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Philosophy for Comparative and Int'l Higher Education
This is the official journal of the Comparative and International Education Society’s (CIES) Higher Education Special Interest Group (HESIG), which was created in 2008. HESIG serves as a networking hub for promoting scholarship opportunities, critical dialogue, and linking professionals and academics to the international aspects of higher education. Accordingly, HESIG will serve as a professional forum supporting development, analysis, and dissemination of theory-, policy-, and practice-related issues that influence higher education.

Submission and Review
The Editorial Board invites contributions dealing with the complementary fields of comparative, international, and development education and that relate to one of the areas listed in the Philosophy section above. Contributors may:

1) Submit a research article of 4,500 - 7,500 words. All articles will undergo a blind-review peer-editing process.
2) Submit a comparative report analysis of 750 - 1,000 words that examines current policies related to higher education institutional policy.
3) Submit graduate student research in-progress of 500 - 1,000 words that shares new research that will help to set the tone for current and emerging issues in the field.

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Introduction to the JCIHE Spring 2020 Issue

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Dear Readers -

I am pleased to share the Spring 2020 issue of the *Journal of Comparative and International Higher Education* (JCIHE). JCIHE is the flagship journal of the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) Higher Education SIG. The articles in the journal include original research that is used in practice as well as in bringing advances in understanding of methods, theories, and application of comparative and international higher education. Submissions include a range of contexts, perspectives, methodologies, and intersections of disciplines. The Spring 2020 issue includes six articles that explore applications of comprehensive internationalization and that utilize new methodologies to critically reflect on how traditional constructs exit within new contexts.

Two of the articles utilize the construct of comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik 2011) and apply it to the interconnectedness of programs, policies, and practices at their case-study institutions. Sarita Rai, in “Making a Case For An Integrated Faculty-Designed and Faculty-Operated Study Abroad Center” uses a case study of the University of Hawai’i Mānoa Study Abroad Center to show how student success in studying abroad is connected to the existence of a solid Study Abroad Center that uses comprehensive internationalization to build faculty engagement, shared governance, and support from executive officers that define that center as an academic unit with academic commitments. Ielyzaveta Shchepetylnykova and Samantha Alvis, in “Contribution of International Development Activities to Comprehensive Internationalization of U.S. Public Universities” examines an understudied aspect of comprehensive internationalization in US universities, that of international development. One form of international development is university engagement which the authors suggest is fundamental in how international development activities advance core education, research, and service missions of HEIs.

The other four articles in the Spring 2020 issue question traditional thinking and discourse on comparative and international higher education. By using non-traditional methodologies and by using critical analysis, these authors examine similar situations but in a different context. Santiago Castiello-Guitierrez, in “No Fees to Enroll Them All? The State of College Access in México” explores the situation in which the Mexican federal government, along with the public and private educational institutions, have implemented different approaches to increase educational access. The article conducts a critical policy analysis of legislation that made higher education compulsory and uses holistic analysis to show the need to include issues of equity and quality when focusing on increasing access. Renee Drabier and Carol P. Fimmen in “A Qualitative Analysis: Mexican University Student Written Advice to Future Students at the Conclusion of a Semester Abroad Experience” examines peer mentoring in a case study of the Alamo Community College District Bécalos Program. The article uses student journaling to create new discourses on how to use student voices to effectively peer mentor new generations of students. In particular, the article shows how peer advice from one class of Mexican student to the next provides information that will help to improve their future student experiences as well as to inform structural changes to the program itself.

Peace Ginika Nwokedi and Fumane P. Khanare, in “Thriving in the Face of Adversity: Mapping Experiences of International Students in a South African Higher Education Institution” explore an under-studied population of international students who are studying in a South Africa HEI by using the photo-voice methodology to critically
assess how student voices that are largely unheard. They also show how by recognizing this silence it can inform reform efforts in regard to their experiences and wellbeing in South Africa. Finally, William Geibel, in “A Pedagogy of Student Mobility: Facilitating Humanistic Outcomes in Internationalization and Student Mobility” questions the traditional belief that attendance alone can facilitate humanistic outcomes commonly associated with student mobility. By using a pedagogy of student mobility, the author critically assesses that for success, mobility needs to be seen as an educational activity that is facilitated by the university in specific and designated practices.

As JCIHE growths in breadth and depth, it is important to continually refine a structure that is useable for our readership. Widespread recognition of the importance of comparative and international higher educational themes in a variety of educational fields drives the need continually to broaden the focus of the journal. These emerging issues cross national boundaries and in so doing build new patterns of publishing to help to better understand the state of our field. Special thanks are given to the JCIHE Managing Editor, Dr. Hayes Tang for his support, insight, and creativity.

Editor-in-Chief,
Rosalind Latiner Raby, Ph.D.
Spring 2020

References

www.nafsa.org/_/File/_/downloads/cizn_concept_action.pdf
Making a Case for An Integrated Faculty-Designed and Faculty-Operated Study Abroad Center

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Introduction

Study abroad matters. This might seem to be a very simple statement, but ensuring that study abroad matters is actually complicated and difficult. Using the University of Hawai‘i Mānoa Study Abroad Center as a case study, this essay argues that in all areas of programming and functioning, a viable Study Abroad Center must involve faculty from all areas of the institution. Having faculty members with an active stake in Study Abroad is, indeed, the single most important way to bring about positive outcomes and to sustain them in both the short term and the long term (Giedt et. al. 2015, 173; Gose 2018, 1-3). The problem is that many factors are at work, and high-level administrative officers do not always view the Study Abroad Center as an academic unit with academic commitments. They tend instead to see it as a way to elevate and publicly show the international standing of the institution (Eaton, et. al., 2013). For example, the annual survey of study abroad and international programs compiled by Open Doors ranks schools according to their total number of participating students (“Leading Institutions”). These types of data can be highly effective tools for universities’ recruitment purposes. Looking beyond the number of participants, this paper focuses on a more subtle and important factor: that of shared governance. Consequently, I argue here that positive outcomes for students depend on shared governance, and the key to shared governance is participation by faculty. In other words, two crucial aspects of a thriving Study Abroad Center are high faculty involvement and shared governance.

Contexts

The Study Abroad Center of the University of Hawai‘i is an integrated faculty-designed and faculty-operated center. In operation for over three decades, its system may be particularly useful for faculty or administrators who want to know how other institutions have created and sustained programs with high faculty involvement. It is fairly safe to say that faculty initiatives are not always the top priority of senior international officers and that top-down communication can be problematic. Kellie Woodhouse, for example, looks at this issue, and foregrounds effective communication as a sign of healthy shared governance and a healthy institution. She discusses numerous places, including Harvard University, the University of Michigan, King’s College in Pennsylvania, and Creighton University, where faculty have protested or were at odds not just with senior officers’ proposed budgets but how those plans were communicated from administration down to the academic units and faculty organizations (2015, n.p.). These and other examples that Woodhouse provides illustrate how nonacademic, upper-level management often focuses on increasing student enrollment and on prioritizing revenues coming into the school (also see Eaton et. al. 2013; Ehrenberg 2000; Slaughter and Leslie 1997). Virginia Horvath, President of SUNY Fredonia since 2012, explains that priorities such as these develop as colleges and universities “are challenged to operate under greater external scrutiny, with expectations of compliance with shifting state and federal policies, and demands for efficiencies in all operations.” Her co-author, Rob Deemer, cites ten reasons that the sharing of responsibilities is “rarely modeled or encouraged” in academia (2), and among those reasons is the influx of officers and board members who come from corporate environments (Deemer
and Horvath 2017, 22-30). Larry G. Gerber echoes this position. He argues that corporate-based assumptions about “readily quantifiable bottom-line ‘outcomes’” and emphases on accountability and assessment are too often used primarily to justify receiving continued funding (2004, 166-67). Success, however, for study abroad programs run by a faculty director whose foremost priority is academically rigorous programming is more likely to be gauged in terms of 1) appropriate curriculum for students needing to fulfill requirements and make progress in their major fields, 2) meeting learning outcomes that measure students’ international competencies, 3) enabling faculty to conduct scholarship, research, and course development based on their teaching assignment along with service and scholarship that keep them on track toward tenure and promotion, and even more broadly 4) creating international multi-institutional collaborations. José Antonio Torralba details this in the context of developing service-learning partnerships with schools and local agencies in host cities (55-62). When accomplished, even in this individual area, the results can have an enormously positive impact on all levels of an institution. Meeting them contributes to long-term morale, student retention and graduation rates, and to the international reputation of the institution. Meeting all of these goals is ambitious, but with strategic planning and perseverance, it can be done.

Methods

The ideas in this article emerged during a project from 2010 to 2018 that involved research, writing, and editing and which led to a volume of essays published in 2019. That project, both collaborative and multidisciplinary, involved working with research partners and contributing authors from disciplines ranging from international education to mathematics, sciences, and the liberal arts. The essays in the volume were intended to be, and are, expository and informational rather than rhetorically argumentative or controversial. In contrast, this article demonstrates the stakes that underlie curricula and policies of study abroad programs. My position here is, therefore, thesis-driven and meant to encourage ongoing debate about the role of shared governance in higher education. To this end, I rely on contemporary and recent scholarship in international education, higher education, university structures, and study abroad. I also use an instrumental case study of a large public university, one where I have directed a highly diverse study abroad program for over twenty-five years. Well aware of the limitations, I have chosen to describe and analyze this single case because it offers a vivid picture of the dynamics and pressures that occur over time, especially as senior officers come-and-go and upper management works to implement new policies and procedures. The case-study approach here draws particularly on research whose focus is the history and evolution of study abroad opportunities provided by U.S. postsecondary institutions. Finally, the article seeks to showcase the dynamics of a shared-governance model for study abroad programs and to offer perspectives for specialists whose job is to initiate and sustain Study Abroad programs in the twenty-first century.

A Case Study and Implications

Founded in 1907, The University of Hawai’i at Mānoa is a land, sea, and space grant research-intensive university. This means that the school is obligated to teach curricula that cover agriculture, earth science, ocean studies, and space research along with other disciplines offered at a comprehensive institution of higher education. It therefore awards bachelors, masters, and doctoral degrees across nine colleges and nine schools (manoa.hawaii.edu/academics/colleges/). The University of Hawai’i at Mānoa, in Honolulu, is the flagship campus of a ten-campus system that includes community colleges and two four-year colleges. The system has professional schools, research facilities, and community-based learning centers. Total enrollment is approximately 51,674 students (“About the University,” 2019). State funds form 44 percent of its income (“Annual Financial Report,” 2019), which is substantial in comparison to other large public U.S. universities (Seltzer 2018). The University promotes international
research in many disciplines. International activities are central to the institution’s formal mission statement. Nonetheless, state funding from the Hawai‘i State Legislature has gradually diminished.

There were attempts through the decades to build a study abroad program, and as happens in other institutions, establishing long-term personnel was difficult. But in 1979, the Director of International Students under the auspices of the Student Affairs Office was given the responsibilities to make study abroad available, and, in the late 1980s, the Hawai‘i State Legislature clarified its commitment to internationalization of the university. It created two full-time, tenure-track faculty positions for individuals to organize and run a program that would be viable for both students and faculty. These two faculty appointments, requiring advanced degrees and allowing for individuals to come up for tenure and promotion, were and remain today unusual in postsecondary institutions. The decision was likely due to the Board of Regents’ policy regarding multiple classifications of faculty eligible for tenure. For example, in addition to “I” faculty for instructors, there are “R” faculty for researchers, “S” faculty for specialists who develop and administer academic programs, and “E” faculty (extension agents) who work primarily in the community (Board of Regents, 2018). Not many Study Abroad offices can claim similar positions for administrators contractually to engage in academic activities and research, but my purpose is to illustrate the possibility of a best-case scenario when Study Abroad has continuous support and collaborative advocacy.

The location of study abroad within the administrative structure of a university is generally a reliable indication of how its purpose is understood by senior officials (Rai 2019, 144-156). In accordance with the history and development of the institution, the office will likely operate under the aegis of student services or else under academic affairs. Students need to receive good counseling wherever the office is placed, so it behooves study abroad personnel to be knowledgeable about the structure of their institution and to work within the limits of what they understand will be feasible. To be sure, many universities have Study Abroad programs operated by an Office of Student Affairs (DeYoung and Primak, 2010, 18-19). But in larger terms, this means that a nonteaching unit, without faculty affiliations or direct participation by departments or academic divisions, finds ways to send students abroad and receive credits transferred from a host institution. Such credits may or may not be accepted by new department heads, and these credits must always be approved on a one-to-one basis, a process that can take considerable time and leave students in academic limbo. Home institution instructors do not necessarily accompany students to the host institutions or third-party provider sites. Students with academic, emotional, or health problems may be left to fend on their own, and if they find an appropriate site administrator or adviser, that person may not be able to offer help as quickly or for as long as the students need. Melissa Morgenstern, a translator/journalist who studied in China, writes that it is “surprisingly common” for students to experience depression or anxiety due to the “unexpected or underestimated challenges of diving head first into a new language and/or culture” (2018, n.p.). She advises students to know beforehand the benefits of their medical insurance, but as happened in her own case, pre-orientation counseling can get lost in the midst of other priorities. She cautions also that finding host school therapists or private professionals can take time, be limited in availability, and be subject to local laws and restrictions. Apart from these academic and personal counseling issues, the institutional affiliations with the international locations may be thin. Though faculty may be encouraged to organize individual study tours with their students, these are most often on an ad hoc basis and for short periods of time. This is especially the case in the third-party provider model, which does not facilitate collaboration among the participating schools. And most crucially, students who go abroad leave their home school without assurances of mentoring, appropriate advising, or an academic program with the same quality as their home institutions.

With potential lessons for other programs, the Hawai‘i Study Abroad Center demonstrates that even in a best-case scenario, maintaining academic emphases can be a challenge. This is true even when Study Abroad is state-mandated as a comprehensive, university-wide office with permanent positions. Here is some history: In 1993, it became clear that being situated in the Office of Student Affairs was not an appropriate alignment for the Center. The faculty wanted a different model, and they made their case. They formed a group called the Study Abroad Advisory Committee, which
advocated for a Center that functions with the cooperation of academic departments and colleges, and the group’s efforts were successful. As a result, the Study Abroad Center was removed from the Office of Student Affairs and into the Office of Academic Affairs. This shift would not have happened without the urging of faculty. Activist in nature, the instructors understood studying abroad to be an academic matter. They wanted to ensure high-quality opportunities that were appropriate for their students. Simply put, studying abroad became an academically contextualized program under the direct purview of the Vice President of Academic Affairs. Access to a Vice President came along with the move and gave dramatic momentum to the Center’s reputation and programming opportunities. The Director, who is also a faculty member, can innovate and launch new programs in consultation with faculty and students, who believe that certain curricula will enhance their education. The concept of shared governance and faculty governance is easier to support than the actual practicing of it, but the Study Abroad Center relies heavily on just that practice. As Gary A. Olson writes in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (2009), “Shared” governance has come to connote two complementary and sometimes overlapping concepts: giving various groups of people a share in key decision-making processes, often through elected representation; and allowing certain groups to exercise primary responsibility for specific areas of decision making (n.p.).

**Specific Examples of Shared Governance**

Scholarship indicates that shared governance is the subject of ongoing dialogue in the profession. Numerous recent studies look at the advantages, disadvantages, and challenges for all of the involved constituencies. Larry G. Gerber’s *The Rise & Decline of Faculty Governance: Professionalization and the Modern American University* recounts the history of shared governance in higher education and presents various perspectives on best practices for the future management of U.S. colleges and universities (2014). Sharon F. Cramer’s two volumes of essays by distinguished contributors *Shared Governance in Higher Education: Demands, Transitions, Transformations* (2017) and *Shared Governance in Higher Education: New Paradigms, Evolving Perspectives* (2017) are comprehensive books for all individuals impacted by current discussion on the collaborative processes fundamental to shared governance. William G. Bowen’s and Eugene M. Tobin’s *Locus of Authority: The Evolution of Faculty Roles in the Governance of Higher Education* (2015) uses four case studies to consider when trying to find the most effective decision-making strategies in the contexts of academic freedom and organizational hierarchies.

At my own university, important instances of shared governance for Study Abroad begin with a multidisciplinary Advisory Committee that advocated in the early-1990s for an academically driven Study Abroad Center. The ideas discussed in that group evolved into what is now called The Council on Study Abroad, and the Council’s ongoing role exemplifies how various groups of people collectively make key decisions. This Council consists of fourteen members, one of whom is ex-officio (Study Abroad Director). Council members, who are appointed by the Faculty Senate of the University, collectively bring to bear diverse academic expertise; currently they represent departments or schools of French, English, Asian Studies, Social Work, Civil and Environmental Engineering, Business, Hawaiian Studies, Food Human Nutrition and Animal Sciences, Political Science, Law, Nursing, Physics, and Plant and Environmental Science. The Council’s fundamental charges are to recommend policy and advise on proposed programs in terms of feasibility and academic quality. The Council appoints Study Abroad Resident Directors and collaborates with Program Review committees to evaluate the Center’s offerings in conjunction with periodic five-year program reviews. Additionally, the Council functions as the curriculum committee of the Study Abroad Center, choosing varied and inventive course proposals by faculty applicants that reflect the study abroad location (students also take courses with the host school professors). Recent offerings chosen by the Council on Study Abroad include “Berlin and the Digital Music Era,” “Art & Lies: Popular Fiction about Art in Paris,” “Physics in Florentine Art,” and “Survey of the Sociology of Aging in Japan.” In all these ways, the Council ensures that the Mission of the Study Abroad Center is achieved. It also ensures that course offerings differ from year to year, aiming for diversification of content and
disciplines. As deWinter and Rumbley write, the increases in the number of selections in study abroad “have required greater involvement on the part of the faculty in the design, management, and assessments of the programs” (2010, 103).

Given the serious responsibilities of the Council on Study Abroad, it is worth pointing out its role in selecting individuals to teach in our programs. The Council makes its selections from an applicant pool for every country and every semester. The application process is competitive, with slots available to faculty in all disciplines and departments. While a number of programs exist that emphasize language instruction, most of them include elective language study but offer courses in many subjects represented by the Council’s members. The Council’s decisions are by majority vote, and members are free to consult with the Director, when necessary. The Director then implements Council policy and makes the operational and logistical decisions.

Study abroad offices elsewhere may or may not have faculty directors, but a full team of faculty and administrators working in a shared governance capacity is crucial to sustain faculty support, advocacy, and program legitimation. Krawutschke and Sideli recommend this full-team approach for implementation and legitimation of overseas programs (1993, 27-28). Indeed, they cite a National Task Force Report that recognized this necessity early on and that gave the lack of institutional commitment as the first of seven factors that can stand in the way of expanding and improving studying abroad (1993, 269-70). In very specific terms, faculty enthusiasm and support of study abroad has meant for us a seamless working relationship with home-based academic divisions that ensure academic integrity and credit articulation. It is largely faculty governance that allows our students, wherever they go abroad, to fulfill major, general education, and graduation requirements. There are a few departments that give students added options for study abroad, but the Study Abroad Center is the only unit that provides programming and curriculum to the entire student body.

The Business of Study Abroad

It is no secret that private and public postsecondary institutions across the country are being corporatized. Some schools may be affected more than others, but essentially this means that upper management has been organized and reorganized according to corporate structures (Bok 2004; DeBoer 2015). Universities are under pressure to adopt corporate models for their internal organization, and the result has been the emergence of a powerful managerial class. In international education and study abroad arenas, this has taken the form of positions such as international vice presidents, international provosts, assistant international vice provosts, and senior international officers. These officers may have been instructional faculty earlier in their careers, but they generally have far more experience in administration than in their original fields. Understandably, they come to measure success in terms of student numbers and revenues. Faculty and faculty administrators responsible to their departments and academic units, though, tend to give more priorities to curricula and academics. Budgets cannot be ignored, but they may not to be the very foremost consideration. While it could be argued that senior-level managers and their mid-level appointees bring practical knowledge into the mix of faculty governance, this may not always be the case. The idea of shared governance is not part of the corporate hierarchy, and may, in fact, be co-opted by top management. The corporate model, in contrast to the faculty governance or shared governance model, bars collaboration and seeks to maintain distance between management and individual directors, faculty administrators, and faculty instructors. Directives originate from the presidential or provost levels ultimately responsible to a Board of Regents. As Steven Bahls writes, many board members “tend to view shared governance as an obligation to consult with faculty before major decisions go forward” and use words such as “sign-off” and “buy-in” to characterize all that they want from faculty. Bahls adds that even board members who recognize that consultation with faculty can be very useful often still focus on “their right to retain ultimate control more than on their obligation to share governance in the most meaningful way” (Bahls 2017, 84-85). There is no conspiracy here, but rather two organizational models for postsecondary institutions. While again it could
be argued that the two models provide a salutary mix of opinions that in the long run offers the best prospects for a healthy financial and academic future, the actual experience may be more complicated.

Repercussions and Challenges—Study Abroad at Risk

Like many other universities, the University of Hawai‘i system has undergone many reorganizations due to the emergence of both an academic managerial class and the corporatization of higher education. For the Study Abroad Center, the reorganizations have created distinct challenges. The insertion of an additional layer of management has been both political and politicized. The new managerial position that is most directly relevant to my work as the Director of the Study Abroad Center is the position of an Assistant Vice Chancellor in charge of International and Exchange Programs. The nomenclature might seem benign, but the stated responsibilities reveal something else. The single position is actually a dual one, because the person serves two jobs: halftime as Dean of a College and halftime as Assistant Vice Chancellor for International and Exchange Programs, reporting to the Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs. This Assistant Vice Chancellor also oversees five offices that, again on first glance, appear to be related but actually have rather different constituents. These are International Student Services, Faculty and Scholars Immigration Services, International Exchange, National Student Exchange, and Study Abroad Center. As an ensemble, so to speak, we have comprised an entirely new unit since 2007 known as the Office of International and Exchange Programs.

Pulling these five offices away from their different original home base (from Student Affairs to Academic Affairs) has reverberated across the institution. Directors of each of these offices are in the process of gauging the new dynamic and determining if the benefits for them outweigh the disadvantages. My perspective of this collective grouping, based on our meetings with the new presiding officer, is that the disadvantages are considerable. The major disadvantage is that Study Abroad is under pressure to revert back to its pre-1990s position as a student services unit. There are two lessons here that are especially noteworthy with lessons for other Study Abroad directors. First, Study Abroad centers are always at risk. Directors have to pay attention to the comings-and-goings of administrators and senior officers, which, under the corporate model, may be frequent. It’s not unusual for each officer to have a different vision from the previous officer and to try to reorganize the plan that is in place. Two, Study Abroad directors, wherever they are on the academic/managerial hierarchy, should assume that they will have to defend their units regularly, or potentially lose their academic status as the pressures for ever-increasing enrollments and revenues mount. My office has had a best-case scenario for personnel, relations with deans, chairs, and faculty, but we are now struggling to maintain what I see as our integrity, and my concern extends to my cohorts in the rest of the US.

The first area of particular concern is student safety—the most fundamental priority of Study Abroad. Like other universities with study abroad programs, risk management orientations are a mainstay of the program. My Center mandates that all students, on short summer programs as well as year-long stays, attend twelve hours of pre-departure cross-cultural and risk-management training. Faculty attend these twelve-hour sessions as well as additional sessions focusing on risk management at the program location. All these sessions are both comprehensive and detailed, presenting a wide range of contingencies and case scenarios. In the risk-management segment, faculty are trained to manage and document accidents and contact Study Abroad personnel (twenty-four hours a day); what local resources are immediate responders; elements of cross-cultural safety; and emergency procedures. Students learn whom to text, call, and email at the host school, in the town, up to the American Consulate. They know the first line of support and the crucial importance of letting family and us immediately know their whereabouts, after which we will contact other people both home and abroad and make all necessary arrangements.

In the twenty-first century, crises of national or international magnitude have to be taken very seriously. No one can predict the future, but Study Abroad directors are well qualified and prepared to make decisions regarding students’ safety. Increasingly, directors are trained in health, safety, and risk management, and universities are providing more funding for specialists within Study Abroad who focus solely on health and security (Rhodes, et. al.,
Many publications in the field are available, for example, Patricia C. Martin’s *Crisis Management for Education Abroad* (2017), Gregory F. Malveaux’s *Look Before Leaping: Risks, Liabilities, and Repair of Study Abroad in Higher Education* (2016), and NAFSA’s *Responsible Study Abroad: Good Practices for Study Abroad* (International Organizational Task Force 2002). And in the unfortunate case of an accident or violence, enacting shared governance is crucial because it works in extreme conditions as well as in daily professional contexts. We are very familiar with our emergency protocols and procedures for natural disasters and for limited-scale and large-scale violence. We know how and where to gather highly specific information for making critical decisions that best serve the students in the long term and the short term. We initiate two-way communications with our multiple local contacts in the town or city where students are based; we do this automatically and rapidly. In my experience, top-down directives do not always take into account on-the-ground information. Doing so would require restraint on the part of senior management to wait for all the exigencies to be considered. For example, what transportation modes are operating? What local facilities are working? What, despite instantaneous media coverage, are the accurate details of the situation?

Directives issued by senior managers or vice presidents are at risk of being made in response to the press or general statements made on social media and news programs. I was Director of Study Abroad during the 1995 earthquake in Kobe, Japan; the 2011 Fukushima Daichi nuclear disaster; the 2015 bombings in Paris; and the 2016 bombing in Brussels. Every horrific event is unique, but the protocols are always relevant. Contact with students and our local resources checked everyone’s safety. Then we collectively discussed the options from remaining at the respective sites to immediate evacuation to the U.S.. Of course we used State Department bulletins and advisories, but the key element was our networks for gathering very specific information and developments. After our discussions, which included senior officers, we advised our students in Kobe to return home. We made the arrangements, and our on-campus faculty ties enabled the returning students to join classes already in session on campus and to consult with the professors on a reasonable course of study for the rest of the semester. Senior management collaborated in the decision but refrained from issuing a corporate mandate.

The case in Fukushima was different because the senior officer did issue an immediate mandate that our students evacuate. A nuclear power plant can pose very serious problems, and the news stations in Hawai’i were pressing hard for statements from senior managers who have public visibility. The directive for evacuation went out even as our contacts on the ground and our Resident Faculty Director there were explaining that, thankfully, in the Southern Japanese cities where our programs take place, life was proceeding with power, basic facilities, and transportation all running normally. The personnel at the schools, as well as our own Resident Faculty Director, advised staying put and going to classes, none of which were cancelled. The power plant is in Northeast Japan, and our students were much farther south. Our students communicated with family and friends through social media and their own blogs, and they wanted to remain. In effect, every local contact advised against evacuation. Despite the firsthand evidence, the then chancellor with her own management team directed students to return home. In retrospect, all parties probably recognize that the chancellor’s office responded precipitously and that more effective shared governance would have led the administration to make a different decision.

Since 2011, decisions made under the model of shared governance have been more positive for the students. Our networking systems operated smoothly when the November 2015 Paris bombings occurred and the decision was collaboratively made to continue the program. Students were mentored through the experience and learned valuable lessons. Remaining in the city where the attacks took place, our students discussed the responses of people in Paris and how the community carried on. Because our Resident Faculty Director followed protocols, the experiential learning from the terrible events led to discussions about social justice, social inequality, race, ethnic relations, and terrorism. The discussions also encompassed dimensions that the students aren’t likely ever to experience again in such a direct and proximate way (see Gleye for his experience during the Brussels tragedy in 2016).

A second area of concern posed for a Study Abroad program within an increasing corporatized university system involves the issue of academic standing. If a study abroad unit loses its academic place in the structural plan and is
seen as a student service, its connections with faculty are likely to be weak. The lesson for all Study Abroad directors is that they may need to negotiate hard to gain, and then to keep, their central place in the organization chart. Because members of my staff have advanced degrees and faculty status, we belong to both the Faculty Senate and the union that represents faculty. We participate in university committees such as Academic Planning and Policies. I was Secretary of the Faculty Senate from 2015 to 2017 as well as a member of its Executive Committee; I am an active member of the faculty union and was elected to its Executive Board for over six years. I serve on Faculty and Personnel, and Tenure and Review Committees. In other words, we maintain our credibility with faculty and are actively seen as colleagues. This credibility keeps faculty involvement in our programs high.

Instructors, chairs, and former deans serve on the Study Abroad Council, and many of them have mentored and taught students on semesters abroad. Having effective Resident Directors at our host sites is an imperative. There are many reasons for this. In the area of student safety, they are the first line of contact with us, and they are aware of the location and condition of every student. They attend the same twelve-hour cross-cultural and risk management sessions as the students and separate sessions as well. Leading up to their resident directorship, they apply and compete for the position, proposing relevant and creative syllabi and excursions, narrative statements, research projects, and plans for recruitment. I meet individually with all the professors to be sure they understand the extent of their broad responsibilities.

Conclusion

Studying abroad is an academic endeavor. While senior international officers may want to use third-party providers or other means of sending students without home-institution representatives, that practice is often based on corporate, not academic, models. It requires outsourcing, “the business practice of hiring a party outside a company to perform services and create goods that traditionally were performed in-house by the company’s own employees and staff” (Twin 2019). Indeed, freeing the home institution from many responsibilities is the raison d’être of third-party providers. But the raison d’être of universities is, in fact, just that, overseeing academics. Wherever students physically take their courses, they are not a resource for outsourcing, and their studying is neither a co-curricular activity nor primarily a money-making project. Rather, it should be seen as an investment in our students and ultimately in the public good. Study Abroad is the responsibility of all members of a university. If we believe that curricula and teaching are the purview of faculty and the home institution, then courses taught abroad should always be the outcome of practical and thoughtful shared faculty governance.

References


Contribution of International Development Activities to Comprehensive Internationalization of U.S. Public Universities

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Introduction

In the era of globalization, increasing interdependence between countries’ economic, political, and social processes creates global challenges and opportunities. Extreme variations in the international distribution of wealth have elevated developed countries as important players in tackling the world's biggest issues, such as poverty, climate change, and conflicts. However, the magnitude of the global challenges facing the planet does not allow for just a single country or organization to address them. The complex nature of the world’s major issues requires significant cooperation between various actors to develop and implement solutions that stimulate economic growth (Asefa 2010).

U.S. colleges and universities have a long history of working in developing countries to bring unparalleled resources and experiences in science, technology, and teaching, which contribute to tackling global challenges. International development agencies and organizations have traditionally turned to U.S. universities and other institutions of higher education to incorporate their intellectual, research, community engagement, and capacity building expertise in efforts to address global challenges (Association of Public and Land-grant Universities 2015).

International development lacks an agreed upon definition. Frequently definitions build upon concepts of global poverty and inequality (Baker 2013; Haslam, Schafer, and Beaudet 2012; Potter 2014). For the purpose of this article, university engagement in international development has been defined, as higher education institutions’ activities that are funded by a development organization (United State Agency for International Development (USAID), World Bank, NGOs, etc.), higher education institution, or local governments that work to build human, research or institutional capacity, and/or efforts to reduce poverty and inequality and improve health, education, and job opportunities. Focus on higher education institution’s activities is dictated by the purpose of the research to identify international development contribution to comprehensive internationalization. Definitions of Soubbotina and Sheram (2000) and Rosenkranz (2011) informed types of activities in the developing countries that have been studied by the authors. Heyneman and Lee (2016) discussed major funders of developmental projects, including multilateral and country-based aid organizations. Nevertheless, since some institutions of higher education support their activities in developing nations with local governments’ and university funding (Koehnen, Deardorff, and Bolognese 2011) those projects also have been considered by the study.

Over the course of the 21st century, international activities of colleges and universities have moved from being of marginal importance to becoming a core dimension of higher education. Interest in developing the evidence-base for best practices for internationalization of higher education has grown significantly (Deardorff, de Wit, Heyl and Adams 2012). Much of the existing literature discusses motives for internationalization, strategies applied by universities, as well as outcomes of specific institutional efforts (Altbach and Knight 2007; Deardorff et al. 2012; Edwards 2007; Hudzik 2015). Along with international development, U.S. institutions of higher education are increasingly engaging in international activities, such as study abroad, internationalization of curriculum, transnational partnership, and
cross-border higher education provision (Deardorff et al 2012). Meanwhile, it is important to understand that these activities are not mutually exclusive, but rather complementary. This phenomenon is further elaborated in this article.

Overarching intentions of universities to holistically engage in international activities have been reflected in the concept of comprehensive internationalization defined by Hudzik (2011). Comprehensive internationalization models have been widely popularized by the American Council on Education and NAFSA: The International Educators Association. Consequently, these models have spread globally and have been applied to research and practice of international educators worldwide (Hudzik 2015).

However, a review of the literature reveals that contribution of higher education institutions’ international development activities to comprehensive internationalization has lacked sufficient attention. Scholarship mainly discusses study abroad programming, internationalization at home, cross-border higher education provision by U.S. universities and transnational partnerships. Similarly, among practitioners there is a lack of recognition for the role of developmental activities in university internationalization. For example, the Senator Paul Simon Award for Campus Internationalization by NAFSA included international development, research, and public service in its criteria only seven years after the award establishment (Hudzik 2015). Universities’ engagement in transnational research and sustainable development activities was also examined in an exploratory study by Koehn, Deardorff, and Bolognese (2011). Additionally, there is some research and evaluations available on outcomes of individual projects (Adesogan 2016; Collins 2012; Moss 2019) and regional initiatives (Grand Lewis, Friedman, and Schoneboom, 2010; Koehn, Demment, and Hervy 2008).

Consequently, this article contributes to the existing literature by investigating the role of international development activities in the comprehensive internationalization of U.S. institutions of higher education. Drawing on the concept of comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik 2011) and qualitative research methods, this paper addresses three questions. First, it examines contributions made by international development activities to advancing core education, research, and service missions of higher education institutions. Second, the article elaborates on intentional approach employed by U.S. public universities. Third, the authors discuss synergy between university international development activities, as well as other international programming efforts, which is essential in comprehensive internationalization of higher education institutions (American Council on Education 2017; Knight 1994; Hudzik 2011).

Methodology

The study draws on qualitative data to investigate the role of international development in comprehensive internationalization of U.S. public universities. The authors analyzed primary data collected in collaboration with the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities (APLU) on research on drivers of U.S. university engagement in international development activities. Based on the works by Hudzik (2011, 2015) and earlier publication by Knight (1994), this article examines three aspects of international development programming executed by U.S. public universities: intentionality of international development activities, their integration with other internationalization efforts, and contribution to advancing core learning, discovery, and engagement goals of respective U.S. public higher education institutions.

The study employed grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) in methodology design and analysis of data collected from a sample of fifteen U.S. public universities and systems. These institutions were recruited through APLU Knowledge Center for Advancing Development through Higher Education to represent the diversity of the Association’s membership. In the U.S., APLU represents higher education institutions from all 50 states, including 128 public universities, 75 land-grant universities, as well as 26 university systems (Association of Public and Land-grant Universities 2018). The study originated from the association’s data needs for work on advocating for U.S. university engagement in international development.
The study employed purposive sampling (Patton 2002) to research university engagement in international development activities. Institutions considered for the sample were only those engaged in programs and activities in developing countries at the time of the study. Institutions engaged in the study were selected to represent three types of APLU members - state systems, state universities, as well as land-grant universities. An equal number of institutions located in the Northwest, Northeast, Southwest, Southeast, and Midwest areas of the U.S. were included in the sample to ensure geographical representation. The geographic regions were defined for the study by drawing upon Cooperative Extension regions defined by the APLU Board of Agricultural Assembly (BAA) (Association of Public and Land-grant Universities 2019) with an adjustment made based on research by Alvarez (1995), which identifies states bordering with Mexico as a distinct region. Thus, the Southwest and Northwest region were formed in addition to the regions defined by the BAA to achieve a more accurate measure of institutional context influence on policies and practices of international engagement.

Data collection protocols were developed based on the review of relevant theory. The authors conducted semi-structured interviews with key informants on institutional engagement in international development activities (Gubrium, Holstein, Marvasti, and Karyn 2012). Four pilot interviews were conducted in late 2015 and followed by data analysis to inform the second round of interviews. Remaining interviews of the institutions in the sample were done over the course of 2016. The sample was not expended upon completion of 15 interviews due to data saturation. Figure 1 presents pseudonyms and regional affiliation of universities included in the sample.

Figure 1: Universities included in the study by pseudonyms and regional affiliation

As a result of the sampling, all of the institutions included in the study are Ph.D.-conferring institutions. Based on the study methodology, institutions of different sizes were included to represent diversity of policies and practice. Three institutions in the sample enroll less than 30,000 students (20 percent) in their undergraduate and graduate programs, five institutions enroll 30 – 50,000 students (33 percent), and the remaining four institutions educate over 50,000 students (27 percent). Each of the three university systems included in the study have student enrollment of over 150,000.
Key informants of the study were senior international officers and staff members (program officers or administrators) overseeing work of their respective university in developing countries. Senior international officers (SIOs) were best positioned within the institutional hierarchy to address interview questions from the perspective of the respective campuses or systems. Nevertheless, due to diversity in institutional organizational structures, SIOs of several institutions referred to other relevant university staff to participate in the study and to share relevant knowledge and experiences regarding international development activities.

Some institutions in the sample are highly decentralized in their international engagement, which does not allow for a single person or office on campus to be aware of all university activities in international development. Consequently, interviewing people from various operating units on campus that were involved in international development activities allowed for the study to grasp the full depth of institutional experiences. Decisions to interview additional staff were made in consultations with SIOs of individual institutions. As a result, thirteen institutions in the sample engaged more than one representative to inform the study. Besides SIOs, the authors interviewed some college and department chairs, who led their respective division work on international development activities.

Another source of data included in the study were institutional strategic plans, which addressed engagement in international development. These plans were analyzed to identify institution-specific characteristics, as well as commonalities in the institutional approaches to involvement in international development activities in developing countries.

The list of institutions included in the study, as well as personal identifiers of key informants, will remain confidential for the purposes of minimizing the risks of harming individual and institutional relationships with third parties, including their partner-institutions abroad, donors, and governments. All study participants gave vocal consent at the beginning of their interviews. Participants were informed of the objectives of the study, research procedures, confidentiality of personal identifiers of the interview subjects, as well as their right to withdraw from the study at any point or choose not to respond to any of the interview questions.

The data was analyzed by the constant comparative method. Memos were created during and after the interviews to identify patterns. Institutional profiles were developed, based on the interview data and strategic plans of universities in the sample (Taylo and Bogdan 1998). Content analysis of institutional profiles allowed to identify, code, classify and label common patterns and themes, which were later utilized in cross-case analysis. Some data was quantified during analysis. The data was compared across types of higher education institution (system, land-grant, state university), as well as their geographic locations (Patton 2002).

Validity of the study was ensured through a selection of a sample of institutions, which reflect the diversity of public universities in the U.S that are members of APLU. In thirteen institutional cases, the information was obtained from more than one key informant per institution. Triangulation of data through analysis of interviews, institutional strategies and reports, as well as existing scholarship was employed to determine consistency of findings among various institutions included in the sample, and sources of the data (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992).

Findings

Analysis of the study data reflects that U.S. public universities engage in international development activities to advance their teaching, research, and service missions. A statement by an international officer from MLG1 summarizes well the experiences among universities in the sample: “There are several predominant dimensions to a university’s endeavors, namely education, research, and engagement. International development opportunities often touch two or all three of these dimensions simultaneously, creating an interwoven and reinforcing set of opportunities” (Interview MLG1 2016). These findings are complementary with the existing literature. Particularly, Altbach and Knight (2007) elaborate that traditional nonprofit institutions of higher education seek to internationalize for the purpose of enhancing their research and knowledge capacity, as well as increasing intercultural understanding. Hudzik (2011, 2015)
identifies international activities contribution to advancing the university mission as an essential feature of comprehensive internationalization.

The contribution of international development activities to the mission of U.S. public universities is not fortuitous. While only seven institutions (47 percent) in the sample had a strategic plan during the timeframe of the study that specifically addressed university engagement in international development, all SIOs involved in the study acknowledge aspirations of their university or system to translate international development into broader international education activities. Thus, they develop projects and activities that contribute to their mission and complement other existing internationalization efforts. Both Knight (1994) and Hudzik (2011 2015) see intentionality essential to internationalization. Complementarity of international development activities with study abroad, internationalization of curriculum, transnational partnership, cross-border higher education provision, and international research allows international development efforts to reinforce comprehensive internationalization of U.S. public universities.

### International Development Contribution to Educational Mission

All the U.S. public universities included in the study identified that involvement with developing countries contributes to their educational mission. Interviewed SIOs elaborated that their institutions of higher education first of all strive to engage students in their international development efforts to expose them to issues faced by developing countries. These activities allow public universities to create new learning opportunities to meet the needs of their student body.

Student participation in international development takes a variety of forms, including study abroad, service learning, internships, teaching, and research experiences. Universities build these activities into the architecture of their international development efforts to provide students with the possibility of gaining practical experience, enhancing their soft-skills and intercultural competencies, and allowing them to build global networks.

Similarly, universities see student engagement in international development increasing possible career paths for students. Meanwhile, graduate students benefit from international development activities, as they engage in research and teaching abroad, which contributes towards their degree. During the interview informants from SWS stated: “[w]e got a student who just came back from Cyprus, where he is looking at science education for reunification in Cyprus. We get students who are very involved, which is something that we want to do, and we want to provide opportunities or at least directions for students. We do not want them to read all the theory and then go away. We want them to have impact, so it is very much a part of how we ran our program.”

However, one of the institutions included in the sample identified that graduate student engagement is a challenge in their institutional context. Key informants from MSS described their expectations for graduate education as focused on skills and on-campus work rather than engagement in the field. They highlighted that graduate students at their institution are expected to work in labs and acquire lab-based research skills, rather than conduct studies outside of campus. This represents a unique, yet interesting case, where graduate student engagement in international development efforts may come in conflict with the institutional approach to training their students. One of the key informants from the respective institution stated, “even if they [graduate students] are doing research in their home countries, people don’t seem to think they are getting needed expertise.”

International development activities also may provide universities with funding for training international students. There is a variety of experiences in providing education to international students both in their country of origin, as well as in the U.S. For example, through the U.S. Indonesia Teacher Education Consortium (USINTEC), universities in the U.S. and Indonesia developed dual master’s degree and short-term graduate programs to improve Indonesian education and teacher quality (USINTEC 2016).

Understanding limited opportunities for students to study abroad, universities also seek to internationalize their curriculum and to further internationalization opportunities at home for students to learn about the challenges of developing countries, such as incorporation of global learning competencies in courses. International students on U.S.
Campuses also contribute to campus internationalization by creating new engagement opportunities for domestic students. Americans learn about global issues, different cultures and perspectives. Students develop international and intercultural competences by interacting with their foreign peers in the classroom and through various extracurricular activities. Practices discussed by the study participants complement existing literature on internationalization at home (Beelen and Leask 2011; Knight 2008).

Faculty engage in international development activities through their role as educators and researchers. International development activities create opportunities for faculty to gain more fieldwork, teaching, and learning experiences. Faculty members of the institutions included in the sample provide teaching and training for students in the U.S and from developing countries, and participate in curriculum development and capacity building initiatives. SIOs from SWS institution stated during the interview, “there is a [sic] lot of people who are engaged because they are interested in helping to develop education or provide teaching and training in these challenging areas.” These experiences enhance the expertise of faculty members and allow them to further internationalize their curriculum. While this process is complicated, as discussed by de Wit and Leask (2015), international officers find it highly beneficial to improving the quality of higher education and student experience.

**International Development Contribution to Research Mission**

The fifteen universities involved in the study identified that engagement in international development activities significantly contributes to advancing their research mission. Their involvement with developing countries results in opportunities to obtain funding for creating new research partnerships and projects, disseminating new and existing knowledge, and applying it on the ground. Engagement in international development activities provides opportunities for studying factors that influence development itself, such as environmental, human, and cultural factors. Similarly, Keenan et al. (2012) discussed international cooperation in science, as the needed response to “grand challenges.”

Research projects appear to be most attractive to institutions in the sample since they naturally fit into institutional missions to develop, advance, and disseminate knowledge. Furthermore, they align with faculty interests and have potential to contribute to their promotion and tenure. Faculty in area studies benefit from international development initiatives, which allow them to engage in communities of their research focus. Research projects can be of different scales. Examples provided by SIOs included individual faculty research, projects engaging several faculty members, and larger research initiatives that engage multiple departments and institutions. For example, the USAID 24 Feed the Future Innovation Labs engage 70 U.S. higher education institutions in agricultural research activities, alongside with universities in developing countries (Feed the Future 2018).

Universities conduct research projects in a variety of fields, which closely align with their faculty interests. A representative of SELG1 stated during the interview: “mainly what drives our decision to put together a proposal and take on projects depends on the faculty interests and the capability of the faculty… if we do not have faculty who are interested in the project, we [are] better not to go after it. We are not going to be a consulting firm. It goes back to having faculty who are interested to pursue the program, develop a proposal, and to implement it if it is awarded.” This approach aligns with the existing scholarship, which sees research as a bottom-up activity dependent not so much on institutional strategies, but rather on behavior of faculty members (Woldegiyorgis, Proctor, and de Wit 2018).

Participants of the study reported engagement in twenty-four different sectors of international development. However, SIOs involved in the study acknowledge that they might not be aware of all the sectors involving their faculty members. Figure 2 demonstrates sectors of universities’ international development activities, as identified by key informants during the interviews.
As illustrated by Figure 2, fourteen universities are involved in educational activities in developing countries. Environment is the second most often named sector with twelve institutions engaged. Nine universities pointed out their participation in international development activities related to health, gender, agriculture, food security, and nutrition issues. Eight universities work on issues of water supply and quality in developing countries. Governance and energy involve seven universities from the sample. Six institutions indicated their involvement in institutional capacity building efforts. Similarly, six universities identified their work on human capacity development separately from education. Five institutions of higher education engage in business and entrepreneurship. They are followed by three universities, which highlighted their participation in sustainable development and engineering activities.

Additionally, SIOs see research in developing countries as an opportunity to enhance cooperation across various departments and units within a university. Challenges faced by developing country economies are often of an interdisciplinary nature. Consequently, faculty engagement in international development activities creates opportunities for intensifying interdisciplinary approaches in research and increasing cooperation between various departments on U.S. campuses.

In the study, participants presented two cases of institutionalizing interdisciplinary approach through establishing interdisciplinary health institutes on their campuses. One example is a system-wide problem-oriented global health institute. This institute focuses on issues of human rights, health access and inequalities, water and food safety, and population movements, looking at the relationship between migration, health, and diseases. The SIO from SELG1 discussed a second example during the interview:

We will cross college lines pretty easily to tackle a problem and in fact in our drive we have a lot of what we call cluster hires, which are tackling complex problems, like food systems and some public health issues. The cluster hires are grouped around a problem that requires a system approach to solving and requires more than one college… There is a real push to create institutes that are interdisciplinary and draw on all of that diversity and strengths. One of the examples would be the emerging pathogens institute, which is largely focused on pathogens of health-related issues but really works with people across the university in all sorts of ways.

However, study informants acknowledge several challenges in research and international development. First, they find it to be increasingly difficult to secure sufficient funding. International officers discussed increasing requirements
for cost-share and shrinking overheads, which often do not make it possible for a university to put together a competitive proposal. A second challenge seen by international officers is shrinking opportunities for faculty to advance their career through engagement in international development activities. Heyneman (2016) elaborated on decreasing research and data collection in educational programming in developing countries, which limits engagement of faculty and scholars in international development initiatives. Several institutions in the study sample stated that they openly discourage tenure-track seeking faculty from participation in international development, since universities do not see these projects providing opportunities to publish in a timely manner.

**International Development Contribution to the Service Mission**

International development activities contribute to the service mission of public universities since development projects provide universities with opportunities to engage with communities worldwide. Increasing the understanding that many problems may be only “a plane ride away” puts universities in a position to engage in front-line responses to global problems through international development efforts.

Universities’ determination to contribute to solving global challenges makes their involvement in international development a natural extension of their service mission. In such manner, ten institutions in the sample (67 percent) identified making a meaningful impact in developing countries as a major institutional and faculty motivator for international development work. Likewise, U.S. university engagement in international development aligns with missions of serving local communities in their respective states through universities engagement with international issues of particular interest to their local communities. As stated by SIO from NWS2 institution, “by engaging in the front-line responses to global epidemics like Ebola we contribute to solving the problems where they occur.”

Analysis of the data across the institutional types allowed for the finding of important distinctions between state and land-grant universities represented in the study. While, all universities draw on their specific context to identify rationale for their international development activities, the original extension mission of land-grant universities plays an important role in their engagement in developing countries. The idea of a “global land-grant” university bridges the extension mission of these institutions with their activities in developing nations. Meanwhile, state universities build on their service mission to engage beyond their campuses, which is elaborated in this article through the discussion of the “Wisconsin idea.”

Land-grant universities founded under the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1862 have a particularly long and extensive history of involvement in international development activities. Since the 1950s, they engaged in U.S. foreign development assistance (U.S. Congress 1991). The original extension mission of land-grant universities, such as teaching of practical agriculture, science, military science, and engineering, empowered their engagement with local communities in the U.S. Meanwhile, globalization posed a question of their role in meeting the needs of global society (Simon 2009). Thus, land-grant universities broaden their extension mission across borders to developing nations (Collins 2012).

The idea of global land-grant mission and transferability of the extension efforts of these institutions of higher education to developing nations has been discussed by all land-grant universities included in the sample. The study participant from NELG2 institution stated, “land-grant universities are not just about the development of the country. In this world… it is important to engage with communities everywhere. We view the land and sea-grant mission as a local mission that is connected globally.”

The 20th president of Michigan State University, Lou Anna Kimsey Simon (2009) formulated the “World Grant” ideal. It calls upon land-grant universities to extend their mission beyond national borders and consider new ways for research-intensive universities to contribute to making a difference and addressing the vast societal challenges of the century. Extensive engagement of land-grant universities in poverty reduction and hunger prevention programs resonates with the idea of a global land-grant institution.

Strategies of land-grant universities included in the study also refer to the global land-grant idea. The strategy of SELG2 states, “[t]oday’s land-grant university must address economic, societal, and technological needs of this
generation. Our graduates must have the capacity to solve complex problems of a regional, national, and global scale that have yet to be envisioned. Now and in the future, we will use research and service to address global issues such as health, sustainability, resilience and security, and advance knowledge through technical assistance. Global recognition is a testimonial to comprehensive excellence.”

Similar to the global land-grant idea, state universities aligned their international engagement with their service or outreach mission. Its globalization can be best explained through the framework of the “Wisconsin idea.” It originated over a hundred years ago to link the University of Wisconsin with the community it serves. According to Witte (2000) it has three components. First, the university should provide advanced education to as many citizens as possible. Second, it should create, invent, and implement new discoveries and ideas to benefit the state. Finally, the expertise of the university should be used to benefit citizens and the institution. Thus, the idea broadens the borders of the university beyond the classroom, which in the globalization context can be seen as an argument for applying universities’ expertise worldwide. In fact, the SIO of NESS elaborated during the interview that regional focus of their international development activities has been instructed by diaspora communities located in their state. They see engagement in their diaspora countries of origin, as a way to serve the state population beyond its borders.

Conclusion

This article brings attention to the role of international development in comprehensive internationalization of U.S. public universities to bridge the gap in current knowledge. First, the authors examined contributions made by international development activities to advancing core teaching, discovery, and service missions of higher education institutions. Second, the article elaborates on intentional approach employed by U.S. public universities. Third, the authors discuss synergy between university international development activities, as well as other international programming efforts. International activities of U.S. public higher education institutions take many forms, but uneven attention is given to them by scholars. While Hudzik’s (2011) framework of comprehensive internationalization has potential to highlight the role of understudied international activities, most literature remains focused on student mobility and study abroad (Woldegiyorgis, Proctor, and de Wit 2018). Meanwhile, U.S. public universities have much experience engaging in international development activities.

The findings of the study demonstrate the contribution of international development activities to comprehensive internationalization efforts of public universities through advancement of education, research, and service missions. Findings align with research by Altbach and Knight (2007). The article demonstrates complementarity of international activities performed by higher education institutions, which allows for integration of study abroad, international research, internationalization of curricular, and international student and faculty recruitment into developmental efforts. However, institutional context may come in conflict with SIOs efforts to comprehensively internationalize. Requirements for student graduation and faculty promotion and tenure do not always align with internationalization goals of U.S. universities. As pointed out by Proctor and Rumbley (2018), internationalization efforts risk becoming too international and neglect local needs.

New models of participation need to be developed for non-mobile students in the U.S. and abroad. Internationalization at home through international students and faculty recruitment appears to be a well-spread measure. However, it inevitably faces criticism due to often association with brain drain and global competition (Hudzik 2015). Thus, efforts to bring more voices from developing countries into discussion of internationalization activities and their impact on various communities should continue (Kaul 2013). Internationalization of curriculum, development of joint degree programs, and long-term sustainable partnerships through international development activities may have much potential to reinforce reciprocity.

Importantly, findings of this study show that faculty engagement in internationalization is crucial for U.S. public universities. Higher education institutions see their faculty expertise as the major competitive advantage in
international development activities. However, is there enough space for faculty to engage? Most institutions in this study acknowledge lack of alignment between internationalization goals of their institutions and faculty tenure and promotion policies, as also raised by American Council on Education (2017). What is more, similar to findings of Woldegiyorgis, Proctor, and de Wit (2018) on international research being a bottom-up process, many international development activities are initiated by faculty members. Long term effects of increasing intentions of SIOs to align all international efforts with a university strategy are not yet clear. This challenge represents an interesting direction for future research.

Little research is available on benefits to comprehensive internationalization from university engagement in international development. Uncertain funding for higher education institutions activities in international development (Heyneman 2016) represents a challenge that may significantly affect university efforts in developing nations. Accordingly, future studies of U.S. higher education institutions engagement in international development have opportunities to increase understanding of benefits brought by university efforts. Research on the impact of these engagements with local communities in the U.S. and abroad, as well as global commitments to addressing the world's greatest challenges, will also contribute to current scholarship.

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No Fees to Enroll Them All? The State of College Access in Mexico

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Introduction

Mexico is often portrayed as a colorful country through its art, clothing, architecture and landscapes; but all that color carries in itself contrast. Education, as well as other aspects of public life in Mexico, has been a matter of contrasts since the settlement of the first civilizations. Both the Mayas and the Aztecs were advanced in architecture, sculpture, mathematics and astronomy but established highly stratified cities including political systems that distinguished among the different social classes for access to education and the professions people could exercise (Fagg 1969). The first Western schooling systems in Mexico came when the Spanish conquerors took the city of Tenochtitlan in 1521 and Spain set the goal “to educate and to Christianize the diverse indigenous groups” (Osborn 1976, 6). To achieve this goal the Catholic Church, through the Franciscan order, established in 1523 the first school: San José de Belén de los Naturales. The fact that education was first entrusted to the church, had since its origins, the issue of making it controlled, paternalistic and stratified. About a decade later, in 1536, the Spanish Crown accepted a petition from the bishop appointed to Mexico to found what would become “the first institution of higher learning in the New World: Santa Cruz de Tlatelolco” (Osborn 1976, 7). Since then, and until its 1910 revolution, education in Mexico remained somewhat restricted to the large urban areas and to the middle-upper classes.

At the beginning of the modern era, as a result of the reform laws and with the promulgation of the 1917 Constitution, education began to grow exponentially as a public good that has remained compulsory (only from K-12), secular, and free for all (MX. Const. 2019). But this exponential growth, 1) has not been enough to guarantee high levels of education for most of the population, 2) has resulted in a highly stratified system, and 3) has brought along some serious issues regarding the quality of education. Specifically in the tertiary level, and to address the issue of access, the federal government proposed and, their majority in Congress recently passed, a new constitutional reform to also include higher education among the compulsory levels of education (MX. Const. 2019). By making higher education a right for every Mexican citizen, the government will be forced to guarantee access regardless of a student’s financial means or academic standing.

This article represents a policy analysis of this new legislation and a reflection on whether or not making higher education compulsory is the best route to increase enrollment and coverage. The article is organized as a holistic analysis of higher education in Mexico and it challenges with a focus on access and coverage. The manifold issues of the current status and policies are described first. The article then moves to a discussion about how, by merely changing the legislation, the country might not see the expected outcomes. It also discusses how, considering the high cost associated with implementing such policy, there might be other priorities to attend to. It ends with research and policy recommendations focused on increasing access and coverage without neglecting issues of equity and quality.

Educational System in Contemporary Mexico
Given its nature, education has been traditionally built from the bottom up, there is not much sense in investing largely in higher education without first having a large proportion of the population getting through primary and secondary education. Besides, having a majority of the population being literate, and with at least secondary education, benefits a country’s development, As explained by Katarina Keller (2006), “enrollment rates in primary and secondary education, demonstrates important indirect effects by benefiting other development goals affecting per capita growth” (p. 29). This was the case in Mexico, where a large proportion of the public funds spent in education during the last century were allocated towards these levels. Even funding from multilateral organizations like the World Bank have been received in Mexico but the vast majority of those have been spent in projects in the lower levels of education (Maldonado-Maldonado 2006). With these investments, the country was able to secure an almost universal enrollment in primary education in 2010 (Ordorika and Rodríguez-Gómez 2012). However, the problem with focusing mainly in coverage and access is that there is less accountability for the outcomes both in terms of competencies and completion. For instance, the OECD predicts that only 47 percent of today’s young people in Mexico will complete upper secondary education in their lifetime and merely 22 percent will complete tertiary education (OECD 2015). Even after 2012 when upper-secondary education became compulsory, graduation rates from this and previous levels haven’t increased significantly (OECD 2018b).

**Tertiary (Higher) Education**

According to the National Ministry of Education (SEP), as of 2018-2019 Mexican higher education ecosystem is comprised of 7,369 school-sites where 3,943,544 students are enrolled and receiving their education from 414,408 teachers (SEP 2019b). The ministry classifies higher education institutions (HEIs) in twelve types: 1) CONACYT research centers and decentralized research centers, 2) decentralized technological institutes, 3) federal technological institutes, 4) public teacher’s colleges, 5) private institutions, 6) intercultural universities, 7) polytechnic universities, 8) state public universities, 9) public state institutions with solidarity support, 10) federal public universities, 11) technological universities, and 12) other public HEIs. Despite the various types and large number of institutions, enrollment is highly concentrated in a few hundred state public universities and private institutions (ANUIES 2019).

Even with such a large system, access to higher education in Mexico is among the lowest for other OECD countries, 38.4 percent of the college-age population (OECD 2018a). The consequences of this poor coverage in higher education is worrying because it inhibits the possibility of more young people moving up the ladder of social class that eventually helps to stretch the huge gap in income that prevails in the country (Miramontes-Arteaga, Ocegueda, and Mocetzuma-Hernández 2014). Several reasons explain how the country has managed to put itself in this position. Among the most important reasons are: a) social inequality between the population; b) the overall cost of education; c) quality of the institutions of higher education; and d) attainment of higher education credential not necessarily valued as useful for social mobility.

**Social Inequality and Other Economic Factors.**

Much lower than other OECD countries, in Mexico the average household net-adjusted disposable income per capita is $16,310 USD. However, the differences in this indicator at the top and bottom 10 percent are remarkably high $44,037 vs $6,524 (OECD 2019a). Besides, over 46 percent of the population in Mexico lives below the national poverty line (Central Intelligence Agency 2018). So, if families are struggling to survive, higher education becomes a luxury they cannot afford, both in terms of the costs involved in education, and especially, the opportunity cost of not being able to generate a larger income.

While access to education in Mexico has been improving considerably in general (Figure 1), there is one group who has not benefitted by the changes to policy: the poorest strata of the society. Overall, around 38 percent of the young people in the age range between 18 and 22 years in Mexico are enrolled in tertiary education in Mexico (SEP 2017). However, among the subgroup of urban families with middle to high income, 45 percent of the population within that age range were enrolled in tertiary education vs 11 percent of the poorest population in the urban areas and 3 percent of the rural youth (Miller-Flores 2009). The contrast is huge and unfortunately not very uncommon in other
Latin American countries. Scholars from the region constantly study this vicious cycle of absence from education among the families in poverty reinforcing their lack of opportunities and their lower socio-economic status (SES) as one of their biggest obstacles to access education (Lodoño 1998).

Figure 1: Higher education in Mexico: Historical enrollment growth 1980 to 2019

Higher Education Enrollment in Mexico by Academic Year (1980-2019)

As stated earlier, education from K-12 has been both compulsory and free in Mexico, but higher education has only recently been made compulsory and is not quite “free”. Public institutions of higher education rely almost solely on public funds and student fees since tuition is set very low. Top ranked public universities will charge their students a combined tuition and mandatory fees in a total that ranges between USD $1 and $50 per term. An important consideration is that education in Mexico is mostly non-residential, so students have to find and pay their own housing and other living expenses. The latter represents an important obstacle for those students from lower SES who would like to move to an urban area and enroll at a university instead of another type of HEI closer to their community. And since universities are not generating enough funds by themselves through tuition, the available aid for students tends to be low, thus creating large contrasts between social classes among students enrolled at different type of institutions.

To counteract this phenomenon, the government has been relying on a national grant system known as PRONABES (Programa Nacional de Becas or the National Scholarship Program). These grants are intended to help low SES students enrolled at a public HEI with their living expenses. The program considers several distinctions. In order to promote retention, students receive more funding each year as long as they continue to advance towards their degree (MXN $750 monthly during the first year, $830 2nd year, $920 3rd year, and $1,000 for the 4th and 5th year). Once students receive this grant, they automatically can apply to another one that covers local public transportation. As a way of promoting equity, priority some students are given priority such as those who are part of the national registry of victims, pregnant women, single parents, students with disabilities, among others (SEP 2015). Perhaps the most innovative component of this program is the fact that it forces both the recipients and the institutions to attend/provide specific follow-up sessions with a counselor or tutor to provide support and prevent attrition. Although there are slight variations by State, the overall intention of these programs is to help lower attrition rates due to financial constraints. However, these programs are not necessarily effective in providing access to a HEI for historically under-represented students. While it is true that the lived experiences of these students who end up attending a HEI serve as an incredible asset for persistence (Gonzalez, Moll, and Amanti 2005; Rios-Aguilar et al. 2011), especially when accompanied with
the much-needed financial support, it is also true that students with less cultural and relational capital will struggle navigating through the processes of institutional admission and of application to these and other grants (Walpole 2005; DeHoyos, Attanasio, and Meghir 2019).

The current federal Government is reshaping these programs and moving towards universal stipends which will be centrally controlled and given directly to the students. One of them will be linked with practical and professional training, and another one will be a stipend to all students enrolled at the newly created “universidades para el bienestar” (welfare universities). Both programs are explained and later in this article.

Quality of Higher Education

Education is a complex issue because governments must not only ensure access for everyone, but quality access for everyone. Between 1990 and 2018, the number of higher education institutions in Mexico grew 236 percent with notable differences between the public and private sectors. While the growth in the public sector was of 119 percent, the number of institutions in the private sector more than four-folded (472 percent) (SEP 2019c). After this kind of exponential growth, it is quite understandable that concerns about quality arise.

In Mexico, there is a national council for accreditations (called COPAES) which is the only instance authorized by the national Ministry of Education (SEP) to recognize non-governmental organizations that can accredit programs of higher education. In 2019, the accreditation agencies in Mexico reported 3,990 accredited programs out of the more than 20,000 that are registered at SEP (COPAES 2019). This represents 14 percent of the total number of programs. In terms of students, SEP statistics show that only 55.2 percent of all the students enrolled in higher education, are seeking a degree in one of those programs (SEP 2019a). In sum, not only over 2/3 of the population that should be enrolled in higher education is not, but half of the students who are actually enrolled are so in a non-accredited program. This kind of data helps to understand why even if the government says that available spaces is not (or will not be) the issue, what the public actually perceives is that the number of “quality spaces” is very limited, thus, concentrating most of the demand in just a handful of the most renown state universities, the large national systems and the more prestigious private universities. To further illustrate this point, the 195 HEIs affiliated to the Mexican National Association of Universities and Higher Education Institutions (ANUIES) enroll 50 percent of higher education students in the country (ANUIES 2019).

Employment

It is not uncommon to attribute the need for higher education as a mean to social mobility. Enrolling in a HEI and earning a technical, vocational, professional or bachelor’s degree is seen as crucial to gain the required knowledge for a better job, with higher salaries (Heller 2013). Even though it is hard to debate this idea, there are some indications that point towards a different story, at least in the case of Mexico. The economy in the country is becoming more sophisticated; innovation in science and technology is responsible for the accelerated growth and the high hopes of international experts (Friedman 2013; PWC 2015). But still, the vast majority of the labor market does not require highly qualified employees. Compared to its other OECD peers, Mexico ranks high among the countries in terms of the percentage of the employed population with less than upper secondary education (64 percent in Mexico vs 55 percent average OECD). On the other hand, the country ranks low among others in terms of the percentage of the population with tertiary education who are employed (74 percent Mexico vs 80 percent average OECD) (OECD 2015). The fact that not many among the employed population are highly skilled (at least not through formal education), and that a fourth of the skilled labor is not employed, suggests that many people in Mexico do not perceive value in finishing a technical or bachelor’s degree. This might also suggest a misalignment between higher education offerings and the needs of the economy.

Special attention should also be placed to a somewhat more recent phenomenon that keeps growing: the so called ‘NINIs’ (or NEETs) people between 20-24 years who are not in employment, education, or training). In Mexico almost 24 percent of the population between 20-24 years are neither employed nor in education or training (OECD 2019b). Once again, contrasts are present, in this case gender: 9.2 percent among the men in the age group are ‘NINIs’ as
opposed to 36.6 percent among the women in the same age group. Given that most ‘NINIs’ already dropped out of secondary or tertiary education, their return to and successful completion of higher education has proven to be very unlikely (DeHoyos, Rogers, and Székely 2016).

**Private Higher Education**

To alleviate the cost of education for the government, many countries have relied on deregulating the market for private education. In Mexico, the private sector of education has been growing exponentially. Since 2003 (see figure 2), there are more private than public institutions of higher education, currently 4,038 of the former and 3,102 of the latter. However, the private sector still lags way behind the public sector in terms of enrollment (2'739,583 vs 1'132,378) as shown in figure 3. Interestingly, since 2003, the average number of students per HEI at private institutions has declined 14 percent while this ratio at public institutions has increased 27 percent. This suggests that even when the market has grown in terms of options, the students continue to pursue public higher education in a greater proportion.

![Figure 2: Number of higher education institutions in Mexico](source: Historic and forecasted series of the statistics of the national education system (SEP 2019c))
Figure 3: Students enrolled in tertiary education in Mexico

The public vs private education debate in Mexico is a long-standing one (Alvarado-Lagunas, Luyando-Cuevas, and Picazzo-Palencia 2015; Suárez Zozaya 2012) but it should not be a binary. As eloquently stated by the Mexican intellectual Carlos Fuentes, there is room for both public and private education to coexist and be organized by the civil society:

*Education, all over the world, needs public programs in order to survive. Without them, the explosion of demand may lead to a substandard market of low-quality education for the population at large and high profits for enterprising businessmen. We must defend public education. But public education requires cooperation from the private sector... It is a question...of giving both the public and the private sector their respective roles as well as very specific functions in the educational process—and not by demonizing one or the other—but by holding both sectors accountable to the social needs of the collective in question and embodied by the third sector, civil society.* (Fuentes 2005, 70)

However, in Mexico, as in the case of most of Latin American countries, the civil society driven by neoliberal and capitalistic market laws, has transformed the market of higher education into a very stratified one regarding social class. Although the majority of private HEIs in Mexico are not-for-profit, social class reproduction has been exacerbated due to the abysmal differences in cost of attending a public or an elite private institution, and the social status conferred by being associated with the latter. As previously described, cost of tuition and fees at the most prestigious public institutions is very low, on the other hand, the cost for attending an elite private university in Mexico is very high. A comparison of the cost in terms of the daily minimum wage can help to better illustrate yet another huge contrast: While an individual would need to invest approximately less than a week of minimum wage income to cover the yearly tuition and fees at one of the most prestigious public universities, in the case of the top five private ones the investment would be of around 250 days of minimum wage income to cover the monthly tuition and fees. The large difference in pricing, has made elite private institutions affordable only for a small percentage of the population. Therefore, these institutions have the capacity to invest considerable resources to build modern campuses and attract talented faculty through more competitive wages. These institutions have been instrumental in “promoting, reproducing and even expanding the cultural capital gap” (Estrada Peredo, Ortega, and Gil-Antón 2007, 3) among the
Mexican society. Relational capital should also be added to the former list which enhances the students at these institutions’ chances to move up the social ladder. Another contrasting fact can be used to exemplify this: 77 percent of the CEO’s from the companies listed in the Mexican Stock Exchange Market are alumnus from 3 of the top 5 private institutions (Sánchez 2015). Going back to Fuentes, without demonizing one or the other model, the reality is that the country needs to have more available spaces at its top institutions regardless of their funding. Socially, the country also needs to reduce the ever-growing inequality gap by providing equal opportunities to the young population irrespective of their SES.

Moving Forward with Compulsory Higher Education

The facts highlighted above help showcase the current state of affairs of higher education in Mexico. By portraying those issues, I argue that access and coverage, while undoubtedly very important, are neither the only nor the main problems that need to be addressed through an education reform. The constitutional reform pushed by the current administration seems to be based only in the responsibility of the state in guaranteeing access to higher education. The main components of the new education reform that pertain to higher education are: 1) adding higher education to the other levels defined in the Constitution as secular, free, and compulsory; 2) opening 100 new ‘universities’; and 3) expanding direct aid to students in the form of stipends. Implications for each strategy are discussed next.

Compulsory and Free Education

Adding higher education as compulsory basically means that the State will be responsible to guarantee access for every individual irrespective of their SES or qualifications (as long as they have completed upper secondary education). Besides being compulsory, the Constitution explicitly states education should be free. This ‘free’ education will not be free, free education actually cost a lot (de Gayardon 2019). As we have seen from examples in the Nordic countries and elsewhere, free education requires a large investment of resources by the Government. In the case of Mexico, experts estimate that the proposed plan of compulsory education would cost the Federal Government yearly between 5,500 and 11,500 MXN Million on top on the regular budget allocated to higher education (Tuirán 2019; CEEY 2019). It is still unclear whether that investment would be worth it to alleviate some of the issues previously described, particularly the gap in access for those who have been left behind due to their SES, language barriers, and ethnic and cultural affiliations. Universal measures such as these have a huge potential of exacerbating the social gap.

Under the current public education ecosystem in Mexico, making higher education compulsory and completely free brings another important concern related to the possibility of jeopardizing institutional autonomy (Moreno 2019). The Government can declare guaranteed access to higher education, but ultimately, it is the HEI that needs to admit and enroll the students. Currently, most HEIs have the autonomy to establish their admission process, the tuition and fees they will charge, and the mechanisms they use to provide financial support to their students (besides the federal grants assigned directly to students). An early draft of the new constitutional reform included the elimination of a sentence in the constitution that reads “Universities and other institutions of higher education to which the law grants autonomy, will have the power and responsibility to govern themselves” (MX. Const. 2019). Although the government a few days later acknowledged that the omission was an honest mistake due to a “typing error”, tensions between HEIs and the incoming government remain. Even after leaving the institutional autonomy guaranteed by the constitution, it seems contradictory to the compulsory component of the new legislation. Some of the concerns HEIs have are legitimately problematic. What will happen when a student who applies to a state university does not get in due to the unavailability of seats? Are their constitutional rights being violated and will the student be able to take legal action against the university? In a system as disperse as the Mexican one where a majority of the demand is already concentrated in a handful of institutions, this issue can quickly escalate.

Expanding Educational Infrastructure
The government has stated that in order to absorb quickly the demand for new available seats at public higher education institutions, they will create 100 new universities and enroll in them 300,000 students in the next six years (2018-2024). Building, but especially staffing, this large new infrastructure seems complicated to say the least. Experts coincide in the impracticality of this measure: “The amount of money needed to develop 100 universities would be immense. It would be more practical to expand some of the existing universities and provide them with more funds” (Altbach, cited in Pells 2018). These new universities, called Universidades para el Bienestar (welfare or well-being universities) besides being completely free of tuition and fees and open to all (there is no admission test, but rather a ‘diagnostic evaluation’ of the candidates), will upon enrollment provide each student with a stipend of $2,400 MXN per month (around 120 USD). Some of this new institutions are already operating using improvised facilities (Lloyd 2019). By September 2019, over 7,500 students were reportedly enrolled in one of the 36 programs initially offered (Rodríguez 2019).

Another concern regarding this project is related to the quality of education. In less than a year, the government managed to start delivering education at these institutions which is undoubtedly remarkable. However, scholars have criticized the government’s approach as being spontaneous. National and international journalists have documented the lack of proper infrastructure, faculty, and curricula, and even labeled these institutions as ‘ghost universities’ (Zerega 2019; Alemán 2019). So far, there is scarcity on data about the institutions, their website only mentions the programs offered and the cities where the universities are/will be located, but they don’t even disclose the exact address for these institutions. Without transparency on how these institutions were designed and are operating, it is very hard to evaluate their effectiveness.

Increasing Direct Aid to Students

A new program proposed by the incoming federal administration called “Jóvenes Construyendo el Futuro” (Youth building the future) was designed to provide students with 1) practical and professional experience that can help to secure later a full-time employment, and 2) a stipend to help alleviate the cost of education and other living expenses. Through this program, students can receive a monthly stipend of MXN $3,600 (around 190 USD per month) as long as they participate in an internship for up to one year. This program is more or less a centralized version of the U.S. “Federal Work-Study Program”. In this case the Federal Government would work with the private and public sector to offer part-time job opportunities to students and their salary would come directly through the Government. So far, over one million students have received this grant. This program is also open for people who are not currently employed or in education (the aforementioned ‘NINIs’ or ‘NEETs’). Since the practical internship can last up to one year, there aren’t many official results yet except for a press release where the Federal Government informed they have given out these grants to one million and three thousand recipients; however, only around 1.5 percent have secured full-time employment (STPS 2019). The number of participants who have enrolled or re-enrolled at a higher education program has not yet been made public.

The other programs are targeted specifically toward students currently enrolled at a public HEI and consist of a monthly stipend of MXN $2,400 (around 120 USD per month). As stated before, students enrolled in one of the newly created ‘Universidades para el Bienestar’ automatically receive this stipend. The rest of the students need to apply for a stipend which is need-based, only students whose family per-capita income is below four times the minimum wage (2,900 MXN approx. per month or about 150 USD) qualify for this program.

Conclusion

Despite the best intentions of making into law that every young person in Mexico should be given the right to higher education, Mexico’s Federal Government needs to consider its manifold implications: Financial impact and financial sustainability, graduation or student success beyond just access, the quality of education, and insertion into the workforce postgraduation. A comprehensive plan to address each of the interconnected issues affecting access and
success is needed. So far, the Federal Government’s plan seems to rely on creating new universities and on providing
students with different forms of grants. These measures, while popular among some segments of the population, have
been questioned by many experts who fear they might be motivated by electoral payoffs (Maldonado-Maldonado and
Rodríguez-Gómez 2019). Other concerns are related to the feasibility of investing all the resources needed to guarantee
access to higher education.

Most importantly, the greatest critique is the plan designed to implement compulsory higher education; if the
invested resources come only in form of new universities and direct subsidies to students, then the country is missing
on the opportunity to capitalize the infrastructure already in place and to enhance the quality of teaching. The proposed
policies lack a comprehensive vision, there is no mention about secondary education as the natural pipeline towards
higher education. There is also a serious lack of policies to follow-up on access to focus also on student success
indicators such as development of competencies, learning outcomes, and increased graduation rates.

The Government’s new programs lack empirical support. Even now when they are being implemented, further
research must be conducted in at least the following areas: 1) The effectiveness of providing universal stipends as
opposed to allowing for the institutions to disburse those on amounts based on the students’ needs; 2) The academic
and professional outcomes of the new universities; 3) The effectiveness, in terms of higher education enrollment or
re-enrollment, for the ‘NINIs’ participating in the government’s internship program; and 4) the direct effect on access and
coverage of having added higher education as compulsory.

Access to higher education in Mexico is a serious problem that needs several stakeholders’ involvement to advance
into a better system; one that is more inclusive, beneficial to the individual but also to the surrounding community. The
government needs to continue to strengthen the primary and secondary levels of education both in terms of coverage
and quality that ensures a college ready youth. It also needs to invest in infrastructure of higher education especially
for the suburban and rural population who cannot afford to move to the cities in search of opportunities. Public
institutions of higher education should continue to implement efficiencies in their operations so that the limited
resources they have are better spent. They should also keep working on improving the quality of their programs so that
the demand gets less concentrated at the usual institutions. Private Institutions need to use their position of privilege to
accept more students no matter their SES. The private institutions struggling with accreditation efforts, should do a
better job in securing first the quality of the education before any kind of profit or revenue. The civil society in general
should keep pushing the aforementioned actors to comply with their duties. They should also encourage young people
to pursue education as a mean for social mobility. Privileged members of the civil society should commit to help—via
more donations and foundations—those in financial strain.

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A Qualitative Analysis: Mexican University Student Written Advice to Future Students at the Conclusion of a Semester Abroad Experience

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Introduction

This study is an analysis of student reflective advice written to future semester abroad students based upon their personal experience in a semester study abroad program. In December 2018, 36 Mexican students wrote individual letters during an end-of-term session in which they were asked to reflect upon their semester abroad experience in San Antonio, Texas. The students composed letters to provide advice for the next student cohort based on what they had learned and what they wished someone had told them to help make the most of their experience. The student advice letters were a follow-on to a beginning of the semester activity in which each student wrote a letter to themselves about their expectations of the semester abroad experience. The objective of the letter writing exercise was to encourage reflective thinking about what they had learned and for the students to evaluate how much they changed as a result of the semester abroad study. The December letters were analyzed for types of advice and categorized by topic area for this report using qualitative methodology. The letters were intended to be delivered as written to students in the next Bécalos cohort.

The classroom activities, analysis, and report tasks were each performed by at least two of the following international programs team members at the Alamo Colleges District, Office of International Programs:

- Special Projects Coordinator
- District Executive Director (Retired)
- International Program Assistant, Bécalos Program

About the Bécalos Program

Based on the May 2013 agreement between President Barack Obama and Mexican President Enrique Peña Nieto, the Colleges District hosts students annually from the SEP-Bécalos-Santander-Universidades scholarship program to boost the number of cross-border exchanges between the two countries (becaseducacion superior 2017). Students from across Mexico travel to San Antonio for a semester of academic courses, leadership seminars, English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction, and cultural activities. Students are selected for the program by their higher education institution in Mexico. The names of the selected students are sent to the Mexico Ministry of Education who then place the students in a higher education institution in the United States based upon the student’s program of study. In August 2018, the Office of International Programs was honored to welcome 36 Bécalos students for our fifth-year cohort in this important program. Bécalos students enrich our campus communities and bring insight to lessons, add talent to our classrooms shared with local students, and promote the internationalization of the Colleges District. The Mexico students’ dedication to completing out of class assignments and their serious attitude toward doing their best has been an example and a motivator for our local students and faculty.
The fifth class (2018) of Bécalos students came from 14 different universities across Mexico. These students study science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) fields at their home universities to one day make an impact on the economic development of Mexico. The program also builds bridges between the American and Mexican peoples. For many of these students, studying in San Antonio was their first time flying on an airplane or visiting the United States.

In addition to academic courses, the program is designed to introduce American culture, advance English language training, enhance independent living and study skills, and provide an orientation to campus life (becaseducacion superior 2017). Students learn how to use the VIA Metropolitan transit system, access library resources, learn the history of South Texas, and build leadership skills that will equip them for bright futures. Additionally, Bécalos students learn about their individual communication styles and have the opportunity to create and share their own international aspirations within the semester abroad program.

Housing is provided at apartments at one of the colleges, with host families, or at near-by catholic residence staffed by sisters who work to create a family atmosphere and healthy, lively relationships among students. The catholic residence is a safe environment designed for young women only and the Sisters actively work to promote an understanding of different cultures and religions.

As a part of the Bécalos program, several classroom experiences designed for the students promote reflective thinking about their semester in San Antonio through written letters. Reflective writing at semester’s end combined with a letter they each wrote to themselves at the beginning of the semester are used to capture their initial expectations and a basis to compare what they learned by the end of the term. At the end of the semester, students’ sealed envelopes were returned to them to read and reflect on how their experiences through their four-month stay in the US. The reflective exercises were concluded by asking each student to write a letter to a student in the next Bécalos cohort to give advice based on what the student learned during his/her time in the program. Ultimately, these letters will be delivered to students in the next Bécalos cohort. In addition, analysis of the letters will be used to make changes or additions to the program to enhance future international student success.

Aims of the Analysis

The aims of this analysis were to evaluate peer advice to future students in their semester abroad experience, to gain insight into the student’s experience, and to evaluate how student advice can be used to improve future student experiences. Advice from the letters will be used to improve future orientation sessions and ongoing support for the next Bécalos cohort as well as other international students. This analysis will add to the body of knowledge concerning semester abroad experiences of Mexican university students visiting the United States and be applicable to help other international students to gain the most from their experiences while away from home.

Review of the Literature

The literature regarding the United States and study abroad fall into two major categories: 1) United States students studying overseas and 2) foreign students studying in the United States. Much of the literature falls into the study abroad group concerning US domestic students and their experiences overseas. Among the literature regarding US students in study abroad experiences, NAFSA: Association of International Educators (NAFSA) has compiled a report of independent research that measures the impact of study abroad in higher education (www.nafsa.org/policy-and-advocacy/policy-resources/independent-research-measuring-impact-study-abroad). The introduction to the metadata report asserts that “while more research is still needed in this area, researchers who have measured the impact of study abroad and other international learning experiences have found that they have a positive impact on academic, educational, and professional outcome measures" (http://www.nafsa.org/policy-and-advocacy/policy-resources/independent-research-measuring-impact-study-abroad, paragraph 1). Outcomes of the studies indicate that
study abroad improves completion, retention, transfer rates, and grade point averages. Raby, Rhodes, & Biscarra, (2014) discuss positive outcomes that occur as a result of study abroad due to engagement-enhancing components including shared common experiences and increased student interaction in collaborative activities. Improvement in language learning and development of intercultural competencies through study abroad experiences were reported outcomes in a University of Minnesota-Twin Cities paper (Stebleton et al., 2013). Ammigan and Laws (2018) indicted the more students are involved in the academic and social aspects of college life, the greater they may benefit in terms of learning and social development.

The second major group of literature falls into the category of foreign student experiences while in the United States. Dorsett (2017) wrote on common expectations of international students studying in US universities that closely fit with what we know about our Bécalos students. As with the students we engaged with in this study, he observed that most students were away from home for the first time and faced challenges including how to cope with a new educational environment, culture, and a new language. He noted that these students bring with them a variety of expectations which are both conscious and unconscious assumptions about the cultural and educational experiences in the United States.

Many of the challenges international students face while studying in the US are addressed by Danielle Geary (2016) who explores some challenges and suggests ideas for sparking interaction between foreign students and Americans. She concluded that the most profound insight of her analysis was networking between people and building authentic friendships facilitate positive change for international students, perhaps more than any other factor. In the Bécalos program, building friendship is facilitated through living arrangements, academic classes, social activities, and volunteer opportunities.

Farrelly (2018) surveyed 573 foreign students in five higher education institutions to determine what international students wished they had known before coming to live and learn in Ireland. The paper discussed the types of academic, sociocultural, and practical resources that both welcoming colleges and international students should consider prioritizing before leaving their home country to significantly help the transition from a home to a host country. The top four responses from students in the Ireland survey were knowledge of how to set up a bank account; knowledge about the cost of living; knowledge about getting accommodation; and knowledge about transport. These are each topics that were listed by Bécalos students in this study. Slantcheva-Durst and Knaggs (2017) conducted focus groups with foreign community college students that provided insights into student experiences related to the importance of English language skills upon arrival in the US, the value of on-campus interactions, and level of interest in the students’ own culture which were confirmed in findings from this study.

Other literature concerning student challenges in community colleges indicate that foreign students experience acculturative stress and may require more support to be successful than local students in the college environment (Hansen et al. 2018). A recent dissertation study found that student involvement in social experiences, being academically prepared, and familial support all promote student success of foreign community college students (Bennani 2018). These responses are consistent with the student experiences presented in this Colleges/US-based study.

Sample

The sample for this research project included the entire population of 36 semester abroad students from Mexico higher education institutions who participated in the fall 2018 Bécalos program at the Colleges District. All of the students were younger than 23 years of age and were fairly evenly divided between males and females as shown in Table 1. More than half of the students were in their first year of college, with the majority of the remaining students in their second year of college study. Only three of the 36 students were in their third year of college.
Table 1: Population demographics and number of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age in years:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-23 years</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year in college:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First year</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second year</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 provides the names of the participating Mexico universities and the number of students in the 2018 Bécalos cohort from each institution.

Table 2: List of Mexican universities and number of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Participating University</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Politécnica de Monclova-Frontera</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Politécnica Metropolitana de Hidalgo</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Politécnica Yucatán</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de Chihuahua</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de Durango BIS</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de Puebla BIS</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de Guaymas</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de La Laguna Durango</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de Laja Bajío</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de La Zona Metropolitana de Valle de México</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de Saltillo</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica de San Luis Rio Colorado</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica El Retoño</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Tecnológica Gral. Mariano Escobedo</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data Collection Method**

With two weeks remaining in the fall 2018 semester abroad experience, the fifth annual cohort of Bécalos students were asked to write letters of advice to incoming Fall 2019 Bécalos students as had been done with the previous cohorts. The advice letters were written after students had the opportunity to read letters they had written to themselves about their initial expectations and thoughts at the beginning of the semester program that had been prepared and sealed. Reading these letters created an emotional moment for most, as they realized how much they had changed in such a short amount of time (about three months). After allowing the students some time to discuss and
process their thoughts and feelings, they were asked to write a letter to an imagined student in the next cohort with advice that they themselves would have liked to have received upon arriving in San Antonio.

The students were given no instruction regarding the type of advice to give or in which language to write the letters. While the majority expressed within the letters the importance of practicing their English skills, the letters themselves were written in Spanish, with the exception of one letter written in English. A bi-lingual, native Spanish speaker reviewed the letters to identify and record the advice provided. One letter was collected at the end of the class session from each of the 36 students in the Bécalos program.

Data Analysis

A fluent native Spanish speaker with experience in international program delivery and who has lived in both Mexico and the United States carefully read each letter in Spanish to gain an overall understanding of advice topics. Subsequently, the letters were translated from Spanish to English and the elements of student advice contained in each letter was recorded in an Excel spreadsheet.

Qualitative methodology was used in the analysis as it is primarily an exploratory research project based upon non-quantitative data. The analysis is based upon qualitative data from non-numeric information obtained from handwritten letters. The initial organization of the raw data used an open coding methodology (Boyatzis 1998) applied to the elements of the non-quantifiable advice elements given in each of the individual letters. Conventional content analysis was used and coding categories were derived directly from the text data. Once the data elements were identified and coded, the primary data was scanned for words and phrases most commonly used by the respondents to place of data elements into broad categories (Creswell 2013). One member of the research team reviewed the qualitative methodology, coding, and categories and verified the data results recorded by a second member of the research team. The data was then summarized quantitatively by counting the number of elements in each category and creating a summary table of all responses. The three major categories created were labelled as: 1) General Lifestyle Choices; 2) Coursework; and 3) Practical Tips.

Findings

The majority of the students wrote multiple page letters with advice on general lifestyle choices, practical tips, and coursework advice for how to best navigate life during the four months of the semester abroad experience. Many of the students also included their contact information so incoming students receiving their letter could contact them with any doubts, questions, or general comments and other support during their semester abroad.

Two findings were made that align with the aims of the analysis. First, students provided information on their general lifestyle choices that gives insight into their daily and overall abroad experience. The second included practical tips the students identified that would have improved their experience and can be used to improve future students’ experiences. The general lifestyle choices advice is addressed in Table 3 with number and percentage of students who offered the advice, and the practical tips and coursework advice are discussed in Table 4 with number and percentage of students who offered the advice.
Table 3: General lifestyle choices advice with number and percent of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Advice</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percent of Total Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Lifestyle Choices:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Stay in Your Home</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>97.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate in Volunteer Work/Joint School Clubs</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>97.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explore the City</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make New Friends</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat More Home Cooked Meals</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get Out of Your Comfort Zone</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn the Bus Schedule</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a Map</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most frequent advice from students in the general lifestyle choices category were Don’t Stay in Your Home and Participate in Volunteer Work/Joint School Clubs. Over 97 percent of students highly recommended that the incoming scholars not to spend all their time in their respective residence, but rather to get out and engage in activities. Several students expressed their regret from having stayed home watching television or sleeping on numerous occasions instead of going out and attending the various events going on around them. Following along this line of thought, 50 percent of the students advocated for Get Out of Your Comfort Zone. With many different activities and events being offered, there are opportunities for students to face their fears of new experiences in an unfamiliar culture. Likewise, over 97 percent advised attending social activities and participating in the volunteer opportunities provided by the Alamo District Colleges, as well as joining college clubs. Many stated that volunteer events allowed them to see various aspects of lifestyles of American people. One student wrote, “Take full advantage of all the opportunities that the Alamo Colleges offers you, I recommend you try to attend the volunteer events, the truth is they doing incredible things and you have the opportunity to see new places and have experiences of a lifetime.”

Surprisingly, 67.8 percent of the students recommended eating more home cooked meals and advised against eating out too much. This recommendation was made because eating out is more expensive and fast food is often less nutritious. Students who provided this advice were those who resided in the campus apartments or the catholic residence as they had greater access to going out in the city and spending their limited dollars on fast food meals over those staying with host families where meals were most often provided for them family style. Students did provide a warning with the campus apartment eating-in advice, suggesting to only purchase the amount of food they will be able to prepare and eat. Going overboard with groceries sometimes meant that vegetables and other perishable goods expired before they could be used. Another student wrote, “Watch what you buy, especially when buying groceries, don’t just buy things to buy them. Take advantage of the Food Bank at the college, you really save a lot of money [as compared to] when you buy groceries.” These comments indicate the health consciousness of the Mexican students as well as their attention to financial frugality regarding food.
Table 4: Practical tips and coursework advice with number and percent of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Advice</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percent of Total Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practical Tips:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk to Everyone in Your Class</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>97.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Your Money</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Your Time</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Time to Talk to Your Family</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gave Personal Contact Information</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coursework:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do Your Homework</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice Your English Skills</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than half of the students (58.3 percent) advocated for better management of both the student’s time and money. In regard to time management, they suggested creating a schedule that included their roommates so they could hold each other accountable for the activities they wanted and needed to attend. It was also advised to establish a routine as quickly as possible so they could become accustomed to the culture and lifestyle changes. Students pointed out that while back home being late to events is not seen as such a bad thing, punctuality here is held at a very high esteem and very important.

When giving advice on financial management, 58.3 percent of students advised downloading the banking application to track their bank funds. The second most frequent advice was to be certain that their bank account was set for direct deposit. Many students had issues or had to wait longer for their program monthly stipends due to not changing their accounts’ delivery option from checks to direct deposit, despite having been informed multiple times at the beginning of the program. This financial advice is consistent with the Farrelly (2018) survey most frequent responses regarding financial knowledge regarding bank accounts that students wished they had known at the beginning of their study abroad in Ireland.

About a fourth (27.8 percent) of the students emphasized the importance of keeping in contact with their family back home. They wanted the future students to know that it was okay to miss their family members and that they should lean on one another to get through the difficult moments together. This correlates with the high number of students advising to get along with and talk to everyone in their Bécalos cohort, instead of limiting themselves to their original home university classmates. They also stated that while their fellow classmates should serve as the base for their support system, they should still attempt to branch out and make friends with others outside of the Bécalos group, as this would allow more exposure to the language and culture of San Antonio and the United States and build lasting friendships.

Regarding coursework, 63.9 percent advised doing the assigned homework before going out for fun. One student wrote, “the classes here are different, be prepared to study a lot and try to do your homework as soon as possible, but don’t worry, you will learn a lot and they will help with your English and career.” Students indicated that even though they understood the curriculum concepts and may have gone over them back home it took them more time to finish the assignments than they originally thought due to being in English and due to unfamiliarity with some technical terminology. This provided incentive for students to attend the optional ESL course that was offered during the semester, which 41.7 percent advised incoming students to do and supports the focus group findings of Slantcheva-Durst and Knaggs (2017).

Discussion
The aims of this study were to gain insight into the Mexican study abroad student’s experience, to provide peer advice for future students in their semester abroad semester, and to use student advice to improve future student experiences. The reflective thinking session asked students to take time to think about their study abroad experience and to provide advice based upon their own learning experiences that would benefit future students. The advice offered is the outcome of the students’ reflections on their own experience.

The letters written by the Bécalos students demonstrated how important international experience abroad can be in expanding an individual’s knowledge of cultural differences in addition to gaining academic and other personal experience. For example, several students wrote about how important being “on time” to class is in the U.S. which is viewed differently than in their Mexico classrooms. They reflected upon their interaction with others during the study abroad semester to examine what they wished they had known at the beginning of the experience and to offer helpful advice to future students. They thought about how their values of experiences of communication, relationships, and knowledge of people and culture different from their home. One student wrote, “Motivate yourself every day that you wake up, don’t stay locked up in the place you’ll be staying at, get out and explore.” Looking back, many students expressed that they wished they had done more activities during their time in the US.

As an example of student reflection regarding the importance of English language skills, one student recommended, “Practice as much as you can your English skills and I’m telling you, it will be hard but try as much as you can.” As discussed in the literature review, the level of language skills of incoming foreign students is a critical factor in their study abroad experience. The value of education and hard work was underscored by a student who advised, “Work hard in your classes, you are here to learn and better yourself. Don’t let your homework accumulate due to laziness or outings.” Our experience with the Bécalos students is that they are very serious about their education and often serve as positive role models in this respect for our local students.

In the practical tips category students shared advice about strategies for sharing their living environment with new people and managing their money. One student wrote, “My lodging assignment was at Tobin [campus housing] and sharing an apartment with three other strangers is difficult at times. Set rules from the start and through any situation respect each other. It helps a lot to have a chart of responsibilities.” Regarding managing their money, a number of students provided information about low-cost, restaurant chain stores that they liked and recommended. From their comments, we learned that many students got tired of pizza early in the study abroad experience as the orientation and many of the information sessions provided pizza for the students. Based on the student advice, in the future when events are being held and food choices are being looked at for the students, we will order food from the recommended restaurants (fast food chicken, hamburgers, Mexican food) before going to the pizza option.

Other practical tips advice regarding local transportation included a student’s advice, “Uber and Lift can be a bit expensive, so learn to travel by bus and use Google maps or the San Antonio VIA Bus System app so that you don’t get lost.” Other students advised using Uber and Lyft only as a last resort, because while they are convenient to move around in, they can become very expensive. The Alamo Colleges has negotiated free bus passes for all registered students for the first time this year. Although some routes were time consuming, the bus passes insured that students could travel anywhere in the city without transportation costs.

The most common local transportation problem students encountered was navigating the VIA bus system. Their advice to solve this problem was to download the VIA bus app, which helped with finding the best routes to use and the times that the buses passed. Other students obtained a map of the city and kept it on their person in case they were not able to use their cellphones. All of the students in this cohort had personal smart phones from home. These were important insights that will be incorporated in future orientation sessions.

Students also provided suggestions on different ways to save money during their time in San Antonio such as noting what restaurants provide the best deals for college students, the best days to go grocery shopping at the Colleges’ food pantries, which colleges had a the best stock of foods in their student pantry services, and other tips on store deals and sales. A number of students also suggested bringing a large suitcase with the bare minimum of clothing.
with them from home, as they would more than likely be purchasing new items and souvenirs. Some students indicated that the best time to stock up on gifts, especially electronics, was during Thanksgiving weekend when Black Friday and Cyber Monday came around, demonstrating their awareness of these US. Retail business events. One reason given to conserve their funds was so they would be able to go on independent travel. A few students were able to visit California, Chicago, New York, and several cities within Texas during academic breaks, with one student traveling to two different states.

The advice given as a result of thoughtful reflection provided insight into experiences and cultural learning of the Mexican students that was gained as a part of their study abroad experiences in San Antonio. We are confident these are life experiences that will benefit the students throughout their future and provide advice that will help future students and us to better orient and support future cohorts.

**Conclusion**

The Bécalos students expressed profound gratitude at being able to participate in the study abroad program. They also extended their thanks to many faculty, staff, students, and other community members for their personalized help and assistance throughout their experiences. The student advice and suggestions will be used to construct a plan in which we will implement changes to the program to provide even better support for our students.

The Bécalos program encourages students to understand and reshape their own identities and beliefs through inclusion of the unexpected, challenging, and simultaneously rewarding intersection of the unknown and the known. The advice provided by these students illustrates the significance of international education with regard to developing individuals who are not merely students, but global citizens with a broad, multicultural focus that leaps beyond tolerance and sensitivity to join with the common, familial aspects of humankind. Using reflective thinking exercises in the classroom can be an important tool to help students become more cognizant of the impact of their study abroad experience and to recognize aspects of their personal experience.

Given the 2018 Presidential election in Mexico and subsequent changes in higher education administration, the future funding by the Mexican government of the Bécalos program is uncertain. The cathartic impact on the lives of students that are given an immersive educational experience in a different country and culture than their home makes this program invaluable to developing global citizens and promoting internationalization. What can we do as educators in higher education institutions to help our international students to gain the most from their experience? We believe that an important key as confirmed by our Bécalos students is to emphasize the importance of daily lifestyle choices that students make while abroad. It is not enough in the first week of orientation to advise students to get out of their residence, to participate in volunteer activities, and to pursue face-to-face opportunities to meet other students outside of class (as opposed to just online). Because students are most often overwhelmed in the first weeks of their abroad experience, lifestyle messages need to be repeated along with other key advice during the first two months of their experience and continuous opportunities to engage the students socially and culturally. We must find ways to convince students to take responsibility for maximizing their own experience in order for them to get the greatest return. Our hope is that giving the next cohort of students these hand written letters from peers will carry the message in a powerful way that will positively influence them and enhance their study abroad experience.

**References**


Thriving in the face of adversity: Mapping experiences of international students in a South African higher education institution

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Background to the Study

Migration is a global issue as it deals with more than one country. According to the Report by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2013) on the human population, 3 percent of the 232 million of the global human population migrate internationally to live in other countries for more than a year. In contrast, the International Organisation for Migration (IOU 2017) estimates that currently there are 244 million international migrants globally which are 3.3 percent of the world’s population. In South Africa, the report conducted by Statistic South Africa (2011) during the 2011 census found that a total of 2.2 million foreigners migrate and live in South Africa annually. These foreigners include both documented and undocumented immigrants and implies that a migrant is a person who moves from their place of habitual to another (IOM 2017), often from one county to another. In this regards, international students form part of the group of people called migrants. A body of literature has shown that South Africa is not the only country that experiences student migration and that people migrate due to several reasons which could be based on the push and pull factors (Lee 2010) in which forces within the students’ home country ‘push’ them to seek education elsewhere and forces within the host country ‘pull’ the students to a particular host country or institution (Lee 2010).

The report by IOU (2018) demonstrates there are 258 million immigrants of which 4.8 million are considered international students. This is supported by the study conducted by UNESCO (2016) on the global statistics of international students which also revealed that in 2016, over 4.8 million international students were enrolled for educational programs in countries all over the world including South Africa. In the case of South Africa, statistics show an enrolment of 74,000 international students in undergraduate and postgraduate levels of studies accounting for nearly 8 percent of the total student body, of which 15 percent of them are postgraduate and 6 percent of the undergraduate international students (Mokhothu and Callaghan 2018). This data suggests a high growth of international students into South African higher educational institutions beginning in 2013 (Mokhothu and Callaghan 2018).

Prior to 1994, the South African postapartheid educational system witnessed a series of transformation in educational policies which were developed, redesigned, and implemented in order to provide frameworks and guidelines to assist easy access to education for all. In 2009, the South African Government, through President Jacob Zuma, created a new ministry within the department of education known as the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) under the leadership of the former minister of higher education Dr. Blade Nzimande which provided a framework and policy for their higher educational institutions. Although this DHET policy framework has other objectives for developing local students, and education in general, through their policy they were able to ensure easy access for foreign and international students, as well as enhance and build appropriate diversity within their universities. This action increased the number of international students migrating into South Africa higher educational institutions as well as driving the process of internationalization within South African higher educational institutions.
Internationalization of higher education is seen as a vital policy that deals with the combining of international activities into the teaching of higher educational institutions (Nwokedi 2015). Peace G. Nwokedi (2015) claimed that the concept of internationalization is broad and is not a new phenomenon globally. And Michael Cross, Ephraim Mhlanga, and Emmanuel Ojo (2011) explained that internationalization is a complex, multidimensional, and fragmented process, and a response to globalization. Piyushi Kotecha (2012) posed that internationalization plays a key role in knowledge building within academia and consequently in the development of countries. Therefore, based on the evidence above, this shows the importance of exploring the experiences of international students in South African higher educational institutions.

**Literature Review**

**Defining International Students**

International students are described as a heterogeneous group of students whose common element is their status as well their intention of attaining academic excellence in a country other than their home country (Kritz 2012; Trahar and Hyland 2011; Volet and Jones 2012). This description is supported by Peace Nwokedi’s (2015) and Thobeka Vuyelwa Mda’s (2010) studies in South Africa, who posed that international students are a heterogeneous group of students studying in another country which is not their country of origin in order to acquire international knowledge, skills, experiences, and qualification. This paper argues that international students’ diversities makes them a heterogeneous group of people as they possess diverse potentials, opinions, views, different language skills, culture, new ways of thinking, creative solutions to difficult problems and negotiation skills (Ryan and Viete 2009) making them different from their local peers and help to enhance their learning (Lee 2010), as well as being agents of geographical and cultural knowledge and not as passive recipients of knowledge (Madge, Raghuram, and Noxolo 2009).

**Experiences of International Students**

*Dis-enabling experiences.* Although the issue of migration is very challenging, there is a growing body of research that has reported on international students’ diverse experiences in their host universities. For example, globally recent studies (Wang et al. 2001; Wang et al 2012.; Zhang-Wu 2018) show that international students experienced challenges within their host environments caused by different factors such as violence, racism, xenophobia, financial constraint, difficulties of acquiring visa and student permit, lack of social belonging, accommodation issues, lack of job opportunities, victimization, exclusion, and hardships which constrained their learning, growth, and development. Research by Aileen O’Reilly, Tina Hickey, and Dermot Ryan (2013) support these finds as well as highlight that international students experience sociocultural and psychological difficulties and lack of interest in internationalization. This is concurred by Lorraine Brown and Immy Holloway (2008) with Furnham (2010) who revealed in their respective studies that international students experienced loneliness as well as discrimination. Whilst Peter Townsend and Huay Jun Poh (2008) asserted that international students, due to the differences in education, finance, and cultural system of their host country, experienced difficulties within the learning environment. In a similar vein, Adam Graycar (2010) found that students experienced racial victimization, lack of intercultural interactions, and gender violence, as well as social and cultural tensions (Tarry 2010) and lack of funds (Marginson et al. 2010) in the learning environment. In addition, Jane Menzies and Rachael Barron (2014) found that language barriers and culture shock affected international students in their learning.

Naum Ogwenyi Aloyo and Arnold Wentzel (2011) indicated that international students in South African Higher Education institutions encounter psychological issues like isolation and low self-esteem. In addition, Pilot Mudhovozi (2011) and Saloshna Vandeyar (2010) also identified that language difficulties caused alienation, loneliness, and lack of social belonging on international student development. R. J. Paola and E. M. Lemmer (2013) reported that international students in South Africa experience challenges in their learning due to fluidity in their stages of cultural
adjustment and the impact of race and gender adjustment. This view is supported by D. Y. Dzansi and L. Mogashoa (2013) who noted that international students face different learning challenges faced in South Africa due to cultural adjustment and shock, culturally insensitive classrooms, lack of collaborative classroom environment, classroom participation and communication assessment methods. Adeagbo Oluwafemi (2012) indicated that exorbitant international fees, the discriminatory policies of some universities, lack of funding and scholarship (local and international) for postgraduate students from non-South African Development Community (SADC) nations inhibited or constrained international students’ learning, growth, and development in South Africa. This idea is supported by Karen MacGregor (2014), who argued that the challenges experienced by international students studying in South Africa include accommodation issues, financial pressures, high medical insurance cost, language, support and adjustment challenges, lack of friends, and xenophobia. Roseann Rajpal (2012) and Moise Majyambere (2012) with Elizabeth Frances Caldwell and Denis Hyams-Ssekasi (2016) also opined that international students studying in South Africa experienced several issues like xenophobia, financial difficulties, accommodation issues, language barrier, lack of communication with local students, and the difficulty in getting study visas as well as non-issuance of work permits that affected their learning difficulty.

**Enabling experiences.** Despite these challenges or difficulties experienced by international students in their host environment, some studies (Zhou et al. 2008; Borg and Cefai 2014; Gu, Schweisfurth, and Day 2010; Wu, Garza, and Guzman 2015) indicated that in their quest to overcome their challenges, international students’ learning was enhanced, their identity also changed, and they were able to adapt, develop and achieve their educational goals. It also enabled the students to develop positive experiences and become resilient, change agents, active participants, and successful students. For instance, a considerable body of literature in the global context (Arkoudis and Tran 2010; Barnes 2011; Bista 2015; Borg and Cefai 2014; Campbell and Li 2008; Lillyman and Benneth 2014; Montgomery; Pence and Macgilivray 2009) has shown that various factors such as social support (Borg and Cefai 2014); change in their professional and personal life such as increased confidence, a better appreciation and respect for differences of others and other cultures (Pence and Macgilivray 2008); and improved knowledge, self-awareness, critical and innovative skills and attitudes enabled international students to function effectively within both their host and home countries (Gu et al. 2010).

In addition, a body of literature (Montgomery and McDowell 2009; Lillyman and Bennett 2014; Pilote and Benabdelljalil 2007; Yukl and Becker 2006) identified diverse factors inform of international network that motivated and supported international students learning in their host environment. For example, Sue Lillyman and Clare Benneth (2014) revealed that international students succeeded as an international community academically, socially and to a certain extent, emotionally because they supported one another and shared their lived experiences and knowledge of their host environment. Catherine Montgomery and Liz McDowell (2009) also discovered in their study that by sharing of knowledge, international students developed cultural understanding and engaged in joint research and development with the assistance and understanding of their host university, academic, local students and themselves. This is supported by Annie Pilote and Asmaa Benabdelljalil (2007) with Gary Yukl and Wendy Becker (2006) who found in their study that international students developed positive learning experiences through engaging and involving the academics and school management in preparing and delivery of courses which enabled them overcome their intercultural challenges and assisted them in accommodating their fellow new international students in their host university. This suggests that international students contributed positively towards the academic and economic growth of their host country. These views above correspond with the study by Ly Tran and Cate Gribble (2015) which identifies that international students through international education contributed to job creation in their host environment.

Doron Zar (2009) stresses that international students’ reliance on social support from family members and other international students, as well as developing skills and acquiring critical thinking skills, receiving quality education,
and becoming computer literate (MacGregor 2014) helped them develop successful adaptive strategies and achieve academic excellence.

In essence, the above review clearly demonstrates the need for the study which aims to contribute to the development of the body of research on the international students’ experiences and in which the area of international students’ experiences in Africa and in South Africa is under researched. Although there are available studies which show the complexities of doing research with international students in South Africa. However, from what the literature has revealed, much has not been said about international students’ as active beings and agencies in their host environment and in particular using photovoice which is a visual methodology within qualitative research (Mitchell 2011) to generate data. In other words, this study explores and seeks to understand the international students’ diverse experiences in a selected South African higher educational institution.

Theoretical Framework

This study uses the agentic capability theory of Albert Bandura (Bandura 2009; 2012) as its lens to explore international students’ experiences in a South African higher educational institution. The agentic capability theory “adopts an agentic perspective toward human development, adaptation, and change” (Bandura 2006:164). This implies that international students as assets and human agency developed physically, emotionally, and holistically when they leave their home environment to study in their host environment which, in this case, is South African and their development is also based on the different enabling factors within their learning environment that assist them to adapt to their new environment and become change agents. Therefore, this made Ana Mari Cauce and Edmund W. Gordon (2011) argue that this theory deals with human agency. Furthermore, Ana Mari Cauce and Edmund W. Gordon (2011: 2) explains that “human agency is purposive, constructive, and planful and that it involves anticipating the effects of our actions, estimating our capabilities, regulating affect, and initiating effort”. This suggests that international students’ agency is derived from their objectives, support, positivity, intentions as well as consist their expectation of the impact of their actions based on their potentials, abilities, and skills they exercise in achieving their goals. Agency in this paper is linked to the capability and increased motivation, adaptation, adoption, self-confidence, and excellence academic achievements of international students despite their challenges in their host environments. This implies that the international students’ as human agents are thinking beings and agents of change in their host environment.

Albert Bandura (2006; 2012) posed that to understand international students as agencies in their host environment, we should consider four attributes of an agency, such as; intentionality, forethought, self-reactiveness, and self-reflectiveness. This shows that international students have individual goals to study in South Africa which is to acquire international experience and degree as students, the learning motivation or support they receive from their host environment, their action in achieving their academic success or goals and developing self-awareness. International students’ agency is further explained through three key modes of an agency such as personal (self-agency); proxy (exercised through other agents) and collective (group agency) (Bandura 2006; 2012; Ebersohn and Ferreira 2012; Khanare 2015). These imply that international students are able to exercise their influences using these different forms of human agencies which is also based on their abilities. This article shows that international students’ need these three modes of human agencies in their host environment in order to operate with on a daily basis.

Meanwhile, adopting the agentic capability theory to explore the international students’ as an agency in this paper shows that they are a group of people who do not exist in a vacuum but within a social structure (environment) (Krishna, 2010). On the other hand, Nicki Lisa Cole (2015) suggests agency (international students) and the structures (different factors within the environment) influences one another. This implies that the study adopted the agentic capability theory as its framework to explore international students’ diverse knowledge, potentials, skills, abilities, and experiences. Drawing from the positive psychologist point of view, the international students are seen as agency who have potentials and abilities and can be influenced positively or negatively by the structures and diverse factors within
their environment such the university policies, lecturers, peer, accommodation issues, legal policies, language, economics and political policies, churches, immigration policies etc. which could negatively or positively influence their learning, growth and development.

This article emphasizes on the relevance of using the agentic capability theory to explore and gain an in depth understanding of the experiences of international students in a South African Higher educational institution. Subsequent evidence shows that the agentic capability theory will enable the diverse experiences and knowledge of these heterogeneous group of students (international students) to be put into perspective in this study.

Methodology

The wide range of data generated from the photovoice method, self-reflective essay and focused group discussion in this study enabled the process of triangulation. Lisa Guion, David Diehl, and Debra McDonald (2011) argue that triangulation includes employing several sources of data to enhance the validity of a study. Meanwhile, this study employed a qualitative case study research design under the critical research paradigm to explore international students’ experiences in a South African Higher educational institution. John W. A. Creswell (2014) defines a case study as an investigation of an enclosed instance in which the researcher employs various data generation methods to get rich and thick data within a context. Peter Rule and Vaughn John (2011:4) also contend that case study design “is a systematic and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in its context in order to generate knowledge”.

This study was conducted at one of the campuses of a selected university in the Kwa Zulu-Natal province of South Africa. The sample was international students in their undergraduate and postgraduate level of study who were between the ages of 19-45 years old. The sample size of twelve (n=12) participants was selected using the purposive and convenient sampling technique based on the following criteria: they have knowledge of the phenomenon and are accessible to the researcher as well as also been studying in the university where the research was conducted for more than two years and are members of the international students group (IS0). Their ages were ranged from 19 to 44 years old. The biographic information of the participants in this study is presented in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>No. of years</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Country of origin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Friendly</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>19 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>Bed</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>English and Natural science Education</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Inclusive</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Educational leadership and management</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Peaceful</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>Med</td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>Mathematics Education</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Safe</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>32 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Language and Media studies</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Caring</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Science Education</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Supportive</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>36 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>History Education</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Secured</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23 years</td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>BEd</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>Burundi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The method employed in this study was a photovoice method, and a focus group discussion (FGDs). The photovoice method is a participatory visual methodology that is effective and aids learning by allowing successful engagement of the participants in natural discussion and in the building of democracy (Wang 2009). Photovoice is also seen as a powerful photographic technique that promotes critical dialogue and produces knowledge (Wang and Redwood-Jones 2001). It is regarded as the process of using videos or photo images by people who are discriminated against due to race, language barriers, ethnicity, class, tribe, HIV and AIDS, culture, poverty or other conditions described or portrayed in the different aspects of their environments and life experiences by sharing it with other people to get the attention of policymakers to either provoke or motivate for change (Carlson, Engebretson and Chamberlain 2006; Khanare 2012; Black et al. 2018). Using photovoice as a research method enabled the participants to become actively involved, engaged and participate in the study and also allowed them to make informed decision individually or as group concerning the learning, growth, and development in their host environment. Ting Wang (2010) also explains that photovoice allows people to monitor the photographic procedures in order to have a voice, think and talk about their lived experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Field of Study</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Convenient</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Med</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Educational Psychology</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Conducive</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Teachers Development</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Resourceful</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Curriculum studies</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Welcoming</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Med</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Commerce Education</td>
<td>Libya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Med</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Gender Education</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The process of photovoice shown above explored the experiences of international students in a South African higher educational institution and is divided into three sessions such as photovoice workshop, photo shooting, and photointerpretation sessions. The photovoice workshop which consists of the photovoice presentation and training on how visual ethics was held in a convenient venue chosen by the participants for one hour while the photo shooting which involves how to use a digital camera and take photographs also took an hour. Lastly the photointerpretation session due to time factor was done in the participants’ respective homes. Although the photovoice discussion was used
to trigger and stimulate discussion during the three focus group discussion sessions that were also conducted in a convenient venue by the researcher.

The analysis and interpretation of the data were done by reading and rereading of the participants' responses. Thematic analysis (Tesch 1990; Braun and Clarke 2013) generated the main finding of the study and these were further explored through the theoretical framework of the agentic capability theory. Meanwhile, permission to conduct the research was granted by the university ethics committee and the ethical issues such as the participants' safety, confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy were respected while conducting this study. The participant created their own pseudonyms used in this article to maintain anonymity while consents for participation and permission to audio-record the sessions was granted from the 12 international students. Meanwhile, the focus group discussion was conducted using the English language which the participants are familiar with and because it is use as the medium of communication and academic writing in all South African higher education institutions.

Results

The participants were able to identify several barriers or challenges they were currently experiencing in their learning environment which needs to be addressed within their learning context. The various challenges that are needed to be addressed were derived from the macro environment, which is the broader community (for example socio-economic and socio-cultural barrier); the microenvironment i.e. university (local students, administrative staff and university policies) and mesoenvironment (psychological challenges).

The Mesoenvironment: Psychosocial Barriers

The findings in the study revealed that all the participants experienced some psychosocial challenges or barriers in their immediate environment. These psychosocial barriers were categorised into a lack of sense of belonging; feeling of alienation and xenophobia. These made them feel isolated, develop low self-esteem and become anxious in their learning environment. The following extracts from some of the participants illustrate this:

Conducive:

…and then in terms of challenges, we also have our challenges in the sense that. ehhh. the broader scale of South African society and the university is not as welcoming as it ought to be. There is always a feeling that as a foreigner we are sitting on an edge, we don’t belong here because we are not so welcome. This affects us psychologically because you don’t know what to do not to offend them.

This view was also supported by Supportive who acknowledged that:

It shows that some of these issues are actually disturbing and cause some kind of psychological imbalance in us. This is because it makes you feel as if you are living in a place where you are not really welcomed, where you are hated. And you know some of these things in one area or the other, they actually derail us you see. You know as a student in this context, it affects us, it affects the way we think, the way we perceive things you know when you are in a place that makes you feel you don’t belong.

Another factor that revealed the participants’ experiences of psychosocial barriers within their learning environment was the issue of xenophobia. Most of the participants spoke about being discriminated against because they are foreigners and are excluded from participating or taking part in some of the school programs. The following comment was made by the participants:

…the learning environment is not conducive, it makes us international students to lose focus, because of a lot of distraction like xenophobia which we experience here. I remember in 2015 when there was the xenophobia crisis at its peak, I have my fellow international students who reside in the downtown where the xenophobic activity you know was really active, most of them couldn’t do anything because learning is achieved in a peaceful and conducive environment but when there are uncertainties like xenophobia surrounding our lives
here, as we are here to study, you see we won’t be able to focus on our study even to progress, the person will not be able to pay attention to anything. (Welcoming, FGD 3).

The above responses indicated that the participants experienced several psychosocial barriers that directly and indirectly affected their learning and development negatively in South Africa higher educational institution. For example, ‘Welcoming’ commented that the issue of xenophobia has an adverse effect on the psychological status of the international student.

**The Micro-environment (University)**

The international students experienced different challenges within the university environment that affected their learning and development negatively, in particular, issues connected to relationships/interactions such as the lack of social support (language difficulty) and some socio-cultural challenges were highly evident.

**Lack of Social Support**

The factors relating to lack of social support were identified as language difficulty and the lack of social interaction/relationship between international students and local peers. The home language of the local students and community is isiZulu, which is spoken across the KwaZulu-Natal province, which is the context where the study was conducted.

**Language Difficulty**

Most of the participants indicated language difficulty, as making communication and interaction with the local students and community very difficult. It also affected their learning. Not been able to speak and communicate in the local language affected the international students’ integration within the campus and their host environment and limits their participation within the university.

Caring indicated:

“...sometimes you find that you are not so welcomed to the society especially I will say the ladies and most of the times the students here, they become so very difficult to interact with especially when you cannot speak the home/vernacular languages they will not relate with you. Sometimes they can come and greet you in their language and you when you ask them what do you say? The only thing they will say is that you are not speaking Zulu and leave you.

Peaceful also affirmed:

...if somebody doesn’t know how to speak isiZulu, they will just exclude the person or start calling the person kwerekwere here. This makes me develop an identity crisis, I keep imagining myself am I not their fellow African person or is it because I don’t speak their language. It is so terrible I swear.

Resourceful also added that:

...ehmm, the situation like going or leaving the campus here as I am resident in the campus, leaving the campus and going into the cities, simply the fact that you do not speak the language makes you feel a little bit insecure and scared to go out because you do not know who you might meet. So, not speaking the local language is what I see as a great challenge here.

The finding in this study from the above excerpts showed that the participants had trouble interacting with the local students and the local community due to the language barrier. This limited their participation and engaging with the local community. So, because of this they developed fear and became insecure in their host environment.

**Lack of Social Interaction**
According to the participants, the university is an environment that does not support them to socially engage with their local peers and community. To the participants, they assert that the campus/university need to create programs for them to socially integrate or socialise with the local students. The following excerpts from most of the participants illustrate this:

Supporting noted:

_Ehmm in terms of the social and psychosocial life on campus, I think it is poor. Then in terms of integration into the students’ life on campus as an international student with local students I think that is non-existent here and not promoted by the university. If you ask me._ (FGD 2).

Another participant also inferred:

_I think most of the vibrancy that takes places in the university campus in terms of social activities, then life orientation in terms of the emotional, cognitive welfare of students drawing from extracurricular activities, students’ engagements, ehmm then also from the cultural point of view ehmm those things are lacking here in this campus._

According to Cooperative:

_I haven’t really found the environment as a social learning environment in the sense that I haven’t been able to interact with the local people the way I used to like back home in my own country. I see that as a challenge, I mean it’s not all about studying, learning, academic, ehmm, reading the books and making use of the facilities I mean. You see I strongly believe that, ehmm, social interaction is one of the key learning moments for me which is not promoted here for us and this affects us in adjusting and integrating into the environment._

Another factor that reflects the participants’ experiences of lack of social support within the university campus was the lack of communication and interaction between them and the administrative staff of the international student’s office. Friendly also asserted that:

_So ehmm also more importantly, if I will say the interaction between the support staff and the student body which is the staff in the international student’s office and the international students’ group I think in this kind of environment it also very weak and not good at all._

Thus, the study reveals language barriers and lack of social support (social interaction programs) between international students and the local community (local students, the administrative staff in the international student’s office) as a major issue affecting international students’ learning and development that needs to be addressed in order for them to grow academically and achieve their learning.

**Macroenvironment: Socio-cultural barriers**

Participants experienced several socio-cultural barriers that hindered their learning and development within and outside the university. These were categorized as the university exclusive policy and the government immigration policies and difficulty in acquiring a study visa to continue with their studies in their host environment. The findings in this article are that the university policy and the immigrations policy were exclusive and not inclusive. This hindered the international students from working in their host environment while the processes of acquiring visa documents/study permits also affected the students’ learning and development negatively as it made them lose focus and concentration in their studies. Some of the participants’ comments are as follow:

Cooperative:

_... concerning the policy that you have actually mentioned you see, ehmm, the policy of the country and this university is exclusive and not inclusive because as international students we were trying to do some certain work when we came here which actually give us some little change to pay for accommodation and for our general sustenance, but you see, these policy has changed and now considers the aborigine, the locals first which is very bad._

Secured also confirmed that:
...you know they have these policies here about when it comes to jobs because some of us are eligible but because we are international students or foreigners we won’t get it but they forget that in their policy somebody who goes to school and has a study visa or a study permit has the right to work for 20hrs which is not allowed by them.

One of the participants ‘Safe’ also spoke with intense feeling as he stressed that:

It’s a struggle to even get something to do even outside, all because it is just stated in their policy and study visa that you are a student and that means you are not allowed to work but the local students in the same level with you can work. I don’t know how they will be able to conscientize people to tell them that when you are a student you cannot work and earn a meagre living for yourself here.

Apart from the exclusive policies limiting the international students from working, the participants also identified different difficulties they experienced during the process of acquiring their study documents/visas/permits that demoralize them and have a negative effect on their learning. The subsequent responses indicate the participants’ views on the issue of study visa:

Inclusive:

...in other universities permits are facilitated by the international office but here as a student you are the one doing it by yourself and the process of doing those things demoralises students first of all because just the hurdles of getting a document in this country is not easy and then you have an institution that is supposed to help you but the institution is leaving everything it to you.

Conducive also stated that:

This issue of visa permit is hindering one’s way of learning here. For us to be here, that means we need to have a valid document and if you don’t have that it is always scary to move around. I think the university needs to be a bit more supportive so that our learning can also be fruitful in order for us to finish with our studies here.

Lastly, Welcoming points out that:

One of the things limiting us, is in the term of all these visa issues, you know when you go to renew your visa, there are so many other changes and they keep on changing policies every time. Some people are denied visa just because of silly things that are not included in their website.

A closer examination of the participants’ responses above has revealed several socio-cultural factors within the micro environment such as the exclusive university and immigration policies and the difficulty experienced by international students in acquiring study visa/permit which needs to be addressed so as to make the environment conducive for international students’ learning and growth.

Socio-economic barriers

The participants identified various socio-economic barriers within the macro-environment that affected their learning and development negatively in the South African higher education institution. These socio-economic challenges were related to financial constraints identified by international students as a major barrier to their learning and development in the South African higher education institution. These financial challenges were categorized as lack of funding and scholarships, lack of job opportunities, as well as accommodation fees. The lack of job opportunities and lack of funding/scholarship was found to be the most prevailing issues affecting participants’ learning and development. This was revealed in the following participants’ quotes below:

Cooperative asserted:

Most of the universities that I know from most part of the world, by the time someone reaches a Ph.D. or master’s level, you will be teaching undergraduates and also get scholarship or funding to continue with your studies. There is no way you will be doing a Ph.D. or master’s program that they don’t give you the scholarship to take care of yourself and tell you that this scholarship is a full time and you are not supposed to work. Apart from that, they make sure that if you have no scholarship, the school, itself can create an environment
where you can work or do something at least for yourself which is not applicable here because they will tell you are not a local.

Another of the participant indicated:

I want to talk about funding. Not having funding is a hindrance to our learning and development here, because you find out that just like my colleague has said you find out that ehh we have to be looking for modules to teach, and do marking, so that we can make some income to pay our bills for residence and sustenance and some stuff like that even books. (Secured).

The lack of job opportunities within the university and outside the university environment negatively affected their learning and development. Peaceful experienced difficulty in getting a job within and outside the university environment that affected him emotionally because he was unable to provide for his family as the bread winner as he highlights:

This environment for a start, it is difficult to get a job here and there are many issues that are relating to finding job opportunities here. Some of us has got families, we are no more like undergraduate students. So, sometimes when we go to look for work here in school and outside let say in shops like Shoprite, Clicks, Debonairs they will tell you categorically we don’t have space for you people here. We can’t get job opportunities here and they do not care whether you have a family or not here. The people believe you have come to steal their job, they will even call us kwerekwere. This issue is affecting me because I have to think about myself and family on how we are going to survive here and pay all our bills. (Peaceful).

In addition, another participant ‘Resource’ noted:

If you take your CV and everything you won’t get a job outside. Even if the university advertises for a job inside, they will just tell you clearly please we don’t have any place for you as a foreigner. It’s clear they don’t even say, they don’t mince words. I have called companies; they have got my CV and everything and they just told me that unfortunately because of my status and that’s is their only reason not because of anything.

Furthermore, international students also identified the incessant increase in accommodation/residence fees as a barrier to their learning. The participants revealed that the high cost of residence fees causes a high cost of living for them in their host environment which is a challenge and affected their learning and development negatively. Most of the participants expressed the view that the university should reduce the accommodation fees so that they could finish their studies within the given time. The following excerpts revealed the participants’ views on the accommodation/residence fees.

…also, ehhh, what can hinder us like ehmm is still had to do with the cost of living, just like residence now, it is every year that the fees are going up. When I started it was around R23 000. Right now, it is R28 000 a year and by next year maybe it is going to R30 something thousand rands, and I heard it is going to go to over thirty something plus. So that’s a hindrance to our learning. And now they have to give us rules that we must finish within four years, so we have to like to make a plan. (Conducive).

Friendly also highlighted that:

Then also we can think about the issue of high fees in term of residence fees even though the university has made provision or had made a lot of sacrifice to give some sort of fee remission policies to accommodates students who are doing full research and their studies here but also I would personally argue that the fees are quite high, especially residence fees are quite high for us, so it is a bit of a challenge you know coming to terms with the huge amount of money you get to pay every single year to live in the school residence. (FGD 1).

Some of the participants revealed that the lack of finances to pay high accommodation fees affects them psychologically and made them lose concentration in their study, as noted below.

Conducive also has this to say:

…but as u can see now that we are worried on how to sustain ourselves here because there is no funding for us most of us here are self-funded which affects our study negatively.
Based on the above findings, the excerpts from the international students above revealed that they experienced several financial barriers within their learning environment that affected their learning and development negatively in the South African higher educational institution.

Discussion

The research shows the challenges experienced by international students that need to be addressed. Drawing from the agentic capability theory of Bandura (2006; 2012) the challenges experienced by the students seem to be more external and located at the macro and microenvironment. This implies that international students find it difficult to interact and interrelate with the local people or community within the macro and microenvironment. This shows a lack of interaction outside their proxy agency. Moreover, the findings revealed the challenges experienced by international students in this context surpass what they already possess (capacity/ability/skills), which could make them be passive agents rather than active agents. Thus, international students need a conducive learning environment to address several challenges within their macro environment (socio-economic and socio-cultural barriers); micro-environment (language difficulty and lack of social integration) and imposed environment (psychosocial barriers) in which they are currently experiencing in South African higher educational institution.

First and foremost, the study reveals that international students experienced several psychological issues such as lack of sense of belonging, feelings of alienation, low self-esteem, anxiety, and xenophobia in the context of HIV and AIDS. These challenges made the participants lose focus academically, feel stressed and depressed, develop low self-esteem, regress academically, have psychological imbalances and lose concentration in their studies. Generally, in the literature, it is found that international students experience various psychological barriers such as isolation, low self-esteem (Aloyo and Wentzel 2011), discrimination (Furnham 2010); loneliness (Brown and Holloway 2008) and exclusion (Dzansi and Mogashoa 2013). The findings also indicate that due to these psychological challenges, the students’ self-esteem and academic performance are affected negatively.

On the other hand, in the microenvironment which is the university environment. According to the findings, the participants’ verbatim excerpts indicated the lack of social support and some socio-cultural barriers international students experienced in South African higher education institution that affected their learning negatively. Thus, the findings show that international student’s abilities to learn and excel academically can be affected by the school environment when they are socially constrained. The findings showed that international students feel excluded within and outside their learning environment due to language barriers that affect their learning and relationships with the local community. Jacqui Campbell and Mingsheng Li (2008) with Menzies and Baron (2014) find that international students experience academic issues caused by language difficulties in their learning environment. These findings from this study also revealed that these issues make international students develop fear and insecurity. On the other, Pilot Mudhovozi (2012) with Saloshna Vandeyar (2010) found that language issues caused alienation, loneliness, and lack of social belonging on international students’ learning experiences.

Meanwhile, another factor that is evident is the socio-cultural barriers that affected international students’ learning and development in South African higher education institutions. According to the findings, a key social-cultural issue was the exclusive university and immigration policies that hindered international students from finding jobs and working within and outside the university environment as well as the strict visa policies and the difficulties they experienced in acquiring their study visa/permit. The finding is in line with the study by Nwokedi (2015), who found strict and exclusionary immigration policies and the difficulty of acquiring students’ visas and permits constrained international students’ efforts in participating in some events and in interacting with people. Moise Majyambere (2012), Roseanne Rajpal (2013) with Elizabeth Frances Caldwell and Denis Hyams-Ssekasi (2016) report that international student’s experience strict visa laws and difficulties in acquiring a study visa/permit that affects their learning performances and prevents them from working or restrict them to work for lesser hours.
Thus, in the macro environment, international students experience several social economic barriers such as financial constraints, which contribute a major threat to their learning and development in the context of HIV and AIDS. These socio-economic challenges (financial constraints) are identified in the study as lack of funding and scholarships, lack of job opportunities and high accommodation/residence fees that affect the students’ learning negatively and make them feel discriminated and rejected within their host environment. The findings in this study corroborate the study by Adeagbo Oluwafemi (2012) in South Africa, which found extortionate international fees and lack of funding and scholarships as the major financial constraints experienced by international students in South Africa. Additionally, international students also experienced financial constraint due to the excessive cost of accommodation (MacGregor 2014; Nwokedi 2015) in uncomfortable environments, lack of funds (Marginson et al. 2010) and high medical insurance costs (Nwokedi 2015; Oluwafemi 2012). The findings show that financial constraint affects international students psychologically and cause them to lose concentration in their study. Despite experiencing several financial constraints, in contrast, Ly Tran and Cate Gribble (2015) argue that international students contribute to the economic growth of their host country through fees –school fees, accommodation and hospitality – and increased travel and tourism.

Significantly, this study makes a methodological and theoretically contribution towards the existing body of knowledge of research on international students’ education and mobility on human development. The study showed that international students are not passive beings but active individuals who were amazed at their elevated personal development and growth as well as their contribution towards the growth and development of other people in their learning environment. It also gives voice and opportunity to international students to express their views and make informed decisions about their lives and experiences. Therefore, the voices of international students who have been silent or unheard especially from a different context which is from the higher education perspective is revealed concerning issues that concern them. In addition, employing photovoice method in this study provided a visual representation of international students’ experiences look like and not only on what is written about their live experiences. This will enable people such as the policy makers and university management to actually see what the international students are experiencing and envisage how they and will address or improve them.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The study has revealed the different inhibiting elements/factors (inhibitors) within the international students’ learning environment (meso, micro, and macro) that affected their migration, settlement, learning, growth, and development in South African higher education institutions. Furthermore, according to the findings in this theme, these inhibiting elements or factors, which were identified as anxiety, xenophobia, low self-esteem, stress, language difficulties, lack of job opportunities, financial difficulties and visa issues etc. have made international students lose focus in their studies, become psychologically imbalance, feel excluded and discriminated against. However, the participants indicated that addressing these inhibiting elements that they are currently experiencing will enable them to finish their studies within the specified time frame, enhance and shape their learning, growth, and development within the South African higher educational institution. Succinctly, enhancing international student’s wellbeing and addressing the challenges they are experiencing will ensure that they learn better, attain and achieve their academic goals and develop holistically in South African Higher educational institutions. The implication of the findings is that the challenges experienced by the international students could have an adverse effect on the school rankings and publications input and might also discourage potential students to come and study in this university. Therefore, South African higher educational institutions need to provide an enabling learning environment for these group of students by ensuring they easily resolve and respond to international students’ needs and challenges as well as enable them to tap into the hidden potential and skills that they possess.
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References


A Pedagogy of Student Mobility: Facilitating humanistic outcomes in internationalization and student mobility

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Background to the Study

Over the last several decades, universities around the world have initiated processes of internationalization in an effort to respond to the growing influence of globalization and remain leaders in the vastly competitive space of higher education (Helms, Brajkovic, and Struthers 2017; Knight 2012). While internationalization is a complex and diverse term, it broadly describes “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education” (Knight 2003, p. 2). This includes efforts to integrate global and international perspectives, courses, curricula, learning outcomes, and people (e.g. students, scholars, and staff) into the university. However, more so than any other activity, universities have focused their internationalization efforts on student mobility (i.e. the sending and receiving of students to/from foreign destinations while enrolled in a degree program) with the belief that the act of mixing international and domestic students on campuses most effectively, or perhaps most easily, contributes to their missions of educating the next generation of global citizens who are aware and appreciative of the world and its many people, countries, and cultures (Burn 1990; Helms, Brajkovic, and Struthers 2017; Knight 2012).

Student mobility typically refers to two types of students: those who are seeking a full degree abroad (i.e. international students) and those students who are participating in a short-term, semester or year-long abroad programs (i.e. international exchange students) (Knight 2012). For the purposes of this article, I refer to both student groups simply as ‘international students,’ highlighting the common characteristic of studying outside of their home country and in this case, inside the United States. While I fully acknowledge that conceptualizing international students together as a singular group is often problematic, as I will discuss later, I group them together here for a specific reason. Though there are certainly differences between all students who study abroad, particularly between those who pursue short versus long term programs, they all bring with them backgrounds, areas of knowledge, and perspectives that are valuable to the goals of internationalization and they share the experience of studying in a foreign country, both of which are central features of concern in this paper.

While the number of international students studying abroad has increased from 238,000 to 4.8 million over the last 50 years (UNESCO 2018), the US has remained the world’s largest and most sought after destination for international students. In 2019, the number of international students studying abroad in the US reached an all-time high of over 1.09 million (IIE 2019). Even given current international tensions involving the US, the increase of international students is unsurprising, as 72 percent of US universities report an acceleration of internationalization activities in the last several years. The vast majority of which list student mobility as the most important/pursued activity of internationalization (Helms, Brajkovic, and Struthers 2017). Though international student enrollment has fluctuated in recent years, data from 2018-2019 suggests that international student enrollment has steadied, and it is clear that student mobility will continue to be a central component of US higher education the foreseeable future (IIE 2019).
Accompanying the growth of international students has been a rising acknowledgement of the importance of student mobility on US higher education. As a result, there has been a wave of research looking at the impacts of internationalization on students and campuses over the past 15-20 years (Peterson, Briggs, Dreasher, Horner, and Nelson 1999; Ho, Bulman-Fleming, and Mitchell 2003; Urban and Palmer 2014). However, much of this scholarship has been focused on the outcomes of such programs, rather than the process of learning that takes place within them. The result has been a relative lack of exploration into international student programs through the lens of educational theory and the types of pedagogy that would best facilitate the objectives of internationalization. In response, this paper puts forth an initial articulation of a pedagogy of student mobility aimed at improving the effectiveness of such programs in fostering humanistic outcomes, such as global engagement, awareness, and understanding.

To provide the necessary context for why a pedagogy of student mobility is needed, I first lay out the benefits that motivate universities to invest in student mobility programs in order better understand the implicit learning outcomes that universities anticipate. I then provide an overview of the areas in which student mobility falls short of these expectations to highlight the need for improvement. Finally, I conclude with an articulate of what a pedagogy of student mobility must look like if the shortcomings of student mobility are to be addressed.

Motivations for Student Mobility: From the University Perspective

Before a pedagogy of any activity can be designed, the purpose and objectives of it must be clear. In the case of student mobility, several scholars have provided helpful starting points from which to understand why universities pursue student mobility programs and what they hope students will learn through them (Matthews 1989; Knight 2004). Building off this knowledge, I have constructed a typology of motivations for student mobility that highlights the two underlying motivations and goals behind any university’s efforts to pursue or enhance activities relating to student mobility, including international admissions and study abroad.

**Strategic Motivation**

The strategic motivation for student mobility is one represented by the notion that self-interest and “economic motivations associated with positioning students to be successful in the new knowledge economy” are the key drivers of student mobility (Heron 2007; Jorgenson 2015; Larsen 2016, p. 59). Such an approach seeks to provide advantages to a person, community or state in relation to others, and is rooted within the neoliberal view of globalization and development (Larsen 2016; Parker 2008, 2011). These motivations are supported by research that points to the vast benefit that international and exchange students bring to their host countries in areas such as tuition, living expenses, and tourism (Farrugia, Chow, and Bhandari 2012), as well as benefits to their domestic peers in the form of intercultural skills and perspectives that enhance their human capital and success in the global economy (Cheney 2001; Luo and Jamieson-Drake 2013; Montgomery 2009). International students are definitively beneficial to universities in terms of enhancing their own reputations, rankings, and budgets, and it is this reality that defines the strategic motivation of universities pursuing student mobility.

**Humanistic Motivation**

While the strategic motivation is central and ever present in the field of student mobility, it exists alongside a humanistic motivation, which is encapsulated in various academic concepts, including international mindedness, global citizenship, cultural competence, learning to live together, global learning, or education for a better world (Hill 2015; Horey et al. 2018). While these terms differ in some ways or focus on different aspects of student development, they share a common broad perspective on the goal of student mobility: to reduce prejudice and ignorance thereby leading to the development of global citizens who are able to actively contribute to a better world (Bringle and Hatcher 2011; Larsen 2014; Lewin 2009; Plater et al. 2009). Through this lens, many universities are motivated to enroll international students in the hopes of creating “opportunities for domestic students to engage with those coming from different cultures, which, in turn, allow them to shed stereotypes, explore new
perspectives, and gain intercultural skills” (Pandit 2013, p. 131). Affirming this approach, researchers have found evidence that student mobility does have humanistic-oriented benefits including increased intercultural competencies among both international and domestic students (Chapdelaine and Alexitch 2004; Gurin et al. 2002), improved cultural awareness and proficiency (Clarke et al. 2009; Douglas and Jones-Rikkers 2001; Kitsantas 2004) and enhanced international and intercultural skills (Geelhoed, Abe, and Talbot 2003).

Therefore, what distinguishes the humanistic motivation is an emphasis on pursuing student mobility in order to facilitate greater global competencies in a manner that is mutually-beneficial and enhances international understanding, rather than for one’s own, relative benefit (financial or otherwise). However, such a distinction does not indicate that these two motivations are mutually exclusive, in fact, they can and often do exist simultaneously. Still, recognizing this distinction is important because each demands different commitments, methods, and strategies to be successful.

Shortcomings of Student Mobility: Understanding the Need for Pedagogy

While there are numerous humanistic-oriented benefits that result from student mobility, these benefits are too often taken for granted by universities and are realized more by way of chance than intentional design and facilitation (Leask 2009). As a result of humanistic-benefits being assumed as automatic, there is exist great shortcomings and indeed failures that are pervasive across universities and colleges, which have caused student mobility programs to fall short of their full potential. The most significant of these shortcomings is the consistent lack of meaningful interaction and engagement that takes place between international and domestic students (Leask 2009).

Despite numerous studies pointing to the importance of interaction among international and domestic students in realizing the benefits of student mobility (Breuning 2007; Braskamp, Braskamp, and Engberg 2014; Glass, Wongtrirat and Buus 2015; Merrill, Braskamp, and Braskamp 2012; Waters Leung 2013), universities have continued to struggle to find ways to improve opportunities for interaction. International students choose to spend most of their time with other international students and their relations with domestic students or locals in the community tend to be superficial and brief at best or negative and combative at worst (Campbell 2016; Chisholm 2003; Waters and Leung 2013; Ogden 2008). This is true despite the fact that international students often desire interaction with host students (Allen and Herron 2003; Campbell 2016; Grey 2002; Hernandez 2010; Magnan and Back 2007; Mendelson 2004). Unsurprisingly, this lack of engagement between international and domestic students not only disappoints international students, who often have expectations of larger interactions, but also hinders their ability to create relationships and thus the potential for their presence to serve the humanistic goals of internationalization and student mobility (Allen and Herron 2003; Magnan and Back 2007; Tanaka 2007; Urban and Palmer 2014).

Even though there are demonstrated benefits of having international students on campus, the lack of international-domestic student interaction is a strong indication of the failure of student mobility programs to meet their own potential. Such a failure is a consequence of a type of magical thinking characterized by the assumption that bringing students onto the same campus will lead to beneficial outcomes of the highest degree (Chang, Chang, and Ledesma 2005). The spirit of magical thinking can be found in the literature on student mobility which has almost exclusively conceptualized international students as cultural resources or passive actors that bring cultural benefits to their campuses simply by showing up (Larsen 2016). This conceptualization has led to an overemphasis on the number of students studying internationally over the quality of engagement and interactions they have while abroad. Such an approach sees mobility as an end goal rather than the first step towards generating the humanistic-benefits that such programs can, and should, provide.

Towards a Pedagogy of Student Mobility
In place of magical thinking, I offer a pedagogy for approaching and designing student mobility programs and services in a manner that can better fulfill the humanistic potential they hold. While ‘pedagogy’ is a term with various meanings across fields and geographies, it broadly refers to one’s approach to or theory of teaching. More specifically, I’ve chosen to use the term in a manner that most closely reflects Peter Mortimore’s (1999) definition of pedagogy as “any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another” (p. 17). Thus, a pedagogy of student mobility is a framework for designing and facilitating activities to enhance humanistic learning among all students.

The framework I put forward is directed at university and college administrators (working both within and outside of international offices) and is intended to serve as a guide in the development of programs and structures for both domestic and international students, such as orientations, academic workshops, professional trainings, curricula and course requirements, and departmental or university-wide events. It may also serve as a helpful resource for faculty and instructors in developing courses, learning modules, and curricula that are consistent with the internationalization mission of their university or college.

To develop this pedagogy of student mobility, an exhaustive literature review was conducted via online and published sources to first understand the shortcomings of student mobility and to then gain insight into the general question: what are effective approaches to addressing the current deficiencies of student mobility? (Fink 2019). Drawing off of my background as an interdisciplinary education scholar as well as my forthcoming research exploring the diplomatic experiences of international students on US campuses, this literature review purposefully drew knowledge from multiple fields and disciplines in order to build a framework that is not restricted by any single disciplinary perspective. By borrowing from resources across disciplines, the pedagogy of student mobility proposed here uses the political science concept of citizen diplomacy to better understand the influence that international students have on campus, and integrates it with educational and learning theories. In the following, I articulate the four tenets of this pedagogy and provide resources for each that can assist university and college administrators in their implementation.

**Tenet 1: Communicating the Purpose of Student Mobility**

*Resource: Citizen Diplomacy*

The first component of the pedagogy of student mobility, as with any learning activity, is to articulate the desired learning outcomes. If a major goal of student mobility is to facilitate global learning and to create international understanding, then the participants (i.e. students) are not only better prepared, but empowered, through a clear communication of these intentions. In other words, if we want or expect student mobility programs to effectively produce humanistic outcomes, students need to be fully aware of what the university is asking of them. For this task, the literature on citizen diplomacy is a helpful resource. Citizen diplomacy is a concept that describes the role that individuals play in creating better world relations through personal connections and engagements with other individuals (Figure 1) (Mathews-Aydinli 2016; Izadi 2016). It is a type of grassroots diplomacy distinguished by its emphasis on individual, informal forms of engagement, such as student interactions. With its vision of creating a more peaceful and understanding world, the humanistic motivation of student mobility is inherently rooted in the conceptualization of students, both international and domestic, as citizen diplomats. Clearly communicating this concept and the expectations associated with it must be the first step of any university motivated by and seeking the humanistic benefits of student mobility.

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**Figure 1: Citizen diplomacy at universities**

- Positive interaction
- Increased understanding and awareness
- Improved international relations
In addition, universities and colleges must also help students develop the skills that will enable them to be successful citizen diplomats. Gordon Allport (1958) reminds us that not all contact is beneficial contact, and it is therefore an absolute necessity to ensure that students are in positions to have beneficial contact as much and as often as possible (Putnam 2007). As such it is the responsibility of the university to provide training and education opportunities that will provide the skills needed for students to have these interactions. After all, if we do not send our government diplomats to foreign countries without first providing cultural and communication training, why would we continue to do so with our student diplomats?

In this regard, the most important and widely applied skill universities can teach students is how to interact and communicate between cultures, which includes developing an understanding of how identity, representation, and stereotypes can inform such interactions. To do so, universities can create learning/training activities in which students develop their abilities before being thrown into foreign environments or in front of foreign students and communities. Workshops and trainings on topics such as high context vs. low context communication or body language differences can help students better communicate with and understand each other. However, developing communication skills is just part of the equation, these programs must also touch upon larger questions of identity and representation on campus.

In addition to more basic communication skills and strategies, proper international engagement preparation should highlight the stereotypes, representations, and identities that students bring with them into their new environments and be honest about how these things can result in both opportunities and challenges to create connections with others. For example, in my forthcoming research, I find that when coming to the US many international students are not fully aware of nor prepared for the ways in which domestic students often assume that they (i.e. the way they look, act, or behave) represent the entirety of their home country or region. As such, students should be given spaces to practice talking about their new identities in the US and become comfortable engaging with others who may see them as representatives of their country.

**Tenet 2: Acknowledging International Student Agency and Identity**

**Resource: Social Identity Approach**

Despite varying motivations for internationalization, most universities, and scholars, conceptualize international students as cultural resources: resources for diversifying student populations, aiding the development of US students, increasing revenue, or in general, bringing benefit to the host universities’ reputation, campus, and students (Breuning 2007; Glass, Wongtrirat and Buus 2015; Jayakumar 2008; Urban and Palmer 2014). This conceptualization of international students is problematic in two consequential ways. First, it pacifies the role that international students play in internationalization and assumes that just by being on campus, they are contributing to global awareness or understanding. Indeed, international students surely provide cultural diversity, but their presence alone does not automatically result in the cultural and global learning and sharing that defines the humanistic goals of student mobility. The cultural resources that students bring to campus are shared with others only through engagement and interaction, such as class discussions, forming friendships, or working on group projects; all activities that require action and effort on behalf of individual students. To see international students as passive resources removes the university from any further responsibility thereby mistakenly equating the presence of international students with improved global learning and understanding.

Second, this conceptualization propagates a notion of international students as a cohesive group rather than a collection of diverse individuals. This group-first approach is detrimental to the humanistic motivation of student mobility insofar as it makes being international the most important aspect of international students’ identity, neglecting intersectionality and the fact that there are other, potentially more important, identities or combination of identities that each student holds. It is this mentality that explains why so many universities operate on an international-domestic student dichotomy that often leads to separation in housing, support services, and social clubs. By identifying students
solely, or predominately, by their international status rather than by their academic, personal, or social interests, universities effectively contribute to the separation of international and domestic students.

To overcome these problematic approaches, international students need to be seen and acknowledged as more than just international students. To do so, universities should adopt a social identity approach (Mavor, Platow, and Bizumic 2017) in engaging international students by acknowledging that they are not all the same, and that a student’s identity, experiences, and campus environment will all play a role in how that student behaves and interacts with others (Figure 2). Student identity is complex and intersectional, and each student’s unique identity will inform the experiences and interactions they have at the university; a fact that is of great consequence to the successfulness of student mobility programs. Recognizing international students as unique individuals whose agency and identity will ultimately determine their contributions to global outcomes is a necessary step in creating space for citizen diplomacy thrive.

**Figure 2: Understanding how identity plays a role in citizen diplomacy**

In practice, universities must create an environment in which this message is communicated to students and which reinforces their identity as part of, not separate from, the rest of campus. Currently, in many universities, international students congregate together largely because of the understandable feeling that they have similarities with one another. However, this feeling is also perpetuated by university communications and services that can reinforce feelings of difference and separation. By integrating international student outreach and services across campus, and by training departments, centers, and clubs to connect with and offer services to international students based upon their academic, social, or professional identities, rather than just their citizenship, it will be easier for international students to find connections and engage outside of their own group.

**Tenet 3: Breaking Down the Global-Local Divide**

**Resource: Relational Learning**

Universities must begin to move beyond the distinction between internationalization at home and internationalization abroad, by understanding that internationalization is less about geographic location and more about the participants involved (Soria and Troisi 2014). A domestic student interacting with an international student is having no less of an international experience than his/her international counterpart, which highlights the relational nature that demarcates international student mobility and exchange. To overcome the global-local division requires universities to break down the barriers that exist to separate international and domestic students and to begin to structure programs in ways that appreciate the connectedness rather than just the distinctiveness that defines global learning. In practice, this means that domestic students need to be seen as active participants in internationalization and student mobility, not just bystanders. To do so is to integrate all students into the design of internationalization programming and to reinforce the reciprocal nature of student mobility and the benefits it provides.

To break down this divide, universities should replace their emphasis on individualistic assessments, outcomes and learning styles (Larsen 2016) with relationship learning approaches that emphasize the importance of our influence on and connection to others (Hill 2015; Larsen 2016). The individual focus that dominates most universities manifests in internationalization with a disproportionate focus on either international students coming to campus or domestic students going abroad, but pays little attention to the roles, responsibilities, and impacts of domestic students on campus and how they are able to interact and engage with international students (Larsen 2016). As such, when
designing student mobility programs that seek to facilitate international student integration into campus or interaction with domestic students, we should also be designing programs and opportunities that encourage or incentivize domestic students to do the same. Mixed international-domestic student courses or general education courses on intercultural communication and engagement are just some ways in which universities can better prepare domestic students to engage with our international students and bring them into the internationalization conversation (Chang 2008). In the end, student mobility is not just about benefiting the individual student, but rather about fostering positive relationships between both international and domestic students that result in improvement and growth for all.

**Tenet 4: Moving from Contact to Dialogue**

**Resource: Freirean Pedagogy**

Shifting from a focus on individual learning to relational learning means that interaction must not just come by chance, but that universities must facilitate interaction between domestic and international students. But what should these efforts be aimed at doing? The pedagogy of student mobility stresses the importance of dialogue, and emphasizes that universities must help students to learn and practice ways of communicating and engaging effectively. To do so universities must incorporate a critical perspective into student mobility that moves the field beyond the notion of contact (Allport 1958) and towards an appreciation for the need of respectful interaction, dialogue, and exchange to take place between individuals.

In her influential 2007 article, public diplomacy scholar Kathy Fitzpatrick writes at length about the need for two-way, symmetric forms of communication based upon the notion of genuine dialogue, between countries and people in order to create greater international understanding (Fitzpatrick 2007). Genuine dialogue in the way that Fitzpatrick describes it is a type of interaction that fosters mutual understanding; it is a process of learning. However, Fitzpatrick notes that the term genuine dialogue remains an unexcavated notion, still lacking in a full comprehension of what such dialogue entails. This is particularly true in the context of internationalization. Fortunately, universities can use the work of Paulo Freire as a guide.

Borrowing from Freire, universities should see interaction between international and domestic students as striving to reproduce what Freire referred to as true dialogue; dialogue that is based upon respect, truth and love for people and the world (Freire 1996). Genuine dialogue must be a mutual form of dialogue where neither side is imposing information, but rather, both sides are simultaneously student and teacher in a continual process of learning. Within genuine dialogue there must be value for each participant’s unique experiences and perspectives on the world and respect for differing opinions. Practically speaking, this may include the creation of courses that are focused less on academic content and more on the process through which students engage and learn from one another. Or alternatively, university committees or groups in which international students play a central role in leadership and are given a space for their concerns and perspectives to be heard and respected, along with their domestic counterparts.

While the perception of inadequate language skills may be a concern for international students and others seeking to facilitate dialogue, Betty Leask (2009) reminds us it is often not the case that an international student’s language skills are inadequate, but more often that they don’t feel comfortable speaking or see it as inappropriate. This discomfort is understandable as many universities tend to burden international students with the full responsibly of integrating into the community rather than appreciating the value and knowledge they can share with their domestic counterparts (Dervin and Layne 2013). Thus, by consciously giving students the space, support, and encouragement to engage and speak, regardless of level of fluency, the university will not only facilitate dialogue but will create a sense of international student ownership and belonging at the university. To have student mobility programs that do not facilitate genuine dialogue, whether in academic courses, requirements, leadership, or extra-curricular activities, is to design programs that undermine the full potential of citizen diplomacy and humanistic efforts to create international understanding, awareness, and trust.

**Conclusion**
Student mobility programs have and continue to be vitally important programs to the goals of internationalization and the promotion of international engagement and understanding. Yet, undoubtedly, the full diplomatic and global potential of student mobility programs has yet to be fulfilled. As long as international-domestic student interaction remains low and the chance of negative contact and reified stereotypes remains substantial, then universities have work to do. In order to overcome the obstacles and shortcomings of current approaches to student mobility, this paper has put forth a pedagogy of student mobility as a framework to assist universities in the design and facilitation of student mobility programs that truly meet their potential. By framing student mobility as an educational activity, characterized by learning between international and domestic students, and universities (and their associated employees) as facilitators of knowledge, the presented framework uses citizen diplomacy, social identity, relational learning, and Freirean pedagogy as central tenets in creating environments and programs that can truly realize the humanistic benefits of internationalization.

Though universities have no legal mandate to improve international understanding on their campuses or to contribute to the betterment of global relations, by admitting international students and growing their international presence, universities are assuming a role in international relations, a role that must come with responsibility and integrity. To realize their accountability to these students, the countries from which they hail, and to the world, universities should be responsible for more than just bringing international students onto their campuses. Whether short-term exchange students or full-enrollment international students, universities are responsible for the environments in which these students will study and live, and ultimately, for the extent to which they gain the humanistic learning outcomes that may, in very tangible ways, contribute to a more peaceful and understanding world.

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