Lally
Editors

WES WORLD EDUCATION SERVICES

BOSTON COLLEGE
Lynch School of Education and Human Development
CENTER FOR INTERNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

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CIHE Perspectives

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FOREWORD

It is our great pleasure to present our annual **Proceedings of the WES-CIHE Summer Institute on Innovative and Inclusive Internationalization**, a joint initiative of World Education Services (WES) and the Center for International Higher Education (CIHE) at Boston College. Now in its fifth year, the WES-CIHE Summer Institute continues to play a crucial role in the field of international education, offering a welcoming and supportive space for graduate students and other early-career researchers to share their work and receive constructive feedback from experts. Due to the ongoing impact of COVID-19 on international travel, the 2022 Summer Institute was fully virtual. As a result, we welcomed a truly diverse group of participants, representing more than 15 countries, all (inhabited!) continents, and a broad range of thematic, methodological, disciplinary and theoretical perspectives. Their collective contributions helped us to understand some of the key challenges and tensions affecting internationalization efforts around the world and also gave us insight into the kinds of questions that the next generation of international higher education scholars will grapple with in the years to come.

There are many people to thank for their invaluable contributions to the success of the Summer Institute. CIHE would like to thank WES for its ongoing financial support for the event and for making this annual publication possible. CIHE and WES would collectively like to thank the doctoral student members of the 2022 Summer Institute planning committee (Tessa DeLaquil, Maia Gelashvili, Marisa Lally, Asuka Ichikawa and Adam Agostinelli) for their invaluable insights, hard work and energy in both planning and running the Insitute. We would also like to thank Marisa Lally for her editing support for this publication, Taryn Aldrich for outstanding copyediting, and Salina Kopellas, Staff Assistant at CIHE, for the layout and design.

We look forward to the next WES-CIHE Summer Institute. The June 2023 event will be offered in a hybrid format. Whether our participants join online or in-person, we know that the Institute will continue to offer a crucial space for the next generation of scholars in our field to meet one another and share their insights with us all.

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New Conceptual Understandings of Inclusive Internationalization

A New Conceptual Framework for Internationalization of Higher Education: Recognizing Stakeholders' Agency

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Knight (2012) provided a conceptual framework organizing issues and activities within the internationalization of higher education. This framework is guided by Knight's (2003) widely accepted definition of internationalization (Hunter & Sparnon, 2018; Mak & Kennedy, 2012). De Wit and Hunter (2015) later proposed a new definition that, coupled with the COVID-19 pandemic and a potential shift to untested internationalization strategies (Mitchell, 2020; Robson et al., 2018), calls for a rethinking of internationalization. This paper presents a new conceptual framework that amends Knight's (2012) work.

A New Internationalization Framework

While researchers have discussed the new definition and understanding of how internationalization can improve local and global societies (Leask & de Gayardon, 2021), the proposed framework strives to capture the agency of stakeholders who determine whether internationalization efforts "make a meaningful contribution to society" (de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 3). *Agency* is used here to mean "the ability of people individually and collectively to take action" (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002, p. 289). Focusing on stakeholders' agency obliges researchers, practitioners, and policymakers to consider the actors involved in internationalization, their perspectives and motivations for supporting internationalization efforts, and what they might deem meaningful outcomes. Thus, this framework also calls for internationalization efforts to become more inclusive.

The proposed framework contains the following amendments to Knight's (2012) version. First, I propose using "perceptions of globalization" instead of "globalization." Knight (2003) noted that globalization is a "contentious topic" (p. 3), but using the rather general term "globalization" reinforces the misconception that a common, assumed understanding of the concept exists. By contrast, "perceptions of globalization" covers diverse perspectives on globalization (Al-Rodhan & Stoudmann, 2006), including those that do not frame globalization as a new or unique phenomenon (e.g., Cooper, 2001; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002; Teichler, 2012). "Perceptions of globalization" also recognizes the many stakeholders of internationalization and how their perceptions can reflect and shape the world (Madge et al., 2015). Finally, it suggests globalization is not a faceless force: stakeholders are actively involved in internationalization and, consequently, globalization.

The second amendment proposes using "rationales for internationalization" instead of "internationalization," acknowledging the many motives espoused by stakeholders who steer internationalization efforts (Chankseliani, 2018; de Wit, 2002). "Rationales" allude to stakeholders' agency to decide their desired outcomes and how these parties might assess whether those outcomes have been achieved. Also, because perceptions of globalization are often associated with change (Beerkens, 2003), this amendment implies rationales may shift over time (Helms et al., 2015). Indeed, economic motives have come to dominate internationalization strategies (de Wit, 2020; Hunter & Sparnon, 2018).

The third modification proposes a more neutral term ("response") to describe the relationship between "perceptions of globalization" and "rationales for internationalization." Knight's (2012) use of "catalyst," "reactor," and "agent" is not inappropriate, but these terms predetermine the nature of the relationship, which could be considered more complex given the new framework's inclusion of stakeholders' numerous perceptions and rationales. Perceptions and rationales inform one another and underscore the complexity and non-linearity of internationalization (Helms et al., 2017).

The fourth amendment is to replace the "internationalization at home" (IaH) and "crossborder education" pillars with an internationalization continuum anchored by "at home" and "crossborder." I assert that a continuum is more appropriate because IaH and crossborder education approaches should be considered complementary rather than distinct (Egron-Polak, 2012; Van Gaalen & Gielesen, 2014). Internationalization efforts may simply rely more or less on either approach, depending on context. A continuum also accommodates concepts such as internationalization of the curriculum, which stresses the influence of context on curriculum decisions (Leask, 2015); and internationalization at a distance, which considers the influence of technology-supported activities (Mittelmeier et al., 2020). Additionally, I propose linking "rationales for internationalization" to the continuum, as rationales drive strategies.

Finally, I propose acknowledging two crucial contextual considerations which affect internationalization activities. First, "higher education stakeholders" should be recognized but should neither be explicitly named nor referred to as "international." "International" should be omitted because higher education and research can be considered inherently international (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002; Teichler, 2012). Furthermore, specific types of stakeholders should be unnamed, as they vary across nations and higher education institutions (Knight, 2003). Beyond merely identifying stakeholders, this amendment signals the need to meaningfully engage them—particularly those who tend to be overlooked, such as faculty (Stohl, 2007). Second, internationalization should be understood as sitting within the domain of "shifting disciplinary, institutional, local, national, regional, and global contexts" to represent the range of factors that "facilitate and inhibit, drive, and shape approaches to internationalization" (de Wit & Leask, 2015, p. 11). This amendment also highlights the interplay between contexts—like those at the global, national, and local levels—and the need to consider their simultaneous significance (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002). Given that internationalization takes place within countless settings, the named contexts are not meant to be exhaustive.

Our understanding of internationalization continues to evolve. Knight (2012) provided a useful framework for organizing internationalization issues. However, the definition of internationalization proposed by de Wit and Hunter (2015), in tandem with the COVID-19 pandemic, requires rethinking how internationalization might be conceptualized. The amended framework presented in this paper should encourage researchers to challenge norms and their own assumptions if internationalization efforts are to become more inclusive. By recognizing their own agency, researchers and other internationalization stakeholders can come to understand their capacity to re-evaluate the trajectory of higher education and create more equitable circumstances for all.

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Inclusive Internationalization: What About Religion & Spirituality?

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For the internationalization of higher education to become increasingly inclusive, scholars and practitioners will need to think critically and creatively about how global learning is conceptualized, structured, and delivered. Inclusion, diversity, and equity work is timely but often lacks connections to global learning in the curriculum and co-curriculum. Notably, religious, spiritual, and secular (RSS) identities and communities, including the nonreligious, are largely absent from these conversations (Jackson, 2003). I briefly examine the roles of religion, spirituality, and secularism in international higher education (IHE) and suggest situating them within global learning as an inclusive innovation toward transforming and decolonizing IHE for Society (Jones et al., 2021).

Religion, spirituality, and secularism are infrequently a focus of contemporary IHE, despite historic ties and modern linkages. They are embedded in dynamic contexts; interconnected to communities' and students' histories, politics, and economics; and implicated in the interdisciplinary global problems we hope to educate students to solve. How could we possibly speak of global learning while leaving out such an important aspect of it? Scholars from the Global South (Dei, 2016; Shahjahan, 2010; Zine, 2004) rightfully remind us that religion is ever-present in education despite a lack of acknowledgement—from colonial underpinnings to modernist myths of neutrality and the marginalization of spiritual epistemologies. Spirituality has long been considered an aspect of student development in contexts with histories of religious education and chaplaincy (Ludeman & Schreiber, 2020) and within U.S. student affairs (Astin et al., 2010). Today, religion, spirituality, and secularism are viewed by authors as intersectional dimensions of holistic identity (Baxter Magolda, 2009), as cultures of belonging (Edwards, 2018), as worldviews (Mayhew et al., 2016), and as lenses of meaning making. Social scientistshave linked religion to culture and meaning making for over a century (Robertson, 1969) and to indigenous knowledges for far longer. Benson et al. (2012) empirically established spiritual development as a core human development process across cultures and religious groups regardless of students' religiosity; the authors tested and validated their constructs across 60 countries. If one can speak of inclusion, diversity, and equity in relation to races and ethnicities, why not for RSS identities and communities?

Some might contend that religion is an identity of choice. The idea of religion as primarily belief, and therefore able to be selected or discarded at will, is itself a colonial construction (Fitzgerald, 2000; Masuzawa, 2005) upheld by the modernist secularization thesis (Berger, 1999) and by the separation of public and private spheres that have their origins in post-Reformation Protestant Christian and secular thought (Casanova, 1994). These notions have since been debunked (Berger, 1999; Habermas et al., 2008). Contemporary social scientists and scholars of religion (Beyers, 2017; McCutcheon, 2007; Sivasubramanian & Hayhoe, 2018; Stark, 1996) have more recently argued for religion's inseparability from culture, particularly for non-Western religious cultures in which belonging and practice are central (Edwards, 2018). One cannot simply discard one's community of belonging by changing their beliefs, as evidenced by non-practicing members of multiple religious groups. Critical religious scholars (Small, 2020) have additionally discussed the ways religion is ascribed to minoritized groups on the basis of their race, ethnicity, or physical features, underscoring that not all people experience religious identity as a choice.

Critical and decolonial lenses can offer a clearer view. Critical internationalization studies scholars (Stein, 2021) have lambasted the field for its failure to reckon with the complexity of coloniality in IHE and educators' complicity in perpetuating it, calling us to ongoing practices of self-reflexivity and to imagine and work toward decolonial futures. Shahjahan and Edwards (2021) drew attention to the futurities of Whiteness we recreate in IHE, which critical religious studies scholars would amend to include RSS privilege (Shahjahan, 2010; Small et al., 2021). Applying a decolonial lens would lead us to consider the unstated assumptions, power dynamics, and colonial discourses that we have used to other those who are religiously different and to maintain spiritual/secular and us/them hierarchical binaries (Fitzgerald, 2000; Horii, 2019; Said, 1978).

This point of view is imperative if educators are to approach RSS from a standpoint of global learning that seeks epistemic justice (Anderson, 2012). Global learning has been suggested as an umbrella category encompassing the partially overlapping constructs of intercultural learning; global citizenship; and inclusion, diversity, equity, and access (Green & Hassim, 2022). I invite the field to consider what it might mean to practice inclusion by broadening the definition of global learning and its constituent components to specifically engage with and include religion—both its role in perpetuating colonial pasts and in imagining possible futures.

Decolonial work is positional, relational, and contextual (Vázquez, 2015). It begins with self-reflexivity, a posture of humility, and deep listening to minoritized perspectives rooted in local contexts and histories. Various authors have recommended decolonizing principles (Shahjahan et al., 2021), tools (Stein et al., 2021), and pedagogies (Blanco, 2021; Palmer et al., 2010; Vázquez, 2015) that would be useful to draw upon in this work. Within specific contexts, educators might explore where and how RSS may be included in global learning rather than overlooked. Edwards and Kitamura (2019) suggested reimagining global citizenship within internationalization as interworldview diversity education. Adopting a cultural studies perspective (Ennis, 2017; Fitzgerald, 2000) might be appropriate in settings that seek to foster religious pluralism and equity. Other societies may pursue alternate visions of secular democracy or republicanism rooted in unique histories that would lead to different approaches to religious diversity. An emphasis on social justice, however, would mean supporting a plurality of religious cultures, practices, and epistemologies; examining the intersections of religion, power, and implicit bias; and addressing issues of RSS access and accommodation. Research in this area should complicate the messy boundaries between religion and culture and be conducted by religiously diverse teams transparent about their RSS identities.

Scholars have further pointed out the need for transformational resistance (Shahjahan, 2014) to dominant Westernizing ideologies and to the importance of applying critical and decolonizing lenses to personal and collective practices. For internationalization to assume a role of IHE for Society (Jones et al., 2021) and live up to its promise of contributing meaningfully to the common good (Hunter et al., 2022), inclusion must go beyond Western assumptions of religious neutrality to contextualizing and historicizing international education's relationship with religion and making room for the lived realities and indigenous epistemologies of diverse students.

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International Scholarships: A Focus on the Human Capabilities Approach

Jessica Amarilla

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International mobility has always been part of higher education. Related programs have become institutionalized and thus more common over time. They have also been implemented based on various rationales. For example, during World Wars I and II, governments supported academic and professional International mobility has always been part of higher education. Related programs have become institutionalized and thus more common over time. They have also been implemented based on various rationales. For example, during World Wars I and II, governments supported academic and professional exchange in hopes of increasing military and political supremacy as well as promoting scientific and economic development. Later, international scholarships became a key aspect of public diplomacy through which governments sought to assert their influence via soft power. These programs were further promoted by international organizations to foster a sense of membership in a global community (Tournès & Scott-Smith, 2017). Lately, some governments have implemented such programs in an effort to develop human capital (Campbell & Neff, 2020; Perna et al., 2014).

Although the subfield of international scholarships has garnered interest from scholars, the numerous rationales, goals, and outcomes have made it difficult to classify and evaluate them. A notable example is the Paraguayan National Scholarship program, *Becas Don Carlos Antonio López* (BECAL). This program aims to increase the production and application of knowledge in science, technology, and education. It also seeks to strengthen the innovation capabilities of companies, universities, and research centers. Its focus on STEM and education is aligned with the country's development agendas, such as the Paraguayan 2030 National Development Plan, which is based on the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs); however, evaluations of this program's success seldom consider the goals mentioned in those documents. The assessment for the 2015–2021 period highlighted that 93% of students reintegrated professionally within the first 6 months of returning to Paraguay (Becal Paraguay, n.d.).

These programs have long been framed from a human capital perspective. Their rationales tend to assume that economic growth will eventually be achieved through educating people (Campbell & Mawer, 2019). Yet human capital theory, which also recognizes the value of social capital, represents an incomplete framework for evaluating education-related policies and their impacts (Walker, 2012). A more holistic assessment would consider the contextual circumstances students encounter upon returning home and how these circumstances either hinder or promote students' choices, opportunities, and agency to pursue social change for the betterment of society. Several questions thus arise: What mechanisms support students' integration into society? Considering the growing focus on SDGs by institutions and international organizations alike, are students engaged in activities that align with these goals—and are their efforts at all supported by the scholarship program?

To address these questions, this paper proposes examining international scholarships via the human capabilities approach (HCA; Sen, 1979). Several researchers have suggested using the HCA to study education policy (Campbell & Mawer, 2019; Lozano et al., 2012; Robeyns, 2006; Wilson-Strydom, 2015). Amartya Sen devised the HCA in 1979; this approach captures people's freedom to lead their lives in ways they value. Lozano et al. (2012) outlined the elements of this approach as follows: (a) *functionings,* which could include activities, physical and mental states, and also *social functionings,* which refer to"being integrated in society" (p. 134); and (b) agency, which is is one's "ability to pursue goals that one values and that are important for the life an individual wishes to lead" (p. 134). Nussbaum (2002) noted that the HCA involves educating people so that they may live a life they have consciously chosen while developing the capacity to critically judge society and to see themselves in relation to other human beings. Moreover, the HCA emphasizes *context*—namely the means and resources that individuals have available to make personally valued choices (Robeyns, 2006). In essence, this approach considers "a larger scope of benefits from education, which include enhancing the well-being and freedom of individuals and peoples and influencing social change" (Walker, 2012, p. 389).

Contemplating international scholarship programs (e.g., BECAL) from the HCA perspective carries several implications. First, these programs represent an opportunity for students to pursue studies in knowledge areas to which they might not have access in their home countries. Yet BECAL favors better-ranked universities, which tend to be the most expensive, as well as universities where English is the language of instruction. A focus on the STEM and education fields also undermines the roles of the humanities in the cultivation of a better society through education. Thus, inclusive internationalization entails extending opportunities to a wider population, supporting regional internationalization, and promoting areas of knowledge that closely align with SDGs. Such internationalization also calls for including the humanities, which could engender a richer understanding and appreciation of diverse cultures and societies.

Second, international scholarship programs should not be considered the main vehicle for strengthening innovation, science, and education. These programs are but one factor among a complex set of elements that constitute education policies. They should be implemented in accordance with and with support from other mechanisms that will allow the absorption of specialized knowledge to advance society. For example, BECAL works closely with the National Council for Science and Technology to incentivize researchers and to fund projects in diverse knowledge areas. However, other spaces should be created for students to exercise their agency and to influence decision makers. From the HCA standpoint, it is vital to inspect the relationship between available resources and people's abilities to transform these assets into valued capabilities (Wilson-Strydom, 2015). When planning, implementing, and evaluating these programs, decision makers should consider broader social structures that enable the transformation of a more just and sustainable society.

Lastly, the assessment of these programs should go beyond quantitative measures to explore students' motivations for studying abroad as well as their engagement in professional activities that suit the country's development agendas. By exploring students' areas of interest, scholarship programs will be able to determine if the goals set at the time of application are met once students return home. Doing so will also allow for a review of program criteria so that necessary changes can be made to maximize its impact. In other words, the program should promote the application of specialized knowledge in an ethical and sustainable manner to tackle social, economic, and environmental issues. Individual choices that relate to personal values and one's place in society constitute a core element of the HCA. As such, the framework could serve to explore ways to maximize opportunities for students to choose pertinent knowledge areas while exercising their agency considering sustainable economic growth, social justice, and equity.

As a final thought, use of the HCA to frame education policies in general, and international scholarships specifically, could represent a starting point for more in-depth analyses of students' experiences, internationalization practices, and higher education institutions' missions in a globalized and connected world. Innovative, inclusive, and sustainable practices should be seen not only as a policy objective but also as a process integrated in everyday life.

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Investigating Inclusivity in Internationalization

Why Not These Countries? Epistemic Injustice and Studies of Research Internationalization in Less-Studied Countries

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"The author needs to justify why she focuses on these specific countries in her paper." Comments like these come up frequently for researchers who focus on non-central country science systems in today's unequally grounded world (Altbach, 2009). Such questions tend to appear less often for investigations of central science systems. The importance of the latter topic is also fairly easily expressed, whereas the former statement requires more in-depth explanation to convince reviewers. Such a situation creates questions about the differential epistemic value of research based on a study's focus. In this paper, I explore why these circumstances limit the creation of more inclusive inquiries, especially in the internationalization of research.

Research Internationalization and Global Connectivity of "Peripheral" Systems

More countries than ever are publishing large volumes of scientific research as global science pluralizes (Marginson, 2021). Scholarship is becoming increasingly internationalized as well: the rise in cross-border research collaboration represents a worldwide trend (Wagner et al., 2017). However, the nature of this internationalization is crucial to determining whether more pluralized and inclusive research internationalization will follow. Several well-established frameworks discuss the inequality of the world's science systems, including theories on world systems, the Global North/South, and the majority/minority world. I apply the center–periphery framework with a critical perspective

(Marginson & Xu, 2021) to consider the phenomenon of less-studied countries.

A main argument in world-systems theory is that the world is composed of central, peripheral, and semi-peripheral systems (cf. Wallerstein, 2004). This unequal grounding greatly influences research internationalization (Altbach, 2007). As such, traditionally non-central science systems tend to collaborate with more central ones, as this is how the global system is argued to work: peripheral systems are in a competitive position, and ideas, talent, and grants flow to/through the central systems. Further, peripheral systems' research collaborations with other peripheral systems tend to occur through a central node (e.g., via a research center or conference in a center country) (Leydesdorff & Wagner, 2008).

Now, what if peripheral systems began directly cooperating with each other more, but not through a central system? This scenario would likely result in less hierarchical international research collaborations. Central systems would not disappear, but they would gradually become less central in global scientific connectivity as collaboration patterns become flatter. I unpack this proposition using center/periphery terminology and limit my examples of international research collaboration to bilateral cases (i.e., collaborations between two countries) to present a clear message. On a global scale, international research collaborations could manifest in the following ways: 1) center–center collaborations; 2) center–periphery collaborations; and 3) periphery–periphery collaborations. All three types of pairings take place and are important. The first pairing denotes collaborations between central science systems, such as between the United States and the United Kingdom. This form may not work toward more inclusive research internationalization. The second pairing is more unique: whereas there could be a more established consensus that center–center internationalization is not particularly becoming more inclusive, some may argue that center–periphery pairings can lead to more inclusive internationalization. Although I am not opposed to endeavors around this kind of internationalization, I maintain that increased periphery–periphery research collaborations allow for more inclusive research internationalization under a global ontology. The first and second types perpetuate unequal and hierarchical cooperation.

I recently began researching this phenomenon as part of my postdoc fellowship, focusing on research collaborations among the Association of South-East Asian States (ASEAN) (Oldac &Yang, 2022). Centrally positioned countries in the globally connected system are becoming less likely to dominate these collaboration networks, inhibit knowledge flows, or restrict new entrants (Wagner et al., 2017). These networks of knowledge co-production are not zero-sum and do not work by excluding others (Marginson, 2018).

Periphery–periphery collaborations, such as within ASEAN cases, not only render research internationalization more inclusive on a global scale but also work toward sustainable capacity building in these science systems. The systems can then pool talent through their relationships—which are conceived to be less hierarchical from the start. Also, because such science systems tend to have more limited resources to build their own research facilities, collaborations among them can enable facility sharing. It may be true that talent or facility sharing for research can (and should) be done with central science systems, too. Yet periphery–periphery collaborations can play a more important role in fostering inclusive, egalitarian research internationalization in the long run. For example, a scientific collaboration between scientists based in Indonesia and the United States may use a laboratory and equipment in the U.S. science system; however, once the collaboration ends, Indonesia's access to those resources will cease as well. Conversely, a collaboration between Indonesia- and Malaysia-based scientists would require building on endogenous knowledge and developing their own capacities. The latter scenario has a greater chance of enhancing the capacity of traditionally non-central systems while decreasing dependency on central systems.

Challenges

Studying periphery–periphery research internationalization comes with obstacles. As indicated earlier, epistemic injustices favoring research conducted together with central science systems pose a challenge (Fricker, 2007). When an author focuses on research internationalization in a non-center country, there is a higher risk of the work being labeled a “single-case study” by gatekeeper publishers, journal editors, and reviewers and hence deemed not worth publishing. Even when the author considers more than one country, examining research internationalization among non-central science systems requires additional explanations about significance.

Additionally, existing incentive structures and policies hinder explorations of periphery–periphery internationalization; the focus is typically on either center–center or center–periphery internationalization, with the latter being the “inclusive” option. Scholars and institutions are also more generously rewarded for internationalizing in certain ways. For instance, research collaborations with institutions and researchers in American-European countries are better rewarded than connectivity among fellow hardworking institutions and researchers in peripheral systems. This disparity has implications for publication practices.

Furthermore, language constitutes an inclusion/exclusion binary. Non-English-language papers tend not to be included in major publication indices such as Web of Science and Scopus. This neglect creates an additional hurdle to studying the internationalization of non-central science systems. Imagine a scenario in which an internationally collaborative scientist’s native language is not English, and they naturally choose to use their native tongue to disseminate their empirical contributions. Such publications are largely absent from main publication indices and are thus more difficult to incorporate into studies focusing on research internationalization in traditionally non-central systems.

Concluding Remarks

These challenges are unlikely to be remedied soon. Global science is pluralizing, and research is becoming increasingly internationalized; however, studies of conventionally non-central systems are not pluralizing at the same rate. Research internationalization among traditionally non-central systems merits particular attention given these systems’ potential to transcend self-perpetuating inequalities in research internationalization under a global ontology. Therefore, asking ourselves—as authors, reviewers, and editors—“Why not these countries?” is as important as ever in the pursuit of a more inclusive perspective on research internationalization.

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The Lived Experiences of UK-Based Turkish Academics

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The benefits that come with international academic mobility, such as career progression, prestige, and capital accumulation, are well documented in the literature (Ackers, 2005; Bauder, 2015). However, the darker side of this coin remains largely overlooked. Scholars approaching the matter critically have begun to draw attention to the intrinsic meaning of mobility associated with the loss of stability, deterritorialization, and the loss of fixed national identification (Morley et al., 2018). These concerns are linked to job instability (Richardson & Zikic, 2017) as well as to overt and covert forms of racism, xenophobia, and exclusion against mostly ethnic-minority migrant academics (Bhopal et al., 2016). In the United Kingdom (UK), Black and minority ethnic (BME) academics have come under the spotlight for their lack of representation and negative incidents involving them. Yet Turkish academics, whom the BME category does not cover, have mixed experiences while working in the UK due to intersecting attributes such as race, ethnicity, gender, and religion/religiosity. Turkey serves as a bridge between Europe and Asia and accommodates a diverse society in terms of culture, ethnicity, nationality, religion and religiosity, and political attitude. Studying Turkish academics' experiences by considering features such as ethnicity, gender, and religiosity broadens our understanding of variation in international academics' experiences and how these differences contribute to being accepted in local academia (e.g., in the UK). This study explores Turkish academics' experiences working in the UK and highlights how their intersecting characteristics shape their experiences.

Methodology

This study is exploratory, based on a qualitative design underpinned by a social constructivist philosophy. An intersectionality approach, coined by Crenshaw (1989), was used to understand UK-based Turkish academics' experiences as shaped by several intersecting characteristics. Intersectionality suggests that social identities such as race, gender, and class interact to form qualitatively distinct meanings and experiences (Warner, 2008). Thus, intersectionality is a helpful lens through which to understand how belonging to a different social identity category affects the lived experiences of Turkish migrant academics.

Data were collected through 50 semi-structured in-depth online interviews with UK-based Turkish academics. Interviews were carried out in Turkish (a native language shared between the interviewer and participants) and lasted between 45 and 60 min. Participants were asked flexibly worded questions to elicit their thoughts. The carefully chosen open-ended prompts encouraged detailed and free responses. Questions pertained to the environment in which participants were raised in Turkey; participants' educational/academic lives before becoming academics in the UK; the triumphs and challenges they had experienced in Turkey and the UK; and the roles of gender, religion, ethnicity, and political attitude in shaping their experiences in the UK. The participant sample was diverse, stratified by academic position and affiliated institution, contract type, discipline, age, number of years living in the UK, gender, and bachelor's degree–awarding institution and Ph.D.-awarding country. Participants worked at 33 UK universities spread across four nations.

Once data collection concluded and audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed, thematic analysis was performed to discern themes via NVivo software. First, participants' experiences were analyzed individually; then, comparisons were made by discipline, gender, contract type, and institution type. The roles of gender, religion, political attitude, and ethnicity were additionally considered whenever possible.

Findings

Thematic analysis allowed for the experiences of UK-based Turkish academics to be categorized in terms of opportunities and challenges of working at UK universities. Regarding opportunities, participants appreciated several factors: an extensive international network; transparency and meritocracy at UK universities; generous research funds; and academic freedom. Challenges included adaptation problems, language issues, isolation, (covert) racism, and estrangement.

Overall, participants reported having had positive experiences in the UK's academic and social environment. Most participants indicated that being an academic in the UK afforded them numerous opportunities, such as generous research funding, an extended international network, and the ability to study sensitive topics that would not otherwise be possible in Turkey. Therefore, academic life in the UK paved the way for participants' professional success.

However, positive experiences tended to entail specific features. One participant bluntly stated,

> I did not experience any discrimination, but it might be because … as I was sitting [in] a pub with my English friends the other day, they told me that "You can pass as white." I think this is related to being exposed to English in my early years, being educated in the UK, being a woman, having white skin, being socialized in the UK.

This example highlights fundamental characteristics (e.g., being white, having a secular lifestyle, and being educated in the UK) that international academics should possess to fit into British academia. Having such traits is deemed "passing the whiteness threshold" for the purposes of this study; these attributes seemingly make life easier for migrant Turkish academics in the UK.

Certain political breaking points (e.g., Brexit) have led some international academics—including those from Turkey—who pass the whiteness threshold to be targeted regardless of race or nationality. Some participants recognized that their negative experiences during Brexit stemmed from simply not being English, irrespective of their nationalities.

When considering the characteristics informing these academics' international experiences apart from being white, religion and religiosity (Islam in this case) appeared essential. This factor became particularly evident when participants described choosing not to socialize with their coworkers in pubs, where many networks are established in the UK. Many participants cited socializing in this setting as a "rule of the game" to assimilate into British academia. Yet female hijabed academics in particular opted not to follow that path. They subsequently felt as though they were left out of the "inner circle," in their own words.

Lastly, even though some participants acknowledged being "too white to be perceived as Middle Eastern," their Islamic names signaled their Muslim background. This characteristic reportedly inhibited their ability to hold senior administrative roles and to be included in inner academic circles. Gholami (2021) used the term "religification" to indicate how secular and non-Muslim people with Muslim backgrounds have "Muslimness" thrust upon them—positively or negatively—by wider society, as seen in the present study.

In a nutshell, the Turkish academic community is diverse, as reflected in some academics' experiences while working in the UK. Certain Turkish academics who could "pass the whiteness threshold" were regarded as equal partners and recounted fairly positive experiences; those who could not pass the threshold faced racism, discrimination, and isolation. As noted, UK-based Turkish academics are not classified as BME in the UK. However, as the data suggest, some Turkish academics' experiences coincided with those of BME academics (Arday, 2018). These patterns became more evident when Turkish academics did not "fit in" with UK academics either by choice or by nature (e.g., because of religiosity or brown skin). Considering Turkish academics' experiences in light of intersecting personal characteristics broadens the literature on international scholars' experiences. The BME category has been a focus in order to increase representation and improve working conditions at the policy level. Meanwhile, many other non-BME migrant academics, including those from Turkey, have been neglected. This study sheds light on problems around BME categorization in the UK while adding nuance to more general discussions of international faculty members' experiences.

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Who Applies for Study Abroad Scholarships? An Exploratory Analysis

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Studying abroad can improve career opportunities (Di Pietro, 2015), but not every student is able to afford a study-related stay abroad. Many countries offer scholarships to defray the costs of overseas study to address this disparity. However, such support can be exclusionary and reinforce existing inequalities. In Germany, for example, students of a higher socioeconomic status are more likely to receive study abroad scholarships than students of lower social standing (Netz & Finger, 2016)—despite the former group more likely being able to fund their overseas study directly.

Two main factors contribute to these social differences. First, selection procedures for awarding study abroad scholarships are based on past performance, which disadvantages students who have non-academic backgrounds (Lörz & Schindler, 2011). Second, students from privileged backgrounds apply for scholarships more frequently than other students. Given their educational experience and social networks, privileged students are also more confident navigating application modalities and receive more practical support in doing so (Finger, 2013; Lörz et al., 2015). Subjective goals, such as personal development and individual maturity, additionally enhance one's intentions to complete a study-related stay abroad (Petzold & Moog, 2018). Yet scholars have thus far failed to examine whether these patterns extend to applications for study abroad scholarships.

In this paper, I investigate the determinants of applying for study abroad scholarships. My work presents insight based on the socialization and dispositions of students at Leibniz University Hannover, a comprehensive university and the largest in Lower Saxony, Germany1[1]. Specifically, scholarship applicants' mindsets and lifestyles are compared with those of students who did apply.

1 For information on the German higher education system, see Hüther and Krücken (2018).

Data and Research Methods

Elements of qualitative and quantitative social research were blended an exploratory sequential design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017) for the purposes of this study. Initially, I conducted qualitative interviews with three students from Leibniz University Hannover who had applied for study abroad scholarships. I then used the method of habitus-hermeneutics (Bremer & Teiwes-Kügler, 2014), which follows Bourdieu's (1977) habitus theory, to evaluate students' responses. In reference to previous milieu analyses of students in Hannover (Lange-Vester, 2016), I generated a habitus type by examining the perception, thought, and action schemata of these students.

To gain broader insight and examine possible commonalities, I supplemented my qualitative study with a standardized survey. A range of statements based on qualitative interviews were developed to capture conformity with the habitus type (i.e., 2–5 statements per habitus dimension). Data were analyzed via logistic regression (N = 172). This approach enabled a comparison of ways of thinking between students who had and did not intend to apply for study abroad scholarships.

Results

Explorative qualitative interviews with three students suggested that the habitus type of students who apply for study abroad scholarships is characterized by four dimensions: 1) the desire for personality development, individuality, and self-determination; 2) evident self-efficacy and optimism about the future; 3) the use of situative strategies for action to cope with unforeseen challenges; and 4) the use of joy-oriented strategies for action in a hedonistic sense. A quantitative study building on this preliminary investigation confirmed findings regarding the first three dimensions (Bauer, 2022).

I estimated logistic regression models to examine the effects of statements associated with each dimension on the intention to apply for a study abroad scholarship, controlling for sociodemographic and study-related covariates (see Table 1 on page 18). The dichotomous dependent variable indicates whether a student had applied for a study abroad scholarship or was considering applying (vs. not intending to apply or not having applied). Starting with the first regression model, which contained controls only, the four habitus dimensions were added gradually. Model quality was assessed through Nagelkerke's R^2. The controls in Model 1 explained 6.6% of the variance in the intention to apply for a study abroad scholarship. Model 5, comprising controls and all four dimensions, explained 24% of the variance in scholarship applications.

Odds ratios above and below 1 respectively increased and reduced a student's probability of intending to apply for study abroad scholarships. As such, three statements were significantly associated with a greater likelihood of applying: 1B, which refers to an aspect of personality development, individuality, and self-determination; 2A, which provides insight into a respondent's self-efficacy expectations and optimism about the future; and 3B, which indicates whether a student uses situative action strategies. Statements 1B and 2A had a stronger impact on one's intention to apply for scholarships than Statement 3B due to the former two statements having higher odds ratios. Findings revealed no significant association between statements concerning the fourth dimension (joy-oriented action) and applying for a study abroad scholarship. Control variables, including parental education, also had no statistically significant effects on the dependent variable across all regression models. Differences in effects between items belonging to the same dimension of habitus likely resulted from inconsistencies in the transfer of the habitus type into a standardized questionnaire. Yet given that one item each from three of the four characteristic categories showed a significant effect, the habitus type was confirmed.

Conclusion

This study has shown that students who apply for study abroad scholarships have a different habitus syndrome. Students not belonging to this group self-select in advance by applying less frequently. However, because the regression models indicated no statistically significant correlation between educational background and application intention in the sample, students with non-academic parents do not appear to be particularly affected by this kind of self-elimination. Students from lower social backgrounds may face such difficulty in overcoming structural conflicts in academia that there is no room for personality development within the framework of adaptation processes. The question of whether these students are less likely to strive for personality

Table 1

Results of logistic regression analyses

Regression of applying for a study abroad scholarship (1 = yes)	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5
Personality development, individuality, & self-determination (5 = conformity with habitus)					
Statement 1A Self-realization		0.579	0.548	0.534	0.479
Statement 1B Find personality		**2.036****	**2.144****	**2.096***	**2.042***
Statement 1C Family influence		1.034	1.111	1.155	1.151
Statement 1D Lifelong learning		1.207	1.140	1.177	1.107
Statement 1E Identity reflection		1.168	1.040	1.097	1.048
Self-efficacy & optimism about the future (5 = conformity with habitus)					
Statement 2A Achievement			1.839	**2.013***	**2.056***
Statement 2B Shaping future			0.809	0.783	0.763
Statement 2C Life goals			0.838	0.888	0.876
Situative strategies for action (5 = conformity with habitus)					
Statement 3A Career ideas				0.907	0.868
Statement 3B Educational path				**1.628***	**1.595***
Statement 3C Decision making				0.865	0.872
Joy-oriented strategies for action (5 = conformity with habitus)					
Statement 4A Choice of profession					1.333
Statement 4B Interest in subject					1.010
Controls					
Age	1.090	1.067	1.075	1.063	1.065
Gender (1 = female)	1.751	1.985	1.932	2.172	2.074
Parental education (1 = academic)	0.872	0.721	0.748	0.698	0.689
Migration background (1 = yes)	1.549	1.392	1.160	1.238	1.351
Previous mobility experience (1 = yes)	0.775	0.633	0.659	0.578	0.578
Receipt of BAföG (1 = yes)	0.882	0.840	0.823	0.911	0.983
Completed vocational training (1 = yes)	0.335	0.340	0.366	0.416	0.381
Number of semesters	1.017	1.034	1.043	1.035	1.036
Constant	0.031*	0.007*	0.002*	0.001**	0.001*
N	172	172	172	172	172
Pseudo R^2	0.066	0.157	0.193	0.231	0.240

Note: $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$. BAföG = student federal aid.

development should be explored in future research. In addition, no distinction was made between scholarship types. For instance, European Erasmus scholarships have a lower application hurdle than other forms. Most privileged students therefore apply for German scholarships because these opportunities are more exclusive. The study results should thus be subjected to a broader examination.

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Exacerbated Anti-Asian Racism in Canada and its Potential Adverse Impact on Chinese International Student Recruitment

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Introduction

Anti-Asian racism has been exacerbated in major Western destination countries, including Canada, since the COVID-19 pandemic. Related attitudes have affected the Asian community, particularly Asians of Chinese descent (Guo & Guo, 2021) in Canada. Against this backdrop, media coverage in China on anti-Asian racism in Canada has ramped up (Romann, 2021), potentially heightening Chinese students' awareness of anti-Asian racism in the country. Research has focused on the racism that Asian international students are facing in destination countries (Chen, 2021; Zhang et al., 2020). Far less is known about how this amplified anti-Asian racism affects prospective international students' perceptions and intentions to study abroad in exporting countries such as China. Through a survey and semi-structured interviews with Chinese university students, this study seeks to uncover (a) how potential international students in China—the top exporting country of international students (Institute of International Education, 2020) —view anti-Asian racism in Canada, one of the top international student destination countries and (b) whether and how anti-Asian racism affects these students' study abroad plans.

Literature Review and Theoretical Frameworks

Canada is an appealing destination country for international students for numerous reasons. For example, the country has always been considered a safe place to study and live, particularly compared with the United States where gun violence is much more serious (Chen, 2016). Moreover, in relation to other major destination countries, Canada has an attractive immigration path for international students (Zhang et al., 2021). Despite the substantial number of international students in Canada, discrimination against them is prevalent (Stein & de Andreotti, 2016). Researchers have addressed international students' encounters with racism while studying abroad (Cui, 2019; Jon, 2012; Lee & Rice, 2007). However, scholars have yet to fully consider prospective students' recognition and impressions of discrimination and racism in destination countries. This study intends to fill this gap by examining how Chinese students, the world's largest group of international students, view anti-Asian racism in Canada. We employed the notions of neo-racism and neo-nationalism as theoretical underpinnings. *Neo-racism* refers to a "new racism" based on negative perceptions about an individual's region of origin as well as their race (Lee et al., 2017, p. 141). Neo-racism has long been found to influence international students' experiences based on the intersection of race and their country of origin. Regarding *neo-nationalism*, Lee et al. (2017) pointed out that "national identity is being reproduced and reconceptualized as a form of global competition" (p. 142) amid growing internationalization. This degree of competition reflects global hierarchies in economic and political power. The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated changes in geo-political tensions in addition to sparking intrastate and interstate shifts.

Methods and Data

We adopted a mixed method approach, combining a survey and follow-up interviews. An online survey was distributed via random sampling through our personal networks to Chinese students who resided in China but were studying overseas. We received 173 complete responses. The survey provided a broad picture of students' awareness of anti-Asian racism and the extent to which this racism has shaped students' impressions of major destination countries, including Canada. To gain a deeper understanding of these issues, we conducted semi-structured interviews with 10 Chinese students planning to study abroad in degree-granting programs.

Results

Survey results showed that most students were emotionally affected by anti-Asian racism. Specifically, 118 respondents (68%) reported being either slightly or very bothered by anti-Asian racism in Canada. Along with the emotional impact of anti-Asian racism, 119 respondents (69%) indicated negative impressions of Canada due to such incidents.

Interviews revealed several main reasons why prospective Chinese international students thought they (as a general group) may encounter racism in Western countries. First, participants believed that Chinese people historically immigrated "illegally" to Western countries and performed low-status labor work. Second, a prevailing view in Western countries contends that the COVID-19 virus originated in China and that Chinese people, including Chinese international students, have brought the virus to other countries. Third, students supposed that China's rise in the global economy may have threatened the West's traditionally superior status. Fourth, some interviewees attributed Chinese international students' encounters with racism and/or discrimination to economic gaps between China and developed Western countries.

With respect to Canada as a potential destination country, our interview findings suggest that this country was a less popular choice for study abroad compared with other English-speaking destinations, such as the United States and the United Kingdom. Interviewees mentioned the perceived lower academic prestige of Canadian universities as the most compelling reason. Recently deteriorating international relations between China and Canada were also a concern for these prospective international students.

Finally, we find from the interviews that, although the COVID-19 pandemic has raised public awareness of anti-Asian racism in Western countries, this type of racism was not a deciding factor among students when selecting a destination. Interviewees were more concerned about an institution's academic quality and reputation, safety, and distance. However, these students did perceive anti-Asian racism as an influencing factor associated with personal safety: they opted to avoid countries or cities where incidents of anti-Asian racism were common when deciding where to study abroad. Many students also stated that they preferred to remain within their own ethnic or cultural communities in order to stay safe despite wishing to interact with local students and experience the local culture.

Discussion and Conclusion

Participants' understanding of why Chinese students are targets for racism and discrimination, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, aligned with the intertwined notions of neo-racism and neo-nationalism. All the reasons participants cited were tied to Chinese students' national identity. The first two examples (i.e., misconceptions about Chinese immigration and the emergence of COVID-19) convey Western countries' negative impressions of China based on stereotypes of Chinese people. These explanations are thought to be causes of racism. The remaining, and seemingly contradictory, examples (i.e., China's growing power on the global stage and its economic disparity with more developed nations) point to neo-nationalism, which is derived from intense global economic and political competition.

Our study sheds light on the potential adverse effects of anti-Asian racism on international student recruitment in Canada, despite the apparent promise in rising international student enrollment. Compared with other English-speaking destination countries, Canada enjoys certain advantages in attracting international students: the country is relatively safe and has a friendly immigration policy. Yet anti-Asian racism was found to directly influence Chinese international students' sense of safety and thus jeopardized Canada's allure to this population. This outcome indicates that it is imperative for institutions to ensure international students' safety. Colleges and universities should also make combating anti-Asian racism a priority.

Additionally, our results highlight issues related to internationalization at home. Students in this study were clearly concerned about their safety and well-being given escalating anti-Asian racism: some stated that they would prefer to stay within a familiar social group even while studying abroad. Doing so may hinder international students' study abroad experiences; international education should include interactions with students from other racial and cultural backgrounds. Campus internationalization (e.g., domestic students' exposure to international peers) could be greatly limited as well.

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Broken Promises: Experiences of International Students in English as a Means of Instruction Courses in Korean Universities

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South Korea's higher education sector has been transitioning toward internationalization for the last three decades. With support from the national government, Korean universities have become determined to find their place on the global educational scene. A range of governmental and institutional measures have been implemented; examples include the recruitment of international students, hiring of foreign faculty, increased support for publication and research, and the establishment of English as the *lingua franca* for academic activities (Csizmazia, 2019; Green, 2015; Jung, 2018).

To increase the reputability of its institutions, the Korean government has advocated for the use of English in higher education via English as a means of instruction (EMI) courses, research, and publishing (Green, 2015; E. G. Kim et al., 2017). This shift towards EMI instruction reflects an overall Englishisation trend in East Asian higher education (Galloway et al., 2020). Compelled by increased competition, government incentives, and media-initiated university rankings, most Korean universities have leaped into offering EMI courses without assessing related impacts (Cho, 2012). For instance, Korean faculty members have reported feeling forced into delivering English-led instruction to satisfy institutional requirements for which they were not consulted and that many view negatively (Cho, 2012; Jon et al., 2020; J. Kim et al., 2018).

In the realm of a national demographic decline that affects higher education, the eagerness to remain competitive and to attract international students has led many Korean universities to impose Anglicization policies on existing programs (Byun et al., 2013; Stewart, 2020). The option to pursue studies in English in Korea offers an appealing alternative to expensive North American or European institutions for many Asian international students recruited by Korean universities (Kang & Ko, 2019). Associated advertisements promise EMI instruction. However, many international students have encountered limited EMI course offerings upon enrollment (J. Kim, 2016; Murdoch & Cho, 2019). In addition to the restricted number of classes, international students have lamented professors' or classmates' use of Korean in EMI courses (Choi & Kim, 2014; Csizmazia, 2019). Such practices generate frustration and a sense of isolation, as well as academic struggles, among students who lack Korean language skills (Choi & Kim, 2014).

The Study

What are international students' experiences with EMI courses in Korean universities? This phenomenological study was designed to explore this question and understand how foreign enrollees perceive, live, and make sense of their scholarly experiences. Considering that challenges inherent to EMI instruction in Korean universities affect professors as well as students, the study also sought to explore the lived experiences of international students enrolled in Korean programs, which are designed to include a certain number of EMI courses.

This phenomenological study specifically examined the nature of international students' experiences with student–faculty interaction while enrolled as full-time undergraduates in a Korean university. Seventeen participants from 10 countries shared a series of interactions with professors inside and outside the classroom, including in EMI courses. Data collection and analysis took place in the spring and summer of 2021. All participants were enrolled in Korean universities in large urban areas. Except for two participants enrolled in programs exclusively taught in Korean, all participants attended a certain number of EMI classes in the context of their undergraduate studies.

Findings

The main purpose of this study was to investigate student–faculty interactions inside and outside the classroom. Participants especially highlighted the nature of EMI courses. Language issues emerged as a key theme for all interviewees, who described the importance of language skills in their academic and social experiences at Korean universities, including in their relationships with professors.

While recalling English-led course experiences, multiple international students expressed irritation related to the usage of Korean in class. Participants stated that professors frequently code-switched from English to Korean while lecturing. Classmates also asked questions or conversed with professors in Korean, leaving these international students feeling "excluded" and "frustrated." Participants additionally mentioned being "nervous" about missing important information and concerned about being disadvantaged in terms of assessment and grades.

Participants further explained that they did not feel comfortable asking professors to revert to English, preferring to rely on translation apps instead. One participant lodged a formal complaint. She described in her interview how the pressure she placed on the administration contributed to strained relationships with professors: "It was very tense. … From older professors, mainly male, I got very impolite remarks, half-disguised insults – as they think I don't speak Korean – and even extra assignments to hand in." Another participant testified that the use of Korean in an EMI class led her to drop the course.

Multiple participant experiences were marked by a professorial expectation that all international students should be proficient in Korean, even when enrolled in English-taught courses. Students who complained about the language of instruction in an EMI course where the professor spoke Korean recalled being told, "Well, well, this is Korea. You should at least know Korean." Participants did not appreciate that professors equated linguistic limitations with indolence.

International students seemed aware of the difficulty EMI courses posed for certain professors. Participants referred to issues stemming from professors' limited English abilities, such as poorly written test questions or professors' reluctance to answer questions in class. Interviewees expressed compassion for faculty who struggled with the language but strove to uphold course standards.

Conclusion

This study's findings reflect the importance of language issues for international students, especially in their relationships with professors. Participants grappled with frustration and concern when promises of English-led instruction were broken (i.e., in EMI classes where faculty members spoke Korean). Some Korean professors struggled with the English language. Participants empathized with and were grateful for faculty members' efforts to provide EMI instruction. International students were conversely irritated with professors who reverted to Korean, blamed foreign students for not being fluent in the language, or refused to lecture in English.

Results underline the need for more purposeful EMI instruction with faculty commitment in Korean universities. The pursuit of genuine internationalization in Korean higher education ought to occur through thoughtful implementation of institutional aims rather than imposition. All students enrolled in Korean universities, including international students, deserve high-quality instruction delivered by engaged, rather than coerced, professors. If EMI promises are truly kept, then all involved parties will benefit.

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Peer Interaction and International Students' Satisfaction: A Comparison of Interactions with Domestic and International Students

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Background

Creating an attractive environment for international students has become critical for U.S. higher education. International students contribute to the financing and internationalization of this sector (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Institute of International Education [IIE], 2019). However, the United States' position as the top host country for international students has recently come under threat. In addition to the country's strict immigration policy and xenophobic climate (Patel, 2017), other major countries (e.g., Australia and the United Kingdom) were experiencing higher growth in international student enrollments compared to the United States before the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic (Australian Trade and Investment Commission, 2021; House of Commons, 2021; IIE, 2021). U.S. higher education institutions need to make their campuses appealing to international students if these institutions wish to keep benefitting from international student enrollment.

A key way to attract future international students is to increase current international students' satisfaction. According to Gai et al. (2016), international students with high college satisfaction will recommend their colleges to prospective students in their home countries through online platforms. The U.S. higher education sector has nevertheless tended to prioritize international student recruitment over support for current attendees (e.g., Arthur, 2017). Promoting peer interaction has been identified as an effective practice to foster international students' psychosocial outcomes (e.g., Katsumoto & Bowman, 2021). Yet little is known about whether international students benefit more when interacting with domestic peers or with other international students. This paper explores the associations between peer interaction (i.e., with domestic vs. international students) and satisfaction among international students from an ecological perspective. Findings are expected to assist faculty and staff in helping international students develop supportive networks and satisfaction with their university experiences, which should in turn attract more international students.

International Students' Peer Interaction

According to Bronfenbrenner (1993) and Renn and Arnold (2003), person–environment interaction is critical to understanding student development from an ecological perspective. A major environmental factor is peer engagement. For instance, interactions with domestic students are positively associated with international students' intercultural skills, language proficiency, psychological well-being, and sense of belonging (Gresham & Clayton, 2011; San Antonio & Ofori-Dwumfuo, 2015). Another crucial support for international students involves building relationships with other international students. Language barriers, cultural differences, and discrimination often impede intercommunication between international and domestic students (Buzzelli, 2016; Gareis, 2012). As a result, some international students are likely to rely on other international students, who may undergo similar adjustment challenges in a host country (Geeraert et al., 2014; Glass et al., 2014). In fact, support from other international students is valuable for international students' psychosocial and academic outcomes (Geeraert et al., 2014). An understudied question is how the balance of connections between domestic students and other international students may benefit international students. This study explores the associations among three types of international student connection (international student–dominant, domestic student–dominant, and even) and academic/social satisfaction.

Method

The ***Student Experience in the Research University*** database was selected as the data source given its coverage of various international student experiences. The final sample for this study included 1,417 international undergraduate students from five research-focused universities in the United States. Multiple regression was employed to examine the relationship between interaction types and satisfaction, and the institutional-level variance was adjusted to capture institutional fixed effects. The two dependent variables represented international students' satisfaction with their social experiences and academic experiences, respectively. Satisfaction was chosen because it is vital to international students' subjective well-being and encourages these students to recommend their institutions to prospective enrollees (Gai et al., 2016). The two major independent variables indicated the dominant group in international students' academic and social interactions (1= roughly even [reference category], 2 = primarily international students, and 3 = primarily American students). Students' demographic information, campus diversity climate, and motivations for studying in the United States served as control variables. This study also used moderation models to examine whether the relationship between interaction type and satisfaction varied by the selected background factors of students' race, first-generation status, native language, year (first-year to senior), and interest in working in the United States as a reason for pursuing U.S. higher education.

Results

Findings showed that international students who mainly interacted with other international students tended to exhibit lower social satisfaction than students whose interaction balance was about even ($b = -.26$, $p < .001$). The moderation models also implied that the association between interaction type and satisfaction could change depending on an international student's background. When interacting primarily with other international students, native-English-speaking international students generally displayed lower social satisfaction than non-native English speakers ($b = -.85$, $p < .05$). First-generation students were less satisfied with their academic experiences when their social network consisted of mostly international students. Additionally, Latinx international students were likely to express higher social satisfaction when their academic interactions featured other international students. The dominant group in students' academic and social networks was not significantly associated with first-year international students' academic satisfaction. However, senior international students were more academically satisfied when studying alongside domestic students ($b = .55$, $p < .05$). Interest in working in the United States as a motivation for pursuing U.S. higher education did not demonstrate a significant moderating effect.

Conclusion

Overall, international student–dominant social interactions were associated with lower social satisfaction for international students. The network balance between domestic students and international students thus appears important for international students' social satisfaction. Furthermore, academic interaction primarily with domestic students could enhance international students' academic satisfaction in the later years of college life. This trend may have emerged because senior students tend to have different academic experiences (e.g., capstones), and networking with domestic students may benefit international students who are unfamiliar with senior-year academic projects. International students also tend to interact with other international students, especially upon arrival at a U.S. campus (Buzzelli, 2016). However, faculty and staff may need to provide opportunities to connect these students with domestic peers as well. Fostering an on-campus environment where international students are satisfied with their social and academic experiences should attract more international students who are valuable for the U.S. higher education sector.

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Beyond the English Language Program: International Students' Experiences of Language-Based Discrimination

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This research identifies international students' experiences with language-based discrimination at a university in Canada. The university offers an academic English language program (ELP) that prepares international students for degree programs by developing academic language skills and an "overall understanding of Canadian culture" (University, 2016). Language-based discrimination is pervasive in Canadian culture (Kayaalp, 2016) but is not widely addressed at the focal university or in its ELP. I investigate how Canadian culture at this university might engender language-based discrimination and explore possibilities for ELP teachers to better support international students as they prepare to enter the university.

Language-based discrimination refers to the unjust treatment of people whose perceived language ability differs from the dominant societal norm (Halim et al., 2017; Ng, 2007). Language-based discrimination is often a veil for racism and other forms of oppression such as classism. Indeed, "When accent is made to be a problem, it diverts attention away from racism (and its interlocking systems of oppression), thereby accenting its power" (Ramjattan, 2022, p. 88). Canadian research that describes international students' experiences of discrimination often references it as one of many challenges international students face (e.g., Guo & Guo, 2017; Kang, 2020). Scholars may also discuss it without explicitly calling it discrimination (e.g., MacGregor & Falinazzo, 2017). My work adds to these important studies by naming and centering language-based discrimination, which can aid in unveiling how such discrimination accentuates racism and related oppression.

Method

I conducted one-on-one structured interviews with 10 international students who had graduated from the ELP prior to enrolling in a degree program at the university. I elicited stories from participants regarding their English language experiences at the university, asking questions about their English language interactions with professors, classmates, and other people on campus. To avoid planting the seed of discrimination in participants' minds, I did not specifically ask about this topic until the final set of questions.

I followed a semantic, theoretical thematic approach to data analysis. A semantic approach attempts to describe data without "looking for anything beyond what a participant has said" (Braun & Clark, 2006, p. 84) yet allows for interpretations of the identified themes. A theoretical thematic approach deductively maps the data to the research questions.

Results

Research question 1: Do international students at the university experience language-based discrimination?

Seven participants described instances of language-based discrimination. Four participants explicitly labeled their experiences discrimination while three described discriminatory experiences without the label. Among these experiences, I identified four themes: *othering, overt negative responses, perceptions of language deficit,* and *normalcy*.

Four participants described being othered (i.e., marked as different and excluded or devalued) by native English–speaking students. One participant said, "It's really hard to talk because the classmates are not nice. They are judgmental." She continued, "Having an accent, it's difficult…makes you different...people choosing a group will not choose international students."

Two participants described situations in which they received overt negative responses regarding their English. One said a professor was very "annoyed" at him for his writing ability: "Verbally she was just, like, humiliating me when she talked to me: 'Why you do that?'" The other participant said a classmate blatantly laughed at her when she mispronounced words.

Additionally, four participants indicated that their English was considered inferior. One participant described group work with a pair of native English–speaking students who assumed her English would be poor: "the day of the presentation, these people, they wrote another copy, and they wrote my part. I was really upset." Meanwhile, three participants described language-based discrimination as normal. One participant said, "Everyone around me I know that is not from Canada or America, they have the similar experience … So I think it is common for international students to have this experience about discrimination."

Research question 2: How can teachers in the ELP help prepare international students to navigate language-based discrimination?

I identified two key themes regarding teachers' potential to better assist international students: *additional listening and speaking practice and discussions about discrimination.* Five participants recommended a greater focus on non-academic speaking skills, such as speaking freely with local students. Four participants suggested that discussing discrimination openly would be helpful. One participant said, "They should actually give us some, like, sessions or some classes about how to deal with the discrimination stuff. And uh...Yeah, I think we never discuss about this. About the discrimination stuff." Another participant said that one ELP class included a lesson on discrimination, but the point was that discrimination was discouraged in Canada: "We were only taught not to do it but did not teach me how to protect myself if someone do it to me."

Conclusion & Implications

This study has implications for the focal ELP as well as for the broader university community. ELP teachers can facilitate discussions of discrimination that extend beyond inclusivity to support students' navigation of language-based discrimination. In terms of participants' recommendation for an increased focus on speaking skills in the ELP, language-based discrimination is a consequence of "epistemological, economic, and geopolitical hegemonies" (Stein et al., 2019, p. 31). Changing the speaking skills of international students, who must already demonstrate advanced proficiency to enter university, will not ensure equitable treatment. A focus on language for self-advocacy could be worthwhile should the ELP consider enhancing speaking classes. To better prepare international students for university life in Canada, ELP teachers and administrators must consider the hegemonic contexts in which their program is situated and identify ways to advocate for anti-oppressive change.

The ELP alone cannot address this problem; university-wide change is vital. The onus is not on those facing discrimination to change but instead necessitates a "shift from the speaker to the listener" (Flores & Rosa, 2019, p. 147). One participant said, "The problem is, educate [the native English speakers] first." Universities across Canada mandate that non-native English speakers demonstrate advanced English proficiency to be admitted, and many offer ELPs to support this requirement. I have worked in Canadian post-secondary institutions across the country and abroad. I have not seen any policies or programs that require native speakers of English to achieve proficiency in communicating with people whose English differs from theirs while avoiding discriminatory behavior toward them. Canada's government has successfully strategized to increase international student recruitment for more than a decade (Trilokekar et al., 2020). It is past time for university administrators and educators to scrutinize and alter institutionalized language expectations that allow language-based discrimination to be an acceptable practice on campus.

The experiences shared by participants in this study serve as a call for institutional change. To support anti-racism advocates, future research on language-based discrimination could include demographic information. Action against language-based discrimination in Canada's post-secondary institutions must be prioritized given Canada's commitment to attracting international students (Government of Canada, 2019).

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Exploring the Use of Technology in Internationalization

Creating Inclusive Internationalization Spaces in EMI Classrooms through COIL: Evidence from Japan

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Introduction

Since the 1980s, English-medium instruction (EMI) has been increasingly implemented as a major internationalization strategy in higher education institutions. In Japan, through the top-down support of the Japanese government, the number of universities offering EMI education has doubled within the past 20 years. Universities have faced a number of challenges alongside rapid EMI implementation. One such difficulty in Japan involves providing a support system for EMI faculty and students to address their linguistic needs as well as the development of their intercultural competencies to deal with increased diversity (Huang, 2017). New forms of internationalization have emerged to surmount EMI-related obstacles, including "internationalization at a distance" (Mittelmeier et al., 2021). One example of this phenomenon is virtual exchange, namely a collaborative exchange between two or more university instructors. This model is commonly known as collaborative online international learning (COIL) in the United States (Helm, 2020).

The term "COIL" is often used in Japan since the country adopted the State University of New York's COIL model. This model emphasizes project-based learning (PBL) and requires COIL to be a major course component. More than 40 Japanese universities are actively using COIL, and this figure is climbing every year. Japanese students virtually interact with a U.S. university for most COIL projects. Universities in Asia, particularly in southeast Asia, have recently begun being matched for COIL as well (IIGE, 2020). Implementing COIL can be difficult due to varying class sizes, academic calendars, and time zones. However, it can bring numerous positive outcomes for inclusion, including cultivating students' intercultural competencies and openness, affording them confidence in using English as a *lingua franca* (ELF), and fostering greater engagement (de Wit, 2016; IIGE, 2020; Wilson, 2016). Even though COIL has been used in EMI courses at universities for quite some time, little research has attended to associated learning outcomes, effectiveness, and/or challenges (Helm, 2020).

Methodology and Study Participants

Drawing on interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), this study addresses the above-mentioned research gap through an exploratory investigation of the effectiveness of COIL implementation in EMI courses. In-depth, semi-structured interviews were held with COIL/EMI instructors between June and September 2021, and each lasted between 40 and 170 minutes (N = 11; 6 Japanese universities and 3 COIL partner universities). Participants were recruited from three groups to explore the issue more deeply: COIL/EMI instructors from Japanese universities (n = 3), EMI/COIL instructors with COIL coordination roles from Japanese universities (n = 5), and COIL instructor partners from non-Japanese universities (n = 3). The researcher was positioned as an insider due to being a lecturer who was teaching EMI courses with COIL experience at a Japanese university. The researcher thus contributed to IPA by interpreting the meanings and knowledge that participants expressed at both the participant level and the researcher level. Deep analysis of this case study was therefore possible (Smith & Osborn, 2003).

Results and Discussion

Although Japan has adopted COIL from the State University of New York's model, which stresses PBL, COIL tended to be viewed as a smaller part of the EMI course in Japan. Most participants referred to COIL as "mini-COIL," "one-session-COIL," or "one-lecture-COIL." Although many participants had experience with PBL-type COIL, they had primarily used a mini-lecture presented by instructors from two or more COIL partner universities followed by synchronous question-and-answer sessions with students. The short version of COIL was preferred because it does not require substantial preparation; participants deemed it more "manageable" and "less challenging" than other approaches. A lecture format is common when Japanese students have a low level of English proficiency, especially in medical majors where Japanese is the predominant medium of instruction. Humanities and social sciences typically have longer COIL sessions, most of which involve PBL (e.g., developing a public product related to a real-world problem). Participants in STEM fields reported having used various types of COIL depending on lecturers' and students' needs and/or course objectives.

Several difficulties were reported in relation to COIL implementation, including the time-consuming process that COIL instructors needed to complete to negotiate every detail and problem—both prior to the design of the COIL component and during implementation. The PBL type was especially challenging because students must work together outside of class. These obstacles could be further amplified by cultural and educational differences, unbalanced class sizes, and different academic calendars and time zones (IIGE, 2020). Approximately 70% of study participants reported that their university had no support system for COIL instructors and that they had implemented COIL without assistance. Two participants stated that their universities had urged them to increase the number of COIL courses without any attention to quality.

Despite these hardships, all participants indicated that student feedback had been highly positive, even about one-session lecture COIL. An IPA of interview transcripts revealed a series of positive outcomes: 1) greater student motivation, mainly in PBL types of COIL, due to group work without teachers and the development of openness and intercultural competencies (IIGE, 2020; Wilson, 2016); 2) higher confidence in using ELF in EMI, particularly when both COIL sides were using English as a second or foreign language; 3) enjoyment of learning from students in another country, which allowed for a deeper understanding of EMI content; 4) supporting the university's internationalization goals by internationalizing the curriculum (de Wit, 2016; IIGE, 2020).

Although these data were drawn from a small sample, findings should benefit stakeholders and researchers working to implement or study COIL and EMI in Japan and similar contexts. Results suggest that implementing COIL in EMI can give students agency over their ELF use and facilitate their intercultural competencies, thus supporting EMI goals. However, this study also stresses the need to provide instructors adequate support and to shift internationalization strategies from quantitative to qualitative (Huang, 2017). Most support currently relies on instructors' goodwill. As the extent of COIL implementation in EMI continues to increase, a more systematic approach will be required.

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Preparing International Students for Higher Education: Instructor Perceptions of Academic Socialization in an Online English for Academic Purposes Program

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In Spring 2020, universities and schools worldwide experienced an unprecedented mass migration from traditional in-person learning to online delivery (Hodges et al., 2020). Nowhere has the transition been more far-reaching than for international students who would typically relocate to host institutions to experience on-campus learning but, given pandemic restrictions, must now take courses from their home country without the experience of international travel (Tavares, 2021). This paper examines the move of a traditional on-site English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program to remote delivery. More specifically, the study focuses on the impacts of this shift on students' academic socialization and preparation for university-level study.

EAP and Academic Socialization

English for Academic Purposes focuses on preparing international students (whose first language is not English) for academic and professional education in English-medium universities. This type of English emphasizes disciplinary language, discourse, and activities unique to academic contexts (Peacock & Flowerdew, 2001). As such, an EAP curriculum generally comprises language training, academic literacy development, and academic socialization (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Leki & Carson, 1997).

Academic socialization refers to the process whereby newcomers "gain communicative competence, membership, and legitimacy" (Duff, 2007, p. 101), namely through participation in academic spaces and engagement in an academic culture of collaboration (Seloni, 2012). Academic socialization includes the cultivation of communication skills and life skills to adjust to a new institution and new community (Van Viegan & Russell, 2019); however, academic socialization may be compromised in online settings due to limited opportunities for students to observe, engage, and learn both with and from established community members. This study explores EAP instructors' perceptions of online delivery in creating conditions conducive to students' academic socialization.

Methodology: Research Context and Design

This qualitative study was conducted at an EAP program in a large urban Canadian university. Similar to many other EAP programs across the country, this program served as a prerequisite for admission into degree-granting programs. Twelve instructors participated in an hourlong semi-structured online Zoom interview at the end of the Fall 2020 semester to discuss their experiences with online delivery.[1] Interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed, and uploaded into Transana 3.0 for qualitative coding and thematic analysis to reveal dominant themes pertaining to the conditions of online delivery and students' academic socialization.

Results and Discussion

Impacts of Online Delivery on Perceived Learning Conditions

Participants were highly concerned about the quality of instructor–student, student–student, and student–text engagement. This apprehension extended from what instructors perceived as conditions of online delivery,

1 Interviews were conducted by the author, who was also an instructor in the EAP program and familiar with the participants, students, and program curriculum.

specifically the distance created through virtual space and the limited interaction afforded through video-conferencing platforms. For example, students were expected to use their web cameras during class time. Study participants expressed unease despite being able to see students' faces: they could not know for certain what students were thinking, whether students were focused on the course content, or whether students were completely distracted.

In EAP programming, controlled learning conditions are necessary to ensure the validity of writing assessments and other forms of written test taking. Because instructors could not see what students were doing beyond the web camera view, instructors questioned the authenticity of students' work and whether students were using prohibited external tools or resources such as translation tools. This suspicion corresponded with participants' accounts of student transgressions early in the semester. Instructors also believed that the quality of engagement between students was compromised: students were less active than usual during class and breakout group discussions. Overall, student engagement was viewed as significantly lower in the online course than in in-person learning, leading instructors to modify their teaching styles.

Modifications to Teaching Style

Instructors modified their teaching styles to be either more teacher-centered or more student-centered. Teacher-centered instruction was a direct response to the impression that students needed more structure and guidance to stay focused during Zoom lectures. Instructors forfeited pair/group work, breakout group activities, and open-ended learning tasks—similar to the type of learning expected at the university level—in favor of highly controlled lecture-based, language-focused instruction. Instructors believed that, given the context, students preferred this teaching style. Instructors further thought that reducing student interaction would counteract low engagement and the larger problem of vocal students dominating and silencing less-vocal students. However, as the participants recognized, teacher-centered instruction made opportunities for authentic interaction and discourse scarce and ultimately did not serve the aim of supporting students' academic socialization.

Other teachers turned to a more student-centered approach upon realizing that they could not directly and fully control online learning conditions but needed to support students' autonomy. In contrast to teacher-centered instructors, student-centered instructors redefined their expectations of student learning by reducing their own degree of responsibility. Here, participants reasoned that success lay in the hands of each student, arguing that incoming international students must learn the university community's expectations. Yet student-centered instructors admitted that this mode of instruction was best suited to driven students who were seen as most likely to succeed irrespective of context and conditions. Instructors also expressed the inability to support all students, as it was more difficult for instructors to identify which students were struggling online.

Less motivated or insincere students suspected of academic dishonesty were viewed as disinterested in learning; thus, instructors did not grant these students the same degree of attention as they did highly motivated students. Such a decision can have profound impacts on students' learning; differentiated feedback and treatment can alienate and inhibit struggling students from seeking the resources they need. Opportunities for the development of academic socialization are dramatically reduced in such cases.

Implications for Online Academic Socialization

Participants conceded that EAP involves more than simply teaching academic and linguistic skills. Incoming international students must adjust to the norms of the university community, including expectations to navigate academic life responsibly and independently. Instructors felt that online academic socialization and preparation for independent on-campus learning were not achieved to the same extent as with traditional in-person learning. Online EAP was perceived as less effective for students who were more passive, less focused, and less motivated. While students who are weaker linguistically or academically may be able to develop the requisite skills and knowledge to complete the program and begin their university-level work, most participants believed that online delivery failed to

provide these same students chances for academic socialization (i.e., the communication and life skills necessary for successful integration in higher education).

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Given the convenience and economic value of online EAP for international students, this mode may continue to be offered as an alternative to on-campus EAP programming. However, prospective students should be aware that the learning experience is not equivalent, especially for students who require extra support. Although instructors addressed the educational challenges of virtual learning by modifying their teaching styles, participants unanimously expressed that online delivery did not meet the traditional EAP curriculum's social and interpersonal learning objectives. As such, instructors were concerned that if online EAP students were suddenly required to attend in-person, students would face a difficult and unsupported transition—one that could have lasting effects on a student's academic career and higher education experience. Until curriculum and pedagogy in online EAP delivery can adequately support all students, and not just the strongest or most motivated, incoming international students should be clearly advised on the potential benefits and limitations related to academic socialization in online EAP programming. This guidance will better prepare students for the nature of independent study required in higher education.

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Disruptive Innovation as Virtual Internationalization of Kazakhstani Higher Education

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In the new global economy, disruptive innovation has become a core issue for the internationalization of higher education around the world. Disruptive innovation is an important aspect of the internationalization of higher education: it provides higher education institutions (HEIs) new possibilities to integrate international policies and practices. These efforts can engender more sustainable and inclusive HEI development in line with global higher education trends. The theoretical framework of virtual internationalization (VI) (Bruhn, 2016) offers a useful account of how disruptive innovation can be implemented within Kazakhstani HEIs. This desk research presents a review of studies on disruptive innovation as an instrument for the internationalization of Kazakhstani higher education under the theory of VI. The VI theory builds on Knight's (2003) definition of internationalization, later extended by Bruhn (2016), which emphasizes the process of incorporating global, intercultural, and international dimensions into content and curriculum delivery using information and communications technology (ICT). Massive open online courses (MOOCs) constitute a dominant feature of the global dimension (Bruhn, 2016; Knight, 2015) while asynchronous learning is key to the intercultural dimension. Blended learning, online learning, the adoption of innovative technologies, and virtual mobility are fundamental to the international dimension (Bruhn, 2016).

The Global Dimension

Scholars have noted the importance of Kazakhstani internationalization policies and strategies (de Wit et al., 2019; Kavashev, 2018), but little was found in the literature regarding the role of disruptive innovation as VI within the global dimension. Broadly, disruptive innovation is any stimulus that challenges and updates existing values in education (Gobble, 2016). This phenomenon is typified by e-learning and distance learning, as in the exemplar of Open University in England (Lancaster et al., 2003). American universities like Carnegie Mellon University and Massachusetts Institute of Technology subsequently began to offer online courses following Open University's example. MOOCs were in turn launched in the United States. This global education trend has since permeated many international universities with integrated learning management systems (Pomerol et al., 2015). Coursera, edX, and Udacity are prime illustrations of MOOCs' incorporation into higher education worldwide.

This global education trend is also apparent in the case of Kazakhstan. Coursera MOOCs are being incorporated into various national business enterprises intended to train employees to develop innovative skills in professional fields. With respect to the global dimension, Kazakhstan's State Program of Education and Science Development (SPESD) for 2020–2025 seeks to infuse MOOCs into HEIs to bring innovative changes in teaching and learning across the country (Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan [MES RK], 2019). For instance, Open University Kazakhstan (OpenU) could become a major MOOC platform for integration in HEIs (Kavashev, 2018). This circumstance poses a challenge for traditional universities accustomed to operating without MOOCs. However, this disruptive innovation might become a real possibility for VI and virtual mobility in relation to higher education.

The Intercultural Dimension

Furthermore, there is a shortage of data on the relationshp between the intercultural dimension and asynchronous learning. The Strategy for Internationalization of Kazakhstani Higher Education for 2025, from the Bologna Process and Academic Mobility Center, is informative in this respect. The Strategy for 2025 (ENIC-Kazakhstan, 2019) identified two levels of challenges to internationalization: national and institutional. At the national level, no online educational platform is available to attract international students; at the institutional level, Kazakhstani universities have yet to design English-language MOOCs for these students (ENIC-KAZAKHSTAN, 2019).

These findings support SPESD plans for 2020–2025, linking the "Education in Kazakhstan" online platform for international students with OpenU MOOCs in an effort to establish a culture around online teaching and learning in the country (MES RK, 2019). These developments also carry notable implications for enhancing students' intercultural competencies while asynchronously interacting with representatives of diverse cultural backgrounds (Bruhn, 2016). It can therefore be assumed that students' awareness of cultural differences and similarities might improve by negotiating or constructing culture through asynchronous learning via Kazakhstan's online educational platform and OpenU English-language MOOCs in the future.

The International Dimension

National policies and the literature suggest a strong relationship between the international dimension and blended learning. As an example, the Informational Kazakhstan - 2020 State Program (IKSP; Egov, 2021) states that blended learning should be introduced at all educational levels because such learning marks an international trend. The IKSP 2020 indicated the importance of ICT and e-learning in terms of inclusive education opportunities as well as the implementation and adoption of innovative teaching methods in higher education (Zerde National Infocommunication Holding, 2013). Moreover, the final Informational Kazakhstan - 2030 State Program would contribute to complete ICT integration within education as a form of digital and lifelong learning (Egov, 2021). The SPESD for 2020–2025 echoes this sentiment, as lifelong learning can promote students' professional development and competencies within online learning and distance learning (MES RK, 2019). These findings additionally reflect those of Blaschke (2014), who found that students could develop competencies and decision-making skills to become self-determined lifelong learners in the online learning environment. Consistent with the international dimension, Kazakhstan's national policies could support the adoption of innovative ICT technologies and international curricula. These policies could also create opportunities for students' future virtual mobility via flexible and inclusive blended or online learning modes (Bruhn, 2016).

Conclusion

This exploration of VI theory within the context of Kazakhstani higher education has shown that the global, intercultural, and international dimensions are useful for VI implementation. Overall, this investigation reinforces the idea that disruptive innovation includes encouraging active ways of teaching and learning in higher education (Lucas, 2016). The VI theoretical framework described herein could guide stakeholders involved in the internationalization of curriculum and in inclusive online teaching and learning using ICT. Meanwhile, further empirical research is needed to explore the experiences of Kazakhstani universities, instructional designers, and faculty in the VI of higher education.

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Exploring Students' Sense of Place in Virtual Exchange

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As an emergent form of internationalization that incorporates the use of digital technology, virtual exchange offers students the possibility to transcend national borders and connect with other students entirely within an online learning environment. Participants in virtual exchange mediate between the physical and virtual worlds; a sense of place allows them to connect with peers and actively engage with their environment. Yet the use of digital technologies that make virtual exchange possible also pose the risk of undermining the importance of place, as participants' physical locations become nearly irrelevant. Understanding students' sense of place in the online environment is therefore fundamental to harnessing the potential of virtual exchange as an engaging, inclusive, and accessible form of internationalization.

Despite a growing interest in virtual exchange in higher education, there is limited research on how students navigate their online learning environment and develop a sense of place. This study aims to fill this gap by exploring students' sense of place within virtual exchange through the following research question: *How do students construct and experience a sense of place while participating in virtual exchange?*

Literature Review

Virtual exchange provides a promising opportunity for institutions to take advantage of the digital turn (Kergel et al., 2018) in higher education to promote and increase access to internationalization. The majority of research on virtual exchange in higher education has thus far focused on pedagogy and learning outcomes such as intercultural competence (e.g., Baroni et al., 2019; O'Dowd, 2021). However, this narrow focus inadvertently positions virtual exchange alongside mobility programs (e.g., Hilliker, 2020; Ryan, 2020; Wojenski, 2019). An understanding of how students locate themselves and interact within the online learning environment of virtual exchange is necessary in order to move beyond this dichotomy and to explore virtual exchange as a more accessible, inclusive approach to internationalization in its own right.

A *sense of place,* defined as "an individual's perception of the capability of a place to actively engage the individual" (Arora & Khazanchi, 2014, p. 3), has been linked to greater student participation and is considered "crucial to [students'] overall experience of learning" (Northcote, 2008, p. 677). Yet little is known about this construct as it pertains to the online learning environment of virtual exchange, where participants simultaneously navigate and interact within both physical and online spaces.

The complexity of navigating the online learning environment cannot be fully understood through the simple dichotomy of real and virtual spaces. Several scholars (e.g., Hilli et al., 2019) have recognized the hybrid nature of online learning environments, through which participants can co-construct a third space. Drawing on the work of Bhabha (1995), the third space in virtual exchange has been described as "a neutral space" (O'Rourke, 2018, p. 28) with the potential "to promote greater respect for different ways of being and an embracing of linguistic and cultural diversity" (Helm & Acconcia, 2019, p. 215). But technology itself is not neutral (Helm, 2018); thus, online environments also run the risk of being hegemonic spaces that maintain or even exacerbate power relations among participants. Potter and McDougall (2017) highlighted this complexity of the third space, noting that power relations and inequalities may be sustained within online educational environments.

Methods

This study employed qualitative methods to explore students' sense of place within virtual exchange. The sample consisted of 29 students from 13 countries who had participated in a virtual exchange program organized by Soliya, a non-profit virtual exchange provider, within the past 6 months. Participants were interviewed in online focus groups. The interviews consisted of four questions pertaining to how students located themselves in their virtual exchange; the daily activities involved before, during, and after their exchange; and the ways they interacted with their peers. Interviews were transcribed, and a series of categories and themes related to students' sense of place in virtual exchange were generated. This analytic approach allowed for relevant themes to emerge without pre-developed templates or codes based either on theory or the interview questions themselves.

Results

Several themes were observed in the data regarding how students constructed and experienced a sense of place in their virtual exchange.

Physical and Virtual Environments

Across all focus groups, the physical environment played a dominant role in defining students' virtual exchange experiences. Most interviewed students (57%) identified their virtual exchange as having taken place primarily either in their rooms or within the geographical boundaries of their country. Only 20% of participants identified their virtual exchange as having taken place online. Findings also indicated that students' ability to access the virtual space heavily influenced students' development of a sense of place in their virtual exchange. Students in every focus group mentioned difficulties related to ensuring a stable internet connection and consistent electricity. These challenges resulted in students' inability to take part in activities and engage with peers, thereby compromising their sense of place.

Identify

The focus group discussions revealed that identity also played a key part in students' sense of place in their virtual exchange. For instance, many students discussed their national and cultural identities when describing their environment. Several students contrasted their virtual environment to their national context, describing the ability to speak freely online in ways not possible in their own country. These students were able to create a third space, one that was both neutral and safe for freedom of expression.

Furthermore, through icebreaking activities, many students described being able to form a communal identity, which contributed to students' experiencing a strong sense of place in their online environment. These activities often involved students sharing a personal object from their physical space with peers. In doing so, the icebreakers enabled students to make connections between their physical and virtual spaces and to share their physical space with their virtual exchange partners. Students were therefore able to co-create a space—one which, as Háhn (2020) suggested, centered on collaboration and understanding across cultures.

Conclusion

This study explored students' sense of place in the online learning environment of their virtual exchange. Results showed that the physical and virtual environments, as well as individual and communal identities, had pivotal roles in shaping students' sense of place in their virtual exchange. These findings should be leveraged by higher education institutions as well as virtual exchange providers to create virtual exchanges that foster a strong sense of place for students. Stakeholders should strive to address connectivity issues and develop activities in which students can co-create a shared third space. By drawing attention to students' sense of place, virtual exchange may earn its rightful place as an innovative, inclusive, and accessible form of internationalization in higher education.

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Internationalization for What and for Whom? Analyzing Recent Policies in Indian Higher Education

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The Context: India

The Indian subcontinent had a rich history of international academic activities from the 5th century BCE to the 12th century CE. Nalanda and Takshila were internationally acclaimed sites for academic excellence and critical thinking. However, the current higher education system developed during the colonial period and bears salient features of the British model, such as professorial and examining university systems. After independence, India focused on strengthening its public education system for nation building, but higher education mostly remained an elite endeavor. In 1991, India opened its economy through the New Economic Policy embracing liberalization, privatization, and globalization in many sectors including higher education. Private players stepped into the education market and sparked vast growth in enrollment (Varghese, 2016). Even then, India did not make any serious attempt to internationalize its higher education sector (Yeravdekar, 2015). Yet the National Education Policy 2020 and recent reforms in the Indian higher education sector convey the government's eagerness to do so. The recent Union Budget reflects an urgency to achieve global aspirations; budgetary allocations have increased for World Class Universities, for the "Study in India" program, for the National Mission on Education through Information and Communication Technology, and to support premiere institutions in establishing campus branches abroad (Chattopadhyay, 2022). To encourage twinning programs with foreign universities, the four-year undergraduate program is poised to replace the existing three-year program in India. This paper examines the rationale and possible implications of recent internationalization policies on India's higher education sector.

Theoretical Framework: Coloniality and Neoliberalism

I first critically review pertinent policy measures through the lenses of decoloniality and neoliberalism. Internationalization has the potential to either decolonize education systems or to strengthen coloniality (Thondhlana et al., 2021). Broader goals of internationalization include quality improvements by integrating multicultural, international, and intercultural perspectives on teaching, learning, and research (de Wit et al., 2015). The coloniality embedded in society and institutions, coupled with neoliberal reforms in education, may undermine the main objectives of internationalization if not innovatively managed. Recent reform measures at the national level reflect the underlying tenets of neoliberalism by promoting marketization and competition in higher education. Conversely, internationalization efforts are rooted within the dominant "modern/colonial global imaginary," which supports Western supremacy and capitalism (Stein et al., 2016). Keeping these intersecting frameworks in mind, I investigated several policy documents issued by the Government of India, the national Ministry of Education, and other relevant authorities along with two international education programs to analyze the motivations behind internationalization and its likely effects on India's higher education system in terms of equity.

The Questions

Internationalization for What?

Guidelines issued by the University Grants Commission (2021) contain clear internationalization objectives, such as making India an "attractive study destination" and improving the country's "global ranking in internationalisation indicators" (p. 9). India focuses on Internationalization at Home to increase in-bound student mobility by charging relatively lower costs than other global destinations. The aim is to create an image of being the "Vishwa-Guru" or global leader through the internationalization of higher education (National Education Policy, 2020). Justifications for India's internationalization are mostly economic. Internationalization is seen as a means of realizing comparative advantages in the global knowledge economy. Given this conceptualization, education is mainly important for national growth and for enhancing competitiveness in the global labor market. Subjects in STEM are therefore prioritized (Bolden & Epstein, 2006). With respect to the Global Initiatives of Academic Networks, it is not surprising that more than 80% of courses offered fall under STEM. The "Study in India" brochure mentions five points to attract international students: the size of the economy, advances in space research, global market share in the software industry, the number of Indian CEOs in Fortune 500 companies, and the country's large start-up ecosystem. The brochure carefully avoids any academic or qualitative aspects of Indian higher education and capitalizes on global power dynamics instead.

Political rationales apply as well. The core objectives behind the "Study in India" program are to use internationalization as a "tool of diplomacy" and to increase India's share in global exports of education services.[12] The prime motivation is to achieve a "soft power" rather than to create sustainable improvements in the quality of teaching, learning, and research. Indeed, there has been limited discussion on internationalizing the curriculum apart from offering Indo-centric courses. Without these, a move driven by solely economic rationales could defy the positive aspects of internationalization as a democratic and intercultural process (Knight, 2013).

Internationalization for Whom?

The guidelines for internationalization address several strategies to attain the goals of global quality standards and international competencies. However, when viewed through the lens of coloniality, the terms "glob al" and "international" refer to the Global North—mostly Europe and North America. Similarly, "quality standards" and "competencies" reflect standards establishing global university rankings as part of the neo-liberal agenda. India initially devised a strategy to welcome universities from the top 100 list in the rankings to open international branch campuses in India. The Global Initiatives of Academic Networks offered 80% of its courses with only 10 nations in the Global North while the rest of the world engaged in merely 20% of collaborations. Also, India's internationalization policies do not talk much about regional collaborations with partners in several organizations: the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation; the Association of Southeast Asian Nations; or Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa.

Due to the wide variation in quality and reputation across Indian institutions, only a handful of elite public and private universities are involved in student exchange programs and research collaborations with partners in the Global North. For instance, the Study in India program selected the first few institutions with a high rank/grade in national rankings or assessments and channeled funds to those partners; all others have suffered from a lack of infrastructure investment and a shortage of human resources.[2] Recent national policies granted the largest degree of autonomy to a few institutions with a strategic focus to appear in global rankings in the near future. Intensified competition in the global higher education market has affected the national system as well: many institutions catering to first-generation learners will find it difficult to withstand this competition (Chattopadhyay, 2021).

The University Grants Commission guidelines promote information and communication technology–based internationalization. Amid India's digital divide in terms of gender, caste, class, and geography, this move will enhance systemic bias against vulnerable communities. To participate in any such international program, the English language represents a major barrier for many students from rural backgrounds and regional medium public schools. However, the policies are silent about inclusive internationalization. Deliberate reductions in public

1 Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 691; to be answered on July 23, 2018.

2 Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 1377; to be answered on November 25, 2019.

subsidies for higher education, increasing privatization, and a lack of financial support for students in the absence of a credit market mean that government-initiated internationalization efforts could increase exclusivity and inequality in the system. In short, a fortunate subset of students from privileged backgrounds and a few elite institutions (who need not worry about autonomy or necessary resources) will participate in the internationalization movement. Meanwhile, the benefits of internationalization will not extend to the millions of students in thousands of other institutions. At the global level, in a hierarchical system of higher education, internationalization efforts driven by economic rationales can pose great obstacles for developing countries and smaller systems (Altbach, 2004).

Concluding Remarks

Based on a critical review of India's internationalization policy texts, I argue that the rationales are rooted within the imaginary of a competitive global knowledge economy (Stein et al., 2016). These policies display underlying assumptions about the supremacy of the Global North in knowledge generation, which reflects the coloniality embedded in society and institutions. Also, ranking-driven policies often amplify exclusivity and completeness in the sector while compromising quality, inclusiveness, and sustainability (Blanco et al., 2021). These policies further reduce the scope of benefits attributable to bringing intercultural, international perspectives to teaching, learning, and research. Moreover, the policies are mostly silent about harmonizing and complementing local, national, and global dimensions in higher education. On the contrary, India's aspirations to be a global leader in higher education banks on a competitive framework which commodifies students, intellectual products, teaching–learning services, and research (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002; Naidoo & Jamieson, 2005). This kind of internationalization can undermine the role of higher education as a common good and change perceptions of universities and their place in society (Altbach, 2002). In short, India's recent policies only consider internationalization as a way to gain a comparative advantage in the global trade of higher education services. Such policies completely ignore the needs to improve quality and enhance inclusivity in higher education through internationalization.

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Internationalization of Chinese Private Higher Education Institutions: Rationales and Strategies Reconsidered

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Introduction

Since the 1980s, the rise of neoliberal globalization has made the internationalization of higher education a worldwide, strategic, and prevailing feature (Knight & de Wit, 2018). China, often seen as a beneficiary of internationalization, has enjoyed economic advancement through the transference of cross-national knowledge, talent mobility, and global cooperation (Yang, 2016). The literature on what drives the internationalization of Chinese higher education has identified, relative to public universities, a desire to establish world-class institutions, engage in nation building, and increase global academic collaboration (Wu & Zha, 2018; Yang, 2016). The internationalization of Chinese private higher education institutions (CPHEIs) remains understudied despite CPHEIs accounting for 18.9% of the country's higher education enrollment. This study aims to address this issue via the glonacal agency heuristic (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002) framework. Specifically, this research explores the challenges facing CPHEIs in China's national system and identifies solutions. Findings highlight substantial deviation in rationales for internationalization in China's CPHEIs versus public universities and assesses the effectiveness of CPHEIs' strategies.

Literature Review

Private higher education has grown globally, capturing more than one-third of total enrollments, and is prevalent in developing countries (Levy, 2018). Public sector institutions have begun to face considerable financial constraints when seeking to expand to meet growing demand (Levy, 2018). Private education thus emerged to absorb excess demand via for-profit and non-profit institutions (Levy, 2006).

The rise of CPHEIs frames excess demand as market-driven rather than government-controlled. Different from public institutions, CPHEIs are unplanned and insufficiently regulated; they also encounter challenges in relation to quality, recruitment resources, financial stability, and employment outcomes (Qureshi & Khawaja, 2021). Government policymakers allow a degree of autonomy through the "Private Education Promotion Law of the People's Republic of China" to enhance the power of private capital. Such regulations mandate a dual institutional top management structure, which is necessary for all higher education institutions in the country (Liu, 2020). Various drivers of internationalization (e.g., diverse forms of economic support, "hands-off" government policies, and respect for the social environment) have been explored which are thought to benefit from policy innovation in transnational institutions (Morgan & Wu, 2011). Numerous models have been applied as well, such as Wang's (2014) tripod perspective (combining a resource-based view, contingency theory, and an institutional-based view), to clarify drivers of CPHEIs' internationalization in China. Despite these initiatives, the antecedents and justification for internationalization in CPHEIs lack empirical attention, as do strategies for international advancement.

Conceptual Framework

This study adopts the glonacal agency heuristic (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002) as a theoretical framework to examine coexisting global, national, and local factors related to higher education. Yang et al.'s (2021) model is followed in classifying CPHEIs as local organizational agencies to analyze the joint impacts of global and national forces in a two-dimensional space.

Methodology

Innovative solutions were examined from a global systems perspective, guided by the following research questions: 1) What challenges face CPHEIs in the national system?; 2) What institutional-level rationales drive CPHEIs' internationalization?; and 3) To what extent and in what ways can internationalization solve these challenges? All questions were addressed through a qualitative approach to gather empirical evidence regarding international practices and performance. Relevant data spanned organizations and governance, strategies and missions, finances and funding, transnational programs, foreign faculty and students, international curricula, and other means of international collaboration. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 26 participants, including heads of international offices and university leaders in charge of internationalization at five Chinese private universities, between May and November 2021.

The five chosen universities were in Shaanxi province, where the first group of CPHEIs opened. The institutions were founded between 1987 and 2003 and have enjoyed consistent advantages in overall ranking and national enrollment share. With more than 20,000 in-school students on average, these universities prioritize an international strategy and host transnational dual bachelor's degree programs and international bachelor–master programs.

Results

Individual 40- to 60-min interviews with 26 participants uncovered similar obstacles facing CPHEIs. Interview data were analyzed via thematic analysis of corresponding transcripts. The difficulties these universities encountered were divided into five categories: internal governance, social recognition, student recruitment, faculty quality, and economic returns. A common problem was the low number of students. In 2021, with an enrollment rate of 57.8%, all Chinese high school graduates could earn a place in tertiary education. CPHEIs thus needed to transition from being market-driven and "excess demand-absorbing" to being strategy-driven and "differentiated demand-absorbing" (Jiang, 2021). CPHEIs that had greater flexibility in the administration, management, and implementation of internationalization were motivated to look for solutions through internationalization.

The identified rationales were highly relevant to CPHEIs' challenges. First, different from centralized and unified public universities, the focal cases exhibited a governance model with clear "inward-oriented internationalization" (Wu & Zha, 2018). Four universities emphasized their reform based on de-administration, combining schools into divisions and collegiate systems by learning from the Western governance system. Second, compared with domestic programs, these universities' foreign and cooperative programs were more respected in Chinese society. Besides international programs, two universities adopted international certificate programs such as those offered through the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants and the designation of Chartered Financial Analyst. They also stressed international accreditation as a key strategy. Third, all five universities underscored the importance of attracting foreign talent. Many international faculty with rich educational and professional backgrounds favored private institutions over public ones; private universities currently have no ceilings for promotions, flexible administrative systems, and considerate intercultural communication. Fourth, international cooperation led to more pluralistic curricula that were adaptable to graduates' employment prospects. These universities highlighted language courses, intercultural understanding, writing, and critical skills in general education. Most importantly, the tuition fees of all transnational programs were much higher than those of domestic programs, thereby generating greater economic returns.

Overall, CPHEIs in global networks presented solutions to difficulties arising from national sources. A global network hence appears indispensable to promoting the development of CPHEIs in China's centralized system. It also plays a catalyzing role, driving the prosperity of China's public higher education sector which is chiefly supported by the Chinese government.

Discussion

This study offers insight for future research on the relationships between national systems and global networks. Zapp (2022) explored the association between global science expansion and democratic polities and found that a democratic polity is a non-essential condition for expansion, contradicting his hypothesis. China is a less democratic polity whose swift growth in science has benefitted from a widening global network—and in particular a mutually productive relationship with the United States (Marginson, 2021). Therefore, rather than simply reflecting on a country's democratic nature, it is important to consider national policy and institutions' degree of autonomy.

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University–Agent Relationships in International Student Recruitment Revisited

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As the top destination country for international students, U.S. universities host the largest number of international students in the world (WorldAtlas, 2021). These universities have adopted various recruitment practices to increase international student enrollment. One non-traditional avenue involves using third-party, for-profit recruitment agencies to enlarge the pool of possible applicants.

Although a large number of institutions use recruitment agents (NACAC, 2021), debate persists among scholars and administrators regarding this practice. Proponents have argued that international student recruitment agents enable universities to recruit students without traveling abroad. Opponents have contended that this practice may go against students' best interests due to a heightened potential for fraud and other unethical activity (Reisberg & Altbach, 2011). The agent debate captures the rewards and risks of using agents to recruit international students.

Researchers have considered universities' use of agents for international student recruitment (Coco, 2015; Huang et al., 2016; Kirsch, 2014; Nikula & Kivistö, 2019). Most work has adopted a university perspective through the lens of agency theory (Huang et al., 2016; Nikula & Kivistö, 2019), offering a control-based approach to address opposing interests in an empowered relationship. The assumption is that conflicts of interest between the principal and the agent exist in myriad situations in different fields, with both parties being motivated to pursue their self-interests instead of mutual interests.

Yet agency theory ignores the complexities of human nature and fails to indicate why the principal's and agent's interests sometimes coincide (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). Trust-based stewardship theory may provide a different view of the principal–agent relationship by using steward instead of agent, thus describing how a collaborative relationship can exist when people are intrinsically driven to work for others or for the good of organizations. Two relevant hypotheses are examined in this qualitative study:

H1: Satisfaction levels with the same elements significantly differ between international student recruitment agents and U.S. universities.

H2: The elements of stewardship theory are associated with reported levels of satisfaction with the relationships between U.S. universities and international student recruitment agents.

Potential participants for this study were recruited from the American International Recruitment Council. This organization has been recognized as an entity that sets standards for the international education agency industry (Coco, 2015). We sent survey invitations to AIRC members (N = 316) and received 77 completed surveys.

The survey was adapted from a measure developed by Schillemans and Bjurstrøm (2020). We used 12 descriptive items based on the six elements of relationships between U.S. universities and international student recruitment agents. Each element was presented in two statements, one representing agency theory and one representing stewardship theory, aligned with survey items as shown in Table 1. These 12 statements required responses about respondents' personal experiences and their expectations in optimal situations. Items were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = never, 5 = always).

Findings revealed that U.S. universities and international student recruitment agents reported significant differences ($p < .05$) in several situations. First, agents were less satisfied than universities with the amount of discretion they had in deciding how tasks were performed. Second, agents were also less satisfied than universities with the present situation of agents

Table 1

Alignment of Elements, Theories, & Items

Element	**Theory**	**Item**
Selection	Agency	During negotiations, the university or agent keeps a close eye on one's own interests.
	Stewardship	In practice, the university and the agent share the same interests.
Preferences	Agency	The university primarily makes decisions based on pre-defined performance indicators regarding international-student recruitment.
	Stewardship	The university and the agent conjointly develop a shared perspective on the goals and implementations of international-student recruitment.
Procedures	Agency	The university presents in detail in what ways and within what boundary conditions the recruitment needs to be performed.
	Stewardship	The agent has substantial discretion in deciding how tasks are performed, as long as it leads to results.
Incentives	Agency	Monetary incentives beyond the contracted amount are provided for the agent during international recruitment .
	Stewardship	The university uses non-monetary forms of motivation to encourage the agent.
Monitoring	Agency	The university monitors the agent to make sure the services provided are of a high-quality during recruitment .
	Stewardship	The university entrusts the agent to ascertain that the services are of a high-quality during recruitment.
Relationship management	Agency	All interactions are formal, informal contacts are avoided.
	Stewardship	The university and the agent are equal partners in the relationship.

To test H1, we conducted independent-samples t tests to compare universities' and agents' satisfaction with each element in light of agency theory and stewardship theory. Results are listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Satisfaction Levels for Each Element by University & Agent

		University		Agent			
Element	Theory	Satisfaction Level		Satisfaction Level			
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(75)	*p*
Selection	PA	-.32	.88	-.62	.94	.59	.56
	PS	1.26	.85	1.31	1.11	-.39	.7
Preferences	PA	.01	1	-.52	.88	1.78	.08
	PS	1.23	1.1	1.64	1.31	-1.26	.21
Procedures	PA	.06	1.13	-.1	1.2	.09	.93
	PS	.85	1.3	1.53	1.65	-2.11	.04*
Incentives	PA	.18	1.19	.94	1.09	-2.14	.03*
	PS	1.05	1.21	1.6	.98	-1.25	.22
Monitoring	PA	.29	.96	.02	1.09	.7	.49
	PS	1.04	1.13	1.55	1.17	-2.05	.04*
Relationship management	PA	-.66	1.3	-.55	1.38	-.03	.97
	PS	1.39	1.17	1.78	1.14	-1.16	.25

*Note: PA = agency theory; PS = stewardship theory; *p < .05.*

being offered monetary incentives beyond the contracted amount during international student recruitment. U.S. universities also expected less use of this practice whereas agents expected more. Third, agents were less satisfied with the current circumstance of trusting agents to provide high-quality recruitment services and expected more use of this practice. Therefore, H1 was partially supported.

In addition, we computed Pearson's r correlations between total satisfaction levels and element usage to test H2. We calculated (n = 12) sums of the absolute values of deviations of each element between optimal situations and personal experiences based on agency theory and stewardship theory; scores ranged from 0 to 48. We divided the sum by the total number of elements from both theories (n = 12) to make the results relative to the initial 5-point Likert-type scale. Therefore, total satisfaction levels (i.e., absolute values) ranged from 0 to 4 (0 = very satisfied, 4 = very dissatisfied). Correlations among total satisfaction levels and the actual use of each element based on personal experience are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Correlations of Total Satisfaction Levels with Each Element in Actual Use

Element	Theory	Total Satisfaction
Selection	PA PS	.03 -.31**
Preferences	PA PS	.05 -.44**
Procedures	PA PS	.03 -.35**
Incentives	PA PS	.06 -.18**
Monitoring	PA PS	-.15** -.49**
Relationship management	PA PS	.16* -.21**

Notes: PA = agency theory; PS = stewardship theory; $**p < .01$.

Moderately negative correlations were found between total satisfaction levels and four stewardship theory elements, indicating that the overall satisfaction in university–agent relationships could increase if these stewardship theory elements were applied more in reality. As such, H2 was partially supported.

Based on our results, we recommend greater adoption of stewardship theory elements (e.g., trust, hands-off strategies, and substantial discretion) to enhance satisfaction within university–agent relationships. More stewardship elements might improve existing relationships that appear to be dominated by agency theory elements. For example, identifying shared interests and goals, treating agents as extensions of the university's recruiting team, allowing some contract flexibility, being open to suggestions, and communicating patiently will build mutual trust between U.S. universities and agents to ultimately benefit these partnerships in the long run.

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Spatiality's Contributions To Advancing International Student Services: A Case Study of New International Student Orientation

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As U.S. universities internationalize their campuses, their efforts include expanding international student enrollment (Knight, 2012). Such actions necessitate student support services to ensure these students' success and persistence. Despite rising international enrollment in the past decade, advocates argue that U.S. institutions do not provide adequate student support and have called for more developed services to achieve these goals (Glass et al., 2013; Mamiseishvili, 2012), most recently during the COVID-19 pandemic (Cheng, 2020).

As a practitioner who works with international students, I wondered why such calls continue if the higher education community knows how to support these students. Much research on international students and services is grounded in works such as Tinto's (1988) theory of student departure (Mamiseishvili, 2012), which advocates for students' academic and social integration in their college communities. For international students, integration relates to their adjustment to society and U.S. higher education culture as well as their academic and social development (Arthur, 2017; Glass et al., 2013). Scholars have even shared examples of support services like social events, buddy programs, and tutoring resources (Spencer, 2016). While useful, I noticed that such examples lacked detail on how to organize and incorporate these services into a holistic organizational network with clear communication across units in ways that yield persistence—especially during disruptive times. If support staff are to better support international students in periods of change, another approach may be helpful to consider how to holistically perform that work and (re)imagine services as part of an integrated support system.

Relational space and actor–network theory (ANT) offer insight for exploring connections, relationships, and interactions between several entities: organizational units; individual practitioners; and non-human, (in)visible actors like programs, policies, or even modes of communication. This approach to imagining ways that social relations and practices come together to affect students provides an innovative way to think beyond discrete interventions and practices, ultimately informing a cohesive strategy to support students.

Relational space is the intersection of social relations and a constellation of relationships that are continuously and simultaneously constructed and performed as people, objects, locations, time, and other factors come into and out of contact with one another (Massey, 2005). Acknowledging relational space, ANT (Latour, 2005) monitors different actors (e.g., people, objects, or discourses) as they enter and exit relationships. Importantly, these theories frame "non-human actants" like policies or technologies as equally important to understanding the network. Tracking staff practices, other actors, networks, and their relationships can illuminate key elements that speak to organizational complexities and contextual dynamics that seem missing within current theory grounding this work.

Intrigued by ongoing calls to better support these students, in the fall of 2020, I utilized relational space and ANT to explore the ways in which staff at Southeastern Urban University (SEUU) performed one such service, the new international student orientation, during the COVID-19 pandemic. I generated data via a mini-ethnographic case study (Fusch et al., 2017) by observing and interviewing a variety of SEUU staff members across SEUU's main campus and reviewing diverse artifacts. With these data, I traced relations between participants and the objects they used or encountered during their everyday work. I then employed thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to conduct detailed investigations of these performances in what I call the "orientation network." This study yielded insightful findings that can further the work of practitioners who serve international students. First, rather than being a discrete but important student success program, new international student orientation is a complex and messy actor network. Myriad human and non-human actors interacted and circulated among each other in particular ways to bring the orientation's planning, development, and implementation activities to fruition in this case. For example, I identified U.S. immigration policy and Microsoft Teams (hereafter "Teams") as actors in the network and traced how they became entangled with other human and non-human actors (e.g., International Student Office [ISO] staff and partner SEUU units) in certain ways to enact orientation work practices. Further, I identified COVID-19 as a critical actor in the orientation network: the virus shaped when and how government and institutional officials updated policies, leading to ever-shifting requirements that SEUU staff had to manage while performing core work duties.

COVID-19 enrolled two other actors in the orientation network that similarly molded staff work activities and performance: uncertainty and risk. Uncertainty contributed to how ISO staff approached risk mitigation to minimize adverse, unforeseen consequences. For instance, should any member have developed COVID-19, they would have no longer been able to work in the office for an extended period. In-person communication is integral to these staff members' work functions around immigration compliance. ISO staff thus considered how to manage the risk of exposure and the potential for member absences. Staff altered their in-office activities based on various internal and external guidelines, including recommendations about social distancing, mask wearing, and so on.

Related processes for evaluating health and safety due to the risk of virus transmission also affected orientation work. To respond to uncertainty and lessen risk, ISO staff engaged "fluid" virtual actors (e.g., Teams, Blackboard, and email) to move several normally in-person student orientation interactions and behind-the-scenes tasks into synchronous and asynchronous environments. These shifts caused staff members' work to extend for a longer time and led new non-human actors to enter the network: student time zones, technology training, and computer and internet access. As such, the orientation network mobilized ISO staff to reconsider event goals and objectives, measures of success, and how SEUU campus partners could assist. Although some actor networks failed during the pandemic, such as one SEUU college's exchange program, the new international student orientation network successfully materialized—albeit in a different form that required improvisation.

This case study illuminates opportunities to advance international student support services to realize better outcomes and respond to advocates' calls. For example, when reviewing a student service or program, stakeholders should monitor its human and non-human components and the ways in which these aspects relate (or not) to one another. It is also essential to consider entities' configurations and to note who and what contributes to resulting performance. Should other actors, such as campus partners or technology tools, be included or excluded to accomplish stated objectives? Similarly, stakeholders should consider the depth of relationships among actors within and outside of the service/program network. Those who are best able to cope with uncertainty have resources and reliable relationships that are mutually beneficial (Beauregard, 2018). Therefore, if a campus partner should be included in a service/program network—perhaps because they could decrease stress and resource strain—how can they be engaged to collaborate? Might non-human actors, such as data, help to persuade them and deepen the relationship?

Last, staff across the university should be encouraged or required to receive training on topics such as intercultural competency or working with international students. Staff members' personal backgrounds influence how they communicate with international students, which can lead to unnecessarily referring students to the ISO due to feeling incompetent or apprehensive. The more all university staff members realize their roles in the international student support network and acquire training, the more empowered and confident they may feel in their work. This study's alternative approach to exploring one SEUU international student support service as an actor network serves to inspire others to consider how they can (re)imagine and transform their own services. Examining the complex organizational interactions in which such work is situated enables educators to advance their efforts at any time and in any space.

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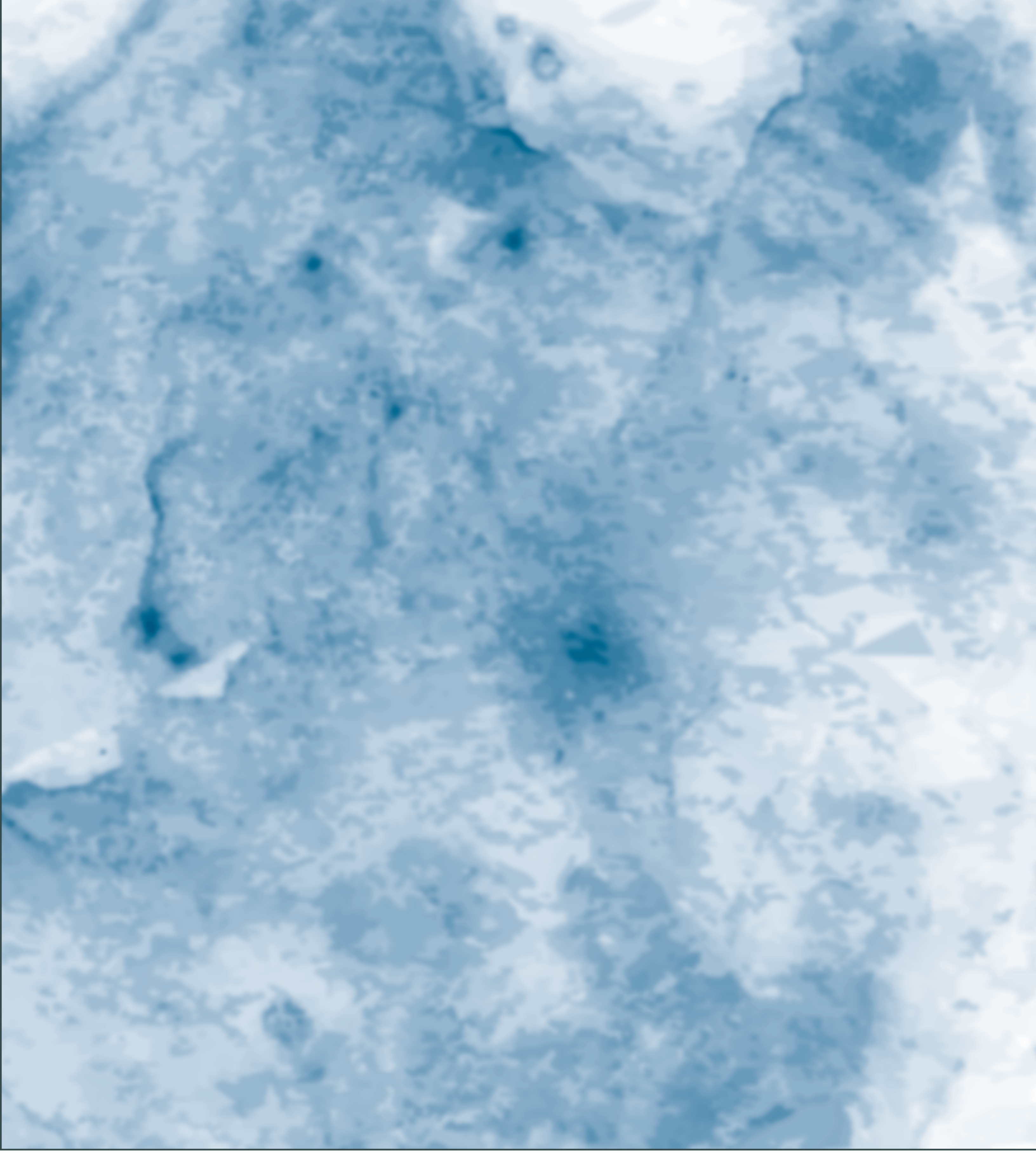

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