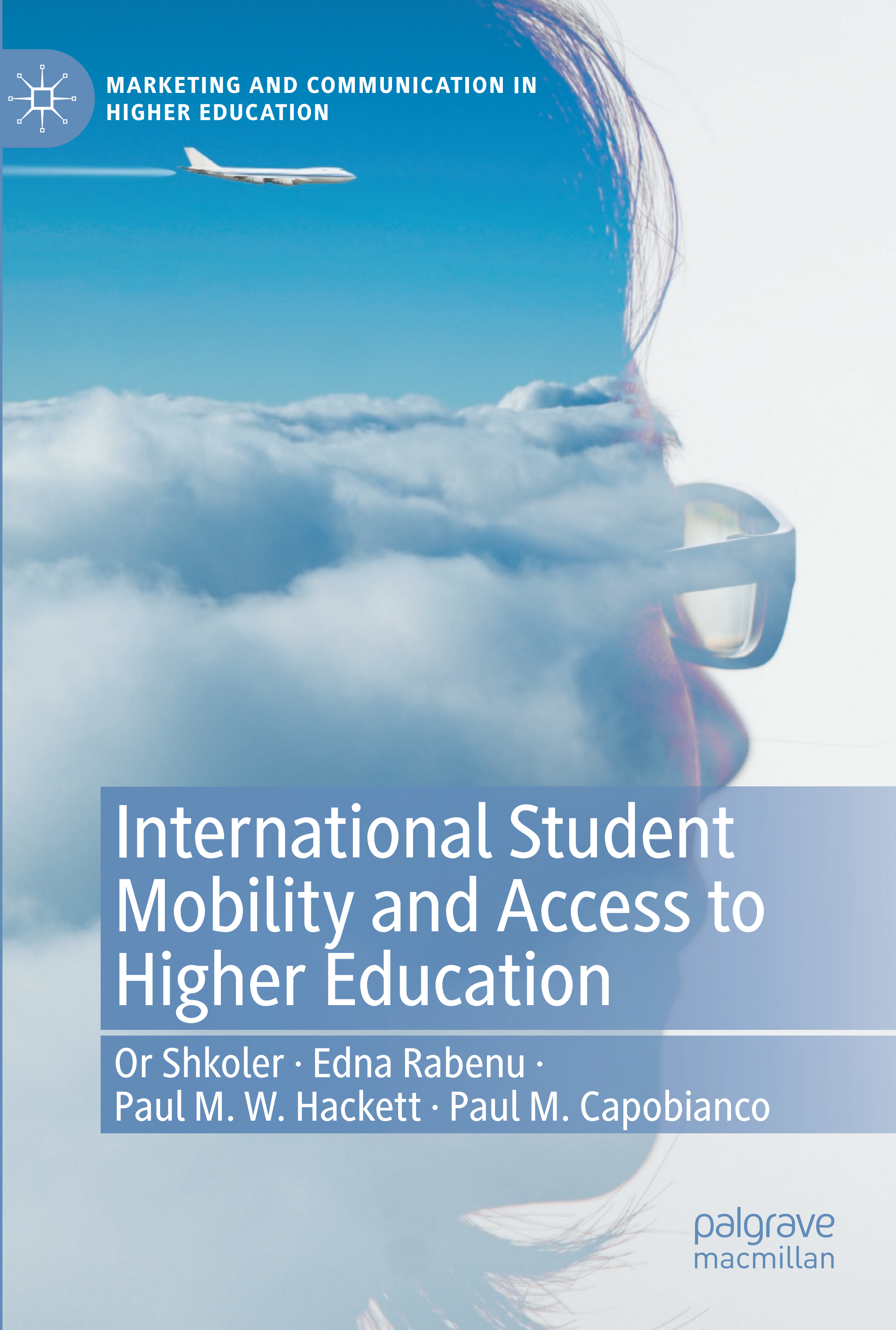
MARKETING AND COMMUNICATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION



International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education

Or Shkoler · Edna Rabenu · Paul M. W. Hackett · Paul M. Capobianco

palgrave macmillan

Marketing and Communication in Higher Education

Series Editor
Anthony Lowrie
Emerson College
Boston, MA, USA

This series seeks to critically address marketing and communication related issues in higher education. The series aims to be broad in scope (any aspect of higher education that broadly connects with markets, marketization, marketing and communication) and specific in its rationale to provide critical perspectives on higher education with the aim of improving higher education's emancipatory potential.

The concept of emancipation and higher education's contribution to it is one of the important themes in this book series. Yet, it is difficult to think of being emancipated without being emancipated from something that denies or oppresses that emancipation. In exploring higher education's emancipatory potential, I would also encourage authors to explore the darker side of higher education. Consider, for example, the failure of diversity in many institutions of higher education in many countries, the 'McDonald' rates of pay for adjuncts, and brand inequality, i.e., the name matters.

Innovation and globalization are impacting higher education in immense and often unpredictable ways. Some argue, including Carey (2015) in Education Policy at the New America Foundation, that there is a long overdue and welcome shakeup coming from the new technology platforms based, if only metaphorically, in 'Silicon Valley' and its equivalents across many countries. Opinions such as these along with public concern about the increasing costs and questionable outcomes, now evident in many countries, occupy the thoughts of higher education administrators, politicians and citizens. Whether you agree or disagree with the theories and perspectives driving such notions, concepts of innovation and globalization form part of what shapes the debate around higher education. Such debates and communication position higher education in the public mind, but how much of this debate and communication is an accurate representation is a matter of conjecture. The editor would like to encourage a plurality of approaches to understanding higher education marketing and communication dynamics including, but not limited to, anarchist, critical theory, feminist, labor process, Marxist and post-Marxist, post-structuralist, postmodern, postcolonial, and psychoanalytic perspectives. Quantitative approaches are welcome if the intent has a critical theory perspective.

I believe that there is a critical market of readers who want a more nuanced and intellectual understanding of higher education's role in society. Authors are encouraged to consider how the idea of higher education is marketed and communicated, how the above plays out in institutions and why and how institutions of higher education are marketed as they are and how institutions of higher education may improve their position in society. If the main social and economic function of higher education is to (1) higher educate the general population on a just and equitable basis, not some of the population and not some provided with a better higher education than others, and (2) develop and distribute knowledge/power on an equitable basis, then how can this be achieved? From a policy perspective at the local, national and international level, readers will be interested in how to expand the higher education offer to more people and improve the quality of that offer for a plurality of constituencies. I encourage authors to submit manuscripts that address these issues from a critical perspective.

Authors are invited to submit manuscripts that provide critical insight into the marketing of higher education and communication in relation to the social, economic and political functions of higher education, what it means to be higher educated and how higher education fulfills an emancipatory role while (re)producing and distributing power/knowledge within and across diverse and plural communities.

Single or multiple authored or edited books are welcome. Contact the Series Editor, Anthony Lowrie, at a.lowrie.02@cantab.net.

More information about this series at
http://www.palgrave.com/gp/series/15431

Or Shkoler · Edna Rabenu ·
Paul M. W. Hackett · Paul M. Capobianco

International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education

palgrave
macmillan

Or Shkoler
Independent Researcher
Netanya, Israel

Edna Rabenu
Netanya Academic College
Netanya, Israel

Paul M. W. Hackett
Department of Marketing Communication
Emerson College
Boston, MA, USA

Paul M. Capobianco
Emerson College
Boston, MA, USA

Marketing and Communication in Higher Education
ISBN 978-3-030-44138-8 ISBN 978-3-030-44139-5 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5

This Palgrave Macmillan imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG
The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

Preface

In recent years, the phenomenon of international students seeking higher education (in a foreign country) has rapidly increased—in volume, frequency, and interest. We are talking about several millions of students traveling around the world each year. Receiving countries that host these students vary from the USA, Canada, Australia, Spain, Singapore, Qatar, Israel, France, United Kingdom, Germany, Turkey, Malaysia, and many more (even though the leading hosting countries are the USA, Australia, the UK, Germany, and France). This raises a plethora of questions and issues on this evolving phenomenon, from psychological and economical aspects to marketing possibilities. However, what is higher education? What defines an international student? There seems to be some confusion in this regard.

There are many reasons for students' decisions to leave their home country and seek higher education in a foreign country. Factors influencing these decisions range from formal/legal constraints, financial ability, the attractiveness of the hosting country and/or the institution, the need to acquire more knowledge, self-enhancement, psychological capital, better employability, language familiarity/barriers, and many more.

There is an omnibus axis to this reality of higher education in the form of degrees or diplomas. It is well-known that higher education is voluntary—no one, in actuality, forces our hand to choose to study for a bachelor's degree, for example. This has rendered higher education as a commodity[1] or a service that is offered by many universities, colleges, and other higher education institutions around the world. As such, this has also created a remarkably interesting target for marketing at large.

It is a fact that this target market of consumers and potential customers (i.e., the students themselves) has proven to be financially and economically profitable. Now it becomes clear why many academic institutions "fight" over these students—international students increase revenues and profits for not only the hosting institution, but also for the hosting city and country. It is, thus, especially important to understand this phenomenon more deeply, and its marketing implications.

Netanya, Israel — Or Shkoler
Netanya, Israel — Edna Rabenu
Boston, USA — Paul M. W. Hackett
Boston, USA — Paul M. Capobianco

[1] We wish to emphasize that this notion revolves around Anglo-Saxon/Western countries and undergraduates, for the most part, but is also relevant for other parts of the world. More work is indeed needed to expand and generalize this idea further.

Aims of This Book

By reading this book, you will obtain:

- a clearer understanding of the concepts of international students and cross-border higher education;
- better awareness of the international student phenomenon's prevalence and relevant descriptive data;
- broader knowledge of the reasons for the mobility of international students;
- a marketing standpoint for the mobility of international students;
- different ideas and recommendations for better attracting and integrating international students into academic institutions.

Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

CHAPTER 1

Defining International Student Mobility and Higher Education

Or Shkoler and Edna Rabenu

Education is perceived as important for socioeconomic developments around the world, as it also can foster deeper and more harmonious human interactions. Specifically, higher education has been seen as vital for social change and advancement (Sridevi, 2019).

Our world today has been described as volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014; Corrales-Herrero & Rodríguez-Prado, 2018). In this rapidly changing world, it is necessary for organizations and individuals to engage in continuous learning. To achieve a competitive advantage, individuals, just as much as organizations, need to achieve higher levels and greater depths of learning. From the individuals' vantage point, it is becoming more fundamental to learn continuously to improve themselves and maintain their viability and employability in the global market. Indeed, the number of people engaging in lifelong learning have significantly increased (Corrales-Herrero & Rodríguez-Prado, 2018).

As an extension of the VUCA world's perpetual changes, higher education has also undergone many tumultuous transformations from its genesis eons ago to current times, and will probably continue to evolve and change in the future. Consequently, "there is a general consensus that the future of academia is and will be complicated, challenging, and uncertain" (Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016, p. 311).

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5_1

As the focus of the current book is on "international student mobility and higher education," we will present basic, yet important, underlining terminologies for (1) higher education; and (2) international student mobility. Therefore, we will now discuss related terms and concepts to standardize their definitions, which will enable us to create a common discourse throughout the book and, hopefully, beyond.

Defining Higher Education

Higher education is generally defined as "education beyond the secondary level; *especially*: education provided by a college or university" (Merriam-Webster, 2018, original emphasis). Considering the university specifically, its missions in this regard are: (1) teaching; (2) research; and (3) knowledge transfer (Perez-Esparrells & Orduna-Malea, 2018, p. 97; see also Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016). However, with the technological advances in the recent era, we can see a transformation in higher education—from traditional methods (i.e., face-to-face learning) to more virtual means (i.e., distance or online learning), though the university's missions remain unchanged.

What Is Virtual (Higher) Education?

As a part of the fast-paced technological evolution and the changes in higher education altogether, new forms and mediums of education emerged. *Virtual education* (i.e., online learning) is defined as:

> knowledge or skill transfer that takes place using the world-wide web as the distribution channel. In a virtual education environment, there are no traditional classrooms. Students are not required to come to the classroom. All instruction and interaction take place over the world-wide web. (Kumar, Kumar, & Basu, 2001, p. 401)

A *virtual university* may be defined as:

> An institution which is involved as a direct provider of learning opportunities to students and is using information and communication technologies to deliver its programs and courses and provide tuition support. Such institutions are also likely to be using information and communication technologies for such other core activities. (Ryan, Scott, Freeman, & Patel, 2013, p. 2)

In addition, Russell (2004) provided a more succinct definition for *virtual schools* as "a form of schooling that uses online computers to provide some or all of a student's education" (p. 2).

Defining International Student Mobility

First, we must explain what defines a *student*. A student is "a person who is studying at a university or other place of higher education" (Oxford Living Dictionaries, 2018). A *prospect* (i.e., prospective student) is an individual who is considered likely to become a student (see Lakkaraju, Tech, & Deng, 2018).

Further, *mobility* is "the tendency to move between places, jobs, or social classes" (Macmillan Dictionary, 2018). In this sense, *academic mobility* is usually explained as the transition or movement of students or teachers to another country. This comprises two mutually exclusive, yet complementary, types of mobility: physical and virtual. *Physical mobility* refers to the actual movement from one place to another; that is, the "*in situ* interaction made possible by transportation by car, foot, train, etc." (Vilhelmson & Thulin, 2008, p. 604, original emphasis). On the other hand, the ever-increasing need for higher education and the growth of student mobility numbers necessitate a solution, especially for those who cannot physically move to countries beyond their borders (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011). The response to this is the rapidly expanding domain of *virtual mobility*, made easier and more possible because of the changes the digital world has undergone since the genesis of the Internet (e.g., Dexeus, 2019), and a "shorthand term for the process of accessing activities that traditionally require physical mobility, but which can now be undertaken without recourse to physical travel…. Thus, virtual mobility creates accessibility opportunities … where previously there was an accessibility deficit" (Kenyon, Lyons, & Rafferty, 2002, p. 213).[1] It is an interactive interpersonal mode, utilizing technology-based mediums[2]

[1] See also Bhandari and Blumenthal (2011), García-Álvarez, Novo-Corti, and Varela-Candamio (2018), Garratt-Reed, Roberts, and Heritage (2016), Kamal Basha, Sweeney, and Soutar (2016), Kenyon et al. (2002), Lawton (2015), Mejía, Martelo, and Villabona (2018), Richardson, Brinson, and Lemoine (2018), Stravredes and Herder (2015), Teichler (2017), Xin, Kempland, and Blankson (2015).

[2] Online learning is also made possible through Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs). Other synonyms for online learning are: "digital learning," "e-learning," and

such as the Internet, computers, cellphones, and more (Lawton, 2015; Teichler, 2017; Vilhelmson & Thulin, 2008).

Internationalization

To conceptualize the "international" aspect of student mobility, we must also know what this means for the higher education systems. "Internationalization[3] is a process of integrating an international, intercultural, and global dimension into the goals, functions, and delivery of higher education" (Knight, 2017, p. 13). It has two interdependent dimensions: *at home* (campus-based) and *cross-border* (abroad) (Knight, 2017). As such, international student mobility may be regarded as going overseas or cross-border to pursue tertiary education in the destination country (Teichler, 2017). For further reading on the components of internationalization, or the key meaning of internationality, see a review in Teichler (2017). Also, it may be helpful to view Knight's (2004) work in distinguishing similar concepts when defining internationalization:

> The term *international* emphasizes the notion of nation and refers to the relationship between and among different nations and countries. *Transnational* is used in the sense of across nations and does not specifically address the notion of relationships. *Transnational* is often used interchangeably and in the same way as *cross-border*. *Global*, on the other hand, refers to worldwide in scope and substance and does not highlight the concept of nation. (Knight, 2004, p. 8, original emphasis)

At home means the integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the learning activities in the institution itself. In other words, the "international" aspect is such that the place is branded with an international halo in the academic domain. These activities may, for

"open learning" (Teichler, 2017), "distance learning," or "open courseware" (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011).

[3] "Two major strands of research on internalization: The first focuses on the applied aspects of managing and steering internationalization at the institutional level.... The second strand concerns the perspectives and experiences of the actors involved" (Bedenlier, Kondakci, & Zawacki-Richter, 2018, p. 127).

example, include research collaboration, extracurricular activities, integration of foreign students and scholars into campus life, internationalization of teaching and curriculum, and more (e.g., Knight, 2012a; Soria & Troisi, 2014; Teichler, 2017).

This chapter focuses on the second dimension of *cross-border*[4]: education. This refers to "the movement of people, programs, providers, policies, knowledge, ideas, projects and services across national boundaries. Student mobility is clearly a part of people mobility … but … it is increasingly becoming involved in both program and provider mobility" (Knight, 2012a, p. 23; Teichler, 2017). Also, since the interest in cross-border education has steadily increased over the years, this phenomenon has become more prevalent, receives more attention and, even on marketing value, we can see dedicated journals on this subject (e.g., *Journal of International Students*, *Journal of Studies in International Education*).

The Evolution of the Cross-Border Higher Education and the Mobility of International Students

The trend of international/cross-border mobility became more prevalent and known roughly two decades ago (e.g., Bedenlier et al., 2018; Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014; Knight, 2011b; Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; McManus, Haddock-Fraser, & Rands, 2017; Shahijan, Rezaei, & Preece, 2016). This "generation is completely influenced by the geopolitical events of the past 15 years" (Ahmad, Buchanan, & Ahmad, 2016, p. 1097). As Knight (2011b) has written, it was hard to predict the size and scope of the "international student mobility" phenomenon:

> Who could have imagined two decades ago the massive investments in global international student recruitment campaigns now clearly linked to more relaxed immigration policies and national innovation strategies? No one predicted the substantial increase in the number of branch campus

[4] However, Kosmützky and Putty (2016) have revealed in their in-depth review that there are a few synonyms for studying abroad, *chronologically* developed as time progressed, namely (1) offshore; (2) translational; (3) borderless; and (4) cross-border higher education. Each of them has a different meaning.

> centers being established by traditional universities and new higher education providers. Finally, the growth in franchising, twinning, double/joint degree partnerships, and, of course, the new virtual worlds of education has been unexpected and unprecedented. Linked to these cross-border initiatives is the latest trend, the positioning of countries as regional hubs for higher education. (Knight, 2011b, p. 211; see also Bedenlier et al., 2018; Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Mazzarol, 1998; McManus et al., 2017; Shahijan et al., 2016)

Another notion to account for the speed and extent of this phenomenon, now and in the future, is presented in Bhandari and Blumenthal's (2011) work, in which they postulated that:

> Indeed, according to some estimates, the desire for higher education—and the subsequent demand for international education—is expanding so rapidly that in 20 years there will not be enough classroom seats in the whole world to meet the needs of students who want to pursue higher education … distance learning, joint-degree programs and new approaches we cannot yet imagine will all be needed to address the educational needs of the hundreds of millions of undergraduates around the world. (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011, p. 15)[5]

On reading the last two citations, we become aware that there are quite a few kinds of cross-border higher education—for example, the mobility of the student to a foreign country; the mobility of the provider of education to a foreign environment; education hubs; virtual learning, and more. In the next section, we elaborate on three main types of cross-border education.

[5] Albeit Bhandari and Blumenthal (2011) projected a significant increase in the total number of students around the world pursuing higher education, it is important to note that this is very dependent on country/region (e.g., an increase in Israel, Australia, the Netherlands, and other countries is met with a decrease in other countries such as the United States and North America, the United Kingdom, Italy, and others. For more comparisons of countries and sectors (e.g., a decrease in the number of students in the fields of higher, technical, and vocational education), see Huang, Binney, and Hede (2010) and Roser and Ortiz-Ospina (2018).

Types of Cross-Border Education

As was mentioned above, cross-border education can be categorized into three categories (or *generations*; Knight, 2011a, 2014, 2017): (1) student/people mobility; (2) program/provider mobility; and (3) education hubs. Knight (2012b) has depicted them in a concise table, as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Three generations of international mobility

Crossborder education	*Primary focus*	*Description*
First generation	**Student/people mobility** Movement of students to foreign country for education purposes	Full degree or for short-term study, research, field work, internship, exchange programmes
Second generation	**Programme and provider mobility** Movement of programmes or institutions/companies across jurisdictional borders for delivery of education	**Programme mobility** Twinning Franchised Articulated/validated Joint/double award Online/distance **Provider mobility** Branch Campus Virtual University Merger/Acquisition Independent Institutions
Third generation	**Education hubs** Countries attract foreign students, researchers, workers, programmes, providers, R&D companies for education, training, knowledge production, innovation purposes	**Student hub** Students, programme providers move to foreign country for education purposes **Talent hub** Students, workers move to foreign country for education and training and employment purposes **Knowledge/innovation hub** Education researchers, scholars, HEIs, R&D centres move to foreign country to produce knowledge and innovation

Note HEI = Higher Education Institution; R&D = Research and Development
Source Knight (2012b, p. 4, Table 1)

First Generation: Student Mobility

This refers to the transition of the students themselves from one country to another for educational reasons, among others (e.g., psychological growth, social networking, employment, vocational/professional experience, job promotion; see Chapter 3 for elaboration on the reasons to pursue cross-border higher education). For further reading, see Knight (2011a), Stella (2006), and Teichler (2017).

The discourse surrounding international student mobility. The mobility of students is often called a "brain drain." This phenomenon is perceived as the permanent/one-way mobility of students from their countries of origin. In other words, the students do not return after graduation. This emigration is most prevalent from developing to developed countries (Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 9; Koval, Hackett, & Schwarzenbach, 2016, p. 60; Shahijan et al., 2016; Tansel & Demet Güngör, 2003, p. 52). Graduates stay to work abroad, usually in the hosting country (see, for examples, Crush, Pendleton, & Tevera, 2005; Hagopian, Thompson, Fordyce, Johnson, & Hart, 2004; Zweig, 2006).

In recent years, this phenomenon has also been dubbed "brain circulation," "brain exchange," "brain train," and more recently, "brain sharing" (see Bano, 2018; Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Knight, 2012a) or even "circulatory talent flow" (Koval et al., 2016). We wish to stress that this positive framing is to be taken with caution because it could "tend to camouflage the fact that ultimately some countries are experiencing a net 'brain loss', resulting in a smaller talent pool and potentially jeopardizing national economic and social development" (Knight, 2012a, p. 28). Evidently, usually, developing countries suffer more brain drain than developed countries, such as in Africa where "research is sparse and reliable data on students coming from outside the continent is almost nonexistent" (Kishun, 2011, p. 151; see also Lee & Tan, 1984).

Undoubtedly, international students have a central role to play in the "brain race" for attracting, recruiting, and retaining the brightest students and scholars—the potential knowledge workers (Kishun, 2011; Knight, 2012a; Wildavsky, 2010). In the "war for talent" (see Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001), they may very well become an important and a strong talent pool for their home countries (Collins, Sidhu, Lewis, & Yeoh, 2014; Hong Nguyen, 2013) or the hosting ones

(George Mwangi, Peralta, Fries-Britt, & Daoud, 2016; Michaels et al., 2001, p. xix; Wadhwa, Saxenian, Freeman, & Salkever, 2009).

Second Generation: Program or Provider Mobility

Program or provider mobility is the transition of a program, academic institute, or any education provider to another country (university branches, branch campus, franchise campus, and joint venture campus are typical examples) (e.g., Knight, 2012a; see also Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Coleman, 2003; Stella, 2006; World Education Services, 2015a, 2015b; Yao & Garcia, 2017). However, this generation is still an under-researched topic (see Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). Wilkins and Rumbley (2018) have defined this phenomenon:

> An international branch campus is an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a specific foreign higher education institution, which has some degree of responsibility for the overall strategy and quality assurance of the branch campus. The branch campus operates under the name of the foreign institution and offers programming and/or credentials that bear the name of the foreign institution. The branch has basic infrastructure, such as a library, an open-access computer lab, and dining facilities, and, overall, students at the branch have a similar student experience to students at the home campus. (Wilkins & Rumbley, 2018, p. 14)

This phenomenon ultimately "lead[s] to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider" (Garrett, 2018, p. 14).

Based on the most recent report by the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE), Garrett (2018) concluded that with the steady increase in branch campuses over the years, they "continue to be a relevant and enticing form of transnational education" (p. 14). This is due to their fulfilling several unique success factors, such as good relationships with local regulators and standardization of criterions and practices between home institution and its branches—dependent on local needs and norms (see Garrett, 2018). Some of the factors correspond with the concept of simultaneously acting in two parallel spheres—the local and the global arenas, namely, glocalization[6] (e.g., Drori, Höllerer, &

[6] *Glocal* is a portmanteau of the words global + local.

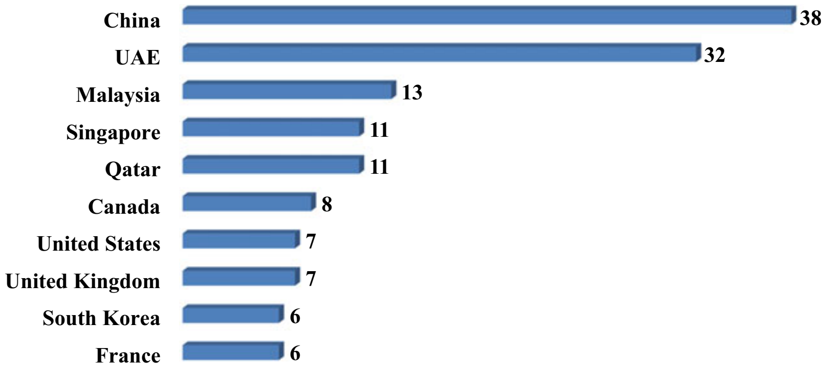


Fig. 1.1 Top 10 branch campuses hosting countries (*Note* UAE = United Arab Emirates. *Source* Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017)

Walgenbach, 2014; Drori, Tienari, & Wæraas, 2015; Kosmützky & Putty, 2016).

International branch campuses "have proliferated rapidly since the early 2000s" and their number tripled until 2015 (World Education Services, 2019). Figure 1.1 shows the top 10 branch campuses hosting/receiving countries (in 2015), while Fig. 1.2 shows the top 10 branch campuses sending countries (the home countries of the branches themselves). The data is based on Cross-Border Education Research Team (2017) information and includes a few branches that were "under development" at the time of data collection.

Who is virtually mobile—the students (first generation) or the providers (second generation)?[7] The online/virtual means of learning is becoming increasingly prevalent (e.g., Zawacki-Richter & Naidu, 2016) to the point that "knowledge is just a click away" (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011, p. 14; Coleman, 2003). This raises an important question—who can be virtually mobile—the student or the provider? In other words, does virtual mobility apply to the first generation (i.e., the student is the one who moves, virtually) or the second generation (i.e., the providers are those who move, virtually)?

[7] It is of paramount importance to note that our terminologies do *not* have any legal or juridical leverage regarding any law ruling, but are of a more philosophical and conceptual nature.

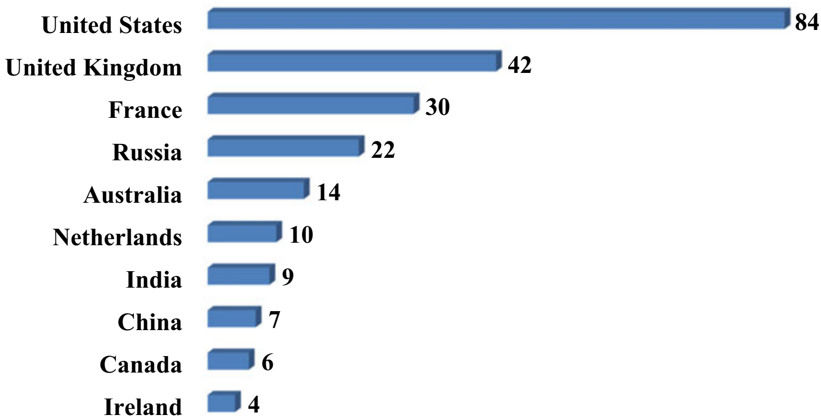


Fig. 1.2 Top 10 branch campuses home countries (*Source* Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017)

To begin addressing this issue, we must first provide a formal definition[8] of the relevant terms. As such, we define the *virtual student* as "a person who is studying at a university or other place of higher education via online/digital means."[9] This leads us to further define the *international virtual student* as "a person who is studying at a university or other place of higher education, where their source exists *outside* of the student's current residency borders, via online/digital means."

We wish to provide a compromise answer to the questions above, because virtual mobility is not unique to either—the student or the provider—but is prevalent in both.[10] We regard virtual mobility as a joint effort of both the student and the provider for the purpose and process of virtual higher education. Our rationale lies in the fact that both players are involved to a certain extent, each making mutual concessions and agreements for the sake of being virtually mobile. In other words,

[8] We based our definitions on Oxford Living Dictionaries' (2018) own definition of "student," as was presented above.

[9] For example, through information and communication technology (ICT), etc.

[10] It is important to note that online delivery methods of higher education in branch campuses are a minority (Garrett, 2018), and thus did not influence our logic in this regard.

the student agrees to learn in a virtual classroom (i.e., off-campus), while the provider agrees to deliver the "education package" not entirely as it would on-campus. The student may also agree to study in a language foreign to their own—for example, an Australian student who is studying (1) in an American institute in English, vs. (2) in a Romanian institute in Romanian. On the other hand, the provider offers its prospective students' higher education of apparent equivalency[11] to the "traditional" on-campus method.

However, we wish to emphasize that in order to acquire higher education virtually today (such as complete BA, MA, PhD degrees, etc.), it is usually not *purely* "virtual" (e.g., thesis defenses, final exams, and more, which obligate the student to physically attend). Therefore, we regard virtual higher education as a *hybrid* (i.e., virtual + physical attendance[12]).

Third Generation: Education Hubs

Last, there are the education hubs, namely, special zones/regions that are intended exclusively for the purpose of acquiring knowledge, training, and development both for domestic and international students (i.e., generations one and two; Knight, 2012b, 2014; see also Lee, 2014). "The emergence of regional education hubs should be understood in close connection with the growing emphasis on the regionalization of higher education as well as the growth in the scope and scale of cross-border education" (Jon et al., 2014, p. 694). Generally, the education hub includes several foreign university branches, domestic universities, industries, research centers, and companies—all strategically connected together—sometimes with the branding of a specific theme (HR, innovation, etc.). This is done in order to "build a critical mass of education/knowledge actors and strengthen its efforts to exert more influence in the new marketplace of education" (Knight, 2011a, p. 225; see also Knight, 2015), and creating industry-relevant human resources, potential economic growth, and, again, developing and retaining a strong talent pool (Collins et al., 2014).

[11] Although there are differences in retention, performance, and group-work satisfaction between online/virtual and face-to-face learning (for further reading, see Garratt-Reed et al., 2016; Palloff & Pratt, 2003; Stravredes & Herder, 2015).

[12] At least at the moment, as Bhandari and Blumenthal (2011) have hinted at the greater evolvement and prevalence of digital learning in the future.

Knight (2012b, 2015) describes three categories of education hub (see also Table 1.1), namely: (1) student hub; (2) education and training hub; and (3) knowledge and innovation hub. However, countries that engender education hubs focus almost exclusively on the first category presented above, in the quest to attract "international students and to build a reputation as a welcoming place for international students to get a high-quality education" (Knight, 2015, p. 20). Nevertheless, Knight (2015) suggests that further work and analyses on each category are needed in the future, as "regional hubs will continue to grow as international education is expected to increase and diversify" (Wen & Hu, 2019).

Basic Descriptive Data Regarding Cross-Border Student Mobility

This section includes concise descriptive information regarding the trends in international students' seeking transnational higher education, based on a recent European report (Educations.com, 2019). However, this report cannot be generalized to depict the entire international student population, as it was clearly stated that: "We collected responses by emailing our database of students who have found their university through educations.com and prospective students who have engaged with us in their search for education" (Educations.com, 2019, p. 9). The report includes the following data:

- There were more females (61%) than males (37%), while 2% were non-binary.
- Ages are from around 18 years of age (22%), the majority are 18–22 (40%), followed by 23–29 (21%), 30–39 (11%), and 40+ (6%).
- Prospective *undergraduate* students "dream of studying" (Educations.com, 2019, p. 11) in (descending order from first place to last place): United States of America, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Sweden, China, and Switzerland.
- Similarly, prospective *postgraduate* students "dream of studying" (Educations.com, 2019, p. 12) in (descending order from first place to last place): United States of America, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Sweden, Italy, and Switzerland.

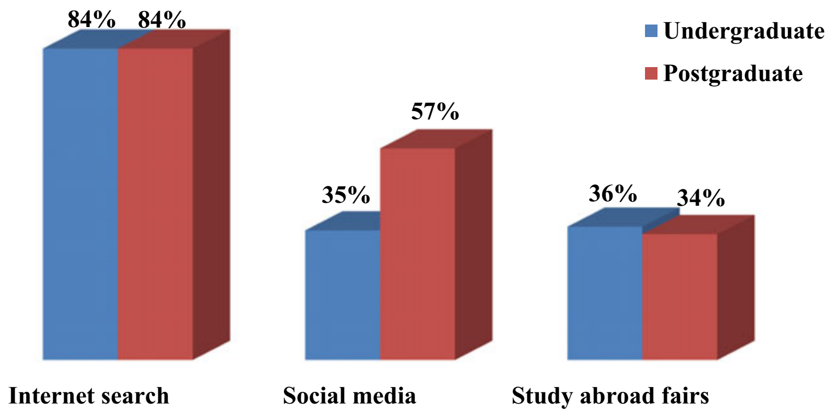


Fig. 1.3 Information sources for students about their future studies (*Source* Educations.com 2019)

Figure 1.3 illustrates the media that the students rely on to gather information about their future studies.

International Students: Ambiguous Interpretations

The phenomenon of international students is intriguing, with many nuances and definitions (Bista & Foster, 2015, p. xxiii; Teichler, 2017). Moreover, there is sometimes a misuse of the term "*international* student" as a synonym of a "*foreign* student" or even a "*non-resident*." There are more issues, difficulties, challenges, and inaccuracies in the public discourse about international students, and these need to be clarified (see Bolsmann & Miller, 2008; Teichler, 2017; Wells, 2014).

Here, we will try to elaborate and organize the concept's blurred boundaries. It is still exceedingly difficult to define *international students* because of vague, inconsistent, or non-parsimonious definitions (e.g., Wells, 2014). Countries use the term "international students" differently, depending on their immigration legislation, mobility arrangements, and data availability (OECD, 2017; Teichler, 2017). Also, sometimes the concept of *foreign students* is also used, defined as "those who are not citizens of the country" (OECD, 2017, p. 296; see also Teichler, 2017). The term "foreign student" is less suitable or appropriate for the purpose of student mobility because of the various policies countries have regarding the naturalization of immigrants (OECD, 2017).

For example, France defines foreign students as "foreign nationals who travel to France for the purpose of study or long-term or permanent residents … and who likely have French residency status. Data thus includes students who are long-term or permanent residents without French citizenship in France" (Verbik, Lasanowski, & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 8). In contrast, the United States defines foreign students as "students who are enrolled at institutions of higher education in the US who are not citizens of the US, immigrants or refugees" (Verbik et al., 2007, p. 8; see also Bista & Foster, 2015, p. xxiii; George Mwangi et al., 2016, p. 211). Therefore, data excludes students who have long-term or permanent residency (with an I-51 or Green Card). Moreover, a good example of the difference between international and foreign students can be seen in Australia. The Australian definition of international students excludes those with a New Zealand citizenship because, although they are not Australian citizens, they do not require a visa to study in Australia (i.e., they are considered domestic). In other words, the definition of a "foreign student" varies in each country in accordance with their own national, legal, and education systems (Bista & Foster, 2015, p. xxiii; Verbik et al., 2007).

From a broader perspective, Shapiro, Farrelly, and Tomaš (2014) defined an international student as "a student who moves to another country (the host country) for the purpose of pursuing tertiary or higher education, e.g., college or university" (p. 2). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) refers to "international students" as "students [that] leave their country or territory of origin and move to another country or territory with the objective of studying" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 109). In the same vein, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2017) elaborated that:

> International students are those who left their country of origin and moved to another country for the purpose of study. The country of origin of a tertiary student is defined according to the criterion of "country of prior education" or "country of usual residence"…. Depending on country-specific immigration legislation, mobility arrangements (such as the free mobility of individuals within the EU [European Union] and the EEA [European Economic Area] and data availability, international students may be defined

> as students who are not permanent or usual residents of their country of study, or alternatively as students who obtained their prior education in a different country. (OECD, 2017, p. 297)

Following the above ambiguous terminologies of international students, it is imperative, for the sake of this book and the general collection of data in this regard, that we make a more universal (and more easily understood) definition and organize some of the ambiguities surrounding these terms.

The Confusion Surrounding Formal Academic Status of International Students

As mentioned above, definitions of "international students" vary from country to country or even by region (e.g., the United States), resulting in inconsistent statistics and data derivation (Ahmad et al., 2016; Teichler, 2017). In addition to this, Beine, Noël, and Ragot (2014) have also stated that the data on international students is not available in all the OECD countries.

We wish to elaborate on the complexity of this situation, as there are an ample number of fuzzy boundaries and ambiguous cases (e.g., multiple citizenships, undefined demographical populations, etc.). To illustrate, take an individual who possesses two different citizenships, French and Brazilian, and is a *permanent resident* of Brazil but wishes to *study* for a BA in France. According to the classical definitions presented earlier, he or she may be considered as an international student in France, but we strongly believe that this person would choose to use the EU (i.e., French) citizenship to be eligible for various scholarships and preferable tuition rates otherwise not accessible to *foreign* students. If so, the statistics might include this case in the "domestic/home student" category. To add to this conundrum, this person might not even speak French at all, or be familiar with the cultural codes in France. For more examples, see Teichler (2017).

Israel is another unique example. It engenders a special case of international students, since a large group of them (around 53%) are Jewish or of Jewish extraction (origins) who are "entitled to citizenship in terms of the Law of Return and, at any moment, can acquire Israeli citizenship and/or residency" (Nathan, 2017, p. 119). Regardless of their national roots, this special case also includes "returning residents" (those coming back to Israel after at least five years of residency abroad) (Nathan, 2017). In other words, in Israel, Jewish students from abroad may be considered as home/local students just based on citizenship or residency status due to their nationality and religion (i.e., Judaism).

Furthermore, the prominence of language (among other cultural aspects) is mentioned as highly important and relevant (see Chapters 2 and 3). Even though Andrade (2006) argued that "academic adjustment problems for international students tend to focus on languages issues" (p. 135; see also Beine et al., 2014 and the reviews in Lewis, 2016; Varghese, 2008; Wilkins, Balakrishnan, & Huisman, 2012; Yang, 2007), they must also adapt to a new culture and academic environment, faced with financial, linguistic, and interpersonal difficulties (Ra & Trusty, 2017; Rienties, Beausaert, Grohnert, Niemantsverdriet, & Kommers, 2012; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Wu, Garza, & Guzman, 2015). For students to be able to successfully study in a country other than their country of origin, prior to studying they would need to experience the local language and culture (e.g., norms, symbols, fashion codes, specific gestures, etc.). In other words, these students must undergo a socialization process (at least at a minimal level) in the hosting country. As such, international students who have no such experience with the local culture because they are not residents (or former residents) of the hosting country, are the most challenged in the process of accessing higher education in these places (for examples of adjustment challenges of international students, see Chien, 2013; Glass, Kociolek, Wongtrirat, Lynch, & Cong, 2015; Wu et al., 2015). Andrade (2006) also argued that the extent of the fit between the international student and the educational environment may help him or her to adapt, socially and academically, to the hosting country in general, and the academic institution specifically.

Therefore, to simplify comprehension and understanding of this phenomenon, we propose that the definition (of international students) should be based primarily on the *residency status* one possesses. This already includes a prior-education parameter (see OECD, 2017). Thus, citizenship may be a "bonus," but it is not a defining criterion because it cannot guarantee a minimal amount of socialization in the hosting country's culture, as opposed to a certain amount of residency in this country. This aligns with the argument of Teichler (2017) that as mobility and migration around the world increase, so the usability and suitability of the citizenship as definitive aspects of the "international student" decrease. We stress that a citizenship may endorse some degree of awareness of and familiarity with the hosting country's culture, directly or indirectly (e.g., family), and therefore it is considered a "bonus." However, global processes (such as demographical transitions due to immigration, technological revolutions, legal developments, border changes, etc.) might have an impact on this link to the hosting culture, as "a change in place of residence is a contributory factor to the person's wider developmental processes" (Elliot, Reid, & Baumfield, 2016). The importance of residency status is supported by the *adjustment* notion discussed by scholars (e.g., Andrade, 2006; Chien, 2013; Glass et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2015).

As such, we strongly believe that a (domestic) resident may have less adjustment challenges in adapting to an educational environment, as opposed to an international student (citizen, or not). In other words, residency in a specific country allows for assimilating the native culture and language to a certain extent, which facilities adjustment and adaptability to higher education[13] (in the hosting country).

Conclusion: A Continuum to Academic Status and a Redefinition

As we discussed above, when determining the status of a non-domestic student, residency has a superior weight over citizenship. We propose a student status continuum with two opposite poles—*domestic* student on one end and *international* student on the other. Furthermore, to avoid definitional confusion surrounding international students (as we presented above) and not to "fall" on many exceptional cases, we will regard an international student in the "classical" sense as follows. We define the status of an "international student" as based on having: (1) *no* citizenship; and (2) *no* permanent residence status of the hosting country. See Fig. 1.4 for a more precise articulation of our proposal. Notably, the figure addresses the status of students/people in cross-border education (i.e., first generation of mobility), either physically or virtually mobile.

We wish to emphasize that although we suggest using our definition of "international students" as given above, we also highly recommend gathering data on other non-domestic student categorizations (see Fig. 1.4)

[13] There are exceptions, however, such as the United States, where most people share the same citizenship and general culture (i.e., American) and live in the same country (i.e., United States) but they may be considered as non-residents in certain states (e.g., a student from Texas who wishes to study in California).

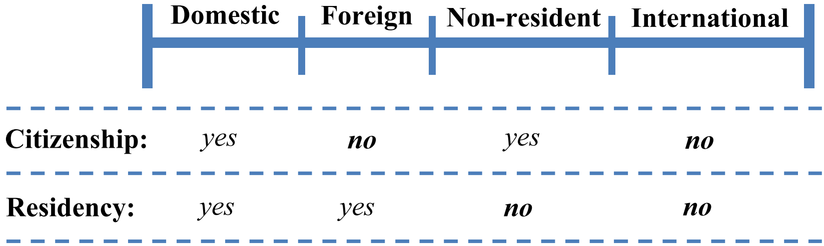


Fig. 1.4 Formal academic status continuum of a potential student

separately for a longitudinal perspective on the relevance of our definition across time, worldwide opportunities, and transitions.

A Redefinition of International Students

We define an *international student* as "an individual whose primary goal is the acquisition of (some form of) higher education in a country in which he or she has *no* permanent residential status and *no* local citizenship, regardless of the studying method."[14] This definition will guide us as authors and you as readers, throughout the rest of the book.

References

Ahmad, S. Z., Buchanan, F. R., & Ahmad, N. (2016). Examination of students' selection criteria for international education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(6), 1088–1103. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2014-0145.

Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education, 5*(2), 131–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240906065589.

Bano, S. (2018). From brain drain to reverse brain drain: Implications for South Asia and the United States of America. In K. Bista (Ed.), *International student mobility and opportunities for growth in the global marketplace* (pp. 64–80). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

[14] As we discussed above, at the beginning of the chapter: (1) those *physically* moving to the receiving/hosting country (i.e., physical mobility); and (2) those studying via an *online*/technological medium (e.g., computer-mediated communication, CMC) in a foreign institution (i.e., virtual mobility).

Bedenlier, S., Kondakci, Y., & Zawacki-Richter, O. (2018). Two decades of research into the internationalization of higher education: Major themes in the *Journal of Studies in International Education* (1997–2016). *Journal of Studies in International Education, 22*(2), 108–135. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315317710093.

Beine, M., Noël, R., & Ragot, L. (2014). Determinants of the international mobility of students. *Economics of Education Review, 41,* 40–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.03.003.

Bennett, N., & Lemoine, J. (2014). What VUCA really means for you. *Harvard Business Review, 92*(1/2). https://hbr.org/2014/01/what-vuca-really-means-for-you.

Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (2011). Global student mobility and the twenty-first century silk road: National trends and new directions. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 1–23). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bista, K., & Foster, C. (Eds.). (2015). *Global perspectives and local challenges surrounding international student mobility*. Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Bolsmann, C., & Miller, H. (2008). International student recruitment to universities in England: Discourse, rationales and globalisation. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 6*(1), 75–88. https://doi.org/10.1080/14767720701855634.

Brooks, R., & Waters, J. (2011). *Student mobilities, migration and the internationalization of higher education*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Chien, Y. Y. (2013). *Adjustment of international students in a UK university: Reasons for study abroad and subsequent academic and socio-cultural experiences* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter, UK). https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10871/15044.

Coleman, D. (2003). Quality assurance in transnational education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 7*(4), 354–378. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315303255597.

Collins, F. L., Sidhu, R., Lewis, N., & Yeoh, B. S. (2014). Mobility and desire: International students and Asian regionalism in aspirational Singapore. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 35*(5), 661–676. https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2014.921996.

Corrales-Herrero, H., & Rodríguez-Prado, B. (2018). The role of non-formal lifelong learning at different points in the business cycle. *International Journal of Manpower, 39*(2), 334–352. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJM-08-2016-0164.

Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT). (2017). C-BERT branch campus listing (updated January 20, 2017) [Data originally collected by Kevin Kinser and Jason E. Lane]. http://cbert.org/resources-data/branch-campus/.

Crush, J., Pendleton, W., & Tevera, D. S. (2005). *Degrees of uncertainty: Students and the brain drain in southern Africa*. Cape Town: Idasa/Kingston, ON: Southern African Research Centre, Queen's University.

Dexeus, C. R. (2019). The deepening effects of the digital revolution. In E. Fayos-Solà & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The future of tourism: Innovation and sustainability* (pp. 43–69). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Drori, G. S., Höllerer, M. A., & Walgenbach, P. (2014). Unpacking the glocalization of organization: From term, to theory, to analysis. *European Journal of Cultural and Political Sociology, 1*(1), 85–99. https://doi.org/10.1080/23254823.2014.904205.

Drori, G. S., Tienari, J., & Wæraas, A. (2015). Guest editors' introduction: Strategies of building and managing higher education brands. *International Studies of Management & Organization, 45*(2), 99–104. https://doi.org/10.1080/00208825.2015.1006004.

Educations.com. (2019). *International higher education report: Student trends 2019*. https://www.educations.com/read-student-trends-2019-15494.

Elliot, D. L., Reid, K., & Baumfield, V. (2016). Beyond the amusement, puzzlement and challenges: An enquiry into international students' academic acculturation. *Studies in Higher Education, 41*(12), 2198–2217. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1029903.

García-Álvarez, M. T., Novo-Corti, I., & Varela-Candamio, L. (2018). The effects of social networks on the assessment of virtual learning environments: A study for social sciences degrees. *Telematics and Informatics, 35*(4), 1005–1017. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2017.09.013.

Garrett, R. (2018). International branch campuses: Success factors. *International Higher Education, 2*(93), 14–16. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.0.93.10417.

Garratt-Reed, D., Roberts, L. D., & Heritage, B. (2016). Grades, student satisfaction and retention in online and face-to-face introductory psychology units: A test of equivalency theory. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7,* 673. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00673.

George Mwangi, C. A., Peralta, A. M., Fries-Britt, S., & Daoud, N. (2016). Academic motivation and experiences of international students of color in STEM. In K. Brista & C. Foster (Eds.), *Exploring the social and academic experiences of international students in higher education institutions* (pp. 197–211). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Glass, C. R., Kociolek, E., Wongtrirat, R., Lynch, R. J., & Cong, S. (2015). Uneven experiences: The impact of student–faculty interactions on international students' sense of belonging. *Journal of International Students, 5*(4), 353–367. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1066288.pdf.

Hagopian, A., Thompson, M. J., Fordyce, M., Johnson, K. E., & Hart, L. G. (2004). The migration of physicians from sub-Saharan Africa to the United

States of America: Measures of the African brain drain. *Human Resources for Health, 2*(1), 17–27. https://doi.org/10.1186/1478-4491-2-17.
Hong Nguyen, C. (2013). Vietnamese international student mobility: Past and current trends. *Asian Education and Development Studies, 2*(2), 127–148. https://doi.org/10.1108/20463161311321411.
Huang, H. T., Binney, W., & Hede, A. M. (2010). Strategic marketing of educational institutions. In *ANZMAC 2010: Doing More with Less: Proceedings of the 2010 Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference* (pp. 1–9). http://www.anzmac2010.org/proceedings/pdf/anzmac10Final00468.pdf.
Jon, J. E., Lee, J. J., & Byun, K. (2014). The emergence of a regional hub: Comparing international student choices and experiences in South Korea. *Higher Education, 67*(5), 691–710. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9674-0.
Kamal Basha, N., Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2016). International students' university preferences: How different are Malaysian and Chinese students? *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(2), 197–210. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-08-2014-0122.
Kenyon, S., Lyons, G., & Rafferty, J. (2002). Transport and social exclusion: Investigating the possibility of promoting inclusion through virtual mobility. *Journal of Transport Geography, 10*(3), 207–219. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-6923(02)00012-1.
Kishun, R. (2011). Student mobility trends in Africa: A baseline analysis of selected African countries. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 143–165). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 8*(1), 5–31. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315303260832.
Knight, J. (2011a). Education hubs: A fad, a brand, an innovation? *Journal of Studies in International Education, 15*(3), 221–240. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311398046.
Knight, J. (2011b). Regional education hubs: Mobility for the knowledge economy. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education* (pp. 211–230). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
Knight, J. (2012a). Student mobility and internationalization: Trends and tribulations. *Research in Comparative and International Education, 7*(1), 20–33. https://doi.org/10.2304/rcie.2012.7.1.20.
Knight, J. (2012b). *Internationalization: Three generations of crossborder higher education*. New Delhi: India International Centre. http://www.iicdelhi.nic.in/ContentAttachments/Publications/DiaryFiles/53511July92012_IIC%20Occasional%20Publication%2038.pdf.

Knight, J. (2014). Three generations of crossborder higher education: New developments, issues and challenges. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 43–58). Oxford: Symposium Books.

Knight, J. (2015). Regional education hubs—Rhetoric or reality. *International Higher Education, 59,* 1–2. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2010.59.8491.

Knight, J. (2017). Global: Five truths about internationalization. In G. Mihut, P. G. Altbach, & H. de Wit (Eds.), *Understanding higher education internationalization*: *Global Perspectives on higher education* (pp. 13–15). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Kosmützky, A., & Putty, R. (2016). Transcending borders and traversing boundaries: A systematic review of the literature on transnational, offshore, crossborder, and borderless higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 20*(1), 8–33. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315315604719.

Koval, E. M., Hackett, P. M. W., & Schwarzenbach, J. B. (2016). A mapping sentence mereology for understanding the mobility of international students. In B. Krishna & C. Foster (Eds.), *Global perspectives and local challenges surrounding international student mobility* (pp. 53–67). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Kumar, A., Kumar, P., & Basu, S. C. (2001). Student perceptions of virtual education: An exploratory study. In M. Khosrow-Pour (Ed.), *Managing information technology in a global environment* (pp. 400–403). Toronto, ON: Idea Group Publishing.

Lakkaraju, S. K., Tech, D., & Deng, S. (2018). A framework for profiling prospective students in higher education. In M. Khosrow-Pour (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of information science and technology* (4th ed., pp. 3861–3869). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Lawton, W. (2015). Digital learning, mobility and internationalization in European higher education. In H. de Wit, F. Hunter, L. Howard, & E. Egron-Polak (Eds.), *Internationalisation of higher education* (pp. 77–83). Brussels: European Parliament.

Lee, J. T. (2014). Education hubs and talent development: Policymaking and implementation challenges. *Higher Education, 68*(6), 807–823. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9745-x.

Lee, K. H., & Tan, J. P. (1984). The international flow of third level lesser developed country students to developed countries: Determinants and implications. *Higher Education, 13*(6), 687–707. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00137020.

Lewis, W. (2016). Study abroad influencing factors: An investigation of socioeconomic status, social, cultural, and personal factors. *Ursidae: The Undergraduate Research Journal at the University of Northern Colorado, 5*(3), 6. https://digscholarship.unco.edu/urj/vol5/iss3/6.

Macmillan Dictionary. (2018). *Mobility*. https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/mobility.

Mazzarol, T. (1998). Critical success factors for international education marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management, 12*(4), 163–175. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549810220623.

McManus, R., Haddock-Fraser, J., & Rands, P. (2017). A methodology to understand student choice of higher education institutions: The case of the United Kingdom. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 39*(4), 390–405. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2017.1330806.

Mejía, N. G., Martelo, R. J., & Villabona, N. (2018). The use of information and communication technologies in educational institutions. *Contemporary Engineering Sciences, 11*(10), 475–484. https://doi.org/10.12988/ces.2018.8242.

Merriam-Webster. (2018). *Higher education*. https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/higher%20education.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The war for talent*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Nathan, G. (2017). *The OECD expert group on migration SOPEMI annual report: International migration—Israel 2016–2017*. Kvar-Monash, Israel: The Institute for Immigration and Social Integration, Ruppin Academic Center. http://www.israel-sociology.org.il/uploadimages/26102017_4.pdf.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2017). Indicator C4: What is the profile of internationally mobile students? In OECD, *Education at a glance: OECD indicators*. Paris: OECD Publishing. http://download.inep.gov.br/acoes_internacionais/eag/documentos/2017/relatorio_education_at_a_glance_2017.pdf.

Oxford Living Dictionaries. (2018). *Student*. https://www.lexico.com/definition/student.

Palloff, R. M., & Pratt, K. (2003). *The virtual student: A profile and guide to working with online learners*. San Francisco, CA: Wiley.

Perez-Esparrells, C., & Orduna-Malea, E. (2018). Do the technical universities exhibit distinct behaviour in global university rankings? A Times Higher Education (THE) case study. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management, 48*, 97–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jengtecman.2018.04.007.

Pucciarelli, F., & Kaplan, A. (2016). Competition and strategy in higher education: Managing complexity and uncertainty. *Business Horizons, 59*(3), 311–320. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2016.01.003.

Ra, Y. A., & Trusty, J. (2017). Impact of social support and coping on acculturation and acculturative stress of East Asian international students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 45*(4), 276–291. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12078.

Richardson, M. D., Brinson, S. G., & Lemoine, P. A. (2018). Using social media to facilitate instruction and increase marketing in global higher education. In T. Purnendu & M. Siran (Eds.), *Marketing initiatives for sustainable educational development* (pp. 226–245). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Rienties, B., Beausaert, S., Grohnert, T., Niemantsverdriet, S., & Kommers, P. (2012). Understanding academic performance of international students: The role of ethnicity, academic and social integration. *Higher Education, 63*(6), 685–700. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-011-9468-1.

Roser, M., & Ortiz-Ospina, E. (2018). *Tertiary education*. Ourworldindata.org. https://ourworldindata.org/tertiary-education.

Russell, G. (2004). Virtual schools: A critical view. In C. Cavanaugh (Ed.), *Development and management of virtual schools: Issues and trends* (pp. 1–25). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Ryan, S., Scott, B., Freeman, H., & Patel, D. (2013). *The virtual university: The internet and resource-based learning*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Shahijan, M. K., Rezaei, S., & Preece, C. N. (2016). Developing a framework of internationalisation for higher education institutions in Malaysia: A SWOT analysis. *International Journal of Management in Education, 10*(2), 145–173. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJMIE.2016.075556.

Shapiro, S., Farrelly, R., & Tomaš, Z. (2014). *Fostering international student success in higher education*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL International Association.

Soria, K. M., & Troisi, J. (2014). Internationalization at home alternatives to study abroad: Implications for students' development of global, international, and intercultural competencies. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(3), 261–280. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313496572.

Sridevi, P. (2019). Academic audit—A SWOT analysis for the higher education institutions. *International Journal of Scientific Research, 8*(5), 48–49. http://worldwidejournals.co.in/index.php/ijsr/article/view/2506/2506.

Stella, A. (2006). Quality assurance of cross-border higher education. *Quality in Higher Education, 12*(3), 257–276. https://doi.org/10.1080/13538320601072859.

Stravredes, T. M., & Herder, T. M. (2015). Engaging students in an online environment. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (pp. 257–269). New York, NY: Routledge.

Tansel, A., & Demet Güngör, N. (2003). "Brain drain" from Turkey: Survey evidence of student non-return. *Career Development International, 8*(2), 52–69. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430310465453.

Taylor, G., & Ali, N. (2017). Learning and living overseas: Exploring factors that influence meaningful learning and assimilation: How international students adjust to studying in the UK from a socio-cultural perspective. *Education Sciences, 7*(1), 35–60. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci7010035.

Teichler, U. (2017). Internationalisation trends in higher education and the changing role of international student mobility. *Journal of International Mobility, 5*(1), 177–216. https://doi.org/10.3917/jim.005.0179.
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2014). *Higher education in Asia: Expanding out, expanding up*. Paris: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. https://europa.eu/capacity4dev/file/25788/download?token=4HMfIPAh.
Varghese, N. V. (2008). *Globalization of higher education and cross-border student mobility* (pp. 1–34). Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.536.4194&rep=rep1&type=pdf.
Verbik, L., Lasanowski, H., & Lasanowski, V. (2007). *International student mobility: Patterns and trends*. Wes.org. https://web.archive.org/web/20101214053953/http://www.wes.org/educators/pdf/StudentMobility.pdf.
Vilhelmson, B., & Thulin, E. (2008). Virtual mobility, time use and the place of the home. *Tijdschrift voor economische en sociale geografie, 99*(5), 602–618. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9663.2008.00494.x.
Wadhwa, V., Saxenian, A. L., Freeman, R. B., & Salkever, A. (2009). *Losing the world's best and brightest: America's new immigrant entrepreneurs, part V*. Kauffman.org. https://www.kauffman.org/-/media/kauffman_org/research-reports-and-covers/2009/03/losing_the_worlds_best_and_brightest.pdf.
Wells, A. (2014). International student mobility: Approaches, challenges and suggestions for further research. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 143*, 19–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.350.
Wen, W., & Hu, D. (2019). The emergence of a regional education hub: Rationales of international students' choice of China as the study destination. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 23*(3), 303–325. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315318797154.
Wildavsky, B. (2010). *The great brain race: How global universities are reshaping the world*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
Wilkins, S., & Rumbley, L. (2018). What a branch campus is: A revised definition. *International Higher Education, 2*(93), 12–14. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.0.93.10416.
Wilkins, S., Balakrishnan, M. S., & Huisman, J. (2012). Student choice in higher education: Motivations for choosing to study at an international branch campus. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16*(5), 413–433. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311429002.
World Education Services (WES). (2015a, June 2). *Established and emerging hubs for international education in Africa and the Middle East*. Wenr.wes.org.

https://wenr.wes.org/2015/06/established-emerging-hubs-international-education-africa-middle-east.

World Education Services (WES). (2015b, June 8). *Developing international education hubs in Asia*. Wenr.wes.org. https://wenr.wes.org/2015/07/developing-international-education-hubs-asia.

World Education Services (WES). (2019, May 28). *Transnational education and globalization: A look into the complex environment of international branch campuses.* Wenr.wes.org. https://wenr.wes.org/2019/05/the-complex-environment-of-international-branch-campuses.

Wu, H. P., Garza, E., & Guzman, N. (2015). International student's challenge and adjustment to college. *Education Research International*, *2015*, article 202753. https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/202753.

Xin, H., Kempland, M., & Blankson, F. H. (2015). Adaptability and replicability of web-facilitated, hybrid, and online learning in an undergraduate exercise psychology course. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, 14*(1), 19–30. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1057333.

Yang, M. (2007). What attracts mainland Chinese students to Australian higher education. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation and Development, 4*(2), 1–12. http://hdl.cqu.edu.au/10018/5964.

Yao, C. W., & Garcia, C. E. (2017). International students in their own country: Motivation of Vietnamese graduate students to attend a collaborative transnational university. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education*, *4*(2), 22–38. http://dx.doi.org/10.18275/fire201704021134.

Zawacki-Richter, O., & Naidu, S. (2016). Mapping research trends from 35 years of publications in *Distance Education*. *Distance Education*, *37*(3), 245–269. https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2016.1185079.

Zweig, D. (2006). Competing for talent: China's strategies to reverse the brain drain. *International Labour Review, 145*(1–2), 65–90. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1564-13X.2006.tb00010.x.

CHAPTER 2

Background and Characteristics of International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education

Paul M. W. Hackett and Paul M. Capobianco

Theoretical Background

It may be claimed that the increasing number of international students is a positive social and educational phenomenon. This assertion rests on the notion that being an international student offers the opportunity for a better education than if the student received their education in their native country, and that the opportunity comprises multiple individual, social, and cultural experiences. In order to determine whether international students do indeed benefit from their studies abroad, there is a need to closely examine their lives and experiences. In this way, international students themselves can teach us a great deal about what "a better education" means and what it does *not* mean.

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5_2

The Value of Facet Theory

Facet theory[1] (see Appendix A for an explanation of the approach) helps us to substantiate and evolve the perspective that what is important and meaningful about international students is rather closely tied to what is important and meaningful to themselves. Additionally, it is not enough to believe that the needs, value judgments, actions, and context of international students are important. We propose that what should be areas of interest to anyone interested in international students, especially those who want to improve their potential to flourish, can be investigated systematically and collaboratively in ways that reflect the complexity of the subject. The limits of research along these lines are the contours of time and space, as well as particular research frameworks and understandings of mobility issues (Koval, Hackett, & Schwarzenbach, 2016). There can, of course, be no uniform understanding of international students because international students are not a uniform population that can be segmented neatly into demographics, nor would such an approach be a sufficiently humanizing or illuminating way of understanding people. Fortunately, we now know from the amalgamated "worldview-methodology" of facet theory that it is possible to conduct and build on research in ways that help us achieve an increasingly consistent and comparable understanding through the development of "a standardized framework, which is flexible and driven in its design by the lives of these students themselves" (Koval et al., 2016, p. 57). Given such a complicated area of study with so many potential blind spots, and potential unintended consequences of policy recommendations, facet theory allows us to have faith in an ongoing investigation that might otherwise feel unwieldy.

Toward a Better Understanding of the Perspectives and Experiences of International Students

There is a lot to be done, and a lot to stop doing, precisely because there is a lot to be celebrated, critiqued, gained, and lost. Fortunately, much of what is good for the experiences of international students is also good for native students, so we can expect many unanticipated improvements for everyone as knowledge of international students is gathered

[1] Over the past decade Paul Hackett has developed the facet approach as a methodology into philosophical enquiry and to employ qualitative data and thinking (Hackett, 2018).

and carefully acted on. The same is true of marketing successfully to international students: the value creation and reform inherent in such efforts will make for better marketing to more people. Many components associated with the rise of decisions to study abroad elucidate a way toward more of these good experiences and expose the negative experiences that should be understood and addressed along the way. As with any major opportunity for improvement, there are a great many findings and opinions associated with this trend, some of them lodestars of potential progress, including critiques of the manifestations of this trend, and others misguided, destructive notions that have the disadvantage of being wrong, but also the advantages of inertia and being stickily intertwined with positive practices. Where we have found the greatest potential for increased clarity, helpful criticisms, and feasible improvements is in a better understanding of the perspectives and experiences of international students. Our suggestions for research are simultaneously practices in carving out such understanding as well as a call and foundation for systematic, standardized collaboration among other researchers. Built into this call and foundation for systematic collaboration is the humility and self-reflection necessary for gathering substantive knowledge in the midst of so much complexity. Appropriately enough, the recommendations born from this approach will provide diverse, contextual, and growing windows for decision-makers to join in the humility and self-reflection required to make good on the thoughtful promises commensurate with so much potential for great, inclusive educational opportunities.

Exploring the Characteristics of International Students

Navigating the Complexity: The Student-Centric Approach

The rise of international student enrolment has been accompanied by a great deal of interest, insight, and observations about its effects. Institutional decision-makers, academics, and students potentially have a lot to lose and a lot to gain. There is a lot of money, knowns, unknowns, risks, and opportunities at play, all in states of dynamic interrelation that are difficult to navigate. Navigation difficulties arise whether taking a view that attempts to consider factors involving many lives across time and around the world or a view that attempts to consider factors that will directly affect one's future. The complexity is deepened since the outcomes for each individual international student vary in accordance with a “huge range” (Coleman, 2004, as cited in Gu, Schweisfurth, & Day, 2009, p. 7) of internal and external factors that not even the most thorough study of culture would begin to encompass: from background and circumstantial variables to identity, personality, motivations, language proficiency, learning style, and strategic approaches (Gu et al., 2009). It is as if the factors at play grow in number the closer they are examined. The “lived intricacy” (Koval et al., 2016, p. 53) of an international student is itself a “multifaceted and complicated process” characterized by the chemistry between an “amalgam” of components that native students do not encounter in their educational and social lives, plus those components that are shared with native students, ultimately manifesting in experiences and creations of meaning (Koval et al., 2016, p. 54) that ought to be of ever-increasing interest to anyone interested in higher education. It is understood by many why this student-centric approach to being interested in international students is important (for example, Huang, 2008; Montgomery, 2010), but there are several ways to take an interest, some of which support and extend the student-centric approach while others reveal that student-centric perspectives are needed now more than ever.

Understanding the Benefits of International Students

One of the reasons we know that there is so much at stake is the manifest and mounting benefits of international students to universities, governments, native students, and the international students themselves. Fortunately, it is not lost on even misguided recruitment-centric administrators that international students should be so financially beneficial to universities (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013; Smith & Khawaja, 2011) and provide economic advantages to their host countries while simultaneously contributing many other intangible benefits (Hegarty, 2014; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013; Olivas & Li, 2006). Colleges and universities, it is claimed, mainly go about recruiting international students “to provide international and cross-cultural perspectives for their students and to enhance their curricula” (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 293, as cited in Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013, p. 86) such that academic goals take precedence over “pressure to commercialise” (Matthews & Lawley, 2011, p. 687). As we will show, the benefits do not end there by any means. What is more, the cross-cultural value engendered by internationalization creates enriching experiences for international students as well

(Montgomery, 2010) and can help them with future professional and personal development (Smith & Curry, 2011).

Understanding the Difficulties of International Students

What is also at stake are the sometimes particularly difficult lives of a population of students who are not as well understood and supported as their native counterparts. International students often undergo the difficulties familiar to most college students, as well as extra stressors mixed into the amalgam of their lived intricacy. Russell, Rosenthal, and Thomson (2010) describe well the familiar "anxious, stressed student" who is "adrift in an overwhelming environment, who devotes most waking hours to study, often unproductively, who experiences guilt and self-blame for the failure to cope more effectively and who achieves possibly well below capacity" (p. 246). The amalgam gets particularly intricate, and harder to live, as international students tend to encounter resources-related problems, as well as exacerbated issues with academics, language, lack of connection, and loneliness that arise, in part, from issues involving communication across cultures, including outright aggression and discrimination (Frey & Roysircar, 2006; Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007). These factors constructively interfere with barriers to cultural adjustment such as "gaps" or "loss of the familiar" (Gu et al., 2009, pp. 15, 16) in forms ranging from food (Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010) to values, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors, and norms in general (Gu et al., 2009; Hackett, 2014b). These are not, however, intractable difficulties and international students themselves do a notable job enlisting coping strategies and dimensions of their personalities, including seeking social support, to survive and flourish (Gu et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010).

Framing Student Mobility, Globalization, and Internationalization

There is still much that can and should be done. With a better understanding of international students and thereby better tailored approaches to helping them, the surviving could be made easier and the flourishing even more fulfilling and accessible. Just as this understanding requires knowledge of individual international students in their immediate context, the policies and services that affect these individuals must be understood in the larger context of student mobility, globalization, and internationalization (Koval et al., 2016).

The ways in which student mobility, globalization, and internationalization are framed in terms of the plans, purposes, and experiences of international students varies to the extent that they are presented as part of the same phenomenon. It is, perhaps, taken as a given that these concepts are interrelated in complex ways, but consider the rhetorical impact of, for instance, presenting the massive, steady increase of international students in the United States from the late 1990s to 2012 as "largely due to the active recruitment efforts by many U.S. academic institutions and the actions by the U.S. government to promote American higher education as well as a rising middle class in key source countries that could afford to send their children to study abroad (Fisher, 2009)" (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013, p. 85). No doubt these institutional thrusts have contributed to the rise of international students and yet we might come away from such an assertion with the sense that the plans and purposes of the students themselves, as well as their experiences abroad, have little to do with the rising numbers. We assume that no one actually holds this view, since the reasons people choose to become international students and their experiences as international students are surely creating the main momentum of the rising numbers of international students. Without dismissing the entirely correct emphasis on the importance of institutions, we would like to take an approach that places the plans and purposes of international students closer to the center of how we describe their mobility in terms of globalization and internationalization. This approach to describing the larger context is a particularly helpful prelude for bringing experiences to the forefront in ways that will help further research to be conducted more collaboratively and in ways that will inform how institutional decision-makers can better communicate with and serve the needs of a remarkably compelling kind of student.

The various superimposing qualities of the involvement of "globalization" and "internationalization" with "student mobility" has led to the terms sometimes being conflated or substituted for one another, in which case various qualities of one or the other are blotted out; that globalization tends to blur national borders, for instance, whereas internationalization refers to reactions to the global academic environment such as border-crossing activities and the creation of programs for international students even as national systems persist (Teichler, 2004). A related conflation is between high levels of student mobility and excellence (Børing, Flanagan, Gagliardi, Kaloudis, & Karakasidou, 2015). We will return to these issues in Chapter 5 when fwe present various recommendations and, following Sanderson's (2008) development of Knight (1999), treat internationalization in terms of the purposes and practices of university stakeholders where internationalization is not conceived as an end in itself, but rather a means to "the improvement of the quality of education" (Knight, 1999, p. 20, as cited in Gu et al., 2009, p. 5), with international students' experiences being a key indicator of the education's quality (Gu et al., 2009). The value-laden (Gu et al., 2009) topics of globalization and internationalization will also be revisited in terms of the social and political costs of globalized policy copying (Deem, Mok, & Lucas, 2008) and how our recommendations and research approach can help to avoid these pitfalls. For now, we zoom out.

The Dangers of Reductionism and the Benefits of Cooperation

One satisfactory definition of globalization is offered by the Carnegie Endowment: "Globalization is a process of interaction and integration among the people, companies, and governments of different nations, a process driven by international trade and investment and aided by information technology" (as cited in Boudreaux, 2008, p. 16). Sometimes the focus on trade and international investment is referred to as "reductionist" (Tikly, 2010, p. 158). Reductionism is a derogatory term. The intent is often to indicate that the person engaged in the reductionism has claimed or implied that something complex can be understood in terms of one of its simpler parts. Either the person engaged in the reductionism has a fundamental misunderstanding of the complexity of what they are talking about or, and this seems more often to be what people are saying when they use the term, the person engaged in the reductionism conveys what is a misunderstanding of the complexity of what they are talking about to mask a bias or agenda they have. In the case of higher education, this bias may be held, for example, by institutional recruiters eagerly scrambling to fill classroom seats with international students, the majority of whom pay full tuition (Hegarty, 2014). Being opponents of this bias, we offer a more elegant definition of globalization that speaks to our aspirations: "the advance of human cooperation across national boundaries," much of it unintentional, which coordinates the plans and actions of lots of people around the world (Boudreaux, 2008, pp. 16–18). Of course, "cooperation" also does not wholly convey the complexity and apparent contradictions of globalization processes (Deem et al., 2008), but it does at least convey the core characteristic found at the origin and in the propulsion of individual stories.

Among other things, such cooperation requires more people to be highly skilled, multilingual, and culturally aware, requirements many seek to eventually satisfy by acquiring knowledge and skills at universities outside their home countries, an act that also signals the embodiment of these qualities to potential employers. Since career prospects and earning potential are major motivators for international students, we would expect the appeal of educational experiences abroad to correspond to what degree employers reward these qualities. While the rise of international students is a new trend, it is an old belief that education's perceived value is closely tied to its perceived relevance and immediate impact on one's job or personal life.

Of course, career prospects and earning potential are not the only reasons students decide to study abroad, nor is the fulfilment of these motivations the only potential outcome that fulfills international students, just as the potential for prosperity that cooperation across national borders entails is not the only potential outcome that fulfills those engaged in the cooperation. On the other hand, sometimes things go terribly wrong.

While international trade and investment drive globalization there is a dynamic feedback loop of influence between economic strategies and what transpires politically and culturally in people's lives (Tikly, 2010). As people's talents and desires become more diverse, the extent to which these talents are rewarded and the means by which these desires can be met do not adjust in perfectly even proportion. As sites of power, colleges and universities are major components of globalization's general role in mediating access to other sites of power, thereby providing evidence—through primarily being located in major metropolitan areas, for instance—that "the consequences of globalization are unevenly experienced" (Held et al., 1999, p. 28, as cited in Tikly, 2010, p. 156). We are left to parse the inequality that represents the fact that we are not all the same and the inequality that represents inequities "in the distribution of possibilities and privileges" (David, 2007, p. 687). Such parsing can only begin to occur if we endeavor to understand the lives of international students. More to the point, change will only occur through the cumulative effects of individual students bringing their motivations and experiences to bear on their interactions with the environments in which they live and study (Gu et al., 2009).

The Importance of Quality Marketing

Markets and Marketing

There are many ways to foster an ecosystem that helps positive interactions with environments and systems to emerge. We propose that a primary approach should be quality marketing. We return to marketing in Chapter 4, but for this proposal not to seem like a simplistic pivot away from our supposed emphasis on the experiences of international students, it is necessary to address some misconceptions about markets, competition, and marketing. Marketing is frequently done poorly or not at all precisely because of these misconceptions. These same misconceptions also lead directly and indirectly to preoccupations with profit and publishing, instead of paying closer attention to the international students themselves. As we can gather from the complexity so far described, international education is not a "straightforward" effect of globalization (Matthews & Lawley, 2011, p. 691), nor is the shift from the conception of internationalization in terms of cooperation and exchange to myopic and acquisitive recruitment (Gu et al., 2009) a straightforward effect of the new markets that make the rise of international student enrollment possible. It is essential to accept the appreciation of complexity and lack of determinism inherent in this assertion if marketing is going to be any good for understanding and improving the experiences of international students. After all, at the most basic level, marketing is "a business discipline about markets" (Chernev, 2014, p. 15). But what is a market?

"Market" can legitimately mean many things, but when it comes to international students it would appear that too frequently the word's use is to refer to people who could and might pay tuition abroad. However useful this sense of the word may be in certain contexts, it is an impoverished sense that does not go far in helping us to understand international students. It is easy to be cynical and suspicious of marketing because marketing is confused with the tactics of the myopic and acquisitive decision-makers who focus on recruitment primarily as a way to make a profit. In fact, the purpose of marketing is not to make a profit. The marketer of a university who is actually doing sales might think, "I need to penetrate this market, win the war for attention, and persuade people to come to my university." What is missing from this plan is any mention of the international students the university is supposedly serving. What is sometimes called "marketing to international students" is really selling to them—that is, persuading them toward enrollment—whereas marketing would be bending and designing the educational experience toward the mind of prospective students through learning about their needs. We can better carve out what is important and meaningful about international students if we give the terms "market" and "marketing" some more responsibility.

One useful description of a market is one that helps marketers do their jobs well. For instance, a market is "a set of actual or potential customers for a given set of products or services who have a common set of needs or wants, and who [might] reference each other when making a buying decision" (Moore, 2014, p. 35). We can understand these needs more generally from an economic perspective. The dynamic, emergent state of a market is brought about by the value judgments of individuals and the actions those value judgments inspire. It is always human actions that bring about a market process where each market phenomenon always traces back to the choices of the market society's members. When an instantiation of this theoretical model of the entire system of production and exchange "displays its own concrete accidental features that reflect its place, time, and members" it is a "marketplace" (Otteson, 2002, pp. 182, 284). Some key concepts here are "value judgments," "choices," and the importance of culture and context, concepts entirely absent from the combative sales-oriented perspective above. These are concepts that good economists keep in mind as they go about their studies of human action, that is, purposeful behavior, and also concepts that good marketers keep in mind as they engage in a process that defines markets in terms of needs; quantifies the needs of different kinds of customers; puts together value propositions to meet those needs; helps to deliver those value propositions; and monitors the value actually delivered (De Chernatony, McDonald, & Wallace, 2013, pp. 4–5). The repetition here of "needs" and "value" is crucial to understanding marketing, and the difference between marketing and sales. Part of what is involved in seeking to serve the needs of international students is striving to understand the purposes, plans, and experiences of individuals instead of broadcasting to sets of demographically constructed aggregates.

If economists want to expand their purview beyond how chosen ends could be achieved to some value judgment about the choice of the ends themselves, they must defend those value judgments with rational argumentation supplementary to their economic findings. Likewise, when marketers decide the purposes of their market research and what is done with their findings, questions of value in every sense of the word should be persistently considered. This is because, ultimately, "marketing is a value-creation process" (Chernev, 2014, p. 15). Our argumentation will be based on a host of qualitative and quantitative research and what these recommendations will require is quality marketing. Since we are not economists we are not limited to delineating value in terms of human action alone, so psychological factors, for instance, will factor into our conception of the marketplaces and members we mean to elucidate. This kind of economic set of eyeglasses affords the theoretical exposure we need to venture forth toward a deep, often qualitative understanding of international students upon which our recommendations can be rationally defended. We feel that our chosen pragmatic, unscientific definition of a market from the marketer's perspective derives its legitimacy, in part, through its extension from a branch of social science that specializes in markets instead of merely adopting the custom of business schools more focused on finance and winning zero-sum games.

Competition

Misunderstanding markets and marketing often goes hand in hand with misunderstanding what competition is in the market economy. Unfortunately, these misunderstandings are held by many people in marketing positions, which confounds the situation further for everyone when they call what they do marketing. Correspondingly, their bosses—for our purposes the university administrators who have decided to slavishly copy developments and policies in another country without "paying attention to the local contextual factors that might affect implementation" (Deem et al., 2008, p. 94)—do not understand what it means to successfully compete in a market economy. Competition in this social sense, "catallactic competition," "does not mean that anybody can prosper simply by imitating what other people do" (Mises, 1998, p. 276). Catallactic competition does not mean combat; it is not a beauty contest or prize fight (Mises, 1998, p. 276). It is the opportunity to serve consumers through an increase in quality or a decrease in cost "without being restrained by the privileges granted to those whose vested interests the innovation hurts," thereby engendering a "harmony of interests" (Mises, 1998, pp. 276, 669). Unfortunately, this harmony has not yet come about because the interests of international students are inadequately understood and insufficiently considered within higher education institutions that trade such considerations for short-sighted growth strategies. The vested interests of the administrators who subscribe to the standardization of the developments and policies that will help their rankings and sales fetter the catallactic competition that would accompany better marketing and a higher-quality education for a more diverse group of students.

An Imperative to Serve the Needs of International Students

In summary, just as catallactic competition is not combat, marketing is not sales and markets are not preexisting arenas of exchange. The combative beauty pageant conception of competition distorts and even ignores the difference between selling and marketing. It is only through this exclusively combative conception of competition that administrators end up "competing" on sales at the expense of discovering and serving needs. We believe that most marketers who do not market well are not bad people and are often unaware of just how much more of service they could be to people, and are likewise unaware of just how much long-term equity they hamper by concentrating on sales at the expense of the much broader activities of marketing of which sales is a small part. Quality marketing is hard work and requires what can be painful self-reflection. Perhaps the best way to overcome this hurdle is an emphasis on marketing's imperative to serve needs so that the endeavor to improve is inseparable from caring about others one has made a promise to serve. Put another way, wanting to understand the value judgments, plans, purposes, choices, culture, and context of individuals who compose a market is implicit in the good marketer's desire to serve the needs of those individuals. Since important dimensions of marketing involve problem solving and striving to alleviate pain points through an understanding of what people value and are fulfilled by (Wind & Hays, 2016), the practice, done properly for international students, provides a way of integrating concern for the negative and the positive events in their lives. As we will show, to help bring about better experiences for international students, each opportunity for institutional improvement should be regarded as a marketing opportunity. As a value-creation process (Chernev, 2014) far larger in its scope than selling, quality marketing is more than making competitive promises; it is also the process by which those promises are kept.

Digging Deeper: The Appeal of and for International Students

The Talent Pool

Whether understood as catallactic or combative, the appeal of international students implicit in the competition surrounding their increased presence on college campuses is well founded. Not only can a host country such as the United States acquire over $20 billion per year from tuition payments and living expenses such as textbooks, clothing, and food (Hegarty, 2014; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013), international students also provide a uniquely strong talent pool corresponding to diverse and wide-ranging perspectives that inform diverse academic and cultural contributions (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013; Smith & Khawaja, 2011). For instance, in the United States, even though in 2008 Chelleraj, Maskus, and Aaditya (2014) estimated that only 15% of the 65,000 H1-B visa recipients who were permitted to remain in the country and work for six years actually remained long-term, international students are regarded as highly important to US innovation where a "10% increase in international graduate students correlates to a 4.5% increase in patent applications" (Chelleraj et al., 2014, cited in Hegarty, 2014, pp. 226, 231). Moreover, the diversity of thought that a greater number of international students bring to universities enhances the "personality" (Hegarty, 2014, p. 225) of these institutions in ways that can be concretely identified within the support they provide for:

- the developmental goals of higher education;
- the intellectual and social goals of internationalization; and
- the strong evidence of the educational benefits of international interaction (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013, pp. 97, 99).

Emergent from these interactions is the enrichment of students, the enrichment of campus culture, and the enrichment of the intellectual life that has characterized quality education since its inception (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013).

Diversity

Diverse encounters can have a wide range of enriching effects outside of higher education as well as within: the biodiversity and cultural capital, flexibility, and resilience of indigenous people who live at the edge of two interacting ecosystems (Turner, Davidson-Hunt, & O'Flaherty, 2003); more highly cited papers produced by collaborators with a greater ethnic mix (Freeman & Huang, 2015); extra entrepreneurship and the creation of new practices in the professional fields of former visa holders who keep in touch with friends from host countries; and increased creativity, workplace innovation, and entrepreneurship among intercultural friends and romantic couples (Lu et al., 2017).

Personal Development

International and host students report similar enriching effects both while they are at university and also further along their life journeys. Students exchange a greater range of information and ideas, come to understand each other's cultures better and develop new perspectives, increased empathy, improved cognitive skills, and eventually networks that translate into support in the future (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013). In their analysis of alumni survey data from four US universities, Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2013) found "significantly higher levels of skill development" in nine areas:

- reading or speaking a foreign language;
- relating well to people of different races, nations, or religions;
- acquiring new skills and knowledge independently;
- formulating creative or original ideas or solutions;
- synthesizing and integrating ideas and information;
- achieving quantitative abilities;
- understanding the role of science and technology in society;
- using computers; and
- gaining in-depth knowledge of a field (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013, p. 91).

Even the attitudes of US students' family and friends toward international students were found to improve given ongoing interaction (Luo &

Jamieson-Drake, 2013). One of the deepest effects among highly interactive students in comparison with their less interactive peers was a greater propensity to question and challenge their beliefs and values, including those regarding politics, religion, ethnicity, and sexual orientation (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013). It is true that the cultural, social, political, and economical sensitivities and skills as well as friendships that domestic students develop through interaction with their international peers are a "competitive advantage" in an increasingly globalized world (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013, p. 87; see also Montgomery, 2010) as much as it is true that they make domestic students better people.

In a similar vein, international students share with other university students the frequent sense that their experiences at university represent "a further step on a journey of self-discovery" where flourishing is part of a process oriented by self-reliance, facilitated by learning new skills, and characterized by the precipitation of new identities in various contexts as well as a more meaningful sense of self that can span those contexts (Gu et al., 2009, p. 18). The particulars of international students make them an interesting and important research topic, in part because the processes involved with their experiences "are more complex and challenging, since they must also adapt to new and sometimes threatening norms of behavior, languages and academic pedagogies on a number of personal, social and emotional levels" (Gu et al., 2009, pp. 18–19). As Hackett (2014b) points out, "negative events in students' lives are of greater concern to faculty, college administrators and students than positive experiences" (p. 165). Yet, for this concern to be useful to the students and reflective of the fullness of their experiences, it must extend from knowledge of positive experiences as well. As it turns out, reality is replete with these positive experiences and we need not downplay the pain and the work to be done by drawing attention to the positive experiences as well. For the rising number of individuals who pursue their educations abroad, as far as they are concerned, the perceived benefits outweigh the costs before and after they make their decision to leave their home country (Hegarty, 2014). Endeavoring to understand what is working is ultimately humanizing and a step toward positive change, since what is positive about the change will not be merely the absence of difficulties (Nagarjuna, 2016).

Cross-Cultural Values

Notwithstanding that not enough of the right promises are currently being made, many international students already feel that through their efforts some of what is promised by studying abroad is fulfilled (Gu et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010), given its positive influences on professional and personal development (Smith & Curry, 2011). Research has repeatedly described intercultural journeys of self-discovery as transformative and full of growth and development (Gu et al., 2009). An improved understanding of the host culture can accompany more appreciation of home cultural values, though these improved perceptions are transcended by benefits, the depth of which is reported by the native US alumni surveyed by Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2013), Gu et al. (2009). In Gu et al.'s (2009) survey of international students at universities in the United Kingdom, high percentages of respondents reported:

- becoming more accepting of people with different attitudes and values (70%);
- gaining more personal independence (67%);
- having broadened life experiences and interests (56%); and
- having improved interpersonal and communication skills (41%) (Gu et al., 2009, pp. 16–17).

These percentages may have become even higher over time due to the deepening of reflection throughout adulthood.

Sherry et al. (2010) describe similar learning and developmental experiences involving new ways of thinking and behaving, new friends, improved cross-cultural knowledge and skills (Andrade, 2006), as well as new outlooks, improvements in self-esteem, maturity, independence, and confidence (Sherry et al., 2010, p. 33). Montgomery (2010) explains that the positive experiences of international students are connected to the personal and valid meanings with which they are able to imbue their learning and bring about cross-cultural value (Hackett, 2014b). The cross-cultural value is apparent before enrollment as well: as Hegarty (2014) explains, it is, in part, "because of the quality of domestic students that international students are attracted to U.S. universities" (p. 226). Perhaps most generally relevant to successful self-discovery, the Chinese and Vietnamese international students researched by Tran (2011) were shown to take steps in their journeys by "making meaning" of their experiences as a way to adapt to their new environments (Hackett, 2014b, p. 165).

Meeting the Challenges

Individual Agency

The prevalence of adaptation through personal meaning making is consistent with Kim's (2005) emphasis on self-expression when fulfilling social needs as international students experience the otherness that accompanies not necessarily sharing the values and beliefs of natives. Gu et al. (2009) summarize well the "'richness and fragmentation' (Kim, 2005, p. 376)" that comes to characterize intercultural adaptation: "processes in which international students are engaged in continuous negotiation and mediation with the surrounding environment, self-analysis of their values and beliefs, self-reflection, and self-orientation" (Gu et al., 2009, pp. 6–7). Therefore, a path to understanding the experiences of international students includes a focus on individual agency. In their mixed method research project that investigated the experiences of undergraduate students from outside the UK at four UK universities, Gu et al. (2009) found that when students were considered as active agents and participants it became clear that instead of reacting to influences, it was the way in which students managed the interactions *between* influences that brought out the nature of their positive and negative intercultural experiences. The majority of these students met challenges with the resilience of people who found agency "in their process of self-determined and purposeful strategic adaptation," inclusive of changes, developments, and achievements (Gu et al., 2009, pp. 18, 19). Discovery and transformation are never a matter of course, and these students were particularly aware of the ways they could contribute to their own development. This is, in part, why life changes do not predict psychological adaptation (Smith & Khawaja, 2011) even as research shows positive moderate correlations between the acculturative life changes of international students and a proportion of their psychological distress (Searle & Ward, 1990): different individuals appraise different life changes differently.

Person- and Variable-Focused Approaches

Gu et al.'s (2009) perspective that emphasizes that the research subject is composed of individual agents is akin to Russell et al.'s (2010) "person-focused approach" (p. 237), where, at a university in Melbourne, Australia the pattern of responses to challenges of 979 international students' was identified based on the pattern's similarity and difference from others. Only afterwards was a "variable-focused approach" used to investigate associations between demographic variables, although no strong association between the demographic variables chosen for study and patterns of well-being was found (Russell et al., 2010, pp. 237, 246, 247). It would appear that even as intercultural competence is moderated by the environment (Gu et al., 2009), specific situations have far less to do with perceptions of well-being than the "within-person variables" of specific people, that is, "personality, goal structure and adaptive coping strategies" (Russell et al., 2010, pp. 247–248). Likewise, it is how individuals appraise and cope with acculturative stressors that make the impact of these stressors variable (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). What is more, Russell et al. (2010) found that the majority of the students surveyed exhibited "a constructive and positive sense of self within their host environment" and maintained this sense of self despite challenges, the stress of which is sometimes too readily described as symptoms that "need to be considered within a framework of psychopathology and mental illness" (p. 246). Perhaps the particular university that Russell et al. researched attracts exceptionally well-adjusted students who are exceptionally well supported by the university, yet it makes sense to expect any individual international student to be exceptionally well motivated given that each has sufficient "inner resources" to set out on a complex journey outside their comfort zone (Russell et al., 2010, p. 246). Even the two clusters of students who were found to have less positive ways of adapting to their experiences (41.2% of the total students surveyed) could not be considered extremely maladaptive: they shared experiences of stress and disconnection with the most adaptive cluster and but their "elevated levels of depression, anxiety and stress… [could not be] characterised by pathological levels of psychological distress" (Russell et al., 2010, p. 246).

Acculturative Stress

The depression among international students associated with acculturative stress (Smith & Khawaja, 2011) needs to be taken seriously without its existence distracting from the success with which international students tend to adapt, flourish, and discover themselves. As we describe the many and often unique challenges of being an international student, we want to keep in mind that it is possible to be "a vulnerable student population" (Sherry et al., 2010, p. 33) that needs close attention to their experiences and needs without being "a high-risk group" (Russell et al., 2010, pp. 242, 246) infantilized with their agency eclipsed by the impression they exist “on the whole” at the edge of sanity.

With so many apparent challenges facing international students, research into positive coping among international students may be limited because the positive approaches are subtle and do not fix problems in a direct way—for instance, Ward, Okura, Kennedy, and Kojima (1998) found that international students in Singapore who used acceptance and reinterpretation as coping mechanisms tended to have less perceived stress and depressive symptoms (Smith & Khawaja, 2011)—yet strategies for maintaining positive well-being also appear to correspond with challenges in not so subtle ways: “knowing themselves and others, building relationships, expanding their worldview, asking for help, developing cultural and social contacts, establishing relationships with advisors and instructors, English proficiency, and letting go of problems (Tseng & Newton, 2002)” (Olivas & Li, 2006, p. 219). While humor and self-compassion are subtle, a coping strategy such as seeking assistance is closely related to the “maladaptive coping” that receives so much more attention in the literature (Smith & Khawaja, 2011, p. 705). If researchers can repeatedly find that “the population of students they surveyed were confident in their abilities, experienced overall satisfaction and utilized the services available to them on their campuses” (Olivas & Li, 2006, p. 219) it may be fruitful to discover through studies that can be readily compared to one another what these students and institutions are doing correctly. After all, there is a lot for international students to cope with as they face a wide range of challenges, some “exclusive to them (as opposed to native students)” (Furnham, 2004, p. 17, as cited in Gu et al., 2009, p. 15). Challenges unique to international students that are mentioned repeatedly in the literature are directly related to other unique and associated processes of managing transitions, acculturation, and coping. International students appear to face more difficulties transitioning to college (Olivas & Li, 2006), made apparent if their acculturative stress (Smith & Khawaja, 2011) interferes with their coping strategies (Hackett, 2014b). Part of what makes transition difficult might relate to the availability of resources, academic differences, language, and cultural barriers, as well as alienation and social exclusion (Sherry et al., 2010). Though there are discrepancies in the literature regarding the magnitude of various issues, there is also much agreement (Olivas & Li, 2006; see also Hackett, 2014b; Hegarty, 2014; Lee, 2010; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2013; Sherry et al., 2010; Smith & Khawaja, 2011; Yakunina et al., 2013).

Mismatch in Expectations

A consistent theme among the challenges of international students in the literature is a mismatch or lack of coordination in expectations. For instance, Sherry et al. (2004) found international students when compared to native students had "lower perceptions of services offered by their educational institutions" and Khawaja and Dempsey (2008) pointed out in a verifying study that the mismatch of expectations was "associated with poorer adaptation and increased depression levels" (both cited in Smith & Khawaja, 2011, p. 703).

Financial. These disappointments and frustrations about services may be related to higher tuition fees as well as lack of scholarships and paying work opportunities in addition to hassles like obtaining a visa (Hegarty, 2014), all of which contribute to the general financial problems international students tend to have (Olivas & Li, 2006; Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007; Smith & Khawaja, 2011). Such concerns are sometimes at the top of students' minds: Gu et al. (2009) found that before arriving in the UK, financial problems were what most respondents (61%) were most worried about, and financial problems remained the dominant concern three months into their undergraduate study (59%) (p. 11). The results of resource challenges can be merely frustrating, but also catastrophic, with relatively small frustrations accumulating to form a barrage of inconveniences, hard work, and frightening prospects. In Sherry et al.'s (2010) survey of international students at a university in the United States, 58.2% of respondents indicated that they had financial problems, with one student from Sri Lanka describing many of the factors these problems entail:

> Number one is the University fees. We pay more than $9,000, and the others [native students] less than $4000. … I haven't even gone once to the med-center. We can't get a cheap health insurance from any other place. … If the GPA go [sic] down below 2.0, we can't work. And we don't have any other income, except for the money sent from Sri Lanka for college fees. Can't get a social security number without working. Can't get electricity connection, or Internet without a SSN, and have to go to the legal services to get an affidavit. … No real program to help students find a job, or see if they are doing ok, do they have financial trouble, help how to pay the past bills. … One of my friends had to go back to Sri Lanka because she could not pay a past bill, and she was on the last semester. (Sherry et al., 2010, p. 40)

Often international student status is accompanied by a morass of draining and interconnected financial inconveniences, puzzles, and threats. In so far as money represents choices and freedom international students can end up hampered in ways beyond their control at precisely the time they are expected to excel and expand their horizons.

Academic. Academic challenges represent another area where a mismatch of expectations feeds into other concerns of international students that are complicated by acculturation (Sherry et al., 2010) and exacerbated, in part, by the pressure from themselves and family to perform well, given risks such as the high expense of tuition (Hegarty, 2014; Russell et al., 2010). This can be especially true among those who struggle to engage "a positive, connected style of adaptation" (Russell et al., 2010, p. 245). Fortunately, these students were the minority among those surveyed by Russell et al. (2010), consistent with the results of Gu et al.'s (2009) follow-up survey where the large majority reported that they had become more:

- organized in managing their time for studies;
- committed to their course of study;
- confident about using a greater range of study skills;
- comfortable in small-group discussion; and
- confident about managing independent studies (Gu et al., 2009, p. 16).

As academic confidence increases over time, the mismatch in expectations wanes. However, at first, worries can more readily arise in relation to, for instance, adapting to new teaching styles (Smith & Khawaja, 2011), where professors' expectations and the ease in which relationships can be established present unexpected challenges (Gu et al., 2009). More specifically, when students from countries used to focus on rote learning and more passive participation are confronted with a focus on critical thinking and interaction, adjustment can be particularly difficult (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). Similar observations have been made about transitioning from classrooms that emphasize reading skills to those involving conversational skills (Sherry et al., 2010). Eventually these new approaches can be felt to be beneficial for their learning (Gu et al., 2009; Smith & Khawaja; 2011), but upon arrival speaking up in class and the potential embarrassment involved is sometimes a particularly jarring concern for international students given the relatively less anticipated degree to which the issue was expected to become a concern before arriving at college (Gu et al., 2009).

Language. Issues involving language proficiency can contribute considerably to international students' academic challenges (Russell et al., 2010; Smith & Khawaja, 2011) in conjunction with social challenges (Andrade, 2006; Olivas & Li, 2006; Walsh, 2010), leading Yeh and Inose (2003) to suggest that "a lack of English proficiency may be the single greatest barrier experienced by international students" (cited in Sherry et al., 2010, p. 34). Being especially unique to international students, it is noteworthy that language concerns exist even among some students who are satisfied with their experiences (Huang, 2008). Since anxieties associated with needing to communicate in a second language can affect academic and sociocultural domains in intertwined ways, the stressors build on each other (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). The impacts include "assignment writing, understanding lectures, oral and written examinations, and the ability to ask questions in class" (Smith & Khawaja, 2011, p. 702). The jarring nature of this last impact may have been particularly pronounced in Gu et al.'s (2009) findings because of its social dimension, which may also help explain why the international students interviewed by Sherry et al. (2010) emphasized their concerns about spoken language so much more than concerns about written language. Difficulties with spoken language would be more likely at play when getting in the way of adjustment associated with making friends and interacting with locals (Matthews & Lawley, 2011), where, on the other end of the spectrum, self-esteem is developed, in part, through the interrelations language proficiency makes possible.

In general, self-concept and self-efficacy are associated with language proficiency (Olivas & Li, 2006) so it is not surprising to see a prevalent connection in the literature between language proficiency and adjustment and acculturative stress (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). It is difficult to engage in a successful acculturative coping strategy such as seeking help when there are barriers to social interactions that are, in turn, barriers to gaining knowledge in general (Olivas & Li, 2006). Even a more subtle coping strategy such as humor can be made more difficult if communication has not been mastered, exposing difficulty with "'hidden' societal and cultural values and norms," a point made salient by one of Gu et al.'s (2009) respondents, Tristan from Trinidad:

> I was sort of expecting… well coming from a background where I was being exposed to American culture and I thought that British culture and American culture were the same thing and I didn't realise that they weren't so similar. Just minor things like humour basically—I don't get British humour that much. (Gu et al., 2009, p. 13)

Discrimination, exclusion, and isolation. Issues surrounding language proficiency also make salient further dark and disturbing difficulties that international students face. Frequently, international students regard their experiences of social isolation as directly connected with English-language deficiencies, reporting, for instance, that other people "don't even bother to listen you due to an accent" (Sherry et al., 2010, p. 44). Language, discrimination, exclusion, and isolation can form a mire of pain and frustration.

Discrimination. Discrimination against international students is an important component of their experiences (Hackett, 2014b; see also Lee, 2007) that has a particularly potent way of interfering with cultural adjustment, especially initially (Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007), as well as negatively impacting their education in general (Hackett, 2014b; Karuppan & Barari, 2011). While it is in one sense positive that Karuppan and Barari (2011) discovered dampened discrimination among international students perceived to have good English-language skills (Koval et al., 2016), it is not heartening. Discrimination and racism are large, looming environmental problems in a host community and we do not want a preoccupation with the personal characteristics of international students to overshadow the attention they deserve (Sherry et al., 2010).

Exclusion and isolation. Having frequently left their previous social networks behind, the importance of connecting with others is made especially obvious among college students and even more apparent in international students when friends and family are very far away and language barriers and cultural norms encumber the process of making friends (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). The results can be loneliness and isolation, especially upon first arriving (Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland, & Ramia, 2008), even among international students who experience "few" or "little" difficulties with their cultural acclimatization (Sherry et al., 2010, p. 42). Almost half the respondents to both of Gu et al.'s (2009) surveys (49 and 48%) were at least "unhappy with their social life" and reported feeling lonely (about 32%) in the UK (p. 15), indicating that among a large minority these experiences can last over time. Doris, a student from Cameroon, described to Gu et al. (2009) a powerlessness and loss of control that other international students have described in relation to the special strain of homesickness experienced by students who have left lives in other countries:

> Back home I had a career and a future. I was in control of my own life, but I've lost track of that now.... Here I'm virtually powerless.... Sometimes I miss "home." (Gu et al., 2009, p. 15)

Jiayi, a student from China, provided a complementary impression of the effects of feeling powerlessness in relation to being a relatively unconnected immigrant:

> I enjoy my study life but my personal life is kind of boring.... I just felt that I didn't belong here. It's not my place. I'm the guest and the guest is always less powerful. (Gu et al., 2009, p. 15)

The loneliness associated with a lack of social networks and friends can tie in with the lack of familiar norms and elements that compose familiar cultural environments (Sawir et al., 2008; Sherry et al., 2010). There are many ways to communicate across cultures and therefore many potential problems (Frey & Roysircar, 2006; Hackett, 2014b). Varieties of acculturative stress, depression, and anxiety appear to have a consistent association with lack of social support (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). For instance, although not the majority, students studied by Russell et al. (2010) who were the most isolated and unconnected were also the most stressed. A student from India surveyed by Sherry et al. (2010) pointed out the extra work she faced despite her English proficiency:

> Too much difficulty. Although I speak and understand English, I went through this period where I had to learn about everything. I felt left out and lonely (seriously lonely) before I made friends. (Sherry et al., p. 38)

Coping Strategies and Support Networks

Coping Strategies

More important to whether an acculturative stressor becomes acculturative stress are the accompanying coping strategies (Berry, 1997; Smith & Khawaja, 2011), as they relate to the "intercultural competence—attitude, knowledge, skills and critical cultural awareness" that exists in a dynamic feedback loop of influence between other people, all the while moderated by each individual's environment (Gu et al., 2009, p. 7). Students' societal and educational environments, as well as factors such as the degree to which they have proactive, positive attitudes toward the host country (Gu et al., 2009), reflect the importance of general issues such as acculturation and coping, along with more specific interrelated issues such as availability of resources, academic performance, language use, discrimination, and connection. For instance, "natural support systems" made up of friends and family are important precisely because they exist within the context of the individual student's "cognitive, behavioral and emotional strategies" (Olivas & Li, 2006, p. 221). Such support and strategies, as well as dimensions of personality, can contribute to well-being even independent of changes in social learning over time (Russell et al., 2010). At the same time, maturity and interculturality grow together as an ecosystem of environments, cultures, and society is irrigated by "improved knowledge, awareness, skills and attitudes" from which increasingly functional experiences emerge. Acculturation can be a useful way to think of the interacting elements of this ecosystem since it is "the *dual process* of cultural and psychological change that takes place as a result of contact between two or more cultural groups and their individual members" (Berry, 2005, p. 698, as cited in Smith & Khawaja, 2011, p. 701; emphasis added). The co-occurrence of acculturation "on an individual level (psychological acculturation) and on a group level (cultural acculturation)" (Smith & Khawaja, 2011, p. 701) helps to explain why the development of an international student's identity has such a positive effect on native students as well as the university and country's culture. Ultimately, the processes by which international students develop their new identities are complex and variable so it is important that the patterns that arise from the research are not ascribed in simplistic ways.

The Importance of Support Networks

Eventually, many international students cope with their loneliness by turning to social networks, social support, and forming friendships: in Sawir et al.'s (2008) study of Australian international students, 88% engaged in such coping—54% citing friends in Australia and 34% citing family and relatives in their countries of origin (cited in Smith & Khawaja, 2011, p. 707). About half of Sherry et al.'s (2010) respondents reported a lower percentage and that their friends were mainly limited to other international students and, while limited in one sense, these friendships with co-nationals do appear to be important to psychological and sociological adjustment—for instance, effective at helping to avoid acculturative stress and enhancing adaptation (Berry, 1997; Smith & Khawaja, 2011), as well as to identify with their own culture and that of the university (Sherry et al., 2010; Smith & Khawaja, 2011).

Making friends with host nationals may be an even more effective way to reduce loneliness (Sawir et al., 2008; Smith & Khawaja, 2011), aid adjustment (Smith & Khawaja, 2011) and can lead to engaging in leisure activities beyond the "bubble" (Gu et al., 2009, p. 14) of the university (Smith & Khawaja, 2011).

Other potential sources of support cited by Sherry et al.'s (2010) respondents included local family, social organizations such as a tennis club, religious organizations such as a bible study group, and host families (pp. 40, 42). Connection—with friends, professors, and others through programs such as the Writing Center—contributed to a university experience that was overall deemed "overwhelmingly positive" (Sherry et al., 2010, p. 45). The fact that international students have such a deep understanding of their experiences and capacity to connect in spite of the cloudiness presented by cultural disconnects is a testament to how much there is to learn from their experiences and their descriptions of those experiences.

Conclusion

We have seen in this chapter only glimmers of what is clearly a multifaceted subject, but part of what keeps the future of this research bright is that these glimmers can potentially be brought out in a systematized fashion that allows for the kind of future constructive interference that will allow research findings to be directly comparable. These kinds of comparisons are relatively rare because the use of different research methods makes it difficult to compare the findings of the many researchers who address the experiences and interrelated issues associated with student mobility (Koval et al., 2016).

Reflecting the dynamic feedback loop of facet theory (see Appendix A), we begin and end this chapter with reference to the illumination made possible by ascribing to its methodology and worldview. It is, of course, possible to make valuable inferences without the rigor of facet theory, and this has much to do with why mapping sentences are scarce in academic papers. Facet theory, like good marketing, is primarily concerned with long-term value creation. Accordingly, part of the purpose of pointing out correspondences is to suggest that systematic, comparable research into the experiences of international students and the resulting insights can provide emergent insights into other processes. Perhaps the university staff that together manage to improve the experiences of thousands of students will discover techniques that could someday help inspire others to improve the experiences of millions.

References

Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education, 5*(2), 131–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240906065589.

Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration, acculturation, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology, 46,* 5–34. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.1997.tb01087.x.

Børing, P., Flanagan, K., Gagliardi, D., Kaloudis, A., & Karakasidou, A. (2015). International mobility: Findings from a survey of researchers in the EU. *Science and Public Policy, 42,* 811–826. https://doi.org/10.1093/scipol/scv006.

Boudreaux, D. J. (2008). *Globalization*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Canter, D. (Ed.). (1985). *Facet theory: Approaches to social research.* New York, NY: Springer.

Chernev, A. (2014). *The marketing plan handbook*. Chicago, IL: Cerebellum.

David, M. (2007). Equity and diversity: Towards a sociology of higher education for the twenty-first century? *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 28*(5), 675–690. https://doi.org/10.1080/01425690701505664.

De Chernatony, L., McDonald, M., & Wallace, E. (2013). *Creating powerful brands* (3rd ed.). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

Deem, R., Mokb, K. H., & Lucas, L. (2008). Transforming higher education in whose image? Exploring the concept of the "world-class" university in Europe and Asia. *Higher Education Policy, 21,* 83–97. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.hep.8300179.

Elizur, D. (1984). Facets of work values: A structural analysis of work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(3), 379–389. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.379.

Freeman, R. B., & Huang, W. (2015). Collaborating with people like me: Ethnic co-authorship within the US. *Journal of Labor Economics, 33*(1), 289–318. https://doi.org/10.1086/678973.

Frey, L. L., & Roysircar, G. (2006). South Asian and East Asian international students' perceived prejudice, acculturation, and frequency of help resource utilization. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 34,* 208–222. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2006.tb00040.x.

Furnham, A. (2004). Foreign students—Education and culture shock. *The Psychologist, 17*(1), 16–19. https://thepsychologist.bps.org.uk/volume-17/edition-1/foreign-students-education-and-culture-shock.

Gu, Q., Schweisfurth, M., & Day, C. (2009). Learning personal growth in a "foreign" context: Intercultural experiences of international students. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and Intercultural Education, 49*(1), 7–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057920903115983.

Guttman, L. (1954). Some necessary conditions for common-factor analysis. *Psychometrika, 19*(2), 149–161. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02289162.

Guttman, L. (1957). Introduction to facet design and analysis. In *Proceedings of the Fifth International Congress of Psychology*. Amsterdam: North-Holland.

Guttman, L. (1968). A general nonmetric technique for finding the smallest coordinate space for a configuration of points. *Psychometrika, 33*(4), 469–506. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02290164.

Guttman, L. (1982). Facet theory, smallest space analysis, and factor analysis. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 54*(2), 491–493. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/003151258205400201.

Hackett, P. M. W. (2014a). *Facet theory and the mapping sentence: Evolving philosophy, use and application*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hackett, P. M. W. (2014b). A facet theory model for integrating contextual and personal experiences of international students. *Journal of International Students, 4*(2), 163–176. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259461191_A_Facet_Theory_Model_for_Integrating_Contextual_and_Personal_Experiences_of_International_Students/citation/download.

Hackett, P. M. W. (2018). Declarative mapping sentence mereologies: Categories from Aristotle to Lowe. In P. M. W. Hackett (Ed.), *Mereologies, ontologies, and facets: The categorial structure of reality*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Publishers.

Hegarty, N. (2014). Where we are now—The presence and importance of international students to universities in the United States. *Journal of International Students, 4*(3), 223–235. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1054975.pdf.

Huang, R. (2008). Mapping educational tourists' experience in the UK: Understanding international students. *Third World Quarterly, 29*(5), 1003–1020. https://doi.org/10.1080/01436590802106247.

Karuppan, C. M., & Barari, M. (2011). Perceived discrimination and international students' learning: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 33*(1), 67–83. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2011.537013.

Kim, M. S. (2005). Culture-based conversational constraints theory: Individual and cultural-level analyses. In W. B. Gudykunst (Ed.), *Theorizing about intercultural communication* (pp. 93–118). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Knight, J. (1999). Internationalization of higher education. In OECD (Ed.), *Quality and internationalisation in higher education*. Paris: OECD Publishing.

Koval, E., Hackett, P. M. W., & Schwarzenbach, J. (2016). A mapping sentence mereology for understanding the mobility of international students. In K. Bista & K. Foster (Eds.), *Global perspectives and local challenges surrounding international student mobility* (pp. 53–67). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Lee, J. J. (2007). Welcome to America? International student perceptions of discrimination. *Higher Education, 53*(3), 381–409. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-005-4508-3.

Lee, J. J. (2010). International students' experiences and attitudes at a US host institution: Self-reports and future recommendations. *Journal of Research in International Education, 3*(2), 85–101. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240909356382.

Levy, S. (2005). Guttman, Louis. In K. Kempf-Leonard (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of social measurement* (Vol. 2, pp. 175–188). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Lu, J. G., Hafenbrack, A. C., Eastwick, P. W., Wang, D. J., Maddux, W. W., & Galinksy, A. D. (2017). "Going out" of the box: Close intercultural friendships and romantic relationships spark creativity, workplace innovation, and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(7), 1091–1108. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000212.

Luo, J., & Jamieson-Drake, D. (2013). Examining the educational benefits of interacting with international students. *Journal of International Students, 3*(2), 85–101.

Matthews, J., & Lawley, M. (2011). Student satisfaction, teacher internships, and the case for a critical approach to international education. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 32*(5), 687–698. https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2011.620752.

von Mises, L. (1998). *Human action: A treatise on economics*. Auburn, AL: Ludwig Von Mises Institute.

Montgomery, C. (2010). *Understanding the international student experience*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Moore, G. A. (2014). *Crossing the chasm: Marketing and selling disruptive products to mainstream customers*. New York, NY: Harper Business.

Nagarjuna. (2016). *The root stanzas of the middle way: The mulamadhyamakakarika*. Boulder, CO: Shambhala.

Olivas, M., & Li, C. (2006). Understanding stressors of international students: What college counselors need to know. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 33*(3), 217–222. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ764671.

Otteson, J. R. (2002). *Adam Smith's marketplace of life*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Poyrazli, S., & Grahame, K. M. (2007). Barriers to adjustment: Needs of international students within a semi-urban campus community. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 34*(1), 28–45. https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1G1-162301020/barriers-to-adjustment-needs-of-international-students.

Russell, J., Rosenthal, D., & Thomson, G. (2010). The international student experience: Three styles of adaptation. *Higher Education, 60*(2), 235–249. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9297-7.

Sanderson, G. (2008). A foundation for the internationalisation of the academic self. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 12*(3), 276–307. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307299420.

Sawir, E., Marginson, S., Deumert, A., Nyland, C., & Ramia, G. (2008). Loneliness and international students: An Australian study. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 12*(2), 148–180. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307299699.

Searle, W., & Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14*(4), 449–464. https://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(90)90030-Z.

Sherry, M., Thomas, P., & Chui, W. H. (2010). International students: A vulnerable student population. *Higher Education, 60*(1), 33–46. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9284-z.

Shkoler, O., Rabenu, E., Vasiliu, C., Sharoni, G., & Tziner, A. (2017). Organizing the confusion surrounding workaholism: New structure, measure and validation. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*, 1803. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01803.

Shye, S. (Ed.). (1978). *Theory construction and data analysis*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Smith, K., & Curry, K. (2011). Is it worth it? Measuring the long-term effects of an international experience for nursing students in Ecuador. *Journal of Community Health Nursing, 28,* 14–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370016.2011.539080.

Smith, R. A., & Khawaja, N. G. (2011). A review of the acculturation experiences of international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 35,* 699–713. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2011.08.004.

Teichler, U. (2004). The changing debate on internationalisation of higher education. *Higher Education, 48,* 5–26. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:HIGH.0000033771.69078.41.

Tikly, L. (2010). Globalisation and education in the postcolonial world: Towards a conceptual framework. *Comparative Education, 37*(2), 151–171. https://doi.org/10.1080/03050060124481.

Tran, L. T. (2011). Committed, face-value, hybrid or mutual adaptation? The experiences of international students in Australian higher education. *Educational Review, 63*(1), 79–94. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2010.510905.

Turner, N. J., Davidson-Hunt, I. J., & O'Flaherty, M. (2003). Living on the edge: Ecological and cultural edges as sources of diversity for social-ecological resilience. *Human Ecology, 31*(3), 439–461. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1025023906459.

Walsh, E. (2010). A model of research group microclimate: Environmental and cultural factors affecting the experiences of overseas research students in the UK. *Studies in Higher Education, 35*(5), 545–560. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070903243092.

Ward, C., Okura, Y., Kennedy, A., & Kojima, T. (1998). The U-Curve on trial: A longitudinal study of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transition. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 22*(3), 277–291. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9617-9.

Wind, Y., & Hays, C. F. (2016). *Beyond advertising: Creating value through all customer touchpoints.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Yakunina, E. S., Weigold, I. K., Weigold, A., Hercegovac, S., & Elsayed, N. (2013). International students' personal and multicultural strengths: Reducing acculturative stress and promoting adjustment. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 91*(2), 216–223. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2013.00088.x.

Yaniv, E. (2011). Construct clarity in theories of management and organization. *Academy of Management Review, 36*(3), 590–592. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2010.0481.

CHAPTER 3

The Reasons for International Student Mobility

Edna Rabenu and Or Shkoler

In modern times, as internationality increases, people (students, in particular) seek new experiences, advanced communication, and cultural differential skills, in tandem with personal, social, and academic development and enrichment abroad (Heublein, Hutzsch, Schreiber, & Sommer, 2011, as cited in Petersdotter, Niehoff, & Freund, 2017). The pursuit of tertiary education by students in other (foreign) countries, rather than their own, has received much interest and worldwide attention in the recent decade, following the significant increase of international students in this regard (McKenna, Robinson, Penman, & Hills, 2017).

Verbik, Lasanowski, and Lasanowski (2007) stated that the major changes in the infrastructures and capacity of higher education explain, at least, part of the growth in the number of international students. For example, there are governments that allocated more funds to improve the quantity and quality of higher education they provide, which facilitated access to intra-country and inter-country higher education (e.g., Beine, Noël, & Ragot, 2014; Nathan, 2017). This trend parallels the increase in household levels of wealth, especially in economically developing countries, which, in turn, enabled more students to pay tuition fees abroad (Verbik et al., 2007). Additionally:

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5_3

> the growing awareness of students and the fact that they have become more discriminating and demanding in their choice of destination country and institution sheds light on the importance of understanding what the prospective international student's desires and expectations are. (Nafari, Arab, & Ghaffari, 2017, pp. 1–2)

Hence, it is highly relevant and important to understand the reasons for international student mobility. Thus, the current chapter aims to address this issue by constructing a concrete conceptualization of those reasons.

Student Mobility as a Private Case of Migration

In order to understand the reasons and motivations for student mobility, we can learn from a broader phenomenon—*migration* (e.g., González, Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011)—which can be viewed at both the macro and the micro-levels. *Macro-level* signifies tracing large populations globally (nation, society, etc.)—for example, political situations in a particular region or state, laws and regulations in countries about immigration and emigration (e.g., the 9/11 incident in the United States, which caused immigration legislation to be severely restrictive, and has led many Muslim students to turn from the United States and learn in Malaysia, for example; Nachatar Singh, Schapper, & Jack, 2014; Sirat, 2008). *Micro-level*, on the other hand, is related to the individual's resources that characterize them (Giddens, Duneier, Appelbaum, & Carr, 2016)—for example, social capital (e.g., strong bonds with family and social support in the community) and human capital (e.g., knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivations) of each person.

Student Mobility as a Private Case of Gravity

Mobility can be viewed socio-demographically, but can also be understood by the laws of physics. Based on Newton's law of universal gravitation, a gravity model has been proposed to estimate a trade between two counties (Frankel & Rose, 2002). Later, a broader variation of this model deemed that migration between two countries can also be under the same gravity model and may explain the mobility of people from one place to another, bilaterally or unilaterally (e.g., González et al., 2011; Ramos & Suriñach, 2017).

At the core of Newton's law of universal gravitation is "the principle that two particles attract each other with forces directly proportional to the product of their masses divided by the square of the distance between them" (Collins English Dictionary, 2012). In other words, the attraction factor is *directly* proportional to their masses and *inversely* proportional to their relative distance (see also González et al., 2011). While the focus was on the size of the countries and populations (e.g., González et al., 2011; Ramos & Suriñach, 2017), "usually gravity models are enlarged with additional variables related to different pull and push factors" (Ramos & Suriñach, 2017, p. 27; see the "The Push–Pull Model of International Student Mobility" below for an elaboration).

Hence, in the "gravitational sense," attraction forces (to migrate) are based on the distance between two countries (the more distal = the less likely to migrate) and the mass of each one. Mass is regarded as physical size, population (and density), gross domestic product (GDP), potential growth, and other attractive factors associated with a particular country, which implies that the physical size of a country is not the sole attractor. The distance factor was thought to be purely geographical, but we know today that it can have varying properties, such as cultural, economic, etc. (e.g., Ahmad & Hussain, 2017; González et al., 2011). For example, Israel is physically small in relation to most countries. However, many attracting factors unique to it (e.g., Israel's leading innovational and technological culture, religious proximity for Jewish people; see Nathan, 2017) manifest as a large mass—a pulling gravitational force for international students. Israel is also a good example of where the geographical distance factor is relatively weak or non-applicable. This is because students from neighboring countries usually do not come to study there. Most of the international student population are from far-away countries (see Nathan, 2017). Furthermore, in the contemporary era, the impact of geographical-physical distance alone has been reducing, as opposed to the other "distances" (such as cultural), as we see better (and, usually, cheaper) transportation alternatives, both intra- and inter-country (e.g., Lee, 2015).

Motivation of International Students

Becoming an international student is complex and "risky" on multiple levels (e.g., Caldwell & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2016; Jackson, 1982; Kember, Ho, & Hong, 2010; Maringe & Carter, 2007), and can even be frustrating (e.g., Caldwell & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2016). If so, what motivates an individual to become an international student? In order to answer this question, we first give a definition of motivation:

> Motivation is frequently used as an umbrella term meant to capture the dense network of concepts and their interrelations that underlie observable changes in the initiation, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary action. (Kanfer, Frese, & Johnson, 2017, p. 339; see also Tziner, Fein, & Oren, 2012)

Baumeister (2016) simplified the definition of motivation as a behavior led by the need for a change in the *environment* and/or in the *self*.

More specifically, academic motivation comprises "cognitive and non-cognitive behaviors demonstrating the desire to achieve academic success" (George Mwangi, Peralta, Fries-Britt, & Daoud, 2016, p. 210). Since the dawn of the ancient Greek Academy, need for cognition (NFC) has been the most primal motivation in learning. NFC may be defined as "a stable individual difference in people's tendency to engage in and enjoy effortful cognitive activity" (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996, p. 197; see also Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). It determines "how individuals invest their cognitive resources and how they deal with cognitively challenging material" (Luong et al., 2017, p. 103).

In modern times, the motivations for pursuing education in general, and higher education in particular, are both vast in number and in variation (e.g., Teichler, 2017). Motivational forces can stem from *internal* sources, such as a sense of challenge, excitement, interest, feelings of accomplishment (e.g., Bauer, Orvis, Ely, & Surface, 2016; Byrne et al., 2012; Deci & Ryan, 1985; George Mwangi et al., 2016; Legault, 2016), or from *external* sources such as social norms, peer influence, financial needs, desire to achieve rewards, and avoiding punishment (e.g., Byrne et al., 2012; Deci & Ryan, 1985; George Mwangi et al., 2016; Legault, 2016). Intrinsic and extrinsic drivers are integral in the decision-making process for international students (Pintrich, Marx, & Boyle, 1993; Stage & Williams, 1990).

These two "types" of motivational forces (intrinsic and extrinsic motivations; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) are mutually exclusive. As Rockmann and Ballinger (2017) wrote: "there is increasing evidence that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are independent, each with unique antecedents and outcomes" (p. 1315).[1] Notwithstanding the importance and prevalence of both intrinsic and extrinsic drivers, they manifest differently in each student, and sometimes one of them may even be exclusively displayed, in a specific situation (e.g., George Mwangi et al., 2016).

Regarding prospective student motivation to pursue higher education, Kember et al. (2010) have stated that: "The nature of their motivation and degree of determination to enter university will affect their commitment to study prior to university. The form of motivation to enroll for a degree and the intensity of it will influence their dedication and approach to study when they become a university student" (p. 263).

Accordingly, we can understand that students may be driven to pursue higher education abroad from various motivational forces (i.e., reasons). These are conditioned by culture and may vary from one sociocultural place to another (e.g., sense of guilt if not pursuing education abroad like other family members, higher education is highly valued in a specific culture, etc.). Also, there are factors that "push" prospective students to action, while there are others that "pull" them into engaging in different (aforementioned) activities. We will elaborate on the "push–pull" factors later in this chapter.

Last, it is evident that motivations and relative effects of different factors for impacting the pursuit of higher education abroad may manifest differently in each category (or generation) of cross-border education (see Chapter 1: i.e., student mobility, program/provider mobility, and education hubs), even if there are many common and overlapping motivations between them (e.g., Wilkins, Balakrishnan, & Huisman, 2012).

Factors Influencing International Students' Choice of Higher Education Abroad

It may be safe to assume that "international study is more like an investment. Before I make an investment, I must consider various factors" (Wu, 2014, p. 433), because it "is a lifetime investment and it needs to be worthwhile" (Ahmad, Buchanan, & Ahmad, 2016, p. 1097). Thus, in Appendix B we review a sample of factors influencing international

[1] However, it is critical to emphasize that in addition to the internal sources we mentioned, there are some that, at first glance, seem internal but their original source is external and are dependent on varied degrees of integration and internalization (see Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

student higher education choices from selected literature (for a similar concept, see Ahmad & Shah, 2018, p. 5; Cubillo, Sánchez, & Cerviño, 2006, pp. 105–106; Nafari et al., 2017, pp. 5–7[2]).

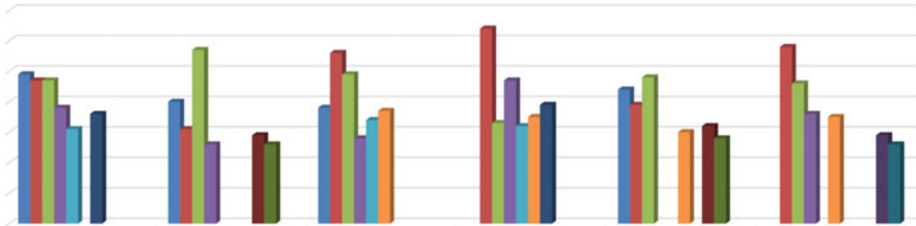
Additionally, we present a few reasons that are reported by prospective students as important in making the decision of where to study, based on their geographical region in the world. Figure 3.1 illustrates the reasons for choosing a hosting country to immigrate to, while Fig. 3.2 displays the reasons for deciding on which academic institution to study in the foreign country.

The Push–Pull Model of International Student Mobility

As can be seen in Appendix B, the plethora of "factors, real or perceived, can affect a student's choice of study destination" abroad, in one way or another (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b, p. 7). This has necessitated the generation of a model encompassing as many factors as possible and categorizing them accordingly.

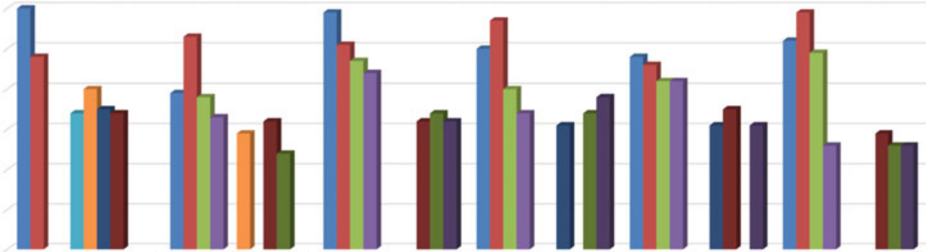
The most well-known and widely used is the "push–pull factors" model that revolves around the influential capacities and motivational drivers to migrate, and has its origin within the tourism field (e.g., Fyall, 2019). It

[2] For further reading and factors, see, for example, Aarinen (2012), Abubakar, Shanka, and Muuka (2010), Ahmad and Hussain (2017), Alfattal (2017), Americanos (2011), Anderson, Hubbard, and Lawton (2015), Babatunde (2018), Beech (2018), Beine et al. (2014), Bhandari and Blumenthal (2011a, 2011b), Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003), Bourke (2000), Chao, Hegarty, Angelidis, and Lu (2017), Chen (2007a, 2007b, 2008), Cubillo-Pinilla, Zúñiga, Soret, and Sánchez (2009), Eder, Smith, and Pitts (2010), Elturki, Liu, Hjeltness, and Hellmann (2019), Findlay, King, Smith, Geddes, and Skeldon (2012), Goi, Kalidas, and Yunus (2018), González et al. (2011), Hazen and Alberts (2006), Heffernan, Wilkins, and Butt (2018), Hildén (2011), Hooley and Lynch (1981), James-MacEachern and Yun (2017), Jianvittayakit (2012), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Jon, Lee, and Byun (2014), Joseph and Joseph (2000), Kamal Basha, Sweeney, and Soutar (2016), Katsiaryna (2015), Kent-Wilkinson, Leurer, Luimes, Ferguson, and Murray (2015), Kim, Bankart, Jiang, and Brazil (2018), Kondakci (2011), Larbi and Fu (2017), Lee (2014), Li and Bray (2007), Liu-Farrer (2011), Maringe (2006), Maringe and Carter (2007), McMahon (1992), McManus, Haddock-Fraser, and Rands (2017), Mikalayeva (2015), Mpinganjira (2009), Nachatar Singh et al. (2014), Nafari et al. (2017), Ngamkamollert and Ruangkanjanases (2015), Nghia (2015), Oleksiyenko (2018), Özoglu, Gür, and Coskun (2015), Padlee, Kamaruddin, and Baharun (2010), Pimpa (2003), Price, Matzdorf, Smith, and Agahi (2003), Ramos and Suriñach (2017), Safakli and Ihemeje (2015), Santos, Rita, and Guerreiro (2018), Shanka, Quintal, and Taylor (2006), Soutar and Turner (2002), Tansel and Demet Güngör (2003), Wadhwa (2016), Wang (2017), Wiers-Jenssen (2019), Wilkins et al. (2012), Wilkins, Shams, and Huisman (2013), Woodall, Hiller, and Resnick (2014), Wu (2014).



	North America	Northern Europe	South America	Southeast Asia	Western Europe	Middle East
Culture	49%	40%	38%		44%	
Cost of living	47%	31%	56%	64%	39%	58%
Language	47%	57%	49%	33%	48%	46%
Safety reputation	38%	26%	28%	47%		36%
Lifestyle	31%		34%	32%		
Teaching quality			37%	35%	30%	35%
Friendliness	36%			39%		
Gut feeling		29%			32%	
Location		26%			28%	
Employment options						29%
Visa Requirements						26%

Fig. 3.1 Reasons for prospective international students in choosing a hosting country (*Note* Friendliness is also "welcoming nature." Lifestyle is also "leisure opportunities." Blanks indicate that the specific reason was not reported as one of the top six reasons for students of a certain geographical region. *Source* Educations.com, 2019)



	North America	Northern Europe	South America	Southeast Asia	Western Europe	Middle East
Cost of living	60%	39%	59%	50%	48%	52%
Teaching quality	48%	53%	51%	57%	46%	59%
School's ranking		38%	47%	40%	42%	49%
General reputation		33%	44%	34%	42%	26%
Available programs	34%					
Campus/school life	40%	29%				
Housing options	35%			31%	31%	
Location	34%	32%	32%		35%	29%
Student facilities		24%	34%	34%		26%
Career outcomes			32%	38%	31%	26%

Fig. 3.2 Reasons for prospective international students in choosing a hosting academic institution (*Note* Blanks indicate that the specific reason was not reported as one of the top six reasons for students of a certain geographical region. *Source* Educations.com, 2019)

"has since become the most common tool used by educational researchers to aid the examination and explanation of international student motivations and decisions" (Wilkins et al., 2012, p. 418). This aligns with many other papers on the subject (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Chen, 2007a; Eder et al., 2010; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; McMahon, 1992; Tansel & Demet Güngör, 2003; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Wadhwa, 2016; Wilkins et al., 2012; Yang, 2007). However, there are more modular renditions of the influencing factors on international students' reasons to study abroad (e.g., Ahmad & Hussain, 2017, p. 168; Cubillo et al., 2006, p. 107; Higher Education Funding Council for England [HEFCE], 2004, p. 42).

Push factors are those that force people to *emigrate* (from home/origin country), while *pull factors* are those attracting people to *immigrate* (to host/destination country) (Giddens et al., 2016; Lee, 1966; Zajda, 2015). "Operationally, push forces are associated with the decision 'whether to go', while pull forces are associated with the decision 'where to go'" (Kim, Oh, & Jogaratnam, 2007, p. 74). More elaborately, "push factors operate within the home country initiating the student's decision to study overseas. Pull factors operate within the host country to make that country relatively more attractive than other potential destinations. In the end, it is a combination of both forces that explain ISM [international student mobility]" (González et al., 2011, pp. 418–419).

The Imperative Need for a Rejuvenated "Push–Pull" Model

As is shown in Appendix B, there are a multitude of studies on the factors motivating students to pursue higher education abroad. These were researched across most continents (even though information on Africa[3,4] and Latin America[5] is scarce). Evidently, most of these works

[3] One exception, however, is the case of South Africa. This is the only country in Africa that has higher numbers of incoming international students than outgoing than all the continents' countries. One of the reasons for this statistic may be data deficiencies, because "except South Africa, the higher education regulatory agencies and universities themselves do not keep records of international student enrollment. Often even available data is not made accessible to researchers, which further hampers the task of researching mobility in Africa" (Kishun, 2011, p. 162).

[4] See Arias, Evan, and Santos (2019) for more information about Sub-Saharan Africa.

[5] See Ferreyra, Avitabile, Botero Álvarez, Haimovich Paz, and Urzúa (2017) for more information about Latin America and the Caribbean.

have followed the traditional push–pull model. Indeed, research has been increasing in quantity and quality and (only in recent years) has started focusing on program analyses, student–faculty development, institutional strategies, and management, among others (Bedenlier, Kondakci, & Zawacki-Richter, 2018).

Nevertheless, the increased research efforts in this field have not necessarily given us much of a breakthrough, as we find lacunas in five major research domains:

- insubstantial theory and loosely devised research models;
- inadequate methodologies (quantitative and qualitative);
- selection bias;
- inadequate construct validity (i.e., lack of unity and clarity); and
- cultural bias.

These issues raise serious concerns regarding both the research itself and its results, such that we fear it might impede our understanding of the theoretical and practical implications of the international student phenomenon.[6]

Problem 1: Insubstantial theory and loosely devised research models. On one hand, "the simultaneity of concentration and the variety of publications outlets and topics investigated does indicate a commensurate scope of research" (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016, pp. 20–21). Indeed, many papers have made contemplative reviews based on the existing literature on international student mobility choices (e.g., González et al., 2011; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Nafari et al., 2017; Özoğlu et al., 2015) and/or displayed a defined conceptual model (e.g., Ahmad & Hussain, 2017; Chen, 2008; Cubillo et al., 2006; Eder et al., 2010; Wadhwa, 2016). On the other hand, however, a large proportion of works in the international student mobility research field did not process the accumulated knowledge into measurable and falsifiable hypotheses, as required in empirical research (Shkoler, 2019). This aligns with Beine et al.'s (2014) declaration that they were "relying on a small theoretical model of human capital investment" (p. 51). In conclusion, we strongly agree with Lynch's (1999) notion that:

[6] For further reading, see Houston (2016), Moorman, Van Heerde, Moreau, and Palmatier (2019), Rabenu and Tziner (2018).

> The development of useful theories is not only about getting it right in mapping the "structural model"—that is, the links among latent, unobservable constructs. It is also about mapping correctly from constructs to observables. Both sets of links are required if the audience is to be able to draw intelligent inferences about the likely extrapolation of the findings reported to particular substantive systems that interest them. (Lynch, 1999, p. 371)

Problem 2: Inadequate methodologies. First, the predominant quantitative analytical approach of many papers has utilized factor analyses[7] (mostly exploratory). In addition, the majority of them also used basic descriptive statistics (e.g., means, standard deviations, and factor loadings). Both issues are characterized by limited inferential capacity,[8] which might prove disadvantageous when trying to investigate the reasons for pursuing higher education overseas and generate conclusions and recommendations.

Second, a great number of researchers have also used purely qualitative approaches in order to understand the reasons for international student mobility. These methodologies have clear advantages (when trying to explore and generate a theory on a new, unfamiliar, or unknown phenomenon—namely, a research domain in the fetus stage). However, they also suffer from the exploratory nature they are characterized by, limited replicability, and low external validity (i.e., generalizability) (Shkoler, 2019). Furthermore, after more than 25 years of research (since McMahon, 1992), this field is fairly developed. As such, using solely qualitative methods is not sufficient to further develop this domain. For further reading on quantitative vs. qualitative methods, see Kumar (2014) and Shkoler (2019).

In footnote 2 we provide a selection of researchers and studies that have contributed to the advancement of the international student research field over the years, even though their conclusions were based on the above-mentioned methodologies.[9]

[7] For further reading on the inconsistency and (sometimes) inadequacy of the usage and interpretation of factor analysis, see de Souza, Roazzi, de Souza, and da Silva (2015), Rabenu, Elizur, and Yaniv (2015), Shkoler, Rabenu, Vasiliu, Sharoni, and Tziner (2017).

[8] Because they are not used in appropriate consequential statistical tests that will test confirmatory hypotheses and a research model (e.g., Shkoler, 2019).

[9] Anderson et al. (2015), Babatunde (2018), Beech (2018), Beine et al. (2014), Brooks and Waters (2009, 2011), Chao et al. (2017), Collins, Sidhu, Lewis, and Yeoh (2014),

Problem 3: Selection bias. Selection (or, self-selection) bias, also known as non-response bias, is a very well-known and general issue in conducting research. It is a bias, a confounding effect in research, because the ideal state is when the source sampling population from which the participants are recruited should, optimally, replicate as closely as possible the target population the research aims at investigating. This is to maximize the generalizability of the research's findings, while minimizing the selection bias (McRobert, Hill, Smale, Hay, & Van der Windt, 2018). Although international and cross-cultural outcomes and comparisons are becoming more frequent, sought-after, and important, such a bias in the cross-cultural and cross-national aspects of research remains "largely ignored" (Couper & De Leeuw, 2003, p. 158).

This bias may be of greater importance and threat to research when the sample design and characteristics are very specific, such as in the case of international students. Also, some attributes or characteristics of the study may greatly influence the binomial outcome of a potential participant to partake in the research or not (Groves & Couper, 2012; Groves, Singer, & Corning, 2000). Considering that this bias might have unpredictable effects of under- or overestimation in research findings (e.g., Lykken, McGue, & Tellegen, 1987), and because it is often subtle (e.g., Kukull & Ganguli, 2012), it might pose a major concern in studies involving international students. Refer to Appendix C for an elaborated explanation of the selection bias, as it is primarily a methodological term and not the focus of the chapter or this section.

Problem 4: Inadequate construct validity. On one hand, there is a vast *lack of unity* in the vocabulary of the push–pull factors when trying to describe and research them. This is evident in many papers that deal with the push–pull factors of international students. That is to say, the same factors may be named differently in almost every paper and piece of

Elturki et al. (2019), Hotta and Ting-Toomey (2013), Jianvittayakit (2012), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Kent-Wilkinson et al. (2015), Maringe and Carter (2007), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Miller (2012), Mpinganjira (2009), Nachatar Singh et al. (2014), Nilphan (2005), Özoğlu et al. (2015), Ryan, Rabbidge, Wang, and Field (2019), Padlee et al. (2010), Safakli and Ihemeje (2015), Van Schalkwyk and Hoi (2016), Wang (2017), Wiers-Jenssen (2019), Wilkins et al. (2012), Wu (2014), Yao and Garcia (2017). Only a handful of scholars have used a mixed-methods approach (see Kumar, 2014; Shkoler, 2019) in this regard, or a sound statistical approach (Ahmad et al., 2016; Akhtar & Kroener-Herwig, 2019; Chen, 2007a, 2008; Kim et al., 2018; Ngamkamollert & Ruangkanjanases, 2015; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wu, 2014; Yang, 2007).

research, making it very difficult to maintain a logical research continuum, and also harms the published papers' replicability. For example, Cubillo et al. (2006) described under the heading of "Institution Image" several factors that without any differentiating explanation sound similar to a common reader (i.e., "institution prestige," "ranking position," "brand reputation," "academic reputation," and "quality reputation"). Another example is that in Tan's (2015) work, where the "program flexibility" factor was under the heading of "Many Connections Abroad" and was found under the "networking" category. In many other papers, Cubillo et al. (2006), for instance, we found "make international contacts" as a factor under the heading of "Personal Improvement." Our final example is that, while in Ahmad et al. (2016) there is a distinct category of "recommendations" factors, in Cubillo et al. (2006) the factors were under a category named "Advices," yet in Tantivorakulchai (2018) the recommendations were under the title "General Influences."

On the other hand, as was mentioned, there is also a *lack of clarity* in the vocabulary of the push–pull factors when trying to describe and research them. For example, in Huong and Cong's (2018) paper there is a factor named "family arrangement," which was not defined or described in the literature review (or elsewhere in the paper), and it is unclear what this factor implies. In another example, in the work of Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), a category of "knowledge and awareness" is given without any further explanation or prior definition, as opposed to Tan's (2015) paper in which it is explicitly written: "Information you saw on TV" and "Saw in news." Finally, in Mazzarol and Soutar's (2002) research there were two factors, "easy to obtain information on host" and "knowledge of host country," but neither of them are given a proper explanation as to what the sources of the information are, and are not elaborated in the literature review at all.

Problem 5: Cultural bias. It is evident that most of the research on the internationalization of higher education has focused on American, British, Australian, and Western European content and points of view (e.g., Bedenlier et al., 2018) (i.e., a Western culture point of view). However, only in *recent* years did the research broaden to include other areas like Turkey (e.g., Kondakci, 2011; Özoğlu et al., 2015); Southern Asia (e.g., Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014); China (e.g., Ahmad & Shah, 2018; Larbi & Fu, 2017; Wen & Hu, 2019); South Africa (e.g., Lee & Sehoole, 2015); Eastern Europe (e.g., Lazić & Brkić, 2015);

South-Eastern Europe (e.g., Americanos, 2011); and the Middle East (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Nathan, 2017).

Notwithstanding these recent areas of research, we found only scarce information about Latin America. Most of the papers were either literature reviews, provided limited descriptive information (e.g., Barragán Codina & Leal López, 2013; Campbell, 2015; Gacel-Ávila, 2012; Jaramilo & de Wit, 2011; Onk & Joseph, 2017), or qualitative findings (e.g., Larbi & Fu, 2017), while none presented substantial empirical methods/findings.

The Dangerous Sum of the Five Problems: Impaired External Validity (i.e., Generalizability of the Results)

Lacunas 1 through 5 presented above have another major implication—a debilitated external validity (i.e., the *generalizability* of the results), a topic that "has been gathering increasing attention in the economics literature" (Dehejia, Pop-Eleches, & Samii, 2019, p. 4). This validity examines "whether or not an observed causal relationship should be generalized to and across different measures, persons, settings and times … and across contexts" (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1982, pp. 240–242) and "the extent to which valid conclusions about a target population of interest can be drawn from the available data" (Dehejia et al., 2019, p. 4). Lynch (1999) has elaborated further[10]:

> The population elements in statistical sampling theory are not people. They are dependent measures of behavior that happen to be nested in a person—as well as being nested in a level of setting, context, and time. The populations "to" that we would like to generalize all involve measures of future behaviors. The measures of future behaviors have zero probability of being sampled in one's (present) lab or field experiment…. One needs to know what variables might interact with the principal effects demonstrated in a study to be able to project from the test system to some extrapolation population. This is precisely the kind of knowledge relevant to understanding whether one can generalize experimental effects "across" from one stratum to another. (Lynch, 1999, p. 369)

[10] However, Lynch (1999) has subtly integrated the external validity's thesis with some essentials of construct validity.

Indeed, we strive, both as researchers and practitioners, to make inference from a study beyond its settings and characteristics in order to use it in one way or another that suits our needs. This is because "practically all researchers expect their findings to generalize beyond their study setting" (Sarstedt, Bengart, Shaltoni, & Lehmann, 2018, p. 658) as this is the "big picture" interpretation we give to results in any study (Kukull & Ganguli, 2012). Nevertheless, this "global representativeness" (Sarstedt et al., 2018, p. 653; see also Kukull & Ganguli, 2012), the ensuring of greater generalizability of the results found in a specific research, is not an easy task, and each research method (e.g., quantitative vs. qualitative) "has its own specific challenges for extrapolation" (Dehejia et al., 2019, p. 2). In addition, sufficient and sizeable research evidence and the careful and educated employment of research methodologies are all crucial to establishing a reliable generalizability of the results from certain research (Dehejia et al., 2019).

As an extension in the case of research on international students, the issues we laid out before amalgamate and converge into a greater problem. This is because lack of clarity and unity, limited theories and results, endorsing different biases, are all highly detrimental when trying to extrapolate and generalize the findings beyond the specific research context they were derived from. On top of that, the unequivocal lack of replications done in this field of research (as one way to increase generalizability and credibility of results; e.g., James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982; Kukull & Ganguli, 2012; Sarstedt et al., 2018) is both alarming and disconcerting. Although this book is not methodologically centered, it is as clear as day why these issues have been laid bare in this section.

We will now present examples of this major concern, corresponding to each problem discussed earlier[11]:

- **Problem 1**: When a considerable body of research about international student mobility is non-empirical, how can we generalize (or use) a theory or a model that has not been adequately, sufficiently, and empirically tested? Will it be appropriate and legitimate to use suggestions based on said theories in marketing efforts?[12]

[11] To recap, the problems we presented are: (1) insubstantial theory and loosely devised research models; (2) inadequate methodology (quantitative and qualitative); (3) selection bias; (4) inadequate construct validity (i.e., lack of unity and clarity); and (5) cultural bias.

[12] The marketing standpoint will be the focus of Chapter 4.

- **Problem 2**: A qualitative study that uses a sample of *only* 10 students poses a serious question—how can we draw conclusions and generalize them beyond this circumscribed research to and across the international students' population worldwide, which is clearly (!) exponentially larger? Can we base an entire institution's strategy on results based on purely descriptive data, like means and standard deviations, or even relative frequencies?
- **Problem 3**: The research about international students, at large, had based its conclusions on successful cases of international students—only those who survived the processes and obstacles of the cross-border higher education, and then were recruited for a study. How can we use and rely on conclusions drawn from samples that are based on such a (self-selection) biased sample? Do the findings apply to all international students at large?
- **Problem 4**: When research uses fuzzy or unclear terminologies and/or concepts, how can we draw meaningful conclusions to use in future research or marketing strategy?
- **Problem 5**: How can we generalize findings from considerable literature dealing with Western countries (e.g., Canada, USA, and Australia) to Eastern countries (e.g., China, India, and Japan)? Will the results still be relevant?

In conclusion, the additive product of these problems results in a concrete lack of "triangulation between actual and hypothetical choices, a factor missing in the literature to date" (McManus et al., 2017, p. 402). As such, based on the information above, we were encouraged: (1) to formulate a more refined "push–pull" model, capitalizing upon the vast research in this domain and (2) make this model as encompassing and, at the same time, as parsimonious as possible (which will be able to contain the large diversity of influencing factors for international student mobility).

Mapping Sentence for International Student Mobility

We adopted the facet theory approach (as described in Chapter 2 and Appendix A) in order to achieve the objectives we mentioned above. Facet theory is a method by which the components of a problem or the issue under investigation can be defined formally (e.g., Elizur, 1984). A "facet" is a group of common traits representing semantic components of a multivariate context field. A facet's distinct representations (subcategories) are called "elements" (Elizur, 1984). The heart of facet theory is a mapping sentence (Fisher, 2011; Hackett, 2014) that "allows formal and exacting consideration of the variables that comprise a research domain" (Hackett, 2014, p. 67). This sentence serves as a guide to formulating hypotheses, creating structured assumptions, planning and collecting observations, and analyzing data (Fisher, 2011; Levy, 2005).

Koval, Hackett, and Schwarzenbach (2016) were the first to approach the *mobility* of international students by capitalizing on facet theory. Indeed, it was an important stage in order to formulate a formal and comprehensive definitional framework for this context universe, based on facet theory. The authors stated that their work, "for international student mobility … is an interpretation of the potentially relevant and pertinent aspects of international students' experiences within this specific area of their lives" (Koval et al., 2016, p. 62). Illustrating Koval et al.'s (2016) line of thought, we also believe that there is a place for interpretations and elaborations in this regard.

We emerge from the wider context of international student mobility but emphasize and elaborate on one of its domains—the *reasons* for international student mobility. In addition, we look at this from a decision-making vantage point (e.g., Jackson, 1982; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Svenson, 1992, 1996; see also Chapter 2). In this context, our suggested mapping sentence is general and applicable to students' choice to access higher education, and for *all* three mobility generations, in particular (as discussed in Chapter 1; see also Knight, 2011a, 2014, 2017). It is of paramount importance to state that we stand on solid foundations of the theoretical literature on the "push–pull" model, yet we suggest a refinement of it.

Our mapping sentence incorporates both *initiators* and *attractors* conditioned by different *moderators* (discussed below, in Facet C). As Saks and Ashforth (2000, p. 43) note: "individuals react differently to similar circumstances, and that to understand and predict behavior … one needs to consider both person and situational factors as well as their interaction."

Based on the literature, we developed a specific mapping sentence defining the reasons for international student mobility. Three basic independent facets define this domain: (Facet A) initiators (personal goals);

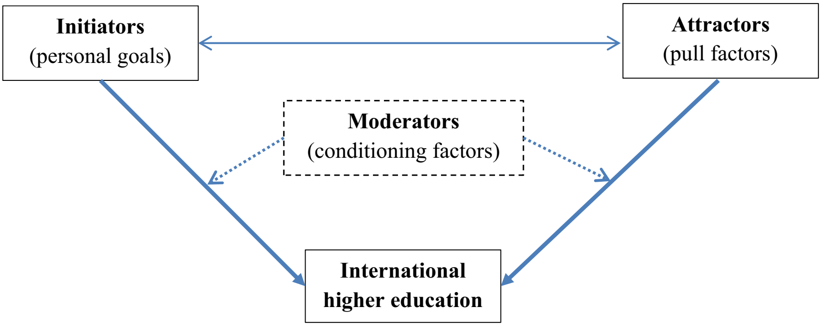


Fig. 3.3 Path diagram for the reasons for international student mobility as a decision-making process

(Facet B) attractors (pull factors); and (Facet C) moderators (conditioning factors). See Fig. 3.3 for the path diagram of the reasons for international student mobility as a decision-making process and Fig. 3.4 for the mapping sentence itself.

In the next subsections we will dive into the facets' contents, and will explain, elaborate, and give examples for each facet and its corresponding elements. However, there is a plethora of studies conducted regarding various reasons for international student mobility, as have been presented earlier in the chapter. In this line, there were quite many testimonies of students from past research, which coincide with and contributed to the formulation of our mapping sentence. The raw testimonies are the product of the qualitative-type studies investigating international student mobility from various aspects and angles. In order to read these testimonies, refer to: Ahmad et al. (2016), Beech (2018), Brooks and Waters (2009), Chen (2007a, 2008), Collins et al. (2014), Hotta and Ting-Toomey (2013), Kim et al. (2018), Miller (2012), Nachatar Singh et al. (2014), Özoğlu et al. (2015), Ryan et al. (2019), Van Schalkwyk and Hoi (2016), Wang (2017), Wu (2014), Yao and Garcia (2017).

Facet A: Initiators (Personal Goals)

First and foremost, international students *pursue* higher education, which distinguishes them from being "only" travelers (e.g., King & Gardiner, 2015), tourists, immigrants, etc. Therefore, the pursuit of

The decision of a subject (*x*) to pursue cross-border higher education (primarily) is based on being aware of the difficulties at:

A: Initiators (personal goals)

Obtaining
- a1 human capital
- a2 financial capital
- a3 psychological capital

in the home country, in addition to the attraction of the

B: Attractors (pull-factors)

- b1 host country
- b2 academic institute
- b3 host city

as conditioned by

C: Moderators (conditioning factors)

- c1 formal/legal requirements
- c2 social resources
- c3 psychological resources
- c4 financial reserves
- c5 demographical status
- c6 transportation accessibility
- c7 home-destination countries' affiliations/ties
- c8 language familiarity/barriers
- c9 recommendations or criticisms

factors, with

R: Range

- strong
- .
- .
- .
- weak

confidence in the decision

Fig. 3.4 Mapping sentence for the reasons for international student mobility as a decision-making process any tertiary/higher education in the form of a degree/certificate is a *default*.[13] Different international students' classifications are, hence, based on other capitals they wish to achieve, in tandem with and in addition to obtaining the academic degree. It is important to note that our "push factors" are the personal goals that a student strives to obtain, and is aware of the difficulties of achieving, in their home country. It is imperative to elaborate, however, on the internal and psychological aspect of the students—specifically, their self-concept and how it relates to the decision to pursue higher education abroad.

Motivation to become an international student through enhancing the concept of the self. The concept of the self has intrigued many over the years: philosophers, psychologists, sociologists, researchers, and more. "The self contains multitudes: It is a body and a mind, organs and thoughts, desires and intentions, whims and dispositions" (Strohminger, Knobe, & Newman, 2017, p. 551).

Cross-border education as a way of forming a unique self-identity. Usually, individuals strive to distinguish themselves from others, and achieve self-definition and shaped identity. This is achieved through: (1) unique traits and characteristics; (2) dyadic relationships; and (3) group membership (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). In other words, "the self has three parts: individual, relational, and collective. Typically, people personally value their individual self most, their relational self less, and their collective self least" (Nehrlich, Gebauer, Sedikides, & Abele, 2019, p. 212). Although there is a concept of the self in each and any one of us that is universal (e.g., Strohminger et al., 2017), we still strive to make ourselves distinguished, unique, elevated, maybe even exclusive, in relation to other individuals. This means that we have more than one representation of the "self," which may or may not be in conflict with one another. The following is a short explanation of the three selves according to Brewer and Gardner (1996), Nehrlich et al. (2019), and Sedikides (1993):

- **The individual self**: Achieved by differentiating from others, acquiring unique and defining set of traits, skills, and characteristics. We rely on interpersonal comparisons to evaluate our individual selves,

[13] Even though this is not absolute, as can be seen in European countries (in the twenty-first century) where students have been abroad for non-educational purposes (see Schomburg, 2011; Teichler, 2017).

and do so in order to enhance or protect ourselves psychologically and cognitively.

- **The relational self**: Achieved by assimilating with significant others, personalizing bonds and attachments with others (e.g., parent–child bond, friendships, etc.). We aim at protecting or enhancing our significant others and maintaining the relationships with them.
- **The collective self**: Achieved by association and membership in a large social group (i.e., the in-group), and through a process of identification, also distinguishing it from other groups the person is *not* currently included in (i.e., the out-group). We rely on intergroup comparisons, while aiming at protecting or enhancing the in-group. It is important to note that relationships formed with the group do not need to be significant or intimate. Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, and Wetherell (1987) define the collective self as a "shift towards the perception of self as an interchangeable exemplar of some social category and away from the perception of self as a unique person" (p. 50).

Cross-border education as a way of achieving an enhanced self. In addition to this, self-discrepancy theory (Bak, 2014; Higgins, 1987, 1999; Higgins, Bargh, & Lombardi, 1985; Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994) defines three different selves: the actual, the ideal, and the ought self:

- **The actual self**: Characteristics, traits, and attributes that we (or others) believe we *actually* possess. This is our basic *self-concept*.
- **The ideal self**: Characteristics, traits, and attributes that someone (ourselves or someone else) would like us, *ideally*, to possess, as if it were a representation of our/their hopes, aspirations, or wishes for us. The ideal self is usually the main motivational force that drives us to change, improve, and achieve. The ideal self revolves around *positive* outcomes (or their absence) and represents hopes and wishes.[14]
- **The ought self**: Characteristics, traits, and attributes that someone (ourselves or someone else) believes we *should/ought to possess*, as if it were a representation of our/their sense of duty, obligations, or

[14]This notion is similar to the positive holistic aspect of the self-concept (e.g., the "real self," Rogers, 1961; the "true self," Strohminger et al., 2017). This concept is not to be confused with Roger's (1961) "ideal self" terminology.

responsibilities. The ought self revolves around *negative* outcomes (or their absence) and represents obligation and sense of duty.

Both the ideal and the ought self as internalized standards are considered, by the theory, as *self-guides*, because this is how the actual self aligns itself and aspires to become. However, while the *ideal self* drives an individual into action and spurs behavior, the domain of the *ought self* is behavior avoidance (Higgins et al., 1994).

Moreover, as opposed to earlier psychological theories (e.g., Festinger, 1957; Heider, 1958), self-discrepancy theory addresses the vantage point of both: the individual's *own* perception standpoint and the point of view of a *significant other*. However, the theory posits that we compare our actual self with the ideal or the ought self, and in that comparison we might encounter an imbalance—a discrepancy. In other words, the discrepancies may emanate from a comparison between: (1) actual-own vs. actual-other; (2) actual-own vs. ideal-own; (3) actual-own vs. ought-own; (4) actual-own vs. ideal-other; (5) actual-own vs. ought-other; and (6) generally, ideal vs. ought.

Regardless, these discrepancies manifest in two predominant ways: absence of positive feelings, or the presence of negative ones—for example, guilt, anxiety, disappointment, dissatisfaction, unhappiness, low self-esteem, and lack of self-fulfillment (Higgins, 1987, 1999; Higgins et al., 1985, 1994; see also Mahmoodi-Shahrebabaki, 2017; Watson, Bryan, & Thrash, 2016). The greater the gaps between the selves, the more these negative emotions intensify (Higgins et al., 1985) and might even lead to procrastination (Orellana-Damacela, Tindale, & Suárez-Balcázar, 2000) and depression (e.g., Watson et al., 2016). On the other hand, an *absence of a discrepancy* may induce positive feelings, such as calmness, security, satisfaction, and happiness (e.g., Higgins, 1987). Figure 3.5 illustrates the constellations of these discrepancies.

Interestingly, at a later date, another element was added to the theory—the *feared* self (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999). The main argument of this domain of the self resembles the ideal self, but from a different direction. On one hand, as a self-guide, the ideal self motivates behavior to achieve a desired/better self (i.e., taking action to pursue coveted or positive outcomes). On the other hand, the feared self drives an individual to action to avoid an undesired self (i.e., taking action to avoid negative outcomes). This aligns very well with the notion that our behaviors are motivated by an internal (sometimes, uncontrollable) drive that

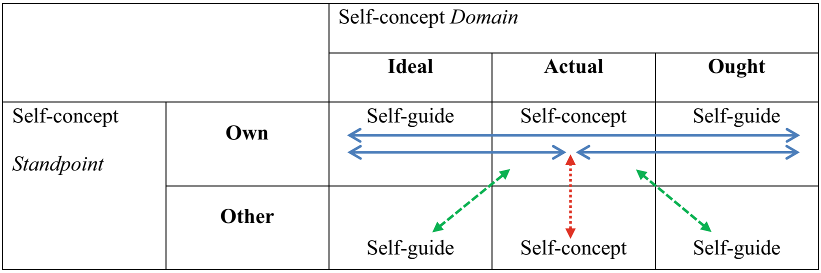


Fig. 3.5 Discrepancies' potential based on self-concept domain and standpoint

operates to reduce and assuage negative feelings and outcomes (e.g., Ng, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2007; Shkoler, Rabenu, & Tziner, 2017; Spence & Robbins, 1992; Van Beek, Hu, Schaufeli, Taris, & Schreurs, 2012) or reduce dissonances and gaps in our self-concepts (e.g., Festinger, 1957; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959; Orellana-Damacela et al., 2000).

We cannot elaborate here on the intricacies of these psychological theories,[15] for that is not the focus of this book. Nevertheless, it is crucial and essential to understand the concepts of the self with regard to international higher education—specifically, how the self-concept constitutes a basic psycho-cognitive process that students use (consciously or unconsciously) when making a decision to pursue higher education.

We conclude that, based on the theories presented above, we are driven to action by two major forces: (1) motivation to achieve an "*enhanced self*" (i.e., a desired self we strive to see in ourselves in the future, which is "greater" than our current self, in some aspired way[s]); and (2), adversely, motivation to avoid a "*diminished self*" (i.e., an undesired self we strive to avoid becoming or evolving toward, because we perceive this alternate self, at the base minimum, to be unsatisfactory, a "lesser" version of our current self). In addition, we understand that these drivers may stem from two sources: (a) the individuals themselves and (b) their significant others.

Therefore, we posit that a student may wish to pursue higher education as a proxy for seeking an enhanced self, and the source that instilled this

[15] For example, the notions of "availability" and "accessibility" (self-discrepancy theory; Higgins, 1987, 1999) and the "can self" or the "future self" (Higgins, Tykocinski, & Vookles, 1990).

desire is of little consequence (own vs. others), as this drive to achieve a "better version" of ourselves is strong, in tandem with the internal motivation to avoid unpleasant situations and an unfavorable future. So, an individual may wish to pursue higher education to enhance themselves in certain ways, which may or may not be simultaneous with an aversion to perceived worse alternatives, should the person *not* acquire higher education. Because international higher education becomes a very potent, available, and accessible possibility for many students around the world, it is safe to assume they will consider it as a very serious and strong option in their decision-making (see Chapter 4 for information about decision-making processes).

In this vein, we now take a look at the motivation to become an international student through the desire for self-enhancement through developing human, financial, and psychological capital.

a1: Human capital. Human capital refers to the individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities, usually measured by *education* and practical "know-how" experience (e.g., Felício, Couto, & Caiado, 2014; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). As such, one of the ways to obtain human capital is by investing considerable time and effort to acquire the highest level of education[16] (e.g., Bourdieu, 1986; Findlay et al., 2012).

In other words, a prospective student usually wants "the best" education (namely, higher-quality education or degrees) they can obtain, but sometimes this "world-class" educational advantage (e.g., Findlay et al., 2012) may be found in foreign countries. This is called *vertical* mobility—mobility for the purpose of acquiring a superior quality of academic education (i.e., better than home country/institute) and is often considered the predominant mobility students seek when pursuing higher education abroad (Teichler, 2017). "Above all, international student migration was seen to be about symbolic capital. One of the uses of this symbolic capital was to represent international study as a distinguishing identity marker" (Findlay et al., 2012, p. 128; see also Lomer, Papatsiba, & Naidoo, 2018), and so, through higher education one may obtain higher social status, reputation, and prestige (Bourdieu, 1986). Specifically, social status's sphere of influence is not exclusive to the individual,

[16] In addition, reasons for seeking different degrees (e.g., B.A., M.A., Ph.D., etc.) usually differ from one level of study to another. We give a brief review of these differences at the end of this chapter.

but also creates a "halo" over their nuclear family or even other distal spheres. With this in mind, parents passively expect or even actively send their children to study abroad (e.g., Nghia, 2015; Woodall et al., 2014).

It is important to note that international students acquire human capital not only directly (i.e., by choice) via the degree they are studying, but also indirectly (i.e., absorption) through increasing language proficiency or attaining a new language altogether (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Huong & Cong, 2018; for reviews see Lewis, 2016; Nathan, 2017; Tan, 2015; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Varghese, 2008; Yang, 2007), and learning new cultural gestures and behavioral codes, etc. (e.g., Hyams-Ssekasi, Mushibwe, & Caldwell, 2014; Wu, Garza, & Guzman, 2015). In other words, when studying abroad, a student may be exposed to a copious number of ways to increase one's own human capital, by choice or by absorbing the environment in which the student lives and studies. For more examples, see Huong and Cong (2018) and Tan (2015) (see also a review in Lewis, 2016). Thus, we construe this element (a1: human capital) as a part of our mapping sentence.

a2: Financial capital. More than 50 years ago, Becker's (1964) analyses showed that the return on investment in higher education is worthwhile in terms of long-term income from employment. For example, higher education may enable an individual to climb a rung in the organizational hierarchy (e.g., from a first-line manager to a senior manager). In the same vein, Card (1999) summarized that "hundreds of studies in many different countries and time periods have confirmed that better-educated individuals earn higher wages, experience less unemployment, and work in more prestigious occupations than their less-educated counterparts" (Card, 1999, p. 1802). Hence, many people were ready to invest time, effort, and money to obtain higher education.

The decision to study abroad, from the prospective students' point of view, is also based on future wage comparisons, meaning they compare the present value (PV) of future wages resulting from studying in a domestic institution (higher education), as opposed to an institution abroad (Beine et al., 2014). Therefore, "if the increase in the present value of the future income is greater than the cost of migrating as well as other education costs, students will move to the country yielding the highest net present value" (Beine et al., 2014, pp. 14–15; see also Huong & Cong, 2018). Similarly, González et al. (2011) put forward that in economic terms there is a cost–benefit consideration when deciding on migrating abroad.

One of the main means through which higher education is perceived to help achieve higher net value is by enhancing career/job prospects (including meeting educational obligations for an academic career) (e.g., Cubillo et al., 2006; Huong & Cong, 2018; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Tan, 2015; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Varghese, 2008; Yang, 2007). As such, the career opportunities may mediate between higher education and acquiring higher financial capital. To elaborate, career opportunities are also enhanced not only by the higher education per se, but also by the student's personal and/or professional networks they have or may develop in the course of their studies (e.g., Cubillo et al., 2006; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Tan, 2015; Yang, 2007). These networks are a core part of social capital ("who you know"), which refers to the individual's relationship with others—for example, membership and engagement with social groups or social networks (e.g., Adler & Kwon, 2002; Burt, 1997; Felício et al., 2014; Hitt, & Ireland, 2002; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Thus, our definition of this type of capital is aligned with Luthans et al.'s (2004) definition as the "resources withdrawn from consumption that are invested for future anticipated returns" (p. 45), meaning, perceiving a better return-over-investment in the destination country, as compared with the host country[17] (e.g., Huong & Cong, 2018). We thus construe this element (a2: financial capital) as a part of our mapping sentence.

a3: Psychological capital. Psychological capital (PsyCap) is defined as an individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by:

- having confidence (efficacy) to take on and put the necessary effort to succeed in challenging tasks;
- making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future;
- persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and

[17] This is the common conception surrounding higher education abroad. Nevertheless, there is a significant difficulty at the inferential level of the actual impact of studying abroad, with conflicting results (Teichler, 2017).

- when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success (Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015, p. 2).

PsyCap thus revolves around the individual's aspirations, meaning that "PsyCap involves investing in the actual self to reap the return of becoming a possible self" (Avolio & Luthans, 2006, p. 147; see also Luthans et al., 2004).

Although PsyCap comprises four main dimensions (i.e., efficacy, optimism, hope, and resiliency), it is important to emphasize that there are more potential capacities, such as creativity, flow, gratitude, forgiveness, emotional intelligence, courage, authenticity, and more (Luthans et al., 2015). Students, thus, believe that they would be able to develop their psychological capital through higher education abroad (again, this is considered as superior to obtaining this capital in the home country) and seek psychological growth (e.g., Yakunina, Weigold, Weigold, Hercegovac, & Elsayed, 2013) through improving self-efficacy, acceptance of ambiguity, independence, personal pride, experiencing a different culture, teaching methods, new places, etc. (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Huong & Cong, 2018; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nathan, 2017; Tan, 2015; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Varghese, 2008; Yang, 2007).

The experiential aspect of studying abroad is important for subjective psychological growth because being open to experience and/or change means being creative, curious (not only intellectually), imaginative, stimuli-seeking (as opposed to risky excitement-seeking), all in order to maintain an optimal and positive state of mind (e.g., Hildenbrand, Sacramento, & Binnewies, 2018; Schwaba, Luhmann, Denissen, Chung, & Bleidorn, 2017; Schwartz, 2012; Yakunina et al., 2013).

Additionally, we also include hedonistic desires as a part of psychological capital, which revolves around sensuous gratification and pleasure fulfillment (Schwartz, 2012). As several researchers show, students also decide to study abroad in order to actualize their fantasies of a freer way of life, such as liberal sex, the drinking culture, traveling opportunities, living without any commitments, etc. (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Huong & Cong, 2018; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Nathan, 2017; Nghia, 2015; Tan, 2015; Yang, 2007).

Taking all these aspects into consideration, we construe this element (a3: psychological capital) as a part of our mapping sentence.

Summary of the capital repertoire. Although we follow the definitional basis of psychological capital as a general motivational drive (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Rabenu & Yaniv, 2017; Rabenu, Yaniv, & Elizur, 2016), we strongly believe that other capitals (i.e., human, financial, social) may assume this role as well. Therefore, these capitals are regarded as additional motivational forces. Research has already shown the potential of personal aspirations and desires in influencing the choice of seeking higher education abroad (e.g., Eder et al., 2010; González et al., 2011; HEFCE, 2004; Li & Bray, 2007; Rachaniotis, Kotsi, & Agiomirgianakis, 2013).[18]

Moreover, these capitals (i.e., human, financial, social, and psychological) are mutually convertible and (e.g., Bourdieu, 1986, p. 243) nurturing and supporting of one another. We believe that one of the reasons for this may lie in the fact that *all* of them stem from a singular entity—the students themselves. For example, the increased human capital (via higher education) may, in the end, be converted to financial capital.

Facet B: Attractors (Pull Factors)

Because internationalization may be an indicator of quality (Urban & Palmer, 2014), it has become a popular "buzzword" in the academic world in particular. There is a notion (which might sometimes be misleading) that international branding is a proxy for high-quality and that being "international" is a status symbol (e.g., Knight, 2011b). This notion intensifies the importance and prevalence of the symbolic aspect of international higher education (see also Facet A above). In addition, there are some symbolic aspects that build into the attractiveness of the academic institution and hosting country/city that the students consider in their purchase decisions. These are elaborated below in each element of this facet.

b1: Host country. Most student mobility occurs from developing countries to developed countries, and seldom vice versa (e.g., Kishun, 2011). Additionally, mobility is also influenced by colonial legacy (e.g.,

[18] Motives for pursuing higher education abroad differ depending on the time period needed for the study. For example, a short-term course vs. a whole program/degree (Teichler, 2017; for further reading, see Knight, 2012a, p. 25). In this chapter we focus solely on long-term education for the decision-making process as it is more complex and its consequences are broader.

Beine et al., 2014; Bolsmann & Miller, 2008), such that former colonies tend to send students to their former occupiers (e.g., African countries like Ghana and Kenya to the UK; North African countries like Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia to France; see Kishun, 2011; Varghese, 2008). However, "the global market is tipping away from the United States and Western Europe and toward Oceania and Asia" (Lee, 2015, p. 106). Verbik and colleagues (2007) also described how Asian and Middle Eastern countries have been striving to turn themselves into regional education centers and are attracting international students. Accordingly, Beine and colleagues (2014) showed that, since 2005, the increase in student mobility to *non*-OECD countries was greater than the increase in mobility to OECD countries. These changes may be attributed to a variety of reasons students choose a host country:

- country reputation (e.g., social, touristic, international, technological, etc.);
- academic reputation[19] (e.g., better education system than in the home country);
- degree of growth and/or stability (e.g., economic, political, unemployment levels, global workforce, etc.);
- cost of living;
- ease of legal procedures (e.g., visa, immigration legislation, etc.);
- opportunity of working during the course (e.g., part-time jobs);
- job/employment and/or immigration opportunities;
- encouragement and incentive policies to pull foreign students to the host country;
- safety and security (including racial or religious discrimination);
- exotic/exciting and/or tourist attractions;
- appealing atmosphere/climate (relaxing vs. boring, comfortable or similar weather to home, friendly locals, vibrant student scene, etc.);
- facilities and infrastructure (e.g., for tourism, etc.);
- value of origin currency in destination country; and
- information about the country from online, hard-copy and mass media sources (e.g., TV and news).

[19] Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002) have proposed that there is mutual influence between country image and the institution image, thus one may bolster the other and vice versa.

For further reading and citation lists, see Appendix B.

In addition to these attracting factors, there are some that are intentionally created by governments and regulations, such as education hubs (e.g., Knight, 2011a, 2015; Knight & Morshidi, 2011), national reputation (e.g., Lomer et al., 2018), and other encouragements and incentive policies to pull foreign students to host countries (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Nathan, 2017). For example, Qatar has invested substantial amounts of resources into creating education hubs[20] for the purpose of entering the academic pantheon (Knight, 2015; Knight & Morshidi, 2011, p. 594). On the other hand, governments in developing countries (such as in Africa) may receive funding to help their students pay university fees abroad (such as in the UK) (Bolsmann & Miller, 2008).

All these factors lead us to construe this element (b1: host country) as a part of our mapping sentence.

b2: Academic institute. The "pulling" factor of the academic institute is mainly its reputation, which "can be defined simply as an overall evaluation of the extent to which an organization is substantially good or bad (Weiss et al., 1999), or as a collective assessment of an organization's ability to provide valued outcomes to a representative group of stakeholders (Fombrun et al., 2000)" (Heffernan et al., 2018, p. 229). As such, the ranking and reputation of the academic institution poses a solid fulcrum for student choice of hosting institutions (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Beine et al., 2014; Heffernan et al., 2018; Lee, 2015; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nathan, 2017; Wilkins et al., 2012). From the motivational point of view, studying in a favorably ranked institution may meet students' needs for self-esteem and self-enhancement (e.g., Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Knight, 2011b; Maslow, 1943).

Furthermore, the higher the reputation of the academic institute, the greater the trust a student puts in it, and, as Heffernan et al. (2018) wrote, "In product purchases that involve a high cash outlay or that result in long-term impacts, such as higher education, trust is used by students to provide reassurance and reduce perceived risks when making purchase decisions" (p. 236). As we show in Chapter 4 on marketing, higher education is a complex and high-risk purchase (see Caldwell & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Pimpa, 2003), which

[20] Qatar Education City (QEC) and the Qatar Science and Technology Park (QSTP). See Knight (2011a), World Education Services ([WES] 2015a). For more countries, see World Education Services (2015a, 2015b).

is why reputation and trust are very important elements in students' decisions. The equation is fairly simple: for international students, the higher the rank of the universities, the more attractive the institute and the country it resides in (e.g., Lee, 2015, p. 105). In essence, ranking serves as a proxy for quality in the students' eyes, and may become a magnet to attract them from overseas countries.

In general, there are several ranking sources that measure the quality of universities in the world. There are some typical indicators that comprise the ranking of an academic institute (for further reading, see Johnes, 2018). Such sources (e.g., Academic Ranking of World Universities, Quacquarelli Symonds, World University Rankings, etc.) aggregate and calculate universities' rankings to comprise a single comparable ranking of quality. This "grade" is then used by students, academics, university managers, governments, and more, even though the system is not without criticism or limitations (e.g., Johnes, 2018; Perez-Esparrells & Orduna-Malea, 2018).

Because internationalization has been increasing in frequency, prevalence, and impact (e.g., Knight, 2011b), some of these ranking sources have begun to include an international indicator in their ranking calculations. For example, World University Rankings (Times Higher Education, 2018) has begun incorporating this essential criterion (i.e., "international outlook"), which comprises (1) the university's proportion of international students; (2) the number of international staff; and (3) peer-reviewed publications in journals with a minimum of one international co-author. This component counts for 25% of the total ranking score of an institution, which exemplifies the significance of the international aspect in higher education (see also Perez-Esparrells & Orduna-Malea, 2018). Even more so, since the entry of this new parameter, the hierarchy of institutions' rankings has changed to a certain extent, diminishing the impact of purely geographical factors in ranking calculations. This, for example, has resulted in a number of previously lower-ranked institutions (e.g., Qatar University and the University of Luxembourg) moving up the ranking ladder (Times Higher Education, 2018).

Beyond the "title" of institution prestige and reputation as a good enough reason for student mobility, the literature also describes other factors attributed to the attracting capacity of the academic institute and demonstrates the need to include them in the attractors' facet. These are:

- academically recognizable degrees/diplomas and its marketability;

- quality of staff (e.g., expertise, research reputation, experience, etc.);
- satisfaction with institutional communication and administrative staff;
- campus atmosphere;
- safety and security inside the institution (e.g., theft, crime rates, discrimination levels, etc.);
- financial stability;
- facilities and resources (e.g., library, sports, technology, quiet areas for studying, etc.);
- facilitated admissions (e.g., easier processes, recognizing previous qualifications, etc.);
- academic freedom;
- host–destination institution linkages (e.g., accreditation, shared programs or funds, strategic alliances, etc.);
- expenses beyond tuition (e.g., dormitories, printing or copying, cafeteria/Mensa, etc.);
- public vs. private institution considerations;
- on-campus job/employment opportunities (e.g., teaching or research assistance, lecturing, laboratories, etc.);
- strong alumni (size, quality, recommendations, etc.);
- information about the institute from online, hard-copy and social media sources (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, advertisements); and
- marketing attempts and actions by the institution.

For further reading and citation lists, see Appendix B.

Furthermore, there are scholars who make a clear distinction between the pull factors of the institution vs. the program (e.g., Aarinen, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006; Hildén, 2011; Mikalayeva, 2015), as opposed to those who merged them together as a whole construct (e.g., Maringe & Carter, 2007; Tantivorakulchai, 2018). We follow the latter orientation because we strongly believe that the institution and its programs cannot be regarded as different entities. Nevertheless, here we list some contributory attracting factors related to the program itself:

- international recognition;
- program flexibility, specialization, availability, suitability, and diversity (including different courses, morning/evening courses, summer semesters, concentrated and shorter programs, etc.);

- quality of program;
- recognition by future employers;
- total costs/tuition fees; and
- financial aids (e.g., scholarships, loans, subsidies, and funds).

For further reading and citation lists, see Appendix B.

All these pull factors lead us to construe this element (b2: academic institute) as a part of our mapping sentence.

b3: Host city. When a student needs to decide on a destination, he or she must take into consideration both the cost of living in the country in general, and in a particular city specifically. Whatever the choice, each city differs from another in how affordable it is. This includes cost of living, such as housing rent, food and drink, clothing, household supplies and personal care items, transportation fees and bills, and other products and services. To illustrate, a student who decides to study in a university in Israel may choose between five (in different cities). If the student chooses to study in Tel Aviv (i.e., Tel Aviv University), he or she will face significantly higher renting costs (for example) than studying in Beer-Sheva (i.e., Ben-Gurion University) (see Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2017). So, even though both cities are in the same country, they are of different financial attractiveness.

In addition, city image was found to be an impacting factor in decision-making for international higher education (Aarinen, 2012; Mikalayeva, 2015). And other factors include:

- city dimension (e.g., physical, demographical growth/decline, etc.);
- climate and ambiance;
- linguistic similarity;
- safety and security (including racial and/or religious discrimination);
- facilities (e.g., research, social, sports, etc.);
- job/employment opportunities;
- international environment;
- physical environment around the university;
- academic reputation; and
- information about the city from online, hard-copy and mass media sources (e.g., TV, news).

For further reading, see Aarinen (2012), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), and Mikalayeva (2015).

Additionally, in the same way that academic institutes have a rank ordering and data sources, so do cities.[21] However, it is notable that although the city has an effect on students' decisions to pursue higher education abroad, the impacts of the hosting country and institution are vastly stronger (e.g., Mikalayeva, 2015).

All these factors lead us to construe this element (b3: host city) as a part of our mapping sentence.

Facet C: Moderators (Conditioning Factors)

Even if we are driven by our motivations to achieve personal goals (Facet A), and even if we are attracted by pull factors (of country, institution, and/or city—Facet B), there are still forces (usually beyond our control) that might *intervene* in the decision to pursue higher education abroad. These factors may be *internal* (such as language proficiency, psychological resources, etc.) or *external* (such as visa regulations, political affiliations, recommendations, etc.). They may either support and enhance, or constrain and inhibit, the decision to study abroad. These are statistically called *moderators*; however, this name is misleading, and, as such, we will regard them as conditioning factors (for further reading and clarification, see the Appendix in Shkoler, Rabenu, et al., 2017).

c1: Formal/legal requirements. Students consider the prevalence of formal/legal factors when making a decision about studying abroad. These may involve:

- higher education difficulties at home (e.g., difficulty in gaining entry, admission, fees, programs unavailable, etc.);
- impact of legal procedures in the hosting country (e.g., visa, immigration legislation, etc.);

[21] For example, see Top Universities, at https://www.topuniversities.com/city-rankings/2017.

- facilitation of admissions in the hosting institute (e.g., easier processes, recognition of previous qualifications, etc.), among others.[22]

These factors may hinder or facilitate the decision and therefore this has led us to construe this element (c1: formal/legal requirements) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c2: Social resources. "The new economy of migration, the so-called social choice approach, highlights that migration decisions are taken in social units, such as the family or household, which aggregates the benefits of the group involved in the migration decision" (González et al., 2011, p. 421). However, such decisions are not solely made for the benefit of the group, but more importantly revolve around the social resources an individual has or can potentially acquire. Different types of social support are considered the predominant social resources in this regard. For example, Beine et al. (2014) defined "network" as "the stock of migrants from the origin country living at destination" (p. 45), and those migrants tend to assist students from their country and share information with them. Thus, the existence of a network reduces migration costs for the international students (Beine et al., 2014).

In addition, close or even distant family may also provide support for the prospect student (e.g., financially, emotionally, physically, etc.) (Becker & Kolster, 2012; Jon et al., 2014; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Yang, 2007). This is also true of the student's friends/acquaintances (Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beine et al., 2014; Li & Bray, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nghia, 2015; Tan, 2015; Yang, 2007).

These aspects lead us to construe this element (c2: social resources) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c3: Psychological resources. Entering a foreign environment is usually accompanied by challenges of varying degrees of difficulty (Lee, 2015; Poyrazli, 2015). As such, international students might face ambiguities, uncertainties, stress (Rienties & Nolan, 2014; Rienties & Tempelaar, 2013), hostility, bias on- and off-campus (Yan & Pei, 2018), social isolation and loneliness (Lee, 2015; Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland, & Ramia, 2008), and even lead them to question their own social identity

[22] See Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Varghese (2008), Wilkins et al. (2012), Yang (2007).

(Glass, Kociolek, Wongtrirat, Lynch, & Cong, 2015; for further reading, see Yakunina et al., 2013). And, as described above, there are many psychological resources and personality factors in promoting better adjustment, adaptation, and satisfaction for international students (PsyCap).[23]

This element has not been adequately addressed in the literature regarding the motivations/reasons for international student mobility. It may have been conceptually and lexically present (e.g., “personal characteristics” in Chen, 2007b, 2008), but has not been treated as a measured construct, nor has it been elaborated theoretically. However, we find it both interesting and important to include this element as a conditioning parameter for international student mobility, because: (1) with regard to migration/relocation, the psychological resources of the individual are an essential part of mobility (Kosic, Kruglanski, Pierro, & Mannetti, 2004; Meshulam & Harpaz, 2015; Ramelli, Florack, Kosic, & Rohmann, 2013) and (2) evidence has begun to grow in recent years with regard to the impact that psychological resources may have on acculturation, coping with stress, and adaptation of international students (e.g., Kashima et al., 2017; Mak, Bodycott, & Ramburuth, 2015; Wang, 2009; Yakunina et al., 2013).

Our premise is that even if an individual is aware that he or she will have difficulties obtaining their personal goals in their home country (Facet A) and are attracted by pull factors (Facet B), it is not enough to decide to study abroad if they believe or feel they would not be able to cope with the consequences of their decision. In other words, a prospective student may feel constrained or strengthened by their psychological resources. Namely, such resources moderate/condition the decision to study abroad. In light of this, we construe this element (c3: psychological resources) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c4: Financial reserves. Over the years, there has been a decline in public investment in higher education, which has meant that international students must pay tuition fees that are usually higher than those for local students, since those higher fees subsidize university management and operation (Lee, 2015, p. 106; see also Bolsmann & Miller, 2008).

[23] For example, self-esteem, intercultural social self-efficacy, and academic self-efficacy (Mak et al., 2015); personal growth initiative and hardiness (Yakunina et al., 2013); flexibility and ability to take risks, emotional stability, tolerance to ambiguity, and coping with stress (Meshulam & Harpaz, 2015, p. 526); mindfulness and the need for cognitive closure (Yakunina et al., 2013), among others.

Hence, learning abroad might occur in accordance with a student's capacity to pay, either fully or partially from their personal financial reserves or their families'. Indeed, tuition fees and studying costs are an influencing factor in students' decisions to pursue higher education abroad (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beine et al., 2014; Cubillo et al., 2006; Huong & Cong, 2018; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nathan, 2017; Rhein, 2017; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Varghese, 2008; Yang, 2007). Nevertheless, Beine et al. (2014) argue that the fees may be paid by grants/scholarships designated for international students (even though finding data on these international funds, such as scholarships, loans, subsidies, and grants, proves difficult; Ahmad et al., 2016; Alfattal, 2017; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Huong & Cong, 2018; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Nathan, 2017; Nghia, 2015). Therefore, all these considerations lead us to construe this element (c4: financial reserves) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c5: Demographical status. This element is enigmatic, at best. We have searched for research and literature material—to no avail. Nevertheless, we included it in this facet since we strongly believe that, just like relocation and migration issues, students seeking higher education overseas may face similar challenges with varying levels of difficulties (e.g., Caldwell & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2016; Lee, 2015; Meshulam & Harpaz, 2015). However, even though relocation decisions have been known to be influenced by family status (e.g., parenthood, marital status; Baldridge, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2006), Chapa and Wang (2016) found that gender and family-related parameters had no actual effect on the decision to relocate (see also Poyrazli, 2015). One point to consider is that such parameters (i.e., parenthood, marital status) are less likely to be relevant when conducting research on B.A. students (undergraduates), because the vast majority are not parents or married. On top of that, most research done in the field of international students has largely focused on undergraduate students, and less so on more advanced degrees (such as M.A., Ph.D., post-doc[24]). We therefore construe this element (c5: demographical status) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c6: Transportation accessibility. The growing number of international students has become possible in part by the variety of transportation modes and widespread routes that have improved accessibility to

[24] As stated, we will further elaborate on the differences between these levels of study at the end of this chapter.

higher education institutions around the world (Lee, 2015). It is also based on: (1) availability of transportation intra- and/or inter-country; (2) cost of transportation; and (3) importance of geographical proximity (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beine et al., 2014; Huong & Cong, 2018; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015). We therefore construe this element (c6: transportation accessibility) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c7: Home-destination countries' affiliations/ties. Sharing cultural similarity and sociohistorical connections may encourage students to move from their country to another "similar" country (e.g., Colombians and Argentinians moving to Spain; Lasanowski, 2011). This is based on many levels:

- political;
- cultural;
- religious;
- economic;
- linguistic;
- historical; and
- colonial, etc.

See, for example, Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Bolsmann and Miller (2008), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018), Jon et al. (2014), Kishun (2011), Nathan (2017), Varghese (2008). This leads us to construe this element (c7: home-destination countries' affiliations/ties) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c8: Language familiarity/barriers. Misra, Crist, and Burant (2003) have stressed that the impact of language proficiency is greater than other demographical parameters, such as age, sex, marital status, or education, and deemed that it is very important in cultural adaptation. "Importantly, because mobility is made 'easy' by language, language policy is almost certainly going to more heavily influence tertiary education reform in the coming years" (Lasanowski, 2011, p. 207; see also Andrade, 2006). This indicates how invaluable language can be as a key mobility driver (see Lasanowski, 2011, p. 197) for students to pursue higher education overseas. However, while English-speaking countries have the advantage at present: "In the future, it is through provision of both English and a foreign language that countries might potentially regain the competitive edge" (Lasanowski, 2011, p. 207).

In addition, language barriers also hinder learning, understanding of assessments, communication, technical language, and academic writing (Andrade, 2006; Beine et al., 2014; Cowley & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2018; Cubillo et al., 2006; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Varghese, 2008; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2015; Yang, 2007).

All these factors lead us to construe this element (c8: language familiarity/barriers) as a part of our mapping sentence.

c9: Recommendations or criticisms. Another impacting factor appearing in many papers is recommendations by, mostly, significant others (such as friends/peers, family, professors and teachers, agents, sponsors, ex-students, etc.; Cubillo et al., 2006; Hildén, 2011; Huong & Cong, 2018; Jon et al., 2014; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Santos et al., 2018). While family is very important to an individual, its role may be overshadowed by the significance of a friend who may give a personal opinion regarding an academic institute or country. As such, a personal experience is perceived to be highly trustworthy[25] (e.g., Gomes & Murphy, 2003; Santos et al., 2018). Thus, these factors lead us to construe this element (c9: recommendations or criticisms) as a part of our mapping sentence.

Basic Examples

Our mapping sentence presents the definitional framework suggested for the reasons of the international student mobility domain. The Cartesian product (see Elizur, 1984) of the facets and their respective elements provides $3 \times 3 \times 9 = 81$[26] total combinations or possibilities to describe the process of decision-making to become an international student. In other words, the reasons for student mobility can be sampled methodically and systematically by creating at least one item for each combination. For example:

[25] As was mentioned in element b2 (Facet B), here alumni may be a salient factor in recommending an institution. However, the probability of an alumni member to be a significant other for another potential international student is very slim.

[26] 3 (= elements in Facet A) × 3 (= elements in Facet B) × 9 (= elements in Facet C).

- *Virtual* international student mobility[27]:
  - A student who wishes to obtain higher education in order broaden his or her knowledge in one of his or her interests (a1: human capital) → in a unique program in a specific university abroad (b2: academic institute) → however, his or her financial reserves are depleted (c4: financial reserves). This student may choose to pursue international higher education virtually.
  - A student wishes to become rich through acquiring a lucrative profession (a2: financial capital) → in a prestigious university (b2: academic institute) → however, because of legal requirements he or she cannot be granted a student visa to the hosting country where the institute is located (c1: formal/legal requirements). This student may choose to study in an education hub or at a branch campus of this university in the country where he or she lives, or even become a virtual international student of that university.
- Physical international student mobility:
  - A student's main goal is to experience other cultures and/or peoples while studying (a3: psychological capital) → in a specific exotic destination county (b1: host country) → and he or she also gets warm recommendations from a family relative who had traveled before to the potential hosting country and was "captivated by its charms" (c9: recommendations or criticisms). This student may decide to physically move to the destination country to achieve said goal.
  - A student who is willing to obtain a highly salaried management position that is conditioned by obtaining a master's degree (a2: financial capital) → is attracted by a specific city with a plethora of career possibilities (b3: host city) → and he or she has a good friend that is already living and working in that specific city (c2: social resources). This student may decide to physically move to the destination country to achieve said goal.

[27] Defined in Chapter 1 as "accessing activities that traditionally require physical mobility, but which can now be undertaken without recourse to physical travel" (Kenyon, Lyons, & Rafferty, 2002, p. 213).

These examples are simple, but all are under the assumption that all elements in Facets A, B, and C are equally weighted. However, in reality, each element may weigh differently according to the individual's state; everyone might give different weights to each element depending on their needs, wants, goals, and situations, etc. For example, a Ph.D. candidate (who wishes to study in an English-speaking country) may weigh the social resources factor (c2), such as prior acquaintance with a potential supervisor, as "heavier" than the language factor (c8). We believe that this is because, usually, Ph.D. candidates have fewer English-language barriers than undergraduates or graduates.

A Final Word on the Differences Between Levels of Study

In the following section we describe several pieces of research that accounted for the levels of study in the decision-making process of international student mobility.

Wilkins et al. (2012) conducted research at international branch campuses ($N = 320$; of various origins, such as African, Indian, Pakistani, Emirati, and others) after making a review of the literature about student choices and motivations of higher education (from 1992 to 2011). The authors found no statistically significant differences in two pull factors—convenience (e.g., "I can continue living with family") and country attractions (e.g., "more familiar/comfortable with culture/lifestyle")—between undergraduate and postgraduate levels of study (Wilkins et al., 2012).

Graduate students pursuing a *research* degree differ from graduates seeking a *professional* degree and also differ from *undergraduates*. The differences are presented in Table 3.1.

Undergraduates were driven by the orientation to seek more experience in general, and career in particular. However, *postgraduates* were motivated by the unavailability of courses at home. Evidently, neither group was influenced by entry/admission problems (Mpinganjira, 2009).

Undergraduates mostly choose engineering and business degrees, while *graduates* mainly choose engineering (as well) and science degrees. The major difference between these levels of study is that graduates seek higher education abroad for the purpose of gaining higher-quality education and were more focused on their career, beyond their undergraduate counterparts (Kim et al., 2018).

Table 3.1 Reasons and their relative importance for undergraduates, research and professional graduates

Reason	*Relative importance*
Encouragement from family or spouse	U > R > P
Encouragement from professors or teachers	R > P > U
Encouragement from other students or friends	R > P > U
Encouragement from alumni	R > P
Degrees provide greater mobility for my future career/work	U > R > P
The degrees are prestigious and valued by my country	U > R > P
Education is perceived as high quality in my country	U > R > P
Educational system is similar to the one in my country	R > U > P
Lower tuition costs	P > R > U
Lower living expenses	P > R > U
Information on studies/degrees as obtained from education fairs	U > P > R
Recommendations (about the host country) from friends	R > P > U
Recommendations (about the host country) from professors/teachers	R > P > U
Recommendations (about the host country) from family/spouse	U > R > P
Recommendations (about the host institution) from my professors/teachers in my country	R > P > U
Recommendations (about the host institution) from professors/teachers in host country	R > P
Recommendations (about the host institution) from my friends/alumni	R > P > U
Recommendations (about the host institution) from my family/spouse	P > U > R
I have friends living in host country	R > P > U
I have family members or relatives living in host country	P > R > U
The quality of the host university	U > R > P
The reputation of the faculty in my program	R > U > P
Positive relationship between faculty and students	R > U > P
The location of the university	P > R > U
The possibility of staying and working in the city where my university is located after graduation	P > U > R
Availability of financial aid	R > P > U
Affordable tuition fees	P > R > U
Program ranking	P > U > R
My friends have studied or are studying at this university	R > P > U
My family members have studied or are studying at this university	P > R > U

Note U = undergraduate; R = research graduate; P = professional graduate. These are only the significant factors influencing the decision whether to study abroad or not. For further reading and more factors in international student mobility, see Chen (2008)

Source Based on Chen (2008)

Undergraduates are determined to pursue higher education abroad because of: (1) better lifestyles; (2) more convenient visa processes; (3) initial intention to settle abroad; and (4) information (from agents). *Postgraduates* were influenced by: (1) fathers' education; (2) fathers' occupation; (3) reputation of the institutions; (4) information (from family and friends); and (5) more constraining admission requirements at home institutions. In addition, fathers' education and occupation did not influence undergraduates, while initial intention to settle abroad and information (from agents) did not affect postgraduates (Wadhwa, 2016).

Undergraduates were *not* at all affected by: (1) accessibility; (2) knowledge of hosting country's culture; (3) practical opportunity and guidance; (4) personal connections; targeted/specific institution or program; (5) financial and research opportunities; (6) academic environment; (7) administrative support and facilities; (8) English availability; and (9) financial or/and academic support. On the other hand, *graduates* were influenced *only* by: (1) knowledge of hosting country's culture (*negative effect*); (2) practical opportunity and guidance; (3) financial and research opportunities; and (4) academic environment (Jon et al., 2014).

In addition, a recent report has shown that *both* undergraduate and postgraduate students choose their destination university/institution by (descending order from first place to last place): (1) teaching quality; (2) cost of living; and (3) school's ranking. Moreover, when choosing a specific program to study, undergraduate and postgraduate students make this decision based on (descending order from first place to last place): (1) interest/passion; (2) cost of tuition fees; and (3.1) *undergraduates*—entry requirements and (3.2) *postgraduates*—teaching quality (Educations.com, 2019).

As can be seen from the research, there is much that can be made of the effects of level of study on the reasons for studying abroad, but this avenue remains relatively unexplored. In order to overcome this discrepancy, we suggest researching this relatively easily measured parameter (i.e., level of study) in the future.

References

Aarinen, A. (2012). *University websites as facilitators of international student decision-making* (Master's thesis, Aalto University, Finland). https://aaltodoc.aalto.fi/bitstream/handle/123456789/7561/hse_ethesis_13106.pdf?sequence=1.

Abubakar, B., Shanka, T., & Muuka, G. N. (2010). Tertiary education: An investigation of location selection criteria and preferences by international students—The case of two Australian universities. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 20*(1), 49–68. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841241003788052.

Adler, P. S., & Kwon, S. W. (2002). Social capital: Prospects for a new concept. *Academy of Management Review, 27*(1), 17–40. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2002.5922314.

Ahmad, A. B., & Shah, M. (2018). International students' choice to study in China: An exploratory study. *Tertiary Education and Management, 24*(4), 325–337. https://doi.org/10.1080/13583883.2018.1458247.

Ahmad, S. Z., Buchanan, F. R., & Ahmad, N. (2016). Examination of students' selection criteria for international education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(6), 1088–1103. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2014-0145.

Ahmad, S. Z., & Hussain, M. (2017). The analytic hierarchy process of the decision-making factors of African students in obtaining higher education in the United Arab Emirates. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *47*(2), 163–176. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2016.1171703.

Akhtar, M., & Kroener-Herwig, B. (2019). Coping styles and socio-demographic variables as predictors of psychological well-being among international students belonging to different cultures. *Current Psychology, 38*(3), 618–626. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-017-9635-3.

Alfattal, E. (2017). International students' college choice is different! *International Journal of Educational Management, 31*(7), 930–943. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-05-2016-0095.

Americanos, A. (2011). *Factors influencing international students' decisions in choosing a Cyprus higher education institution: Implications for recruitment and marketing* (Doctoral dissertation, Middlesex University, UK). http://eprints.mdx.ac.uk/9106/1/2011AmericanosDPROF.pdf.

Anderson, P. H., Hubbard, A., & Lawton, L. (2015). Student motivation to study abroad and their intercultural development. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, *26*, 39–52. http://ir.stthomas.edu/ocbmgmtpub/23.

Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education, 5*(2), 131–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240906065589.

Arias, O., Evan, D. K., & Santos, I. (Eds.). (2019). *The skills balancing act in Sub-Saharan Africa: Investing in skills for productivity, inclusivity, and adaptability*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Avey, J. B., Reichard, R., Luthans, F., & Mhatre, K. (2011). Meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 22*(2), 127–152. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.20070.

Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2006). *The high impact leader: Moments matter in accelerating authentic leadership development*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Babatunde, M. A. (2018). Estimating the propensity of consuming higher education abroad: Evidence from Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Studies*, *6*(1), 34–43. https://www.ajouronline.com/index.php/AJHSS/article/view/5204.

Bak, W. (2014). Self-standards and self-discrepancies. A structural model of self-knowledge. *Current Psychology, 33*(2), 155–173. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-013-9203-4.

Baldridge, D. C., Eddleston, K. A., & Veiga, J. F. (2006). Saying no to being uprooted: The impact of family and gender on willingness to relocate. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79*(1), 131–149. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317905X53174.

Barragán Codina, J. N., & Leal López, R. H. (2013). The importance of student mobility, academic exchange and internationalization of higher education for college students in a globalized world: The Mexican and Latin American case. *Daena: International Journal of Good Conscience*, *8*(2), 48–63. http://www.spentamexico.org/v8-n2/A3.8(2)48–63.pdf.

Bauer, K. N., Orvis, K. A., Ely, K., & Surface, E. A. (2016). Re-examination of motivation in learning contexts: Meta-analytically investigating the role type of motivation plays in the prediction of key training outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 31*(1), 33–50. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-015-9401-1.

Baumeister, R. F. (2016). Toward a general theory of motivation: Problems, challenges, opportunities, and the big picture. *Motivation and Emotion, 40*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-015-9521-y.

Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.

Becker, R., & Kolster, P. (2012). *International student recruitment: Policies and developments in selected countries*. The Hague: Nuffic.

Bedenlier, S., Kondakci, Y., & Zawacki-Richter, O. (2018). Two decades of research into the internationalization of higher education: Major themes in the *Journal of Studies International Education* (1997–2016). *Journal of Studies in International Education, 22*(2), 108–135. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315317710093.

Beech, S. E. (2018). Adapting to change in the higher education system: International student mobility as a migration industry. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies, 44*(4), 610–625. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2017.1315515.

Beine, M., Noël, R., & Ragot, L. (2014). Determinants of the international mobility of students. *Economics of Education Review, 41*, 40–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.03.003.

Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (Eds.). (2011a). *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (2011b). Global student mobility and the twenty-first century silk road: National trends and new directions. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 1–23). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer–company identification: A framework for understanding consumers' relationships with companies. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(2), 76–88. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.67.2.76.18609.

Binsardi, A., & Ekwulugo, F. (2003). International marketing of British education: Research on the students' perception and the UK market penetration. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 21*(5), 318–327. https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500310490265.

Bolsmann, C., & Miller, H. (2008). International student recruitment to universities in England: Discourse, rationales and globalisation. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 6*(1), 75–88. https://doi.org/10.1080/14767720701855634.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *The handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). New York, NY: Greenwood Press.

Bourke, A. (2000). A model of the determinants of international trade in higher education. *Service Industries Journal, 20*(1), 110–138. https://doi.org/10.1080/02642060000000007.

Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this "we"? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*(1), 83–93. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.1.83.

Brooks, R., & Waters, J. (2009). International higher education and the mobility of UK students. *Journal of Research in International Education, 8*(2), 191–209. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240909105204.

Brooks, R., & Waters, J. (2011). *Student mobilities, migration and the internationalization of higher education*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bundi, P., Varone, F., Gava, R., & Widmer, T. (2018). Self-selection and misreporting in legislative surveys. *Political Science Research and Methods, 6*(4), 771–789. https://doi.org/10.1017/psrm.2016.35.

Burt, R. S. (1997). The contingent value of social capital. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 42*(2), 339–365. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393923.

Byrne, M., Flood, B., Hassall, T., Joyce, J., Montaño, J. L. A., González, J. M. G., & Tourna- Germanou, E. (2012). Motivations, expectations and preparedness for higher education: A study of accounting students in Ireland, the UK, Spain and Greece. *Accounting Forum*, *36*(2), 134–144. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.accfor.2011.12.001.

Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1982). The need for cognition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 42*(1), 116–131. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.42.1.116.

Cacioppo, J. T., Petty, R. E., Feinstein, J. A., & Jarvis, W. B. G. (1996). Dispositional differences in cognitive motivation: The life and times of individuals varying in need for cognition. *Psychological Bulletin, 119*(2), 197–253. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.119.2.197.

Calder, B. J., Phillips, L. W., & Tybout, A. M. (1982). The concept of external validity. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9*(3), 240–244. https://doi.org/10.1086/208920.

Caldwell, E. F., & Hyams-Ssekasi, D. (2016). Leaving home: The challenges of Black-African international students prior to studying overseas. *Journal of International Students, 6*(2), 588–613.

Campbell, K. (2015). Bilateral student mobility in Brazil: Language as a double-edged sword in internationalization. *Journal of International Mobility, 2015/1*(3), 129–146. https://doi.org/10.3917/jim.001.0129.

Card, D. (1999). The causal effect of education on earnings. In O. Ashenfelter & D. Card (Eds.), *Handbook of labor economics* (Vol. 3, pp. 1801–1863). New York, NY: Elsevier.

Carver, C. S., Lawrence, J. W., & Scheier, M. F. (1999). Self-discrepancies and affect: Introducing the role of feared selves. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25*(7), 783–792. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167299025007002.

Chao, C. N., Hegarty, N., Angelidis, J., & Lu, V. F. (2017). Chinese students' motivations for studying in the United States. *Journal of International Students*, *7*(2), 257–269. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1129138.pdf.

Chapa, O., & Wang, Y. J. (2016). Oh, the places you'll go! Pre-employment relocation decision making by college graduates in the US. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 24*(4), 591–614. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-03-2015-0853.

Chen, L.-H. (2007a). East-Asian students' choice of Canadian graduate schools. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, *7*(4), 271–306. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.ijea.2150071.

Chen, L.-H. (2007b). Choosing Canadian graduate schools from afar: East Asian students' perspectives. *Higher Education*, *54*(5), 759–780. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-006-9022-8.

Chen, L.-H. (2008). Internationalization or international marketing? Two frameworks for understanding international students' choice of Canadian universities. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 18*(1), 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841240802100113.

Collins English Dictionary. (2012). *Newton's law of gravitation*. http://www.dictionary.com/browse/newton-s-law-of-gravitation.
Collins, F. L., Sidhu, R., Lewis, N., & Yeoh, B. S. (2014). Mobility and desire: International students and Asian regionalism in aspirational Singapore. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 35*(5), 661–676. https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2014.921996.
Couper, M. P., & De Leeuw, E. D. (2003). Nonresponse in cross-cultural and cross-national surveys. In J. A. Harkness, F. J. R. van de Vijver, & P. Mohler (Eds.), *Cross-cultural survey methods* (pp. 157–177). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
Cowley, P., & Hyams-Ssekasi, D. (2018). Motivation, induction, and challenge: Examining the initial phase of international students' educational sojourn. *Journal of International Students, 8*(1), 109–130. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1101039.
Cubillo, J. M., Sánchez, J., & Cerviño, J. (2006). International students' decision-making process. *International Journal of Educational Management, 20*(2), 101–115. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540610646091.
Cubillo-Pinilla, J. M., Zúñiga, J., Soret, I., & Sánchez, J. (2009). Factors influencing international students' evaluations of higher educational programs. *The Journal of Academy of Business, 15*(1), 270–278. http://www.citeulike.org/group/11847/article/6014103.
Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.
Dehejia, R., Pop-Eleches, C., & Samii, C. (2019). From local to global: External validity in a fertility natural experiment. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics*, 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/07350015.2019.1639407.
de Souza, M. G. T. C., Roazzi, A., de Souza, B. C., & da Silva, E. S. (2015). Evaluating the Honor Scale as an instrument for exploring the role of the culture of honor in the propensity towards homicide in Northeastern Brazil: SSA vs. factor analysis. In A. Roazzi, B. C. Souza, & W. Bilsky (Eds.), *Facet theory: Searching for structure in complex social, cultural and psychological phenomena* (pp. 365–381). Recife, Brazil: Editora Universitária UFPE.
Eder, J., Smith, W. W., & Pitts, R. E. (2010). Exploring factors influencing student study abroad destination choice. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 10*(3), 232–250. https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2010.503534.
Educations.com. (2019). *International higher education report: Student trends 2019*. https://www.educations.com/read-student-trends-2019-15494.
Elizur, D. (1984). Facets of work values: A structural analysis of work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(3), 379–389. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.379.
Elturki, E., Liu, Y., Hjeltness, J., & Hellmann, K. (2019). Needs, expectations, and experiences of international students in pathway programs in the United States. *Journal of International Students, 9*(1), 192–210. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdrr.2019.101136.

Felício, J. A., Couto, E., & Caiado, J. (2014). Human capital, social capital and organizational performance. *Management Decision, 52*(2), 350–364. https://doi.org/10.1108/MD-04-2013-0260.

Ferreyra, M. M., Avitabile, C., Botero Álvarez, J., Haimovich Paz, F., & Urzúa, S. (Eds.). (2017). *At a crossroads: Higher education in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Festinger, L., & Carlsmith, J. M. (1959). Cognitive consequences of forced compliance. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 58*(2), 203–210. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0041593.

Findlay, A. M., King, R., Smith, F. M., Geddes, A., & Skeldon, R. (2012). World class? An investigation of globalisation, difference and international student mobility. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers, 37*(1), 118–131. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-5661.2011.00454.x.

Fisher, Y. (2011). The sense of self-efficacy of aspiring principals: Exploration in a dynamic concept. *Social Psychology of Education, 14*(1), 93–117. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-010-9136-9.

Frankel, J., & Rose, A. (2002). An estimate of the effect of common currencies on trade and income. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 117*(2), 437–466. https://doi.org/10.1162/003355302753650292.

Fyall, A. (2019). Tourism destination re-positioning and strategies. In E. Fayos-Solà & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The future of tourism: Innovation and sustainability* (pp. 271–284). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Gacel-Ávila, J. (2012). Comprehensive internationalisation in Latin America. *Higher Education Policy, 25*(4), 493–510. https://doi.org/10.1057/hep.2012.9.

George Mwangi, C. A., Peralta, A. M., Fries-Britt, S., & Daoud, N. (2016). Academic motivation and experiences of international students of color in STEM. In K. Brista & C. Foster (Eds.), *Exploring the social and academic experiences of international students in higher education institutions* (pp. 197–211). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Giddens, A., Duneier, M., Appelbaum, R. P., & Carr, D. S. (2016). *Introduction to sociology* (9th ed.). New York, NY: W. W. Norton.

Glass, C. R., Kociolek, E., Wongtrirat, R., Lynch, R. J., & Cong, S. (2015). Uneven experiences: The impact of student–faculty interactions on international students' sense of belonging. *Journal of International Students*, *5*(4), 353–367. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1066288.pdf.

Goi, M. T., Kalidas, V., & Yunus, N. (2018). Mediating roles of emotion and experience in the stimulus-organism-response framework in higher education institutions. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 28*(5), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841241.2018.1425231.

Gomes, L., & Murphy, J. (2003). An exploratory study of marketing international education online. *International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(3), 116–125. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310467787.

González, C. R., Mesanza, R. B., & Mariel, P. (2011). The determinants of international student mobility flows: An empirical study on the Erasmus programme. *Higher Education, 62*(4), 413–430. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-010-9396-5.

Groves, R. M., & Couper, M. P. (2012). *Nonresponse in household interview surveys*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Groves, R. M., & Peytcheva, E. (2008). The impact of nonresponse rates on nonresponse bias: A meta-analysis. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 72*(2), 167–189. https://doi.org/10.1093/poq/nfn011.

Groves, R. M., Singer, E., & Corning, A. (2000). Leverage-saliency theory of survey participation: Description and an illustration. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, *64*(3), 299–308. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3078721.

Hackett, P. M. W. (2014). *Facet theory and the mapping sentence: Evolving philosophy, use and application*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hazen, H. D., & Alberts, H. C. (2006). Visitors or immigrants? International students in the United States. *Population, Space and Place, 12*(3), 201–216. https://doi.org/10.1002/psp.409.

Heckman, J. J. (1979). Sample selection bias as a specification error. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society, 47*(1), 153–161. https://doi.org/10.2307/1912352.

Heffernan, T., Wilkins, S., & Butt, M. M. (2018). Transnational higher education: The importance of institutional reputation, trust and student–university identification in international partnerships. *International Journal of Educational Management, 32*(2), 227–240. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-05-2017-0122.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy; A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review, 94,* 319–340. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.94.3.319.

Higgins, E. T. (1999). Who do self-discrepancies have specific relations to emotions? The second-generation question of Tangney, Niedenthal, Covert, and Barlow (1998). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 77*(6), 1313–1317. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.77.6.1313.

Higgins, E. T., Bargh, J. A., & Lombardi, W. (1985). Nature of priming effects on categorization. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 11,* 59–69. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.11.1.59.

Higgins, E. T., Roney, C. J., Crowe, E., & Hymes, C. (1994). Ideal versus ought predilections for approach and avoidance: Distinct self-regulatory systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 66*(2), 276–286. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.66.2.276.

Higgins, E. T., Tykocinski, O., & Vookles, J. (1990). Patterns of self-beliefs: The psychological significance of relations among the actual, ideal, ought, can, and future selves. In J. M. Olson, M. P. Zanna, & C. P. Herman (Eds.), *Self-inference processes: The Ontario symposium* (pp. 153–190). Hillsdale, MI: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). (2004). International student mobility. *HEFCE Issues Paper 2003/30*. Bristol: Higher Education Funding Council for England. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/293811638_'International_student_mobility'_Bristol_Higher_Education_Funding_Council_for_England_Issues_Paper_200430.

Hildén, M. (2011). *International students' decision-making process* (Bachelor's thesis, Lappeenranta University of Technology, Finland). http://urn.fi/URN:NBN:fi-fe201206206061.

Hildenbrand, K., Sacramento, C. A., & Binnewies, C. (2018). Transformational leadership and burnout: The role of thriving and followers' openness to experience. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 23*(1), 31–43. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000051.

Hitt, M. A., & Ireland, R. D. (2002). The essence of strategic leadership: Managing human and social capital. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 9*(1), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190200900101.

Hong Nguyen, C. (2013). Vietnamese international student mobility: Past and current trends. *Asian Education and Development Studies, 2*(2), 127–148. https://doi.org/10.1108/20463161311321411.

Hooley, G. J., & Lynch, J. E. (1981). Modelling the student university choice process through the use of conjoint measurement techniques. *European Research, 9*(4), 158–170. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2017.1330806.

Hotta, J., & Ting-Toomey, S. (2013). Intercultural adjustment and friendship dialectics in international students: A qualitative study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 37*(5), 550–566. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2013.06.007.

Houston, M. B. (2016). Is "strategy" a dirty word? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 44*, 557–561. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-016-0481-x.

Huong, T. T., & Cong, L. V. (2018). Motivations of Vietnamese students in study abroad: A case of Vietnamese graduate students in the Philippines. *International Research in Education, 6*(1), 14–29. https://doi.org/10.5296/ire.v6i1.12245.

Hyams-Ssekasi, D., Mushibwe, C. P., & Caldwell, E. F. (2014). International education in the United Kingdom: The challenges of the golden opportunity for Black-African students. *Sage Open*, *4*(4), article 2158244014562386. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014562386.

Israel Central Bureau of Statistics. (2017). *Findings from the 2016 Household Expenditure Survey on the 14 largest cities in Israel* [In Hebrew]. CBS.gov. http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/newhodaot/hodaa_template.html?hodaa=201724349.

Jackson, G. A. (1982). Public efficiency and private choice in higher education. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 4*(2), 237–247. https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737004002237.

James, L. R., Mulaik, S. A., & Brett, J. M. (1982). *Conditions for confirmatory analysis and causal inference*. San Francisco, CA: Sage.

James-MacEachern, M., & Yun, D. (2017). Exploring factors influencing international students' decision to choose a higher education institution: A comparison between Chinese and other students. *International Journal of Educational Management, 31*(3), 343–363. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2015-0158.

Jaramilo, I. C., & de Wit, H. (2011). Student mobility trends in Latin America. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 127–142). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Jianvittayakit, L. (2012). Motivation factors of international students in choosing a foreign university: A case study on Mahidol University International College. *Interdisciplinary Studies Journal*, *12*(2), 172–189. https://www.academia.edu/2920039/Motivation_factors_of_international_students_in_choosing_a_foreign_university.

Jianvittayakit, L., & Dimanche, F. (2010, July). An investigation of travel motivation as a factor in international students' choice of a foreign university: A Thai case study. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Colloquium on Tourism & Leisure, Bangkok, Thailand* (Vol. 6). https://www.academia.edu/519548/An_Investigation_of_travel_motivation_as_a_factor_in_international_students_choice_of_a_foreign_university_A_Thai_Case_Study.

Johnes, J. (2018). University rankings: What do they really show? *Scientometrics, 115*(1), 585–606. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-018-2666-1.

Jon, J. E., Lee, J. J., & Byun, K. (2014). The emergence of a regional hub: Comparing international student choices and experiences in South Korea. *Higher Education, 67*(5), 691–710. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9674-0.

Joseph, M., & Joseph, B. (2000). Indonesian students' perceptions of choice criteria in the selection of a tertiary institution: Strategic implications. *International Journal of Educational Management, 14*(1), 40–44. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540010310396.

Kamal Basha, N., Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2016). International students' university preferences: How different are Malaysian and Chinese students? *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(2), 197–210. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-08-2014-0122.

Kanfer, R., Frese, M., & Johnson, R. E. (2017). Motivation related to work: A century of progress. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(3), 338–355. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000133.

Kashima, E. S., Greiner, T., Sadewo, G., Ampuni, S., Helou, L., Nguyen, V. A., … Kaspar, K. (2017). Open-and closed-mindedness in cross-cultural adaptation: The roles of mindfulness and need for cognitive closure. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *59*, 31–42.

Katsiaryna, M. (2015). *Factors influencing the choice of Finland as Fulbright student program destination* (Master's thesis, University of Tampere, Finland). http://tampub.uta.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/97877/GRADU-1438337225.pdf;sequence=1.

Kember, D., Ho, A., & Hong, C. (2010). Initial motivational orientation of students enrolling in undergraduate degrees. *Studies in Higher Education, 35*(3), 263–276. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070903023510.

Kent-Wilkinson, A., Leurer, M. D., Luimes, J., Ferguson, L., & Murray, L. (2015). Studying abroad: Exploring factors influencing nursing students' decisions to apply for clinical placements in international settings. *Nurse Education Today, 35*(8), 941–947. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2015.03.012.

Kenyon, S., Lyons, G., & Rafferty, J. (2002). Transport and social exclusion: Investigating the possibility of promoting inclusion through virtual mobility. *Journal of Transport Geography, 10*(3), 207–219. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-6923(02)00012-1.

Kim, D., Bankart, C. A. S., Jiang, X., & Brazil, A. M. (2018). Understanding the college choice process of Asian international students. In Y. Ma & M. Garcia-Murillo (Eds.), *Understanding international students from Asia in American universities* (pp. 15–41). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Kim, K., Oh, I. K., & Jogaratnam, G. (2007). College student travel: A revised model of push motives. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 13*(1), 73–85. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766706071201.

King, B., & Gardiner, S. (2015). Chinese international students: An avant-garde of independent travellers? *International Journal of Tourism Research, 17*(2), 130–139. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1971.

Kishun, R. (2011). Student mobility trends in Africa: A baseline analysis of selected African countries. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 143–165). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Knight, J. (2011a). Education hubs: A fad, a brand, an innovation? *Journal of Studies in International Education, 15*(3), 221–240. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311398046.

Knight, J. (2011b). Five myths about internationalization. *International Higher Education, 62,* 14–15. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.62.8532.

Knight, J. (2012a). Student mobility and internationalization: Trends and tribulations. *Research in Comparative and International Education, 7*(1), 20–33. https://doi.org/10.2304/rcie.2012.7.1.20.

Knight, J. (2012b). *Internationalization: Three generations of crossborder higher education*. New Delhi: India International Centre.

Knight, J. (2014). Three generations of crossborder higher education: New developments, issues and challenges. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 43–58). Oxford: Symposium Books.

Knight, J. (2017). Global: Five truths about internationalization. In G. Mihut, P. G. Altbach, & H. de Wit (Eds.), *Understanding higher education internationalization: Global perspectives on higher education* (pp. 13–15). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2015). Regional education hubs—rhetoric or reality. *International Higher Education, 59*, 1–2. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2010.59.8491.

Knight, J., & Morshidi, S. (2011). The complexities and challenges of regional education hubs: Focus on Malaysia. *Higher Education, 62*(5), 593–606. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-011-9467-2.

Kondakci, Y. (2011). Student mobility reviewed: Attraction and satisfaction of international students in Turkey. *Higher Education*, *62*(5), 573–592. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-011-9406-2.

Kosic, A., Kruglanski, A. W., Pierro, A., & Mannetti, L. (2004). The social cognition of immigrants' acculturation: Effects of the need for closure and the reference group at entry. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 86*(6), 796–813. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.6.796.

Kosmützky, A., & Putty, R. (2016). Transcending borders and traversing boundaries: A systematic review of the literature on transnational, offshore, crossborder, and borderless higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *20*(1), 8–33. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315315604719.

Koval, E. M., Hackett, P. M. W., & Schwarzenbach, J. B. (2016). A mapping sentence mereology for understanding the mobility of international students. In B. Krishna & C. Foster (Eds.), *Global perspectives and local challenges surrounding international student mobility* (pp. 53–67). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Kukull, W. A., & Ganguli, M. (2012). Generalizability: The trees, the forest, and the low-hanging fruit. *Neurology, 78*(23), 1886–1891. https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0b013e318258f812.

Kumar, R. (2014). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners* (4th ed.). London: Sage.

Larbi, F. O., & Fu, W. (2017). Practices and challenges of internationalization of higher education in China; international students' perspective: A case study of Beijing Normal University. *International Journal of Comparative Education and Development, 19*(2/3), 78–96. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCED-12-2016-0025.

Lasanowski, V. (2011). Can speak, will travel: The influence of language on global student mobility. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 193–210). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Lazić, A., & Brkić, M. (2015). *An analysis of decision-making factors of international students in selecting the summer programme: The case of the Ljubljana Summer School* (Master's thesis, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia). www.cek.ef.uni-lj.si/magister/lazic1791-B.pdf.

Lee, C.-F. (2014). An investigation of factors determining the study abroad destination choice: A case study of Taiwan. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(4), 362–381. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313497061.

Lee, E. S. (1966). A theory of migration. *Demography, 3*(1), 47–57. https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063.

Lee, J. J. (2015). Engaging international students. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (2nd ed., pp. 105–120). New York, NY: Routledge.

Lee, J. J., & Sehoole, C. (2015). Regional, continental, and global mobility to an emerging economy: The case of South Africa. *Higher Education, 70*(5), 827–843.

Legault, L. (2016). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In Z. H. Virgil & T. K. Shackelford (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of personality and individual differences* (pp. 1–3). New York, NY: Springer.

Levy, S. (2005). Guttman, Louis. In K. Kempf-Leonard (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of social measurement* (Vol. 2, pp. 175–188). Amsterdam, NL: Elsevier.

Lewis, W. (2016). Study abroad influencing factors: An investigation of socio-economic status, social, cultural, and personal factors. *Ursidae: The Undergraduate Research Journal at the University of Northern Colorado*, *5*(3), 6. https://digscholarship.unco.edu/urj/vol5/iss3/6.

Li, M., & Bray, M. (2007). Cross-border flows of students for higher education: Push–pull factors and motivations of mainland Chinese students in Hong Kong and Macau. *Higher Education, 53*(6), 791–818. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-005-5423-3.

Liu-Farrer, G. (2011). *Labor migration from China to Japan: International students, transnational migrants.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Lohr, S. L. (2019). *Sampling: Design and analysis* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Chapman and Hall/CRC.

Lomer, S., Papatsiba, V., & Naidoo, R. (2018). Constructing a national higher education brand for the UK: Positional competition and promised capitals. *Studies in Higher Education, 43*(1), 134–153. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1157859.

Luong, C., Strobel, A., Wollschläger, R., Greiff, S., Vainikainen, M. P., & Preckel, F. (2017). Need for cognition in children and adolescents: Behavioral correlates and relations to academic achievement and potential. *Learning and Individual Differences, 53,* 103–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.10.019.

Luthans, F., Luthans, K. W., & Luthans, B. C. (2004). Positive psychological capital: Beyond human and social capital. *Business Horizons, 47*(1), 45–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2003.11.007.

Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2004). Human, social, and now positive psychological capital management: Investing in people for competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics, 33*(2), 143–160. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.01.003.

Luthans, F., Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2015). *Psychological capital and beyond*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Lykken, D. T., McGue, M., & Tellegen, A. (1987). Recruitment bias in twin research: The rule of two-thirds reconsidered. *Behavior Genetics, 17*(4), 343–362. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01068136.

Lynch, J. G. (1999). Theory and external validity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(3), 367–376. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070399273007.

Mahmoodi-Shahrebabaki, M. (2017). The effect of perfectionism on burnout among English language teachers: The mediating role of anxiety. *Teachers and Teaching, 23*(1), 91–105. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2016.1203776.

Mak, A. S., Bodycott, P., & Ramburuth, P. (2015). Beyond host language proficiency: Coping resources predicting international students' satisfaction. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 19*(5), 460–475. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315315587109.

Maringe, F. (2006). University and course choice: Implications for positioning, recruitment and marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management, 20*(6), 466–479. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540610683711.

Maringe, F., & Carter, S. (2007). International students' motivations for studying in UK HE: Insights into the choice and decision making of African students. *International Journal of Educational Management, 21*(6), 459–475. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710780000.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review, 50*(4), 370–396. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346.

Mazzarol, T. (1998). Critical success factors for international education marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management, 12*(4), 163–175. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549810220623.

Mazzarol, T. W., & Soutar, G. N. (2002). "Push–pull" factors influencing international student destination choice. *International Journal of Educational Management, 16*(2), 82–90. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540210418403.

McKenna, L., Robinson, E., Penman, J., & Hills, D. (2017). Factors impacting on psychological wellbeing of international students in the health professions: A scoping review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 74,* 85–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2017.06.007.

McMahon, M. E. (1992). Higher education in a world market: An historical look at the global context of international study. *Higher Education, 24*(4), 465–482. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00137243.

McManus, R., Haddock-Fraser, J., & Rands, P. (2017). A methodology to understand student choice of higher education institutions: The case of the United Kingdom. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 39*(4), 390–405. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2017.1330806.

McRobert, C. J., Hill, J. C., Smale, T., Hay, E. M., & Van der Windt, D. A. (2018). A multi-modal recruitment strategy using social media and internet-mediated methods to recruit a multidisciplinary, international sample of clinicians to an online research study. *PloS One*, *13*(7), e0200184. https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0200184.

Meshulam, I., & Harpaz, I., (2015). *Human resource management: The strategic approach* [In Hebrew]. Haifa: Haifa University Press.

Mikalayeva, L. (2015). Motivation, ownership, and the role of the instructor in active learning. *International Studies Perspectives, 17*(2), 214–229. https://doi.org/10.1093/isp/ekv001.

Miller, R. S. (2012). *Understanding the motivation of Vietnamese international students and their higher education experiences in the United States* (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas, USA). https://digital.library.unt.edu/ark:/67531/metadc115122/m2/1/high_res_d/dissertation.pdf.

Misra, R., Crist, M., & Burant, C. J. (2003). Relationships among life stress, social support, academic stressors, and reactions to stressors of international students in the United States. *International Journal of Stress Management, 10*(2), 137–157. https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.10.2.137.

Moorman, C., Van Heerde, H. J., Moreau, C. P., & Palmatier, R. W. (2019). Challenging the boundaries of marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(3), 002224291986708. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022242919867086.

Mpinganjira, M. (2009). Comparative analysis of factors influencing the decision to study abroad. *African Journal of Business Management, 3*(8), 358–365. https://doi.org/10.5897/AJBM09.117.

Nachatar Singh, J. K., Schapper, J., & Jack, G. (2014). The importance of place for international students' choice of university: A case study at a Malaysian university. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(5), 463–474. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315314523990.

Nafari, J., Arab, A., & Ghaffari, S. (2017). Through the looking glass: Analysis of factors influencing Iranian students' study abroad motivations and destination choice. *Sage Open, 7*(2), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244017716711.

Nathan, G. (2017). *The OECD expert group on migration SOPEMI annual report: International migration—Israel 2016–2017*. Kvar-Monash, Israel: The Institute for Immigration and Social Integration, Ruppin Academic Center. http://www.israel-sociology.org.il/uploadimages/26102017_4.pdf.

Nehrlich, A. D., Gebauer, J. E., Sedikides, C., & Abele, A. E. (2019). Individual self > relational self > collective self—But why? Processes driving the self-hierarchy in self-and person perception. *Journal of Personality, 87*(2), 212–230. https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12384.

Nestor, P. G., & Schutt, R. K. (2018). *Research methods in psychology: Investigating human behavior* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ng, T. W., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2007). Dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of workaholism: A conceptual integration and extension. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28*(1), 111–136. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.424.

Ngamkamollert, T., & Ruangkanjanases, A. (2015). Factors influencing foreign students' satisfaction toward international program in Thai universities. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 5*(3), 170–178. https://doi.org/10.7763/IJIET.2015.V5.497.

Nghia, T. L. H. (2015). *Factors influencing prospective international students' motivation for overseas study and selection of host countries and institutions: The case of Vietnamese students*. Paper presented at the 26th ISANA International Education Conference. http://isana.proceedings.com.au/docs/2015/FullPaper-Tran_Le_Huu_Nghia.pdf.

Nilphan, P. (2005). *Internationalising Thai higher education: Examining policy implementation* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Leeds, UK). http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/331/1/uk_bl_ethos_421991.pdf.

Oleksiyenko, A. (2018). *Global mobility and higher learning*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Onk, V. B., & Joseph, M. (2017). International student recruitment techniques: A preliminary analysis. *Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education*, *13*(1), 25–34. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1139145.pdf.

Orellana-Damacela, L. E., Tindale, R. S., & Suárez-Balcázar, Y. (2000). Decisional and behavioral procrastination: How they relate to self-discrepancies. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, *15*, 225–238. https://ecommons.luc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1026&context=psychology_facpubs.

Özoğlu, M., Gür, B. S., & Coşkun, İ. (2015). Factors influencing international students' choice to study in Turkey and challenges they experience in Turkey. *Research in Comparative and International Education, 10*(2), 223–237. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745499915571718.

Padlee, S. F., Kamaruddin, A. R., & Baharun, R. (2010). International students' choice behavior for higher education at Malaysian private universities. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 2*(2), 202–211. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v2n2p202.

Perez-Esparrells, C., & Orduna-Malea, E. (2018). Do the technical universities exhibit distinct behaviour in global university rankings? A Times Higher Education (THE) case study. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management, 48*, 97–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jengtecman.2018.04.007.

Petersdotter, L., Niehoff, E., & Freund, P. A. (2017). International experience makes a difference: Effects of studying abroad on students' self-efficacy. *Personality and Individual Differences, 107,* 174–178. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.11.040.

Pimpa, N. (2003). The influence of family on Thai students' choices of international education. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(4), 211–219. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310484931.

Pintrich, P. R., Marx, R. W., & Boyle, R. A. (1993). Beyond cold conceptual change: The role of motivational beliefs and classroom contextual factors in the process of conceptual change. *Review of Educational Research, 63*(2), 167–199. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543063002167.

Poyrazli, S. (2015). Psychological symptoms and concerns experienced by international students: Outreach implications for counseling centers. *Journal of International Students*, *5*(3), 306–312. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1060046.pdf.

Price, I. F., Matzdorf, F., Smith, L., & Agahi, H. (2003). The impact of facilities on student choice of university. *Facilities, 21*(10), 212–222. https://doi.org/10.1108/02632770310493580.

Rabenu, E., Elizur, D., & Yaniv, E. (2015). Comparing SSA and factor analysis: The case of coping with stress. In A. Roazzi, B. C. Souza, & W. Bilsky (Eds.), *Facet theory: Searching for structure in complex social, cultural and psychological phenomena* (pp. 139–152). Recife, Brazil: Editora Universitária UFPE.

Rabenu, E., & Tziner, A. (2018). Adapting to the New Era: A necessary move for the advancement of robust science. *Amfiteatru Economic*, *20*(48), 470–476. https://doi.org/10.24818/EA/2018/48/470.

Rabenu, E., & Yaniv, E. (2017). Psychological resources and strategies to cope with stress at work. *International Journal of Psychological Research*, *10*(2), 8–15. https://doi.org/10.21500/20112084.2698.

Rabenu, E., Yaniv, E., & Elizur, D. (2016). The relationship between psychological capital, coping with stress, well-being, and performance. *Current Psychology, 36*(4), 875–887. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-016-9477-4.

Rachaniotis, N. P., Kotsi, F., & Agiomirgianakis, G. M. (2013). Internationalization in tertiary education: Intra-European students mobility. *Journal of Economic Integration, 28,* 457–481. https://doi.org/10.11130/jei.2013.28.3.457.

Ramelli, M., Florack, A., Kosic, A., & Rohmann, A. (2013). Being prepared for acculturation: On the importance of the first months after immigrants enter a new culture. *International Journal of Psychology, 48*(3), 363–373. https://doi.org/10.1080/00207594.2012.656129.

Ramos, R., & Suriñach, J. (2017). A gravity model of migration between the ENC and the EU [Special issue]. *Journal for Economic and Social Geography (Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie)*, *108*(1), 21–35. https://doi.org/10.1111/tesg.12195.

Rhein, D. (2017). International higher education in Thailand: Challenges within a changing context. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences*, *8*(3), 281–298. https://www.japss.org/upload/1.%20Rhein.pdf.

Rienties, B., & Nolan, E. M. (2014). Understanding friendship and learning networks of international and host students using longitudinal social network analysis. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 41,* 165–180. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2013.12.003.

Rienties, B., & Tempelaar, D. (2013). The role of cultural dimensions of international and Dutch students on academic and social integration and academic performance in the Netherlands. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 37*(2), 188–201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2012.11.004.

Rockmann, K. W., & Ballinger, G. A. (2017). Intrinsic motivation and organizational identification among on-demand workers. *The Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(9), 1305–1316. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000224.

Rogers, C. R. (1961). *On becoming a person: A therapist's view of psychology.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Russell, G., Mandy, W., Elliott, D., White, R., Pittwood, T., & Ford, T. (2019). Selection bias on intellectual ability in autism research: A cross-sectional review and meta-analysis. *Molecular Autism, 10*(1), 9–18. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13229-019-0260-x.

Ryan, J., Rabbidge, M., Wang, Y., & Field, J. (2019). Satisfiers and dissatisfiers for international vocational education students. *Journal of International Students, 9*(3), 795–814. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v9i3.751.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 68–78. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68.

Safakli, O. V., & Ihemeje, O. O. O. (2015). Motivation of students studying abroad: Case of foreign students in European University of Lefke (EUL). *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development, 4*(4), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARPED/v4-i4/1863.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (2000). The role of dispositions, entry stressors, and behavioral plasticity theory in predicting newcomers' adjustment to work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(1), 43–62. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(200002)21:1%3c43:AID-JOB985%3e3.0.CO;2-W.

Santos, C. L., Rita, P., & Guerreiro, J. (2018). Improving international attractiveness of higher education institutions based on text mining and sentiment analysis. *International Journal of Educational Management, 32*(3), 431–447. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-01-2017-0027.

Sarstedt, M., Bengart, P., Shaltoni, A. M., & Lehmann, S. (2018). The use of sampling methods in advertising research: A gap between theory and practice. *International Journal of Advertising, 37*(4), 650–663. https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2017.1348329.

Sawir, E., Marginson, S., Deumert, A., Nyland, C., & Ramia, G. (2008). Loneliness and international students: An Australian study. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 12*(2), 148–180. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307299699.

Schomburg, H. (2011). Employability and mobility of bachelor graduates: The findings of graduate surveys in ten European countries on the assessment and impact of the Bologna reform. In H. Schomburg & U. Teichler (Eds.), *Employability and mobility of bachelor graduates in Europe: Key results of the Bologna Process* (pp. 253–273). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Schwaba, T., Luhmann, M., Denissen, J. J. A., Chung, J. M., & Bleidorn, W. (2017). Openness to experience and culture-openness transactions across the lifespan. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 115*(1), 118–136. https://doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000150.

Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2*(1/11), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1116.

Sedikides, C. (1993). Assessment, enhancement, and verification determinants of the self-evaluation process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65*(2), 317–338. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.65.2.317.

Shanka, T., Quintal, V., & Taylor, R. (2006). Factors influencing international students' choice of an education destination—A correspondence analysis. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 15*(2), 31–46. https://doi.org/10.1300/J050v15n02_02.

Shkoler, O. (2019). Using contemporary quantitative techniques. In P. M. W. Hackett (Ed.), *Quantitative research methods in consumer psychology: Contemporary and data driven approaches* (pp. 22–58). New York, NY: Routledge.

Shkoler, O., Rabenu, E., & Tziner, A. (2017). The dimensionality of workaholism and its relations with internal and external factors. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology (Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones), 33*(3), 193–203. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rpto.2017.09.002.

Shkoler, O., Rabenu, E., Vasiliu, C., Sharoni, G., & Tziner, A. (2017). Organizing the confusion surrounding workaholism: New structure, measure and validation. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*, 1803. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01803.

Sirat, M. (2008). The impact of September 11 on international student flow into Malaysia: Lessons learned. *International Journal of Asia-Pacific Studies, 4*(1), 79–95.

Soutar, G. N., & Turner, J. P. (2002). Students' preferences for university: A conjoint analysis. *International Journal of Educational Management, 16*(1), 40–45. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540210415523.

Spence, J. T., & Robbins, A. S. (1992). Workaholism: Definition, measurement, and preliminary results. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 58*(1), 160–178. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa5801_15.

Srikatanyoo, N., & Gnoth, J. (2002). Country image and international tertiary education. *Journal of Brand Management, 10*(2), 139–146. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.bm.2540111.

Stage, F. K., & Williams, P. D. (1990). Students' motivation and changes in motivation during the first year of college. *Journal of College Student Development, 31*(6), 516–522. http://psycnet.apa.org/record/1991-13892-001.

Strohminger, N., Knobe, J., & Newman, G. (2017). The true self: A psychological concept distinct from the self. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 12*(4), 551–560. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691616689495.

Svenson, O. (1992). Differentiation and consolidation theory of human decision making: A frame of reference for the study of pre-and post-decision processes. *Acta Psychologica, 80*(1–3), 143–168. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-6918(92)90044-E.

Svenson, O. (1996). Decision making and the search for fundamental psychological regularities: What can be learned from a process perspective? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 65*(3), 252–267. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1996.0026.

Tan, A. (2015). College choice behaviors of international students. *Sage Open, 5*(4), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015618995.

Tansel, A., & Demet Güngör, N. (2003). "Brain drain" from Turkey: Survey evidence of student non-return. *Career Development International, 8*(2), 52–69. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430310465453.

Tantivorakulchai, K. (2018). Thai students' destination choice for higher education. *AU Journal of Management, 12*(2), 31–41. https://aujm.au.edu/index.php/aujm/article/view/26.

Teichler, U. (2017). Internationalisation trends in higher education and the changing role of international student mobility. *Journal of International Mobility, 5*(1), 177–216. https://doi.org/10.3917/jim.005.0179.

Times Higher Education. (2018). *World university ranking 2017*. https://www.timeshighereducation.com/features/worlds-most-international-universities-2017.

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M., Oakes, P., Reicher, S., & Wetherell, M. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Tziner, A., Fein, E., & Oren, L. (2012). Human motivation and performance outcomes in the context of downsizing. In C. L. Cooper, A. Pandey, & J. C. Quick (Eds.), *Downsizing: Is less still more?* (pp. 103–133). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Urban, E. L., & Palmer, L. B. (2014). International students as a resource for internationalization of higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(4), 305–324. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313511642.

Van Beek, I., Hu, Q., Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., & Schreurs, B. H. (2012). For fun, love, or money: What drives workaholic, engaged, and burned-out employees at work? *Applied Psychology, 61*(1), 30–55. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2011.00454.x.

Van Schalkwyk, G. J., & Hoi, K. K. (2016). Youths' reasoning about higher education in Macao. In R. B. King & B. I. Bernardo (Eds.), *The psychology of Asian learners* (pp. 71–84). Singapore: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-576-1_5.

Varghese, N. V. (2008). *Globalization of higher education and cross-border student mobility* (pp. 1–34). Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.

Verbik, L., Lasanowski, H., & Lasanowski, V. (2007). *International student mobility: Patterns and trends*. Wes.org. https://web.archive.org/web/20101214053953/http://www.wes.org/educators/pdf/StudentMobility.pdf.

Wadhwa, R. (2016). Students on move: Understanding decision-making process and destination choice of Indian students. *Higher Education for the Future, 3*(1), 54–75. https://doi.org/10.1177/2347631115610221.

Wang, J. (2009). A study of resiliency characteristics in the adjustment of international graduate students at American universities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 13*(1), 22–45. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307308139.

Wang, S. (2017). *An exploration of the motivation of Chinese students for studying in a Master of Education degree in Canada* (Master's thesis, Brock University, Canada). http://dr.library.brocku.ca/bitstream/handle/10464/10963/Brock_Wang_Shimeng_2015.pdf?sequenc.

Watson, N., Bryan, B. C., & Thrash, T. M. (2016). Self-discrepancy: Long-term test–retest reliability and test–criterion predictive validity. *Psychological Assessment, 28*(1), 59–69. https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000162.

Wen, W., & Hu, D. (2019). The emergence of a regional education hub: Rationales of international students' choice of China as the study destination. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 23*(3), 303–325. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315318797154.

Wiers-Jenssen, J. (2019). Paradoxical attraction? Why an increasing number of international students choose Norway. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 23*(2), 281–298. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315318786449.

Wilkins, S., Balakrishnan, M. S., & Huisman, J. (2012). Student choice in higher education: Motivations for choosing to study at an international branch campus. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16*(5), 413–433. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311429002.

Wilkins, S., Shams, F., & Huisman, J. (2013). The decision-making and changing behavioural dynamics of potential higher education students: The impacts of increasing tuition fees in England. *Educational Studies, 39*(2), 125–141. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2012.681360.

Woodall, T., Hiller, A., & Resnick, S. (2014). Making sense of higher education: Students as consumers and the value of the university experience. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(1), 48–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.648373.

World Education Services (WES). (2015a). *Establishing and emerging hubs for international education in Africa and the Middle East*. Wenr.wes.org. https://wenr.wes.org/2015/06/established-emerging-hubs-international-education-africa-middle-east.

World Education Services (WES). (2015b). *Developing international education hubs in Asia*. Wenr.wes.org. https://wenr.wes.org/2015/07/developing-international-education-hubs-asia.

Wu, H. P., Garza, E., & Guzman, N. (2015). International student's challenge and adjustment to college. *Education Research International*, *2015*, article 202753. https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/202753.

Wu, Q. (2014). Motivations and decision-making processes of mainland Chinese students for undertaking master's programs abroad. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(5), 426–444. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313519823.

Yakunina, E. S., Weigold, I. K., Weigold, A., Hercegovac, S., & Elsayed, N. (2013). International students' personal and multicultural strengths: Reducing acculturative stress and promoting adjustment. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 91*(2), 216–223. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2013.00088.x.

Yan, L., & Pei, S. (2018). "Home away from home"? How international students handle difficult and negative experiences in American higher education. *Journal of International Students, 8*(1), 453–472. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1134337.

Yang, M. (2007). What attracts mainland Chinese students to Australian higher education. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation and Development*, *4*(2), 1–12. http://hdl.cqu.edu.au/10018/5964.

Yao, C. W., & Garcia, C. E. (2017). International students in their own country: Motivation of Vietnamese graduate students to attend a collaborative transnational university. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education*, *4*(2), 22–38. http://dx.doi.org/10.18275/fire201704021134.

Zajda, J. (Ed.). (2015). *Second international handbook on globalisation, education and policy research*. New York, NY: Springer.

CHAPTER 4

Marketing Standpoints of International Students

Or Shkoler and Edna Rabenu

Introduction to a Marketing Point of View

Useful, Important, and Frequently Used Marketing Terms

As we proceed to discuss various marketing-related concepts, and to ensure we (authors and readers, academics and practitioners) will have a common language, we first define several terminologies that will aid in understanding the marketing vantage point of this chapter. Some of these terms will receive further discussion and elaboration later in the chapter, as they are core factors to this book. As such, we *strongly encourage the reader to view Appendix D before proceeding in this chapter* in order to review the terminology list.

What Is Marketing?

In this section, we will explain the general notion of marketing, what it is, and what its core components are (with respect to our main goal of the current book). We will firmly tie it to the specific area of international student mobility and higher education.

At its very base, marketing revolves around the exchange between buyers and sellers (Bagozzi, 1974). It is "the process by which companies create value for customers and build strong customer relationships in

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5_4

order to capture value from customers in return" (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. 29). The American Marketing Association (AMA) offered this formal definition: "Marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large" (American Marketing Association, 2013). By and large, marketing is about identifying human and social needs (at the individual, group or the societal level), and meeting them in a profitable manner (Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016). It has three main foundations: (1) market institutions (e.g., consumers, firms and channels, regulators)[1]; (2) processes (e.g., innovation, brands, brand equities, customer experience, and value appropriation); and (3) value creation (e.g., value for consumers, value for firms, and value for society) (Eckhardt et al., 2019; Moorman, Van Heerde, Moreau, & Palmatier, 2019).

Successful marketing also entails the acknowledgment that *everything* matters in marketing, meaning that a broad and integrated point of view may often be indispensable (or even inevitable) (Kotler & Keller, 2012). This perspective is called holistic marketing.[2] The main idea behind holistic marketing is that being more effective than competitors is a key component in achieving organizational goals; that is to say, being "better" (or more effective) than others in creating, delivering, and communicating superior customer value to the target market/population (Kotler & Keller, 2012). We can, hence, argue, with Kotler and Keller, that:

> **Good marketing is no accident**, but a result of careful planning and execution using state-of-the-art tools and techniques… [to] survive in an unforgiving economic environment. Finance, operations, accounting, and other business functions won't really matter without sufficient demand for products and services… In other words, there must be a top line for there to be a bottom line. Thus financial success often depends on marketing ability. (Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 25; original emphasis)

[1] "(1) consumers (i.e., entities that consume offerings), (2) firms (i.e., entities that create offerings) and channels (i.e., entities that facilitate access to offerings), and (3) regulators (i.e., entities that govern the exchange of offerings)" (Eckhardt et al., 2019, p. 9).

[2] Holistic marketing comprises four bases (Kotler & Keller, 2012): (1) internal marketing—marketing department, senior management, other departments; (2) integrated marketing—communications, products and services, channels; (3) performance marketing—sales revenue, brand and customer equity, ethics, environment, legal, community, financial accountability, social responsibility; and (4) relationship marketing—customers, networks, partners, alliances.

Consumer Psychology: The Customer and the Consumer

As mentioned in the Glossary (see Appendix D), the term *customer* (or a client) refers to someone who purchases from a particular store/company/firm, whereas the term *consumer* is a more generalized definition. In other words, someone who buys a pencil from a store X, for example, is their customer. However, someone who could *potentially* buy a pencil from said store X, or anything purchasable for that matter, is a consumer (as the end buyer). Thus, a consumer may or may not become a customer, de facto (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993). The definition of consumers is not limited to monetary exchanges alone, but also other services and intangibles (e.g., education, philosophy, ideas, etc.). It becomes obvious why the understanding of these distinctions is important in the competitive marketing world (see Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993), especially when dealing with international higher education. Although the consumer leads the product's design and strategy, marketing efforts are more customer oriented as they are the potential buyers/clients of the organization, and it is from them (the latter) that the revenues are drawn.

Marketing and consumer psychology intertwine, as the former may be based on the latter. Consumer psychology is a research field exploring how thoughts, attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and perceptions affect the ways that people buy and/or relate to goods and services (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993). This field it is often multidisciplinary, deriving contributions and information from many disciplines as a "natural extension" (Jansson-Boyd, 2019, p. 1) of them: (1) psychology (individuals' behavior and mental processes); (2) sociology (collective behavior and group decisions); (3) social-psychology (how individuals affect and are maybe influenced by others or groups); (4) anthropology (individual–culture relationships); and (5) economics and marketing (production, exchange, and consumption of goods and services) (Chen, 2008; Jansson-Boyd, 2019; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Kotler & Keller, 2016; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993).

The Brand

Branding

In Appendix D, we present a succinct definition of the term "branding." However, we believe it is necessary to have a deeper and better understanding of the scope of branding and how it relates to brand positioning. Successful marketers design and implement marketing activities and programs need to be built to measure and manage the brands to maximize their values. They do it through identifying and establishing brand positioning, planning, and implementing adequate brand marketing, measuring and interpreting the brand's performance, and growing and sustaining the value with more brand positioning and other strategies (e.g., Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016).

A *brand* can be a name, a symbol, a term, sign, or a design that makes a product or service offered by someone (seller, company, service provider, etc.) *identifiable*, and renders them as *unique and distinguished* from those offered by competitors (that are designed to satisfy the same need) (Keller, 2011; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Kotler & Keller, 2012; Tasci, 2011; Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009). The differentiation may be functional, rational, or tangible (i.e., related to the brand's performance) or more symbolic, emotional, or intangible (i.e., related to what the brand represents, in the abstract sense) (Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016). So, a brand emphasizes the identification with these goods or services and the differentiation of them from other competitors in the market, in a promise of quality as a means to gain a sustainable competitive advantage (Tasci, 2011). Most things can be branded: physical goods (e.g., Tylenol medication for pain relieving), a service (e.g., Turkish Airlines), a store (e.g., Zara and Primark), a person (e.g., Angelina Jolie and Roger Federer), a place (e.g., Sydney, New York, Spain and Italy), an organization (e.g., American Psychologists/American Marketing Association), and even an idea (e.g., free trade rights) (Kotler & Keller, 2012).

A brand conveys that by purchasing/acquiring the good one would enjoy functional, economical, or psychological benefits, outlined by unique aspects of the branded good or service. It is a package of perceived rewards and added features that the customer recognizes as having more merits and is more advantageous in company X as differentiated from (or as opposed to) company Y. This package's aim is to attract (i.e., pull), motivate, and retain the (current or potential) customers (Theurer, Tumasjan, Welpe, & Lievens, 2018). A good marketing strategy will create brand value through meaningful and noticeable differences of the brand in question, as opposed to others in the same products and services market category. These differences relate to attributes, properties, and characteristics of the product itself (Keller, 2011; Kotler & Keller, 2012; Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009). A credible and viable brand exudes a certain level of quality and responsibility, so that satisfied (or future) customers can choose the brand again, among a plethora of other shopping goods (Keller, 2011; Kotler & Keller, 2012).

"As consumers' lives become more complicated, rushed, and time-starved, a brand's ability to simplify decision-making and reduce risk become invaluable" (Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 264). So, by branding, a company teaches consumers "who" the product is (giving it a name and other brand elements), what the product is, and why they should care about it. By doing so, the company can create mental structures that help consumers organize their knowledge about products and services to facilitate and clarify their decision-making, which in turn may create value for the company altogether. The brand can be viewed as the "personality" (or "the face") of the company, and thus it should strive to evoke positive emotional responses from the target market segments[3] (Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016; see also Durkin, McKenna, & Cummins, 2012).

The goal of the company is to *create brand equity*, and as mentioned it is the added value(s) endowed on products and services that may be reflected by how consumers feel, think, talk, and act with respect to the brand itself (as well as in the prices, market share, and profitability of the brand). The power of a brand nests in what customers have read, seen, heard, learned, talked about, thought, felt, and imagined about the brand over time (Keller, 2011; Kotler & Keller, 2012). When consumers react more favorably to a brand, a positive equity is reached, while when the consumers react less favorably or with indifference, under the same circumstances, the equity is negative (Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016).

Branding strategies deal with many aspects, but most revolve around core elements of a successful brand (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016):

[3] This strategy has been shown to have positive impact on the business development in higher education, specifically (e.g., Durkin et al., 2012).

- **Advantageous differentiation**: A brand's point(s) of difference from others, and that it is believed to have an emotional or a rational advantage over other brands in the same market category.
- **Relevance**: The appropriateness and breadth of the brand's appeal to the consumers. The brand needs to be relevant to the consumers' needs, price range, or consideration set.
- **Esteem/viability**: The perceptions of quality (and loyalty), how well the brand is regarded and respected.
- **Knowledge**: How and to what extent the consumers are familiar with the brand.
- **Performance**: The perception that the brand will deliver adequate product performance. How well the product or service meets customers' functional needs.
- **Salience**: How often and easily customers think about the brand given different purchase or decision-making situations.
- **Imagery**: Extrinsic characteristics of the product/service, including the ways that the brand attempts to meet customers' needs (e.g., psychological, social, economic, and functional).
- **Bonding and feelings**: The rational and/or emotional attachments to the brand, excluding other brands. This is the challenge for most marketers, to encourage low-bonded customers to become highly bonded.

Succinctly, a brand needs to address three main areas, illustrated by the following questions:

1. **Customer expectations**: "What do I think the brand *can* do for me and what do I think it *should* and *will* do for me as a result?"
2. **Customer experience**: "What does the brand *actually* do for me and how I do feel about it?"
3. **Customer equity**: "What *has* the brand done for me over time and how much value do I feel it has created for me?" (Keller, 2019, p. 277; original emphasis).

Brand Positioning

Marketing strategies are built on segmentation, targeting, and positioning (STP)—discovering different needs in the marketplace, targeting potential consumer populations, providing superior satisfaction, and then positioning products or services in such a way that the target segments will recognize a company's distinctive offerings and images (Keller, 2011; Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016). Specifically:

> **Positioning** is the act of designing a company's offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the minds of the target market. The goal is to locate the brand in the minds of consumers to maximize the potential benefit to the firm. A good brand positioning helps guide marketing strategy by clarifying the brand's essence, identifying the goals it helps the consumer achieve, and showing how it does so in a unique way. Everyone in the organization should understand the brand positioning and use it as context for making decisions. (Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 298; original emphasis)

Positioning is a supporting pole and a vital and integral part of successful branding. A market entity (e.g., seller and service provider) positions itself by establishing (and maintaining) a *favorable place* in the eyes and minds of the target market population, as opposed to its competitors (this is another effort of differentiation). Typically, positioning revolves around the target market population/segment, making the product distinguishable from those of others', and the creation of a positive image of the goods or services (Tasci, 2011; see also Fyall, 2019). As mentioned, this is done through determining the target market segments that a company wishes to address *and* the competitors in this market category, and making a perceptively distinct differentiation from said company's competitors. In other words, identifying the target population (locally, nationally, or internationally, with criteria such as gender, age groups, behavioral patterns, etc.), and based on this target market segment(s), the company may offer its product or package in different ways. The result of good positioning is the successful creation of a customer-focused value proposition—a sound reason the target consumer should buy the product (Kotler, 1997; Kotler & Keller, 2012).

Brand positioning should provide an answer to the customer's question: "Why should I buy your brand?" (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. 237). When designing brand positioning, a company should think about:

- the *importance* of the difference (a highly valued benefit to a sufficient number of customers);
- the *distinctiveness* (an element of the product that is not offered by others);
- the *superiority* (the product should be superior in some regards or superior to other ways of obtaining the same benefit);
- the *communicability* (the distinct elements of the product are communicable and visible to customers);
- the *pre-emptive* nature of the difference (the distinct element cannot be easily copied by competitors);
- the *affordability* (the customer can afford to pay for the distinct product's elements); and
- the *profitability* (the company must deem it profitable to introduce a distinct—new or redesigned—element of the product) (Kotler, 1997).

Well-designed positioning also identifies the optimal points-of-parity (POPs) and points-of-difference (PODs). POPs are about the attributes or benefits associations that are not necessarily unique to the brand, and are often shared between brands and competitors. On the other hand, PODs are those attributes and benefits that consumers strongly associate with a specific brand, that they positively evaluate and believe that they could not find the same "package" with a competitive brand (Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016). "A company that competes by offering unique products that are widely valued by customers is following a *differentiation strategy*. Product differences might come from exceptionally high quality, extraordinary service, innovative design, technological capability, or an unusually positive brand image" (Robbins & Coulter, 2012, p. 234; original emphasis). Other differentiating methods may be different product offerings, pricing, distribution channels and promotional efforts, responsiveness to customer needs and customer services, and added features.

The following is a simple example related to higher education. Two academic institutions (X and Y) offer an MBA (Master of Business Administration) program, each demanding around the same price for this degree—these are the POPs for institution X and Y. However, if X includes fieldwork related to the degree, enabling its students to gain practical training and experience in tandem with studying the degree, these can be significant PODs that just may tilt the scales in institution

X's favor. We suggest a succinct description of branding and positioning—branding creates positive user expectations from your products or services, but positioning is the establishing and generating of preference for your brand relative to competitors, based on a unique and important difference. Thus, branding communicates the "promise" of good user experiences, while positioning relays the brand's unique competitive difference that makes the promise compelling and appealing (based on Boykin, 2019, n.p.).

Brand mantras. Brand mantras (or mottos) are another important and essential way for brand positioning (Keller, 2019; Kotler & Keller, 2012). Beyond their basic definition (see Appendix D), their purpose is to ensure that all employees within the company and all external marketing partners, including consumers, understand what the brand is, in the most fundamental sense. They must economically communicate what the brand is and, even more profoundly, what it is not (Kotler & Keller, 2012). Examples of known mantras are:

- Barack Hussein Obama II: "Yes, we can."
- Disney: "Fun, family, entertainment."
- Nike: "Authentic athletic performance."
- BMW: "The ultimate driving machine."
- Betty Crocker: "Homemade made easy."
- Apple: "Think different."
- McDonald's: "Food, folks, and fun."
- Kit Kat: "Take a break."
- Coca Cola: "Sharing, happiness, tasty."
- American Express: "Worldclass service, personal recognition."
- Academic institutions around the world: "Veritas."

The last example, Veritas, is a unique example of a point-of-parity between universities across nations, all abiding by the same motto—"Veritas" (the Latin word for "truth")—or a variant of it (for example, Harvard University, Hutchesons' Grammar School, The University of Western Ontario, Drake University, Knox College (Illinois), the University of California, Hastings College of the Law, as well as the Dominican Order of the Roman Catholic Church, Loyola College in Nigeria, University of Cape Coast in Ghana, Doshisha University in Japan, Jawaharlal Institute of Postgraduate Medical Education and Research in India, Payap University in Thailand, Seoul National University, in South Korea, Uppsala University in Sweden, and more). This clearly shows that academic institutions have similar mottos, but still differ from one another in their brand positioning. This indicates that they are using distinguished differentiation strategies from one another to make their brand noticeable and unique. This makes marketing for this market very interesting and important.

Devising mantras can be complicated and delicate, but worthwhile. We recommend further reading in Kotler and Armstrong (2014) and Kotler and Keller (2012, 2016).

Brand slogans. While mantras are more direct, internal, descriptive, and aim to capture the essence of the brand, slogans are more evocative and abstract. Brand slogans are the external expression of the positioning of the brand and are used in advertisements and more commercial mediums and communications (Keller, 2019). A slogan,[4] sometimes called a tagline, is "the verbal or written portion of an advertising message that summarizes the main idea in a few memorable words" (Marketing Dictionary, 2019c), and is considered another effective tool for brand positioning (Kohli et al., 2007).

A slogan plays a vital supporting role in brand identity and positioning. It can (and must) tell the consumer something about the image of the product/service, capturing the meaning of the brand, and facilitating consumers' recognition, recall, and favorable associations of it. In other words, the slogan should, ideally, affect the brand's image and awareness, which will entice consumers to seek more knowledge and information about it (Kohli et al., 2007). One of the more prominent advantages of a slogan is its flexibility, as "it is the most dynamic element of a brand's identity, the one most easily and most often altered, when needed" (Kohli et al., 2007, p. 416). In conclusion, a slogan should strategically be a part of brand identity. In contrast to the brand's name (or logo), a slogan is may tell us "where the brand is going." As such, it must be memorable, but not necessarily "simple." Moreover, a slogan can play a key role in implementing a differentiation strategy, and thus help shaping the brand's image and positioning. As such, effective slogans emphasize points of difference that are not only meaningful, but also congruent with extant brand perceptions (based on Kohli et al., 2007, p. 421).

[4] The word *slogan* is an evolution of the Scottish Gaelic word *slogorne*, which means "battle cry" (Kohli, Leuthesser, & Suri, 2007, p. 415).

More Ways of Differentiation

As was mentioned earlier, there are many ways to distinguish one brand from those of competitors. However, those were aspects of the product or the service. There are other ways of differentiation (Kotler & Keller, 2012, 2016). They include (based on Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 312):

- **Employee differentiation**: Better-trained workers who provide the products or services. In higher education, this can go in work in two directions: hiring better-trained administrative staff able to answer the needs of a plethora of students, and provide superior service and "bureaucratic experience"; hiring better academic staff (teaching, research, practical, etc.).
- **Channel differentiation**: More effective and efficient ways of distribution channels (coverage, expertise, and performance) to make the purchasing experience of the product easier and more enjoyable and rewarding. In higher education, this could be translated into different studying methods, such as online/virtual learning (discussed in Chapter 1).
- **Image differentiation**: Crafting powerful and compelling images that appeal to consumers' needs (e.g., psychological, social, economic, and functional). In higher education, this could mean higher and better institutional reputation, related to the academy *and* the industry/market, esteemed and quality research reputation, and more.
- **Service differentiation**: Designing a better and faster delivery system that provides more effective and efficient solutions to consumers. The company needs to think about its own and its suppliers' reliability, resilience, and innovativeness when attempting a service differentiation. In higher education, this could be reflected by fast and appropriate response to students' needs and queries (e.g., scholarships, enrollments, and classes).

Competition

Additionally, organizations should monitor and benchmark when analyzing potential threats from competitors on three main dimensions (based on Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 313):

- share of market—the competitors' share of the available target market;
- share of mind—the proportion of customers who named the competitor in response to: "Name the first company that comes to mind in this industry";
- share of heart—the proportion of customers who named the competitor in response to: "Name the company from which you would prefer to buy the product/service."

It is important not to focus on one dimension, because all the dimensions have a kind of relationship such that "companies that make steady gains in mind share and heart share will inevitably make gains in market share and profitability" (Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 313). Evidently, having a big market share, without providing other aspects and elements of the product (e.g., availability, technical assistance, customer service, and innovation) will not last, and the company will encounter a decline in its market share, followed by revenue.

Branding in Contemporary Times

The technological and digital revolutions experienced over recent decades have fundamentally transformed marketing practice, consumer behavior, and competitive dynamics, and presented new policy and societal challenges. At the same time, the world's many economic, social, and political problems can benefit from proactive, purpose-driven marketing thought. In this arena of dynamic change and unprecedented opportunity, the marketing discipline is poised to offer new knowledge that contributes to the full range of marketing stakeholders, including the students we educate (Moorman et al., 2019, p. 1).

We can clearly see that today's customers are becoming increasingly confident in their own abilities to make a decision between goods, services, and suppliers' offers (e.g., Mitchell, Bauer, & Hausruckinger, 2003), by seeking advice from peers, but especially with the development of the Internet and technological advancements, which facilitate, for example, information search (e.g., Dexeus, 2019). Word-of-mouth (and electronic word-of-mouth) increasingly proliferate customers' perceptions through conversations, social media, Internet and more, as they put more trust in close peers or opinion leaders than commercial entities (like advertisements and salespeople) (e.g., Dexeus, 2019; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Susilowati & Sugandini, 2018; Voramontri & Klieb, 2018). Coupled with the modern market, in which marketers do not exclusively create the value for the brand (Knox, 2004), it is even more important to understand and manage the company's brand in a responsible and adequate manner. In addition, customers seek an accessible product, value for time, value for money, customizability, and good service delivery (Knox, 2004). Hence, branding alone cannot command premium prices. As such, the notion of *added value* (e.g., Boykin, 2019) of a purchase should become more prominent, clear, and transparent in marketing strategies:

> From the customer's point of view, value is created when the benefits (perceived quality) they receive exceed the costs of owning it (perceived sacrifice). These components of customer value can be disaggregated further into the benefits derived from the core product and customised service against the purchase price and the consumer's transaction costs…. The real price includes everything the customer has to do to realise its value: time and money spent searching for the right product and sales outlet, travel and purchasing costs, consumption and disposal costs (Mitchell, 1998). (Knox, 2004, p. 107)

So, a successful brand positioning may need to ensure three major factors. First, the most important is ensuring that the brand (of any goods or services provided) is *relevant* to the target market population. They need to see the brand as appealing, otherwise it will not make it into their decision-making process, regardless of how differentiated or credible the brand is. Second, as mentioned earlier, a company needs to ensure that its brand is *differentiated* from the competitors', and it must be positioned in a unique fashion. Last, the brand must be *credible and attainable*, meaning that if the company cannot provide the goods and/or services in a credible manner, customers may be left with hollow promises (Koelzer, 2019).

Before we delve into the next section of the marketing vantage point of higher education from a completely different perspective, we wish to introduce a quote that shows how brand positioning is very important, yet often ill-managed:

> Oscar Wilde wrote that a cynic is someone who knows the price of everything but the value of nothing. He may well have been talking about the attitude many chief executives have towards their brands and, indeed, the

> ways in which the organisation itself is managed as a brand. It is only relatively recently that senior managers have started talking about brands as assets and brand equity as a major component of their organisation's market place value (Davidson, 1998; Ward and Perrier, 1998). If anyone is in any doubt about the value of brands, they need do only two things: look at what CEOs are prepared to pay for top brands and observe the extent to which the market capitalisation of brand-led organisations exceeds the value of their tangible assets. (Knox, 2004, p. 105)

It is evident that branding works even in higher education. For example, many prospects "know" that Harvard University or Yale symbolize a high-quality product, regardless of whether they know or remember where they are located (i.e., Cambridge, MA and New Haven, CT, respectively). As conceived in Chapter 3, branding can work on three different areas (based on Facet B: Attractors (push–pull factors):

- The *country* (or a *nation*): People "know" that if one wants to experience good-quality pastries and sweets, he or she should go to an Italian or a French pastry shop (i.e., *pasticceria* and *patisserie*, respectively); we often hear people say: "French pastries revolves around perfection, you have to try some!" Another example is the United States, which is often branded as the land of unlimited opportunities and freedom.
- The *institution* (or a *company*): People "know" that BMW produces quality cars/motorcycles; we can often hear someone say: "Hey, you should buy a BMW, yes they are expensive, but they are very good and high quality!"). Another prominent example is Disney (i.e., The Walt Disney Company) which revolves around movies, theme parks, and loveable memorable characters (e.g., Mickey Mouse, Donald Duck, and Goofy). Their branding image is about a fantasy world, dreams, magic, happiness, and fun.
- The *city*: One of the most well-known examples is New York, as most of us know the slogan "I ♥ NY," which can be seen in many places, on many clothes, and is known for its international and diverse population. Another example is Amsterdam, which is known to be one of the most diverse cities in the world, but is also known to revolve around "sex, drugs, and canals." The city's new slogan

"**I am**sterdam" signifies the identification with the brand—the city itself.[5]

Thus, even without reading the ranking charts or surveys, people know the brand positioning by heart. It often takes quite some time to reach such a point for any seller or service provider, and in higher education, as mentioned, it works just the same. In this case then, brand positioning is managed around the student (as the core factor—as a customer or as a consumer) in various spheres of influence, as we will elaborate further in the chapter (see section "Spheres of Influence: Ecosystems of the International Higher Education Market").

A Word of Warning

The strategies and theories presented up until this point are all well and good, but we strongly advise a company (or an academic institution) to keep tabs on its brand and reputation. While positive public response to the brand may elevate and uplift the company, a negative one can, just as easily, drag the firm into oblivion. Furthermore, we, as human beings, are more influenced by negative things than positive ones (i.e., we react more strongly to them). In other words, we suffer more from the negative than we derive enjoyment from the positive (Tversky & Kahneman, 1991). This analogy is crystal clear with regard to the importance of constant regulation and supervision for the brand's position and value in the market, as negative publicity might damage the company more than it may have the ability to rectify and repair itself. We encourage further reading in Eckhardt et al. (2019), Keller (2009, 2011), Kotler (1997), Kotler and Armstrong (2014), Kotler and Keller (2012, 2016), and Wæraas and Solbakk (2009).

It is clear why effective marketing is important for companies in general, and academic institutions in particular,[6] as we will further explain in what follows.

[5] We wish to emphasize that these are merely examples, and by no means dictate the relative success of either country/institution/city. To each their own, as there is no accounting for taste.

[6] Also, "there is a striking paucity of research on branding in higher education" (Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009, p. 449), leading us to believe that more focus on this subject is needed.

The Case of Higher Education and International Students

The national and international competitions have spurred universities and colleges all over the world to search for a unique self-definition. This is for the sake of differentiating themselves and attracting students and academic staff. All of these are, de facto, making higher education institutions more aware of the association between what they "stand for" (i.e., terms of values and characteristics), and how they are perceived (based on Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009, p. 449).

This marathon for higher education consists of many participants: (1) the potential consumers of higher education (i.e., students)[7]; (2) the provider of higher education (i.e., academic institutions); (3) governments; (4) the economic systems (globally and locally), and so on (e.g., Beech, 2018; Beine, Noël, & Ragot, 2014). This chapter will focus on these actors and their interrelationships—from a marketing standpoint.[8]

Kotler and Fox (1985) have described *marketing for education*[9] as involving "designing the institution's offerings to meet the target market's needs and desires, and using effective pricing, communication, distribution to inform, motivate, and service the markets" (p. 7). At its simplest, the goal of any marketing strategy is to bring potential consumers and customers closer to purchasing a product(s) or a service(s). Academic institutions strive to use certain approaches in order to "take students to places they do not yet know they want to go" (Pinar, Trapp, Girard, & Boyt, 2011, p. 735). Marketing strategies are indeed

[7] However, students can also be considered as a product of academia and not consumers of it, as Lovelock and Rothschild (1980) have noted: "There is a further twist in Higher Education. Students are not only consumers of educational services. They are also changed by the experience and themselves become a product of the institution in the eyes of third parties such as employers" (as cited in Conway, Mackay, & Yorke, 1994, p. 32).

[8] The great importance of marketing in education in general, and higher education specifically, can also be understood through the specific and expert domains in journals on this topic, such as the *Journal of Marketing Education*, *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, and other variations.

[9] Another term used in the same context is *marketization of education*, which constitutes "a set of beliefs that puts customers' interest first, but at the same time raises the school's awareness of the need to obtain information about competitors and establish cross-departmental activities to satisfy customers' needs, in order to gain a competitive edge in the turbulent, competitive environment" (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2007, p. 293; see also Jongbloed, 2003).

needed in the academic arena (e.g., Gibbs & Murphy, 2009; Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016). This is to pull and entice international students into purchasing what academic institutions "sell"—higher education in the form of different degrees, certificates, and diplomas.

Thus, some scholars have stressed that there is a need to adapt marketing logics (e.g., Gibbs & Murphy, 2009) and competitive strategies (e.g., Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016) to the rapidly changing modern academic world (e.g., Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016; Živković, Nikolić, Savić, Djordjević, & Mihajlović, 2017). In the same vein, Wæraas and Solbakk (2009) showed that "a new vocabulary consisting of terms such as branding, corporate communication, identity, and reputation has emerged in academia, making higher education organizations more aware of the link between what they 'stand for' in terms of values and characteristics, and how they are perceived" (p. 449; see also Melewar & Akel, 2005).

However, even though academic institutes are each unique in their own way, from a marketing perspective they "fail to distinguish themselves by using a common marketing strategy" (Goi, Kalidas, & Yunus, 2018, p. 90; see also Prugsamatz, Pentecost, & Ofstad, 2006), and also need to examine and understand their own *raison d'être* (Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009) because developing competitive advantage for international education may be complex (Mazzarol, 1998). This further emphasizes that making use of consumer behavior and pure marketing strategies is a necessity for future sustainability or survivability (e.g., Goi et al., 2018; Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016).

In this chapter, we will begin with basic definitions and terminologies that will help and accompany us (both authors and readers) throughout the chapter. We will address the marketing viewpoint of higher education in general, and then will focus the resolution on international higher education specifically.

Higher Education as a Marketable Service

Indeed, consumer psychology may help us understand and tackle the marketing front and should be applied to higher education (e.g., Guilbault, 2018; Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016). However, before we delve into the marketing strategies and possible interventions, first and foremost we need to understand why higher education is marketable.

Higher education is considered as an intangible (e.g., Mazzarol, 1998), tradable commodity (e.g., Knight, 2008; Lomer, Papatsiba, & Naidoo, 2018), or a marketable service (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Guilbault, 2018; Mazzarol, 1998; Pinar et al., 2011; see also McManus, Haddock-Fraser, & Rands, 2017) that someone may purchase, and hence consumer behavior applies in this domain (see Chapman, 1981; Cubillo, Sánchez, & Cerviño, 2006; Gomes & Murphy, 2003; Guilbault, 2018; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Moogan, Baron, & Harris, 1999). As Knight (2011a, p. 224) has argued, "regional and world trade agreements began to include education as a tradable service and private and public education providers saw new commercial possibilities in cross-border education."

In this sense, there is also a debate whether students are to be regarded as customers (e.g., Conway et al., 1994; Guilbault, 2018; Melewar & Akel, 2005; Nixon, Scullion, & Hearn, 2018; Woodall, Hiller, & Resnick, 2014). In any case, they perceive themselves and expect to be treated as such (Guilbault, 2018; Koris & Nokelainen, 2015) in several areas (e.g., student feedback, classroom studies, and communication; Koris & Nokelainen, 2015, p. 128) or even as "sovereign consumers" (Nixon et al., 2018, p. 972).

Regardless of this inane discourse, it is advisable that academic institutes, along with all their employees at all levels, have a customer orientation (i.e., customer-centric focus) toward students (Black, 2008, as cited in Pinar et al., 2011, p. 728; see also Guilbault, 2018) "and not lose academic integrity" (Guilbault, 2018, p. 297; see also Babatunde, 2018) in the process.

If students (domestic and international alike) are regarded as potential customers, it is crucial to know what their expectations and needs are. This may "provide insight for increasing enrolment, reducing disappointments … and more effective use of marketing strategies" (Prugsamatz et al., 2006, p. 142) to increase customer value of the service (e.g., Chen, 2008). Because these needs and expectations may act as a basis for comparisons by prospective students, they may impact their perceived value of the service they acquire (e.g., Woodall et al., 2014), satisfaction, and perceptions of the quality of the service (Nixon et al., 2018; Prugsamatz et al., 2006). Thus, identifying, meeting, or even exceeding these expectations could support institutions' marketing efforts (e.g., Prugsamatz et al., 2006; Woodall et al., 2014).

Moreover, higher education has become a complex phenomenon with regard to marketing as it works through two major channels, as we discussed in Chapter 1: traditional *physically* taught classes and *virtually* taught classes. These are two distinct ways for communicating higher education. The former requires perhaps familiar marketing strategies. However, the latter may necessitate learning new strategies or tactics.

From a marketing point of view, "the need to understand how prospective students decide which higher education institution to attend is becoming of paramount importance as the policy context for higher education moves towards market-based systems in many countries" (McManus et al., 2017, p. 390). Thus, now we delve into the decision-making process with special regard to international students.

The General Decision-Making Process

The general decision-making process is typically conceptualized as five consecutive stages:

1. Identification of a problem/challenge.
2. Searching/acquiring information.
3. Evaluating different alternatives.
4. *Making* the purchase decision.
5. *Evaluating* the purchase decision (e.g., Kotler & Keller, 2016).

Therefore, this is "a multistage and complex process undertaken consciously and sometimes subconsciously by a student intending to enter HE [higher education] and by which the problem of choosing a study destination and programme is resolved" (Maringe & Carter, 2007, p. 463).

Differentiation and consolidation theory (DCT; Svenson, 1992, 1996) was one of the earliest concepts of decision-making that formed our understanding of how people make decisions. The theory argues that decision-making is an active process of differentiating between available alternatives, aimed at choosing not necessarily the optimal option, but the superiorly sufficient (Svenson, 1992) or dominant one (Montgomery, 1998). Post-process, there is a consolidation phase that is aimed at supporting the decision made (it is also a process in its own right of continuously differentiating alternatives from the chosen one; Svenson, 1996). Thus, the goal of the consolidation phase is to attain sufficient support for the chosen alternative and "this process continues to strengthen the decision when afterthoughts and outcomes follow" (Svenson, Salo, & Lindholm, 2009, p. 397). Meyer (2018) portrayed this model in a concise table, as reproduced in Table 4.1.

Indeed, Prenger and Schildkamp (2018) have argued that intention to use information-based decision-making and using it, de facto, is influenced by:

- the student's perceived control (perceived autonomy to make decisions);
- self-efficacy (one's confidence in performing a desired behavior across a range of situations);
- collective efficacy (shared perceptions of a group's ability to achieve collective goals);
- affective attitudes (emotions, such as fear, curiosity, etc.);
- instrumental attitudes (beliefs about the likely consequences or other attributes);
- subjective norms (beliefs about the normative expectations of other people, which result in perceived social pressure).

Table 4.1 Stages and activities in the decision-making process based on the DCT

Stage 1 pre-decision stage	*Stage 2 differentiation stage*	*Stage 3 consolidation stage*
• Recognizing there is a problem • Identifying decision alternatives	• Establishing criteria • Weighing pros and cons • Assessing available information • Gathering more information (inquiry) • Testing information in the situation • Identifying new alternatives	• Increasing confidence in decision (which includes some of the same activities as stage 2) • Minimizing regret (negative outcomes)

Source Meyer (2018, p. 11, Table 1)

However, after conducting empirical research, the authors reached only partial support for their model—only perceived control, affective attitudes, and instrumental attitudes were found to be significantly associated with intention to use information-based decision-making.

Nevertheless, some argue that the axiom of "rational decision-making process" is inappropriate (e.g., Davey, 2005), and either overly simplifies complex human cognitive processing and behaviors (e.g., Chisnall, 1997), which proved to be stochastic and hard to calculate (see Jackson, 1982), or ignores the fact that some people may be impatient or not disciplined enough to go through a rigorous process as presented above (e.g., Solomon, 2002).

The Decision-Making Process to Purchase Higher Education Oversees as an Intangible Service/Good

Decision-making for pursuing higher education overseas is a high-risk and high-cost complex process (see Caldwell & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Pimpa, 2003). "The decision to study abroad increases the complexity of the selection process. Thus, when the prospective student chooses a country in which to study, he is not only buying the education service but he is also acquiring an important pack of services jointly provided with the core service.... Consumers usually associate intangibility with high level of risk" (Cubillo et al., 2006, pp. 102–103). International education is not a frequent purchase, and, as such, demands great levels of involvement from the buyer (i.e., the student) (Nicholls, Harris, Morgan, Clarke, & Sims, 1995). Figure 4.1 illustrates the relative complexity of making the decision to purchase higher education internationally (Lazić & Brkić, 2015, p. 19).

An example of the complexity and consequences of such a decision may be based not only on "where to study," but also on "where to work after graduation." Basically, there are four possibilities in this regard: (1) graduate at home and migrate after graduating; (2) graduate abroad and stay in the hosting country to work (since studying there facilitates access to the labor market); (3) graduate abroad and migrate to another country after graduation; and (4) graduate abroad and migrate back home to get a job (Beine et al., 2014).

Furthermore, Maringe and Carter (2007) have reviewed four main theories that attempt to explain how young people make choices regarding their future education. They concluded after the review that

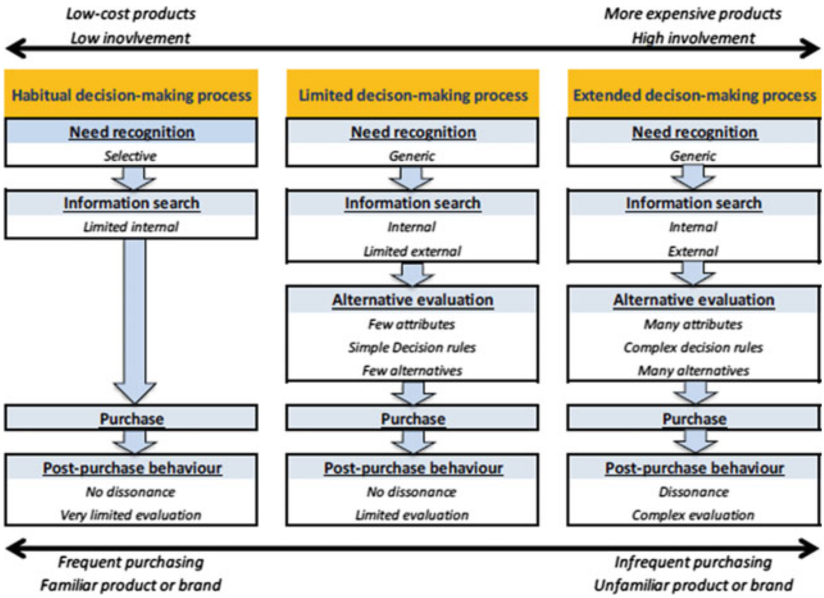


Fig. 4.1 Decision-making process of international students (*Source* Lazić & Brkić, 2015, p. 19, Figure 5)

decisions/choices about participating in higher education (especially overseas) "come under the influence of a range of factors including the broad context in which the decision is made, the environmental, organizational and individual influences and the inner personal factors which mark the individual's internal value systems and perceptions" (Maringe & Carter, 2007, p. 463; see also Jackson, 1982; Kember, Ho, & Hong, 2010). Students also consider what is important and relevant to them, and then make a conscious (or unconscious) trade-off (pros vs. cons; see also DCT; Svenson, 1992, 1996) among the many attributes and preferences (Soutar & Turner, 2002).

When a student needs to make a decision to study abroad, Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) argued that there are three distinct and subsequent stages when selecting a final place to study:

1. In the first stage, the student decides to study abroad, rather than locally.

2. In the second stage, the student decides on the host country to which he or she will immigrate.
3. In the third (and last) stage, the student selects an institution[10] in the hosting country.

Another suggested decision-making process constitutes different stages that "typically include problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and evaluation of the purchase decision" (Wilkins, Balakrishnan, & Huisman, 2012, p. 415; see also Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Lazić & Brkić, 2015).

From a marketing standpoint, regardless of the decision-making theory chosen, each engenders a great opportunity for employing marketing strategies. From an academic institute's vantage point, we will give an example based on DCT theory (Svenson, 1992, 1996; see also Meyer, 2018).

The *pre-decision* stage is understood, on the institutional level, as an opportunity to penetrate the awareness of potential student pool, such as maintaining strong branding (internationally). In the *differentiation* stage, we would suggest making information easier to obtain by prospective international students (especially ones who are not necessarily familiar with the local language, for instance), and emphasizing positive/appealing/attracting factors of what the institution may offer (such as the high-quality education, scholarships and funding possibilities, varied and flexible programs, etc.). In the *consolidation* stage "a positively evaluated aspect of the initially preferred alternative can be bolstered to make the alternative seem even better when a decision has been reached … the chosen alternative is upgraded in attractiveness or in diagnostic value of evidence pro that alternative (Simon, Krawczyk, & Holyoak, 2004), and/or the non-chosen alternative is downgraded before and after a decision" (Svenson et al., 2009, p. 397; see also Montgomery, 1998, p. 280). Furthermore, "the further this alternative has been differentiated and consolidated, the less the risk of post-decision ambiguity, regret or decision reversal" (Svenson, 1992, p. 143). This indicates that (1) it is never too late to engage in marketing interventions; (2) the objects

[10] Nevertheless, we must emphasize that this book's focus is not on the choice among different degrees and different disciplines, as these also have an impact on the choice of international students and the decision-making process, in general (e.g., Kember et al., 2010).

of these marketing strategies are not exclusively the prospective students, but also current and graduated/graduating international students (e.g., satisfied current and graduate students can act as potential recommenders who may communicate their satisfaction and well-being via good *word-of-mouth* to other potential students; Americanos, 2011; Prugsamatz et al., 2006).

Why Bother Courting International Students?

The recruitment of international students is a "key migration industry" involving many actors, with vast competition between academic institutes (Beech, 2018, p. 622). As illustrated by Educations.com (2019), when deciding on international higher education, *most* prospective international students choose (1) a program (the degree/diploma they will pursue); (2) a country to immigrate to; and (3) then the school/university in which to study the particular program. "Students are needed [sic] to be treated as clients and the Universities have to work more towards satisfaction of the changing needs and ambition of the students" (Sridevi, 2019, p. 49), as their customers (e.g., Bunce, Baird, & Jones, 2017). This is because international students are sought by many academic institutes and countries alike, mainly for the following reasons:

- They are a "profit center" (Altbach, 2015, p. 2) and a substantial income source[11] (e.g., Beine et al., 2014; Bolsmann & Miller, 2008; Deloitte Access Economics, 2015[12]; Lee, 2015; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2008; Townsend & Jun Poh, 2008; Verbik, Lasanowski, & Lasanowski, 2007). This is to the extent that, as cited by one of Bolsmann and Miller's (2008) interviewees (in the UK): "On overseas students we make a profit, on undergraduate home and EU students we make a loss" (p. 86).

[11] The reason is the increasingly higher tuition fees international students pay as opposed to their domestic counterparts (e.g., Altbach, 2015; Beech, 2018; Bolsmann & Miller, 2008; Lee, 2015).

[12] Deloitte Access Economics states that "international education is currently Australia's third largest export overall and its largest services export" (p. 8), as can be also seen by the ever-increasing international student enrolment in Australia from 2015 to 2018 (Australian Government Department of Education and Training, 2018).

- They are able to maintain or raise institutions' competitive edge and prestige (e.g., Lee, 2015) and academic status (e.g., Bolsmann & Miller, 2008), mainly in the research area (e.g., Onk & Joseph, 2017).
- They are considered to be potential skilled/talented workers (e.g., Beine et al., 2014; Lee, 2015; Rosenzweig, 2008).
- They provide diverse cultural knowledge and perspectives, which are valued and necessary in the globalized world (e.g., Beine et al., 2014; Lee, 2015).
- They may provide valuable networks between host and origin countries for the work market and the academy (e.g., Lee, 2015).

For illustration purposes, we regard academic institutes or countries as *magnets* of varying strengths and the students as equated to *steel*. In this sense, each magnet (i.e., the institute/country) tries to attract the steel (i.e., the student) and "fights"[13] other magnetic forces in the vicinity. Of course, each magnet has a different level of magnetic field and strength, and there are those that are already made from a strong-quality material. It is obvious that the attracting capacity of a strong or a large magnet is greater than a weak or a small one (this is the case, for example, of high-reputation academic institutes as opposed to less prestigious ones). However, as was mentioned in Chapter 3 (about migration as gravitation), distance may also play an important factor in this equation, such that a weak magnet may attract steel in close proximity, as the stronger magnet is too far to apply its magnetic field. Furthermore, a magnet may be charged to produce even stronger attraction, thus enabling previously weaker ones to become stronger. In this sense, every institute/country has different attracting properties[14] to influence the pull of potential students. These properties may be augmented and enhanced, or even remade, in order to attract as many students as possible.

Just as a magnet works within a broader context of many forces (e.g., other magnetic forces, gravitation, electricity, etc.), academic institutes also operate within certain complex environments.[15] As such, to attract

[13] "Fight" is an analogy for the competition between higher education institutes for international students (e.g., Beech, 2018).

[14] See also Chapter 3 for further reading on pull–push factors.

[15] See the next section on "Ecosystems."

students, an institution may need to emphasize its own *strengths* and take advantage of *opportunities*, while being aware of its own *weaknesses* and *threats* from the surrounding environment.[16]

However, as opposed to pure physics, it is unrealistic to think about the steel (i.e., the student) as strictly passive in relation to the environment (see also Gargano, 2009). While metal has no consciousness, a student has cognitive processes. As such, it is important to note that the decision-making process of the student in choosing a potential hosting academic institute must nest in a relative cognitive equilibrium. There is no "perfect decision" (e.g., Montgomery, 1998; Svenson, 1992, 1996), and every pulling or pushing factor has pros and cons that are taken into account when making the decision itself. The student makes an evaluation of these possible positive and negative aspects of the decision (e.g., Li & Bray, 2007). Therefore, relevant and appropriate marketing tactics may influence the decision-making process itself, or even its pre- and post-decision stages (e.g., Brooks & Waters, 2009; Cowley & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2018; Hyams-Ssekasi, Mushibwe, & Caldwell, 2014; Pimpa, 2003). This shows that the student is also a player who should be taken into consideration for marketing purposes. As students are recognized as customers, universities need to apply strategies to maintain and enhance their relative competitiveness. Thus, developing a competitive advantage becomes a necessity as a pivotal part of the corporate identity (CI). In addition, the universities will need to communicate and relay the competitive advantage's characteristics, effectively and consistently, to all of the relevant stakeholders (based on Melewar & Akel, 2005, p. 41).

Spheres of Influence: Ecosystems of the International Higher Education Market

In this section, we will structure spheres of influence according to the *ecosystem*'s framework (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1979, 1986, 1999, 2005; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).[17] We chose this paradigm

[16] See the SWOT analysis further in the chapter.

[17] The bioecological theory of human development was developed and matured from ecological systems theory (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1979, 1986, 1994). However, this was not a shift in paradigm conceptuality. In the "matured" form of the theory, the focus has now moved from the environment (i.e., the context) to the proximal processes (i.e., forms of interactions between the person and the environment, which occur over

because it allows for a more holistic examination of the experiences of international students (Elliot, Reid, & Baumfield, 2016; Mayne, 2019; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Zhang, 2018). In addition, "as with any robust theoretical model, Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model of development is parsimonious and applicable to areas outside of its original purpose" (McGuckin & Minton, 2014, p. 8).

A single sphere cannot provide a good enough explanation, especially for a complex phenomenon like migration, of which student mobility is a part. As Hadler (2006) stated: "Macro-level models can be used to identify critical macro-level circumstances related to overall movements, but cannot explain individual behavior. Individual explanations emphasize personal circumstances and characteristics, but do not consider objective impacts at the macro level" (p. 112).

The ecosystems are defined such that "the ecological environment is conceived topologically as a nested arrangement of structures, each contained within the next" (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 514). These layered ecological structures (i.e., ecosystems) are typically as follows (from the smallest to the largest containing sphere): micro-system; meso-system; exo-system; and macro-system (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Tudge et al., 2009). These systems operate in specific settings: "A setting is defined as a place with particular physical features in which the participants engage in particular activities in particular roles … for particular periods of time" (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 514).

Micro-Systems

Micro-systems represent the network of relations between an individual and the immediate environment/setting in which he or she is contained (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Elliot et al., 2016; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Tudge et al., 2009). Hence, this system typically consists of family members, peers (e.g., fellow domestic or international students), colleagues, friends, direct administrators (e.g., department's secretary),

time) as the engine or primary mechanism of human development (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006, p. 79). As such, and in the context of higher education, the student is "an active agent" (Elliot et al., 2016, p. 2215) who may influence and be affected by the environment—namely, the ecological systems/contexts. For further reading, see Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield, and Karnick (2009).

direct managers, professors and their assistants, mentors, advisors, consultants, etc.[18]

All these may directly interact with the student in various ways (such as funding, recommendations, support, assisting, and advising), and therefore may have a very important role in generating the student's expectations regarding (international) higher education (e.g., Prugsamatz et al., 2006; see also Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). They can have a great impact on students' decision-making processes to pursue cross-border higher education, as they also usually have close relationships with him or her. Furthermore, as Prugsamatz and colleagues (2006) have identified, word-of-mouth (WOM) in close circles (e.g., family, friends, significant others) is one of the most influential sources from which students may derive information (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Ngamkamollert & Ruangkanjanases, 2015). Such WOM may help shape prospects' expectations and image of overseas universities. Hence, for marketing purposes, academic institutions may also perceive all the micro-systems as distal customers (see the review in Conway et al., 1994). This requires that marketing strategy address them as well.

A very central example is the student's parents. They have vast influence in terms of *support* they may provide (e.g., financially, emotionally, and physically; see Becker & Kolster, 2012; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Yang, 2007) and *recommendations* they may convey (Ahmad, Buchanan, & Ahmad, 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Yang, 2007). The unique power parents may have can be seen in the potential sponsorship they provide to their child (i.e., the student) (e.g., Huang, Binney, & Hede, 2010) and/or familial obligations and expectations they have of their offspring to pursue higher education (e.g., Nghia, 2015; Woodall et al., 2014).

Meso-Systems

Meso-systems represent the interrelations among different micro-systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Elliot et al., 2016; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Tudge et al., 2009). One example may be an

[18] Some of these were discussed in Chapter 3.

Indian prospective student who is currently studying for an M.A. in the origin country (India) under a certain professor (i.e., micro-system). The student wishes to study for a Ph.D. in a UK institution, and the professor acts as a medium between the Indian student and a potential UK professor to facilitate the process of supervision selection and admission processes. In other words, the relationship the Indian professor has with the UK counterpart is evidence of a meso-system, for the relationship may (or may not) affect the student in question.

A very special and contemporary example is the increasing use of social media—that is, any tool utilized to integrate and incorporate technology into our lives in order to facilitate communication and information processing (DeAndrea, Ellison, LaRose, Steinfield, & Fiore, 2012; Greenhow & Lewin, 2016; Richardson, Brinson, & Lemoine, 2018; Veletsianos, 2011). Using social media may manifest in many different ways, such as sharing pictures and information, instant messaging, virtual meetings, and social networking. Using social media is a special case because not only does it replace face-to-face encounters, it may also enable simultaneous mass communication with all other micro-systems, making it accessible beyond any distance or barriers. As such, social media may be considered as a significant marketing tool for recruiting potential students in global higher education in general (e.g., Richardson et al., 2018), and international higher education in particular. For example, a prospective student may use social media to view recommendations or criticisms from people who are not the student's personal friends (e.g., friends of the student's friends, alumni that the student's friends are familiar with, etc.).

Exo-Systems

Exo-systems exist outside the individual's setting and do not immediately contain him or her, although they may indirectly influence them, formally or informally (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Elliot et al., 2016; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Tudge et al., 2009), even though they still remain powerful (e.g., Elliot et al., 2016, p. 2200). Main examples revolve around[19]:

[19] For further reading, see Americanos (2011), Jackson and Ward (2016), Lee (2015), Nada and Araújo (2018), Pinar et al. (2011), Prugsamatz et al. (2006), and Ra and Trusty (2017).

- Non-human resources like infrastructures (e.g., e-learning environments, laboratories, libraries, technological utilities, sports facilities, employability centers, accommodation/dormitories, and Mensa (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Goi et al., 2018; Gribble, 2014; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Jacoby, 2015).
- Human resources, such as non-customer-facing administrative staff (for instance, librarians, security, maintenance, and IT) and strong alumni (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Goi et al., 2018; Gribble, 2014; Jackson & Ward, 2016).
- Different support modes like financial support, loans, and scholarships, professional and social support (e.g., Jackson & Ward, 2016; Nada & Araújo, 2018; Ra & Trusty, 2017), and international student support centers (e.g., Lee, 2015; Prugsamatz et al., 2006).
- Academic, pre-academic (e.g., Polyakova, Lavrentieva, Shipilova, & Glazyrina, 2015), and extracurricular programs (e.g., Gribble, 2014).
- Facilitated admissions (e.g., easier processes, recognizing previous qualifications; Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Huong & Cong, 2018; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015) and other administration and bureaucratic procedures.
- Institutions' identity, like public vs. private (Becker & Kolster, 2012; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002), or institutions' reputation and branding (e.g., Pinar et al., 2011). Nevertheless, research on branding (in higher education) is not vast, focusing largely on its external aspects, such as logos and slogans, advertising, promotional materials, and mottos (e.g., Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka, 2006; Pinar et al., 2011; Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009). Branding may lead to the *trap* of self-presenting in a clichéd fashion like "the best," "world-class," "leading," and so on (e.g., Belanger, Mount, & Wilson, 2002) rather than presenting distinguishable characteristics and unique features (Antorini & Schultz, 2005; Wæraas & Solbakk, 2009).
- Competitors (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016), such as academic institutions that try to pull a prospective student to them instead of them applying to another institution.

Macro-Systems

Macro-systems are the broadest level of ecological system. They are "blueprints" of socioeconomic, cultural/subcultural, and political contexts, and its members share value or belief systems, life course options, lifestyles, social exchange patterns, difficulties and challenges, and other larger social forces (see Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Elliot et al., 2016; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Tudge et al., 2009).

One example of a macro-system is the level of free market in the country. We introduce eight conditions for a free market (Jongbloed, 2003). Four of them relate to the provider/supplier (i.e., academic institutions) of education, and four to the consumers (i.e., the students). From the providers' side are: (1) freedom of entry; (2) freedom to specify the product; (3) freedom to use available resources; and (4) freedom to determine prices. From the consumers' side are: (1) freedom to choose a provider; (2) freedom to choose a product; (3) adequate information on prices and quality; and (4) direct and cost-covering prices paid.

However, Jongbloed (2003) has also concluded that: "There is no such thing as a truly 'free market' in higher education" (p. 134). This finds support in the different levels of regulations of higher education by governments worldwide. Moreover, Americanos (2011) summarizes that academic institutions are not to be regarded as any common business "due to their high level of regulation derived from the government funding and curriculum policies. Therefore, various authors use the term 'quasi-market' which indicates that the educational market differs from the other free markets" (p. 24), and a question arises as to what may be a "cleverly designed balance of government regulation" (Jongbloed, 2003, p. 134).

One governmental response is *deregulation*, that is, reducing state regulations, which are country-dependent governmental policies that might change the relative competitiveness of the players in international higher education. In deregulated countries, the role of the government has shifted from being restrictive or controlling to being more cooperative and participative (Jongbloed, 2003). As Pucciarelli and Kaplan (2016) stated:

> the field of education … has undergone substantial deregulation, and as a result, the sector currently faces a stronger need to react to the competitive

> environment … the process of deregulation that the sector has undergone over the past decade has decreased protections afforded to established public institutions, thereby permitting the entrance of new private players. At the same time, however, deregulation has increased the autonomy of those same institutions in choosing their competitive strategies and allocating their resources. (Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016, pp. 312–313)

For example, in the UK, deregulations abolished the division between universities and polytechnics, which allowed the latter to gain university status, while also enabling them to attract more students into their fold (Beech, 2018; see also Kosmützky & Putty, 2016, pp. 19–20). Evidently, this increases independence of academic institutes (e.g., Živković et al., 2017) and raises competition between them, locally and globally, from a marketing point of view, especially with the diminishing financial support higher education institutes face (e.g., Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012; Živković et al., 2017). In the general sense, Beech (2018) stated that these notions "enabled universities to adopt free-market principles and generate some of their own funding in the aim of increasing efficiency through competition" (p. 612). The United States and Canada are also examples of a "free rein" environment (in recruiting international students) of higher education (see Onk & Joseph, 2017). However, these changes come in tandem with increasing tuition fees around the world (e.g., Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012) that weigh increasingly heavily on international students specifically (see also Shahijan, Rezaei, & Preece, 2016).

On the other hand, this deregulation notion is not relevant to every country. Academic institutes in China, for instance, are highly regulated by government regarding permission to recruit international students (Onk & Joseph, 2017).

Another example of a macro-system is a country's national branding. National branding is "a strategic intent and action" to brand a country's higher education collectively (Lomer et al., 2018, p. 134). Prospective students may perceive positive branding as leading to high-quality higher education, which may help every academic institution gain a higher perceived reputation.

Time

In addition, and in tandem with the four ecosystems mentioned above, there is also a *time* aspect that encompasses them all. It examines the life changes and transitions in the course of time, on every level (i.e., micro, meso, exo, macro), such as socio-historical events (e.g., demographical shifts and migrations) and other situations that affect development trajectories (e.g., Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; Dalla, 2004; Elliot et al., 2016; Taylor & Ali, 2017; Tudge et al., 2009).

Chronological changes may be linked to many time-lapsed phenomena, such as:

- The evolution of generations, from “baby boomers” to Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z, as each have different attitudes, predispositions, values, and needs, requiring different “generational” marketing approaches.
- Large-scale migrations (internationally and regionally, from rural to metropolitan areas alike, and so on).
- Increase in the values, frequencies, and proportions of diversity in many places in the world.
- Demographical changes and greater accessibility to higher education, leading to a larger professional white-collar population.
- Emergence of environmental sustainability strategies (regarding physical environment and natural resources) for the world economy as a whole.
- Perpetual and rapid technological advancements and evolutions, such as the development of the Internet (e.g., Lakkaraju, Tech, & Deng, 2018), allowing greater accessibility to virtually unlimited possibilities, like e-learning, communication, social media, and networks.[20]
- Also, in the new era, one of the most powerful resources organizations can use in their favor is their knowledge-creation process. This process is of particular importance for constituting and maintaining the organizations’ competitive advantage (Bhatti, Juhari, Piaralal, & Piaralal, 2017). In these organizations, workers often have an academic degree.

[20] For further reading, see Chapter 3 in Kotler and Armstrong (2014).

Trends in International Higher Education

We will now give special regard to trends in international higher education. Capitalizing on recent trends in the higher education domain and mobility of international students, the extent of this phenomenon is growing steadily and surely (e.g., Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b; Knight, 2008, 2012, 2014; Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Lee, 2015; Popa & Knezevic, 2018; Shahijan et al., 2016). A specific example is Europe, in which there is great emphasis on cross-border cooperation of any kind (Vidovic, 2015, as cited in Popa & Knezevic, 2018).

This notion is supported by two mutually exclusive yet complementary trends. The first is the rapid development of transportation modes and routes intra- and/or inter-country that has facilitated accessibility and mobility to cross-border higher education (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beine et al., 2014; Huong & Cong, 2018; Lee, 2015; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015). The second trend is "the technological revolution of the past two decades," which "has changed global higher education, particularly with the impact of social media" (Richardson et al., 2018, p. 226; see also Lawton, 2015; Teichler, 2017; Vilhelmson & Thulin, 2008). This "distance education is providing opportunities for learning anytime and anywhere" (Stravredes & Herder, 2015, p. 257; see also Garratt-Reed, Roberts, & Heritage, 2016). A result of this "technological revolution" (Richardson et al., 2018, p. 226) is the increasing number of online courses and programs/diplomas being offered by an increasing number of academic institutes worldwide (e.g., Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011a, 2011b; García-Álvarez, Novo-Corti, & Varela-Candamio, 2018; Garratt-Reed et al., 2016; Kamal Basha, Sweeney, & Soutar, 2016; Kenyon, Lyons, & Rafferty, 2002; Lawton, 2015; Mejía, Martelo, & Villabona, 2018; Richardson et al., 2018; Stravredes & Herder, 2015; Teichler, 2017; Xin, Kempland, & Blankson, 2015), effectively expanding the student pool from all over the world, regardless of physical distance.

A Summary of Ecosystems and Their Applications

A visual presentation and a suggested application for the ecosystems in an academic setting (and for international students) is presented in Fig. 4.2.

After understanding the vast spheres of influence and the broadest contexts of the international higher education domain, and acknowledging

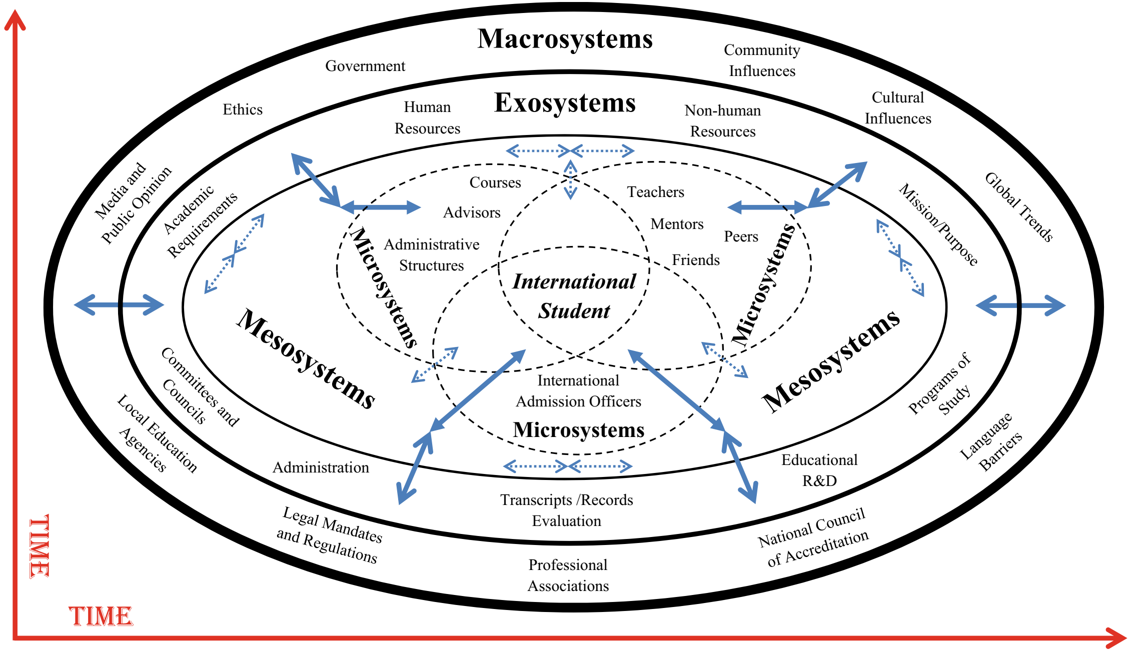


Fig. 4.2 Ecosystems model, an example in an academic setting for international students (*Sources* Based on Jump! Foundation, 2019; Zhang, 2018, p. 1770)

the importance of branding and positioning for academic institutions, we are ready to focus our microscope on the marketing standpoint, via a SWOT analysis, as will be further elaborated below.

SWOT Analysis

A SWOT (an acronym for: strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis helps us to identify *internal* (i.e., strengths and weaknesses) and *external* (i.e., opportunities and threats) factors that may affect an investigated entity (e.g., a firm, a school, a hospital, a university, etc.). The main goal of this model/analysis is to provide a systematic assessment of the issue under investigation to support decision-makers in forming and leading strategic goals of the organization (Alsharari, 2019; Dyson, 2004; Leiber, Stensaker, & Harvey, 2018; Phadermrod, Crowder, & Wills, 2019). It represents a foundation for designing future growth and development strategies (Živković et al., 2017), and can serve as a basis for developing marketing plans to initiate meaningful changes (Romero-Gutierrez, Jimenez-Liso, & Martinez-Chico, 2016). Therefore, this may "help to build on strengths, minimize weaknesses, seize opportunities and counteract threats. Thus, a SWOT analysis is often part of strategic planning by informing strategic decisions" (Leiber et al., 2018, p. 353; see also Romero-Gutierrez et al., 2016, p. 42). In addition, SWOT analysis tries to reduce complexity of the assessment by simplifying the picture surrounding the issues and entities involved[21] (e.g., Leiber et al., 2018; Orr, 2013).

In general, *strengths* refer to what an organization *can* do (i.e., a positive-internal aspect); *weaknesses* refer what an organization *cannot* do or areas it needs to improve (i.e., negative-internal); *opportunities* refer to potential *favorable environmental conditions/situations* for an organization to take advantage of (i.e., positive-external); and *threats* refer to potential *unfavorable environmental conditions/situations* for an organization to be wary of (i.e., negative-external) (e.g., Orr, 2013; Romero-Gutierrez et al., 2016).

[21] Although SWOT has clear benefits and advantages, there are also limitations to this method of analysis, such as overlap between factors (e.g., a strength point can be also regarded as the opposite of a weakness point) (for further reading, see Leiber et al., 2018).

Before we utilize the SWOT model for international higher education, it is imperative to present an overview of key trends and developments influencing higher education in the broader sense (see Table 4.2, based on Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016, p. 303; for another SWOT analysis, please refer to Sridevi, 2019).

Table 4.2 SWOT analysis of current key trends impacting higher education

SWOT item	*Examples*
Strengths	*Vital source of talents and innovativeness in the society*: Regulated public service with a mission aimed at the society level. An essential provider of knowledge and creativity (skills and innovation) *National and global driver:* HE can be a resource instrumental in growth and economic recovery. The propagation and diffusion of global knowledge and international expansion
Weaknesses	*Delayed entry to and utilization of business practices in HE*: HE perceived as traditional (a public service that receives finances and protection from the government). Change might face resistance from the faculty members (often organized in public sector unions) *Low receptivity and tolerance to changes in the corporate world*: Programs and curricula fail to adapt to recruiters' needs and job expectations. Dogmatic and shortsighted "publish-or-perish" academic research strategies leading to publications of purely academic nature (with little-to-no consideration of other stakeholders)
Opportunities	*HE environment is evolving rapidly and steadily* via *ICT*: New markets evolve and develop (potential productivity gains (and branding options). Growth and improvement of both the general knowledge and network society *Socio-demographic factors encourage rapid transformation*: *People* of generation Y (millennials) are increasingly seeking augmented educational experience. Student population is changing (growing and transforming)
Threats	*Perpetual and noticeable decrease in public funding*: Greater need for external funds and grants (and increased reliance on self-financing. "Need for marketization of HE (potentially lowering academic standards and quality)" (Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016, p. 303) *The academic arena is becoming increasingly competitive:* Deregulation leading to new market entrants and emergence of new competitors. Competition is on a glocal and international scale

Note ICT = Information and communications technology. Glocal = global and local
Source Based on Pucciarelli and Kaplan (2016, p. 303)

A SWOT Analysis for International Higher Education[22]

In this section, we propose a SWOT analysis for *international* higher education, as broad as theoretically possible. We decided to focus on the "bigger picture," the broader aspect of (international) higher education, to enable us to include as many items for a general audience (also, read footnote 22).

Strengths

- Personalization of programs: Today, there is a greater need for greater personalization of both academic programs and marketing strategies, especially when it comes to international students (e.g., Onk & Joseph, 2017; Prugsamatz et al., 2006). Academic institutes that can tailor degrees/programs and/or offer higher flexibility to better fit the needs of potential international students actually possess a significant strength (see also Ahmad et al., 2016; Beech, 2018; Yang, 2007). In other words, by "tailoring recruitment materials, advertisements, outreach events, and other recruitment programs to the university's specialty, international students will be attracted to the university whose program best fits their needs" (Onk & Joseph, 2017, p. 31; see also Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). Chen (2008) adds that: "The ultimate college choice decision made by students will depend on the match between the characteristics of the students … and the characteristics of the institutions … and the information exchanged between the two parties" (pp. 6–7).
- Specialization of programs: Wæraas and Solbakk (2009) argued that "in the face of national and international competition, universities and colleges in all parts of the world have begun a search for a unique definition of what they are in order to differentiate themselves and attract students and academic staff" (p. 449). As such,

[22] In the literature, SWOT analyses were undertaken on higher education in general (e.g., Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016; Sridevi, 2019) and on specific academic institutions (e.g., Dyson, 2004; Huang et al., 2010; Romero-Gutierrez et al., 2016), but as the main theme of the current book is "international students," we focus on a SWOT analysis of *international* higher education.

institutions now strive to create specific specializations in their programs to distinguish themselves in the academic arena. For example, Mazzarol and Soutar (2012) argued that smaller institutes, rather than larger ones, could benefit from specializations "by focusing on niche areas that allow them to concentrate their limited resources in order to develop internationally competitive skills and reputation around a few fields" (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012, p. 732). In other words, with respect to brand positioning, a specialized program is a very good example of a well-differentiated but not so relevant brand. This can be a marketing strategy for niche markets and providers (Koelzer, 2019), and this is in no way a "bad" branding strategy—it is just more focused and surgical.

- Online courses/degrees and distance learning via the Internet and social media: This is the ability to provide virtual learning environments, especially for those who cannot be present physically or have other constraints (e.g., many students enrolled in fully online degree programs are working adults; Eduventures, 2008). In addition, these modes of learning offer more flexibility, allowing the students to undertake multiple things and roles without sacrificing too much (Stravredes & Herder, 2015; see also Mazzarol & Souter, 2012). This, by definition, opens an important door to institutions for recruiting more students from around the world.
- Battery of support systems:
  - Quality and diverse infrastructures (e.g., e-learning environments, laboratories, libraries, technological utilities, sports facilities, employability centers, accommodation/dormitories, and Mensa; Americanos, 2011; Gribble, 2014; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Jacoby, 2015). Social media, specifically, have clear advantages, since they may facilitate teaching, managerial, and marketing efforts in higher education (Mejía et al., 2018; Richardson et al., 2018). They can drive students to engage in learning and may enhance academic performance[23] (e.g., Greenhow & Lewin, 2016; Mejía et al., 2018; Richardson et al., 2018).

[23] However, some argue that the great openness that social media offer worldwide might pose problematic security issues or even improper use of personal information (e.g., García-Álvarez et al., 2018; Lemoine, Hackett, & Richardson, 2016).

- Supportive human resources, such as administrative staff (non-customer-facing people, such as librarians, security, maintenance, IT, etc.).
- Strong alumni (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Gribble, 2014; Jackson & Ward, 2016).
- Financial support, loans, and scholarships (e.g., Huong & Cong, 2018; Jackson & Ward, 2016; Lee, 2015; Nada & Araújo, 2018; Nghia, 2015; Ra & Trusty, 2017).
- Professional and social support, including psychological counseling, mentoring, and advocacy (e.g., Jackson & Ward, 2016; Lee, 2015; McKenna, Robinson, Penman, & Hills, 2017; Nada & Araújo, 2018; Ra & Trusty, 2017).
- Facilitated admissions (e.g., easier processes and recognition of previous qualifications) (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Huong & Cong, 2018; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015).
- International student support centers (e.g., Lee, 2015; Prugsamatz et al., 2006).

• Reasonable tuition fees (e.g., Americanos, 2011).
• Financial stability (including established fundraising) (e.g., Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002, 2012).
• Reputation and branding of the institution: Reputation and prestige are two of the main attracting factors for students in general, and international students in particular (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Beine et al., 2014; Heffernan, Wilkins, & Butt, 2018; Nathan, 2017; Pinar et al., 2011). There are myriad indicators for reputation and perceived quality of the institutions:

- Ranking position,[24] quality reputation, research reputation, innovative reputation, international reputation (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Americanos, 2011; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beine et al., 2014; Cubillo et al., 2006; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; see reviews in Lewis, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; McManus et al., 2017; Shahijan et al., 2016; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Varghese, 2008).

[24] *Positioning:* Arranging for a market offering to occupy a clear, distinctive, and desirable place relative to competing products (in the same market) in the minds of target consumers (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. 678 and from Chen, 2008, p. 7).

  - Academically recognizable and valid degrees/diplomas and their marketability (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Huong & Cong, 2018; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Nathan, 2017; Tantivorakulchai, 2018; Yang, 2007).
  - Quality academic staff (e.g., expertise, research reputation, experience, and teaching skills) (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).
  - Internationally trained academic staff (e.g., Shahijan et al., 2016).
  - Satisfaction of current and graduated students who can act as potential recommenders ("ambassadors") (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Prugsamatz et al., 2006).
  - Campus atmosphere (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; Nghia, 2015) with a sense of safety and security (Becker & Kolster, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006).
  - Facilities and resources (e.g., library, sports, technological, quiet areas for studying, etc.) (e.g., Americanos, 2011; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tantivorakulchai, 2018).
  - Employability opportunities due to the institution's brand and prestige (e.g., Popa & Knezevic, 2018).

- Long-term relationships between international academic institutions (e.g., accreditation, shared programs or funds, strategic alliances, shared credentials, branch campuses, franchising, twinning, joint-degree programs, etc.) (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Garrett, 2018; Knight, 2012; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002, 2012; Shahijan et al., 2016; Wilkins et al., 2012).
- Long-term relationships with industries (e.g., Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012) that "secure funding for research and teaching" and that may enable "access to industry expertise and opportunities to provide career pathways for student[s]" (p. 725).
- Job/employment opportunities mid-program (e.g., teaching or research assistance, lecturing, working in laboratories, and intern/professional year programs) (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beech, 2018; Gribble, 2014; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012).

- Information about the *institute* from online, hard-copy and social media sources (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, and advertisements) (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nghia, 2015; Reddy, 2014) and other marketing efforts (e.g., Chien, 2013; Eder, Smith, & Pitts, 2010; Mazzarol, 1998). A unique example (from the UK) is that students can access an education hub's website for an "International Virtual Open Day."[25]

Weaknesses

- Discrimination levels because of origin, race, and/or religion (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012). Examples range from social exclusion and isolation, mocking, avoidance, racial slurs, verbal and physical assaults, sexual harassment, burdening prospects with more difficult admissions processes (e.g., Constantine, Anderson, Berkel, Caldwell, & Utsey, 2005; Houshmand, Spanierman, & Tafarodi, 2014; Lee, 2015; Lee & Rice, 2007; McKenna et al., 2017; Yan & Pei, 2018) to even organized discrimination that specifically targets students (for instance, international students from Israel, who due to their origin are threatened by the Palestinian-led Boycott, Divestment, and Sanctions [BDS] movement; Berman, Fine, Hirsh, & Nelson, 2016).
- Non-secure or non-safe campus, such as high crime rates (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006).
- Providing misleading or unprofessional information about the institution (via marketing agents) (e.g., Americanos, 2011).
- Decision-making in academic institutions is highly centralized (Sridevi, 2019).
- Complicated bureaucratic procedures and administrative staff that are not trained adequately to deal with international students (Sridevi, 2019).
- Lack of internationalization (as it is considered as an indicator of quality) (e.g., Perez-Esparrells & Orduna-Malea, 2018; Shahijan et al., 2016; Urban & Palmer, 2014). This may be derived from human resources deficits, budget constraints, worldwide knowledge

[25] See, for example, the Virtual Open Day at Coventry University in the UK at: https://www.coventry.ac.uk/international-students-hub/new-students/virtual-open-day/.

transfer paucity, inability to access large pools of talents, etc. (e.g., Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016; Shahijan et al., 2016; Teichler, 2017).

- Over-focusing on branding of quality, instead of increasing the quality itself (e.g., Johnes, 2018; Perez-Esparrells & Orduna-Malea, 2018). An academic institution that supplies quality higher education may benefit from a corresponding quality student population. As Popa and Knezevic (2018) argue, "[an] institution that provides the global knowledge and innovation for students, will have better chances to select the best of them" (p. 167). On the other hand, focusing only on the cover of the book and not emphasizing its contents might decrease the quality of the human material that the institution "imports" and "exports."
- Offering programs/degrees in only one language, such as English, because language is an attracting key mobility driver (Lasanowski, 2011).

Opportunities

- Potential diverse international student population: Paying more attention to subcultures is becoming increasingly important (e.g., Kotler & Armstrong, 2014). However, there is a lack of research that deals with differentiation of students' experiences by their countries of origin (Lee, 2015). For instance, Chinese students react better to marketing efforts based on experiences of previous Chinese students rather than on pricing and location (e.g., Prugsamatz et al., 2006). As opposed to Canadian and Western European students, Latin American, Asian, and African international students (in the United States) reported more social difficulties and psychological distress. This emphasizes the need for marketing efforts to be based on social and academic aspects and support (for further reading, see Lee, 2015, p. 113; Rienties, Beausaert, Grohnert, Niemantsverdriet, & Kommers, 2012). Hotta and Ting-Toomey (2013) have demonstrated that different international student groups (i.e., from varying countries of origin) report distinct adaptability and adjustment satisfaction processes/trends (e.g., a linear trend for Canadian students vs. a multiple M-shaped[26] curve trend for Turkish students), making

[26] This is a function with several minimum and maximum points.

tailoring of programs and attention to needs even more important. However, focusing on personalized "education packages" should be supported by market segmentation followed by target marketing.[27]

- Reputation and branding of the country: As mentioned above, reputation and prestige are two of the main attracting factors for students in general, and international students in particular (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Beine et al., 2014; Heffernan et al., 2018; Nathan, 2017; Pinar et al., 2011; see also Chapter 3 for more information regarding this attracting factor). Lomer et al. (2018) concluded that national brand is a highly important strategic resource in the competitive world of international higher education:

> National brand was found to generate a set of particular characteristics for higher education as a commodity, emphasizing iconic elite institutions … and positive experiences to symbolize high-quality education.… A national brand for higher education acts as a resource for the construction of identity, behaviours and social status of international students. (Lomer et al., 2018, pp. 148–149)

One by-product of the increasing importance of the reputation and prestige of a country (academic or otherwise) is the creation of education hubs[28] because "a common perception is that being recognized as an education hub will increase a country's reputation, competitiveness, and geopolitical status within the region and beyond" (Knight, 2011a, p. 237; see also Knight, 2011b; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012). Education hubs' main goal (particularly, *student hubs*) is the recruitment of international students, and hence many countries focus on this endeavor (Knight, 2015). In order to do so, a country must realize that this "requires substantial planning; policy preparedness, human resources, infrastructure; and financial

[27] *Market segmentation and target marketing:* Processes for identifying and dividing groups of people with certain shared characteristics, needs, or behaviors that require separate ("personalized") marketing strategies, within the broad product-service market. For example, this is aimed at examining how different groups of students (i.e., different cultures, ethnicities, etc.) choose their colleges and are offered adequate/matching marketing responses (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. 677 and from Chen, 2008, p. 7).

[28] Education hubs are special zones/regions that are intended exclusively for the purpose of acquiring knowledge, training, and development both for domestic and international students (Knight, 2012, 2014).

reserves"[29] (Knight, 2011a, p. 237; 2015; see also Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014; Nathan, 2017).

Although it might seem that students are influenced in their choice of destination based on academic aspects alone, there is evidence that other dimensions of national branding are vital in the students' decision-making process—for example, a country's culture, tourist attractions, technological innovation, and food, etc. (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Huong & Cong, 2018; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nathan, 2017; Tan, 2015; Yang, 2007).

- Governmental assistance: Governments and regulations may facilitate international higher education in many ways such as generating education hubs (e.g., Jon et al., 2014; Knight, 2011a, 2015; Knight & Morshidi, 2011), encouragement and incentive policies to pull foreign students to host countries (e.g., Becker & Kolster, 2012; Nathan, 2017; Onk & Joseph, 2017).
- Location of the institution: A good location can be very advantageous. A good location includes convenience (e.g., Nghia, 2015; Shahijan et al., 2016), centrality, and proximity to accommodation, workplaces, and various social events around the city (e.g., Americanos, 2011), cost of living (in the city; e.g., Aarinen, 2012; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Cubillo et al., 2006; Mikalayeva, 2015), and more.
- Availability, accessibility, and cost of transportation (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Becker & Kolster, 2012; Beine et al., 2014; Huong & Cong, 2018; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Tan, 2015).
- Growing demand for international education (e.g., Jon et al., 2014) and increasing populations of international students worldwide (e.g., Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b; Knight, 2011b; Teichler, 2017).
- Deregulation-facilitated entry to private institutions and freer choice of resource allocation and strategies for institutions (e.g., Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016).

[29] However, even though the concept of education hub is "very popular—almost trendy" (Knight, 2015, p. 20), education hubs, to date, have yet to be precisely defined by their certain characteristics or assessments of their success and sustainability (Knight, 2015).

- Positive cultural notions and evolution: For example, the closed-off culture of Japan has recently begun to be more open to foreigners, due to fewer ethnic exclusions (e.g., Onk & Joseph, 2017).
- Social networks of foreign communities: People from the same origin or social background tend to help each other when in a foreign country, and as such the existence of such a network reduces migration costs for international students (e.g., Beine et al., 2014). This could potentially attract more students of a specific background to places with the same population.
- Technological evolution: Web education, Internet, video conferencing, for example, may be utilized to the fullest extent (Sridevi, 2019).

Threats

- Visa constraints: Strict visa restrictions for international students might lead to a decline in enrollment (e.g., Lee, 2015)—for example, as occurred in the United States after the 9/11 incident and extra restrictions in the UK for student visas (e.g., Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b; Nachatar Singh, Schapper, & Jack, 2014; Sirat, 2008).
- Stagnant academic systems, lagging the evolutions taking place in our world in general, and in higher education in particular, and not adapting to the changing motivations and needs students exhibit: "[The] [m]ajority of the students are studying traditional courses out of compulsion and lack of alternative but without an interest to pursue them earnestly…. Several courses are run just for sake of survival of those departments and to sustain the jobs of teachers…. Most of the doctoral researchers do not contribute to knowledge but only create additional data" (Sridevi, 2019, p. 49).

- Academic boycott[30]: Academic boycott is a threat undermining the essence of academic freedom (Nelson, 2016). It might force potential international students to stay away from boycotted academic institutions or countries, even if they want to study there (or have even applied already). To illustrate, boycott resolutions on a certain (potential) host country might affect international students' decision to study there, even if it may be perceived as a high-quality education provider (see, for example, the case of South Africa; Nordkvelle, 1990).
- Deregulation has opened up greater competition, which has expanded the potential number of competitors in the market (e.g., Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016), forcing public institutions to be more proactive.
- Over-commercializing higher education (e.g., Sridevi, 2019).
- Relative or specific decrease of students:
  - Even though Bhandari and Blumenthal (2011b) forecasted a significant increase in the total number of students pursuing higher education around the world, it is country dependent (e.g., an increase in Israel, Australia, the Netherlands, and other countries, as opposed to a decrease in other countries such as the USA, North America, the United Kingdom, and Italy; for more comparisons and countries, see Roser & Ortiz-Ospina, 2018). This increase is also sector dependent (e.g., a decrease in the number of students in the fields of higher, technical, and vocational education, HTVE; Huang et al., 2010).
  - Sending and/or developing countries have begun attracting students (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b; Verbik et al., 2007), as "the overall pie of global mobility is expanding with more countries emerging as important destinations for international

[30] "Academic boycotts range from calls to sever some or all relationships with a single university to wholesale efforts to boycott all the universities of a given country. Such boycotts may encompass refusing to participate in any and all activities at the target universities; refusing to write letters of recommendation for students seeking to study there; closing down joint degree programs or research projects with the boycotted universities; refusing to provide external evaluations for faculty or student projects at the targeted schools; refusing to publish articles by students and faculty at boycotted schools; blocking boycotted universities from access to resources from disciplinary organizations like announcements of academic position or fellowship opportunities; removing faculty from editorial boards; and blacklisting and shunning of faculty" (Nelson, 2016, p. 14).

students" (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011b, p. 9). Thus, the mobility of international students has transferred from the familiar and common United States and Western Europe to Oceania and Asia (e.g., Lee, 2015) and also to non-OECD countries (e.g., Beine et al., 2014). Hence, the dominance of the traditional suppliers of international education (i.e., United States and Western Europe) has begun to diminish (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2001b).[31]

  – In addition to the mobility issues mentions above, language is also implicated, meaning that the dominance of English as a globally taught language, and thus as a pull factor for international students, might decrease (e.g., Lasanowski, 2011).

- Economic crisis (e.g., Shahijan et al., 2016).
- Bankruptcy and shutting-down of currently operating academic institutions: This last point can be regarded as both an opportunity or a threat, depending on the point of view. For the ones that are about to be shut down it is an imminent threat, which will inevitably lead to the organization's demise. However, the discharged students are a potential pool of talent. They will want to be assimilated to another institution to finish their studies and will take a more lenient approach in that regard. Institutions can use this to their advantage and promote assimilation and implement specialized programs for them (e.g., exemptions from courses, reduced tuition fees, etc.).

Conclusion

In conclusion, we focused on the marketing vantage point of international students, their mobility, and higher education. We have described international higher education as a tradable service, and we suggest that academic institutions invest in it as a part of strategic planning that may contribute to their prosperity, as can be understood through the review and the SWOT analysis in this chapter, and in Chapter 3.

[31] This is a *threat* for the developed countries (such as USA and Western Europe), but is an *opportunity* for developing countries (such as Malaysia, the United Arab Emirates, and Singapore).

References

Aarinen, A. (2012). *University websites as facilitators of international student decision-making* (Master's thesis, Aalto University, Finland). https://aaltodoc.aalto.fi/bitstream/handle/123456789/7561/hse_ethesis_13106.pdf?sequence=1.

Ahmad, S. Z., Buchanan, F. R., & Ahmad, N. (2016). Examination of students' selection criteria for international education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(6), 1088–1103. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2014-0145.

Alsharari, N. M. (2019). Internationalization market and higher education field: Institutional perspectives. *International Journal of Educational Management.* https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-12-2018-0402.

Altbach, P. (2015). Foreign study: Patterns and challenges. *International Higher Education* (30), 2–3. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2003.30.7355.

American Marketing Association. (2013). *Definitions of marketing.* https://www.ama.org/the-definition-of-marketing/.

Americanos, A. (2011). *Factors influencing international students' decisions in choosing a Cyprus higher education institution: Implications for recruitment and marketing* (Doctoral dissertation, Middlesex University, UK). http://eprints.mdx.ac.uk/9106/1/2011AmericanosDPROF.pdf.

Antorini, Y. M., & Schultz, M. (2005). Corporate branding and the conformity trap. In M. Schultz, Y. M. Antorini, & F. F. Csaba (Eds.), *Corporate branding: Purpose/people/processes: Towards the second wave of corporate branding* (pp. 5–78). Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Arndt, J. (1967). Role of product-related conversations in the diffusion of a new product. *Journal of Marketing Research, 4*(3), 291–295. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224376700400308.

Australian Government Department of Education and Training. (2018). *International student data 2018 [Table].* https://internationaleducation.gov.au/research/International-Student-Data/Documents/INTERNATIONAL%20STUDENT%20DATA/2018/Pivot_Basic_Latest.xlsm.

Babatunde, M. A. (2018). Estimating the propensity of consuming higher education abroad: Evidence from Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Studies, 6*(1), 34–43. https://www.ajouronline.com/index.php/AJHSS/article/view/5204.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1974). Marketing as an organized behavioral system of exchange: A comprehensive and analytic structure for interpreting behavior in marketing relationships. *Journal of Marketing, 38*(4), 77–81. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224297403800414.

Becker, R., & Kolster, P. (2012). *International student recruitment: Policies and developments in selected countries.* The Hague: Nuffic.

Beech, S. E. (2018). Adapting to change in the higher education system: International student mobility as a migration industry. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies, 44*(4), 610–625. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2017.1315515.

Beine, M., Noël, R., & Ragot, L. (2014). Determinants of the international mobility of students. *Economics of Education Review, 41,* 40–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.03.003.

Belanger, C., Mount, J., & Wilson, M. (2002). Institutional image and retention. *Tertiary Education and Management, 8*(3), 217–230. https://doi.org/10.1080/13583883.2002.9967080.

Berman, R., Fine, R., Hirsh, D., & Nelson, C. (2016). Academic boycotts. In C. Nelson (Ed.), *Dreams deferred: A concise guide to the Israeli-Palestinian conflict & the movement to boycott Israel* (pp. 14–22). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (Eds.). (2011a). *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions.* New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (2011b). Global student mobility and the twenty-first century silk road: National trends and new directions. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 1–23). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bhatti, M. A., Juhari, A. S., Piaralal, S. K., & Piaralal, N. K. (2017). Knowledge workers job performance: An examination of career values, perceived organizational support and career satisfaction. *Business and Management Horizons, 5*(2), 13–35. https://doi.org/10.5296/bmh.v5i2.12138.

Bolsmann, C., & Miller, H. (2008). International student recruitment to universities in England: Discourse, rationales and globalisation. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 6*(1), 75–88. https://doi.org/10.1080/14767720701855634.

Boykin, G. (2019). *What is the difference between branding & positioning?* AZcentral.com. https://yourbusiness.azcentral.com/difference-between-branding-positioning-3747.html#.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. *American Psychologist, 32*(7), 513–531. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.32.7.513.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. *Developmental Psychology, 22*(6), 723–742. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.22.6.723.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. *International Encyclopedia of Education*, *3*(2), 37–43. http://impactofspecialneeds.weebly.com/uploads/3/4/1/9/3419723/ecologial_models_of_human_development.pdf.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1999). Environments in developmental perspective: Theoretical and operational models. In S. Friedman & T. Wachs (Eds.), *Measuring environment across the life span: Emerging methods and concepts* (pp. 3–28). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (2005). The bioecological theory of human development. In U. Bronfenbrenner (Ed.), *Making human beings human: Bioecological perspectives on human development* (pp. 3–15). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (2006). The bioecological model of human development. In W. Damon & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Theoretical models of human development* (6th ed.) (Vol. 1, pp. 793–828). New York, NY: Wiley.

Brooks, R., & Waters, J. (2009). International higher education and the mobility of UK students. *Journal of Research in International Education*, *8*(2), 191–209. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240909105204.

Bunce, L., Baird, A., & Jones, S. E. (2017). The student-as-consumer approach in higher education and its effects on academic performance. *Studies in Higher Education*, *42*(11), 1958–1978. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1127908.

Business Dictionary. (2019a). *Buyer*. http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/buyer.html.

Business Dictionary. (2019b). *Consumer*. http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/consumer.html.

Business Dictionary. (2019c). *Customer*. http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/customer.html.

Caldwell, E. F., & Hyams-Ssekasi, D. (2016). Leaving home: The challenges of Black-African international students prior to studying overseas. *Journal of International Students*, *6*(2), 588–613. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1094889.

Chapman, D. W. (1981). A model of student college choice. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *52*(5), 490–505. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.1981.11778120.

Chen, L.-H. (2008). Internationalization or international marketing? Two frameworks for understanding international students' choice of Canadian universities. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, *18*(1), 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841240802100113.

Chien, Y. Y. (2013). *Adjustment of international students in a UK university: Reasons for study abroad and subsequent academic and socio-cultural experiences* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter, UK). https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10871/15044.

Chiosa, A. R., & Anastasiei, B. (2017). Negative word-of-mouth: Exploring the impact of adverse messages on consumers' reactions on Facebook. *Review of Economic and Business Studies, 10*(2), 157–173. https://doi.org/10.1515/rebs-2017-0059.

Chisnall, P. M. (1997). *Consumer behaviour* (3rd ed.). London: McGraw Hill.

Constantine, M. G., Anderson, G. M., Berkel, L. A., Caldwell, L. D., & Utsey, S. O. (2005). Examining the cultural adjustment experiences of African international college students: A qualitative analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(1), 57–66. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.1.57.

Conway, T., Mackay, S., & Yorke, D. (1994). Strategic planning in higher education: Who are the customers? *International Journal of Educational Management, 8*(6), 29–36. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549410069202.

Cowley, P., & Hyams-Ssekasi, D. (2018). Motivation, induction, and challenge: Examining the initial phase of international students' educational sojourn. *Journal of International Students, 8*(1), 109–130. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1101039.

Cubillo, J. M., Sánchez, J., & Cerviño, J. (2006). International students' decision-making process. *International Journal of Educational Management, 20*(2), 101–115. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540610646091.

Dalla, R. (2004). "I fell off [the mothering] track": Barriers to "effective mothering" among prostituted women. *Family Relations, 53*(2), 190–200. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-2445.2004.00009.x.

Davey, G. (2005). Chinese students' motivations for studying abroad. *International Journal of Private Education, 2,* 16–21.

DeAndrea, D. C., Ellison, N. B., LaRose, R., Steinfield, C., & Fiore, A. (2012). Serious social media: On the use of social media for improving students' adjustment to college. *The Internet and Higher Education, 15*(1), 15–23. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2011.05.009.

Deloitte Access Economics. (2015). *The value of international education to Australia*. Report to the Australian Government Department of Education and Training. https://internationaleducation.gov.au/research/research-papers/Documents/ValueInternationalEd.pdf.

Dexeus, C. R. (2019). The deepening effects of the digital revolution. In E. Fayos-Solà & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The future of tourism: Innovation and sustainability* (pp. 43–69). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Durkin, M., McKenna, S., & Cummins, D. (2012). Emotional connections in higher education marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management, 26*(2), 153–161. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541211201960.

Dyson, R. G. (2004). Strategic development and SWOT analysis at the University of Warwick. *European Journal of Operational Research, 152*(3), 631–640. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0377-2217(03)00062-6.

Eckhardt, G. M., Houston, M. B., Jiang, B., Lamberton, C., Rindfleisch, A., & Zervas, G. (2019). Marketing in the sharing economy. *Journal of Marketing, 83*(5), 5–27. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022242919861929.

Eder, J., Smith, W. W., & Pitts, R. E. (2010). Exploring factors influencing student study abroad destination choice. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 10*(3), 232–250. https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2010.503534.

Educations.com. (2019). *International higher education report: Student trends 2019*. https://www.educations.com/read-student-trends-2019-15494.

Eduventures. (2008). The adult learner: An Eduventures perspective. *Eduventures* [Blog]. http://blogs.bu.edu/mrbott/files/2008/10/adultlearners.pdf.

Elliot, D. L., Reid, K., & Baumfield, V. (2016). Beyond the amusement, puzzlement and challenges: An enquiry into international students' academic acculturation. *Studies in Higher Education, 41*(12), 2198–2217. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1029903.

Fyall, A. (2019). Tourism destination re-positioning and strategies. In E. Fayos-Solà & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The future of tourism: Innovation and sustainability* (pp. 271–284). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

García-Álvarez, M. T., Novo-Corti, I., & Varela-Candamio, L. (2018). The effects of social networks on the assessment of virtual learning environments: A study for social sciences degrees. *Telematics and Informatics, 35*(4), 1005–1017. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2017.09.013.

Gargano, T. (2009). (Re)conceptualizing international student mobility: The potential of transnational social fields. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 13*(3), 331–346. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315308322060.

Garrett, R. (2018). International branch campuses: Success factors. *International Higher Education, 2*(93), 14–16. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.0.93.10417.

Garratt-Reed, D., Roberts, L. D., & Heritage, B. (2016). Grades, student satisfaction and retention in online and face-to-face introductory psychology units: A test of equivalency theory. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7,* 673. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00673.

Gibbs, P., & Murphy, P. (2009). Implementation of ethical higher education marketing. *Tertiary Education and Management, 15*(4), 341–354. https://doi.org/10.1080/13583880903335472.

Goi, M. T., Kalidas, V., & Yunus, N. (2018). Mediating roles of emotion and experience in the stimulus-organism-response framework in higher education institutions. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841241.2018.1425231.

Gomes, L., & Murphy, J. (2003). An exploratory study of marketing international education online. *International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(3), 116–125. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310467787.

Greenhow, C., & Lewin, C. (2016). Social media and education: Reconceptualizing the boundaries of formal and informal learning. *Learning, Media and Technology, 41*(1), 6–30. https://doi.org/10.1080/17439884.2015.1064954.

Gribble, C. (2014). *Employment, work placements and work integrated learning of international students in Australia*. Melbourne: International Education Association of Australia.
Guilbault, M. (2018). Students as customers in higher education: The (controversial) debate needs to end. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 40,* 295–298. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2017.03.006.
Hadler, M. (2006). Intentions to migrate within the European Union: A challenge for simple economic macro-level explanations. *European Societies, 8*(1), 111–140. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616690500491324.
Heffernan, T., Wilkins, S., & Butt, M. M. (2018). Transnational higher education: The importance of institutional reputation, trust and student–university identification in international partnerships. *International Journal of Educational Management, 32*(2), 227–240. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-05-2017-0122.
Hemsley-Brown, J., & Oplatka, I. (2006). Universities in a competitive global marketplace: A systematic review of the literature on higher education marketing. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 19*(4), 316–338. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513550610669176.
Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 18*(1), 38–52. https://doi.org/10.1002/dir.10073.
Hotta, J., & Ting-Toomey, S. (2013). Intercultural adjustment and friendship dialectics in international students: A qualitative study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 37*(5), 550–566. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2013.06.007.
Houshmand, S., Spanierman, L. B., & Tafarodi, R. W. (2014). Excluded and avoided: Racial microaggressions targeting Asian international students in Canada. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 20*(3), 377–388. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035404.
Huang, H. T., Binney, W., & Hede, A. M. (2010). Strategic marketing of educational institutions. In *ANZMAC 2010: Doing More with Less: Proceedings of the 2010 Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference* (pp. 1–9). http://www.anzmac2010.org/proceedings/pdf/anzmac10Final00468.pdf.
Huong, T. T., & Cong, L. V. (2018). Motivations of Vietnamese students in study abroad: A case of Vietnamese graduate students in the Philippines. *International Research in Education, 6*(1), 14–29. https://doi.org/10.5296/ire.v6i1.12245.
Hyams-Ssekasi, D., Mushibwe, C. P., & Caldwell, E. F. (2014). International education in the United Kingdom: The challenges of the golden opportunity for Black-African students. *Sage Open, 4*(4), 2158244014562386. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014562386.

Jackson, G. A. (1982). Public efficiency and private choice in higher education. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 4*(2), 237–247. https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737004002237.

Jackson, N., & Ward, R. (2016). Evolving ecosystems for encouraging supporting and recognizing the lifewide development of students in the UK higher education system. In *Background Paper (v. 3) for the ICOLACE4 Conference*. Singapore. http://www.normanjackson.co.uk/uploads/1/0/8/4/10842717/exploring_uk_higher_education_ecosystem_.pdf.

Jacoby, B. (2015). Engaging commuter and part-time students. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (pp. 289–305). New York, NY: Routledge.

Jansson-Boyd, C. V. (2019). Quantitative research: Its place in consumer psychology. In P. M. W. Hackett (Ed.), *Quantitative research methods in consumer psychology: Contemporary and data driven approaches* (pp. 1–21). New York, NY: Routledge.

Jianvittayakit, L., & Dimanche, F. (2010). An investigation of travel motivation as a factor in international students' choice of a foreign university: A Thai case study. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Colloquium on Tourism & Leisure, Bangkok, Thailand* (Vol. 6). https://www.academia.edu/519548/An_Investigation_of_travel_motivation_as_a_factor_in_international_students_choice_of_a_foreign_university_A_Thai_Case_Study.

Johnes, J. (2018). University rankings: What do they really show? *Scientometrics, 115*(1), 585–606. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-018-2666-1.

Jon, J. E., Lee, J. J., & Byun, K. (2014). The emergence of a regional hub: Comparing international student choices and experiences in South Korea. *Higher Education, 67*(5), 691–710. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9674-0.

Jongbloed, B. (2003). Marketisation in higher education, Clark's triangle and the essential ingredients of markets [Special issue]. *Higher Education Quarterly, 57*(2), 110–135. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2273.00238.

Jump!Foundation.org. (2019). *Bronfenbrenner's biological model of human development: Models and theoretical frameworks.* http://experience.jumpfoundation.org/brofenbrenners-biological-model-of-human-development/.

Kamal Basha, N., Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2016). International students' university preferences: How different are Malaysian and Chinese students? *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(2), 197–210. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-08-2014-0122.

Keller, K. L. (2009). Managing the growth tradeoff: Challenges and opportunities in luxury branding. *Journal of Brand Management, 16*(5–6), 290–301. https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2008.47.

Keller, K. L. (2011). *Strategic brand management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Keller, K. L. (2019). Infusing brands and branding into customer centricity. In R. W. Palmatier, C. Moorman, & J.-Y. Lee (Eds.), *Handbook on customer centricity: Strategies on building a customer-centric organization* (pp. 276–299). Cheltenham, UK and Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781788113601.00019.

Kember, D., Ho, A., & Hong, C. (2010). Initial motivational orientation of students enrolling in undergraduate degrees. *Studies in Higher Education, 35*(3), 263–276. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070903023510.

Kenyon, S., Lyons, G., & Rafferty, J. (2002). Transport and social exclusion: Investigating the possibility of promoting inclusion through virtual mobility. *Journal of Transport Geography, 10*(3), 207–219. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-6923(02)00012-1.

Knight, J. (2008). The role of cross-border education in the debate on education as a public good and private commodity. *Journal of Asian Public Policy, 1*(2), 174–187. https://doi.org/10.1080/17516230802094478.

Knight, J. (2011a). Education hubs: A fad, a brand, an innovation? *Journal of Studies in International Education, 15*(3), 221–240. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311398046.

Knight, J. (2011b). Regional education hubs: Mobility for the knowledge economy. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education* (pp. 211–230). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Knight, J. (2012). *Internationalization: Three generations of crossborder higher education*. New Delhi: India International Centre.

Knight, J. (2014). Three generations of crossborder higher education: New developments, issues and challenges. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 43–58). Oxford, UK: Symposium Books.

Knight, J. (2015). Regional education hubs—rhetoric or reality. *International Higher Education, 59,* 1–2. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2010.59.8491.

Knight, J., & Morshidi, S. (2011). The complexities and challenges of regional education hubs: Focus on Malaysia. *Higher Education*, *62*(5), 593–606. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-011-9467-2.

Knox, S. (2004). Positioning and branding your organisation. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 13*(2), 105–115. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420410529735.

Koelzer, T. (2019). *Brand positioning strategy*. EquibrandConsulting.com. http://equibrandconsulting.com/services/brand-consultant/brand-positioning/strategy.

Kohli, C., Leuthesser, L., & Suri, R. (2007). Got slogan? Guidelines for creating effective slogans. *Business Horizons, 50*(5), 415–422. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2007.05.002.

Koris, R., & Nokelainen, P. (2015). The student-customer orientation questionnaire (SCOQ): Application of customer metaphor to higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 29*(1), 115–138. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-10-2013-0152.

Kosmützky, A., & Putty, R. (2016). Transcending borders and traversing boundaries: A systematic review of the literature on transnational, offshore, cross-border, and borderless higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *20*(1), 8–33. https://doi.org//10.1177/1028315315604719.

Kotler, P. (1997). *Marketing management: Analysis, planning, implementation, and control* (9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2014). *Principles of marketing* (15th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Kotler, P., & Fox, K. F. A. (1985). *Strategic marketing for educational institutions*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2012). *Marketing management: Global edition* (14th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2016). *Marketing management: Global edition* (15th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Lakkaraju, S. K., Tech, D., & Deng, S. (2018). A framework for profiling prospective students in higher education. In M. Khosrow-Pour (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of information science and technology* (4th ed., pp. 3861–3869). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Lasanowski, V. (2011). Can speak, will travel: The influence of language on global student mobility. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (pp. 193–210). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Lawton, W. (2015). Digital learning, mobility and internationalization in European higher education. In H. de Wit, F. Hunter, L. Howard, & E. Egron-Polak (Eds.), *Internationalisation of higher education* (pp. 77–83). Brussels: European Parliament.

Lazić, A., & Brkić, M. (2015). *An analysis of decision-making factors of international students in selecting the summer programme: The case of the Ljubljana Summer School* (Master's thesis, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia). www.cek.ef.uni-lj.si/magister/lazic1791-B.pdf.

Lee, J. J. (2015). Engaging international students. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (2nd ed., pp. 105–120). New York, NY: Routledge.

Lee, J. J., & Rice, C. (2007). Welcome to America? International student perceptions of discrimination. *Higher Education, 53*(3), 381–409. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-005-4508-3.

Leiber, T., Stensaker, B., & Harvey, L. C. (2018). Bridging theory and practice of impact evaluation of quality management in higher education institutions: A SWOT analysis. *European Journal of Higher Education, 8*(3), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568235.2018.1474782.

Lemoine, P. A., Hackett, P. T., & Richardson, M. D. (2016). The impact of social media on instruction in higher education. In L. Briz-Ponce, J. A. Juanes-Méndez, & F. J. García- Peñalvo (Eds.), *Handbook of research on mobile devices and applications in higher education settings* (pp. 373–401). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Lewis, W. (2016). Study abroad influencing factors: An investigation of socio-economic status, social, cultural, and personal factors. *Ursidae: The Undergraduate Research Journal at the University of Northern Colorado*, *5*(3), 6. https://digscholarship.unco.edu/urj/vol5/iss3/6.

Li, M., & Bray, M. (2007). Cross-border flows of students for higher education: Push–pull factors and motivations of mainland Chinese students in Hong Kong and Macau. *Higher Education, 53*(6), 791–818. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-005-5423-3.

Lomer, S., Papatsiba, V., & Naidoo, R. (2018). Constructing a national higher education brand for the UK: Positional competition and promised capitals. *Studies in Higher Education, 43*(1), 134–153. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1157859.

Loudon, D. L., & Della Bitta, A. J. (1993). *Consumer behavior: Concepts and applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Maringe, F., & Carter, S. (2007). International students' motivations for studying in UK HE: Insights into the choice and decision making of African students. *International Journal of Educational Management, 21*(6), 459–475. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710780000.

Marketing Dictionary. (2019a). *Consumer*. https://marketing-dictionary.org/c/consumer/.

Marketing Dictionary. (2019b). *Customer*. https://marketing-dictionary.org/c/customer/.

Marketing Dictionary. (2019c). *Slogan*. https://marketing-dictionary.org/t/tagline/.

Mayne, D. (2019). *An ecological systems theory approach to academic acculturation of female international students from the Arab Gulf* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, USA). https://www.ideals.illinois.edu/handle/2142/105159.

Mazzarol, T. (1998). Critical success factors for international education marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management, 12*(4), 163–175. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549810220623.

Mazzarol, T., & Soutar, G. N. (2002). "Push–pull" factors influencing international student destination choice. *International Journal of Educational Management, 16*(2), 82–90. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540210418403.

Mazzarol, T. W., & Soutar, G. N. (2008). Australian educational institutions' international markets. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 22*(3), 229–238. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540810861865.

Mazzarol, T. W., & Soutar, G. N. (2012). Revisiting the global market for higher education. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 24*(5), 717–737. https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851211278079.

McGuckin, C., & Minton, S. J. (2014). From theory to practice: Two ecosystemic approaches and their applications to understanding school bullying. *Journal of Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools, 24*(1), 36–48. https://doi.org/10.1017/jgc.2013.10.

McKenna, L., Robinson, E., Penman, J., & Hills, D. (2017). Factors impacting on psychological wellbeing of international students in the health professions: A scoping review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 74*, 85–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2017.06.007.

McManus, R., Haddock-Fraser, J., & Rands, P. (2017). A methodology to understand student choice of higher education institutions: The case of the United Kingdom. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 39*(4), 390–405. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2017.1330806.

Mejía, N. G., Martelo, R. J., & Villabona, N. (2018). The use of information and communication technologies in educational institutions. *Contemporary Engineering Sciences*, *11*(10), 475–484. https://doi.org/10.12988/ces.2018.8242.

Melewar, T. C., & Akel, S. (2005). The role of corporate identity in the higher education sector: A case study. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 10*(1), 41–57. https://doi.org/10.1108/13563280510578196.

Meyer, H. (2018). Teachers' thoughts on student decision making during engineering design lessons. *Education Sciences, 8*(1), 9–19. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci8010009.

Mikalayeva, L. (2015). Motivation, ownership, and the role of the instructor in active learning. *International Studies Perspectives, 17*(2), 214–229. https://doi.org/10.1093/isp/ekv001.

Mitchell, A., Bauer, A., & Hausruckinger, G. (2003). *The new bottom line: Bridging the value gaps that are undermining your business.* London: Capstone Wiley.

Montgomery, H. (1998). Decision making and action. In M. Kofta, G. Weary, & G. Sedek (Eds.), *Personal control in action* (pp. 279–298). Boston, MA: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4757-2901-6_11.

Moogan, Y. J., Baron, S., & Harris, K. (1999). Decision-making behaviour of potential higher education students. *Higher Education Quarterly, 53*(3), 211–228. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2273.00127.

Moorman, C., Van Heerde, H. J., Moreau, C. P., & Palmatier, R. W. (2019). Challenging the boundaries of marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022242919867086.

Nachatar Singh, J. K., Schapper, J., & Jack, G. (2014). The importance of place for international students' choice of university: A case study at a Malaysian university. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(5), 463–474. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315314523990.

Nada, C. I., & Araújo, H. C. (2018). Migration and education: A narrative approach to the experience of foreign students in Portugal. *London Review of Education*, *16*(2), 308–324. https://doi.org/10.18546/LRE.16.2.10.

Nathan, G. (2017). *The OECD expert group on migration SOPEMI annual report: International migration—Israel 2016–2017*. Kvar-Monash, Israel: The Institute for Immigration and Social Integration, Ruppin Academic Center. http://www.israel-sociology.org.il/uploadimages/26102017_4.pdf.

Nelson, C. (2016). *Dreams deferred: A concise guide to the Israeli-Palestinian conflict & the movement to boycott Israel*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Ngamkamollert, T., & Ruangkanjanases, A. (2015). Factors influencing foreign students' satisfaction toward international program in Thai universities. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 5*(3), 170–178. https://doi.org/10.7763/IJIET.2015.V5.497.

Nghia, T. L. H. (2015). *Factors influencing prospective international students' motivation for overseas study and selection of host countries and institutions: The case of Vietnamese students*. Paper presented at the 26th ISANA International Education Conference. http://isana.proceedings.com.au/docs/2015/FullPaper-Tran_Le_Huu_Nghia.pdf.

Nicholls, J., Harris, J., Morgan, E., Clarke, K., & Sims, D. (1995). Marketing higher education: The MBA experience. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *9*(2), 31–38. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549510082369.

Nixon, E., Scullion, R., & Hearn, R. (2018). Her majesty the student: Marketised higher education and the narcissistic (dis)satisfactions of the student-consumer. *Studies in Higher Education, 43*(6), 927–943. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1196353.

Nordkvelle, Y. (1990). The academic boycott of South Africa debate: Science and social practice. *Studies in Higher Education, 15*(3), 253–275. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079012331377390.

Onk, V. B., & Joseph, M. (2017). International student recruitment techniques: A preliminary analysis. *Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education*, *13*(1), 25–34. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1139145.pdf.

Oplatka, I., & Hemsley-Brown, J. (2007). The incorporation of market orientation in the school culture: An essential aspect of school marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management, 21*(4), 292–305. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710749519.

Orr, B. (2013). Conducting a SWOT analysis for program improvement. *US-China Education Review*, *3*(6), 381–384. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED543801.pdf.

Perez-Esparrells, C., & Orduna-Malea, E. (2018). Do the technical universities exhibit distinct behaviour in global university rankings? A Times Higher Education (THE) case study. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management, 48,* 97–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jengtecman.2018.04.007.

Phadermrod, B., Crowder, R. M., & Wills, G. B. (2019). Importance-performance analysis based SWOT analysis. *International Journal of Information Management, 44,* 194–203. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2016.03.009.

Pimpa, N. (2003). The influence of family on Thai students' choices of international education. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(4), 211–219. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310484931.

Pinar, M., Trapp, P., Girard, T., & Boyt, T. E. (2011). Utilizing the brand ecosystem framework in designing branding strategies for higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 25*(7), 724–739. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541111172126.

Polyakova, N. S., Lavrentieva, T. S., Shipilova, S. S., & Glazyrina, E. D. (2015). The influence of various factors on the progress in training of international learners of the preparatory department (on the example of the course "Computer Science"). *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *215,* 236–242. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.628.

Popa, D., & Knezevic, R. (2018). Academic mobility policies in higher education of Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Revista de Pedagogie—Journal of Pedagogy*, *1,* 159–171. https://www.ceeol.com/search/article-detail?id=678460.

Prenger, R., & Schildkamp, K. (2018). Data-based decision making for teacher and student learning: A psychological perspective on the role of the teacher. *Educational Psychology, 38*(6), 734–752. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2018.1426834.

Prugsamatz, S., Pentecost, R., & Ofstad, L. (2006). The influence of explicit and implicit service promises on Chinese students' expectations of overseas universities. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 18*(2), 129–145. https://doi.org/10.1108/13555850610658273.

Pucciarelli, F., & Kaplan, A. (2016). Competition and strategy in higher education: Managing complexity and uncertainty. *Business Horizons, 59*(3), 311–320. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2016.01.003.

Ra, Y. A., & Trusty, J. (2017). Impact of social support and coping on acculturation and acculturative stress of East Asian international students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 45*(4), 276–291. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12078.

Reddy, V. P. (2014). *The influence of social media on international students' choice of university and course* (Master's thesis, Queensland University of Technology, Australia). https://eprints.qut.edu.au/79391/4/Vijay%20Paul%20Reddy%20Thesis.pdf.

Richardson, M. D., Brinson, S. G., & Lemoine, P. A. (2018). Using social media to facilitate instruction and increase marketing in global higher education. In T. Purnendu & M. Siran (Eds.), *Marketing initiatives for sustainable educational development* (pp. 226–245). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Rienties, B., Beausaert, S., Grohnert, T., Niemantsverdriet, S., & Kommers, P. (2012). Understanding academic performance of international students: The role of ethnicity, academic and social integration. *Higher Education, 63*(6), 685–700. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-011-9468-1.

Rintamäki, T., Kuusela, H., & Mitronen, L. (2007). Identifying competitive customer value propositions in retailing. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 17*(6), 621–634. https://doi.org/10.1108/09604520710834975.

Robbins, S. P., & Coulter, M. (2012). *Management* (11th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Romero-Gutierrez, M., Jimenez-Liso, M. R., & Martinez-Chico, M. (2016). SWOT analysis to evaluate the programme of a joint online/onsite master's degree in environmental education through the students' perceptions. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 54,* 41–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2015.10.001.

Rosenzweig, M. R. (2008). *Higher education and international migration in Asia: Brain circulation*. Paper presented at the Annual World Bank Conference on Development Economics. https://www.econbiz.de/Record/comment-on-higher-education-and-international-migration-in-asia-brain-circulation-by-mark-r-rosenzweig-sto-tomas-patricia/10003831799.

Roser, M., & Ortiz-Ospina, E. (2018). *Tertiary education*. OurWorldinData.org. https://ourworldindata.org/tertiary-education.

Shahijan, M. K., Rezaei, S., & Preece, C. N. (2016). Developing a framework of internationalisation for higher education institutions in Malaysia: A SWOT analysis. *International Journal of Management in Education, 10*(2), 145–173. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJMIE.2016.075556.

Simon, D., Krawczyk, D. C., & Holyoak, K. J. (2004). Construction of preferences by constraint satisfaction. *Psychological Science, 15*(5), 331–336. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0956-7976.2004.00678.x.

Sirat, M. (2008). The impact of September 11 on international student flow into Malaysia: Lessons learned. *International Journal of Asia-Pacific Studies*, *4*(1) 79–95. http://ijaps.usm.my/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/morshidi.pdf.

Solomon, M. R. (2002). *Consumer behaviour*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Soutar, G. N., & Turner, J. P. (2002). Students' preferences for university: A conjoint analysis. *International Journal of Educational Management, 16*(1), 40–45. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540210415523.

Sridevi, P. (2019). Academic audit—A SWOT analysis for the higher education institutions. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, *8*(5), 48–49. http://worldwidejournals.co.in/index.php/ijsr/article/view/2506/2506.

Stravredes, T. M., & Herder, T. M. (2015). Engaging students in an online environment. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (pp. 257–269). New York, NY: Routledge.

Susilowati, C., & Sugandini, D. (2018). Perceived value, eWord-of-mouth, traditional word- of-mouth, and perceived quality to destination image of vacation tourists. *Review of Integrative Business and Economics Research*, *7,* 312–321. https://www.sibresearch.org/uploads/3/4/0/9/34097180/riber_7-s1_sp_s17-175_312-321.pdf.

Svenson, O. (1992). Differentiation and consolidation theory of human decision making: A frame of reference for the study of pre-and post-decision processes. *Acta Psychologica, 80*(1–3), 143–168. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-6918(92)90044-E.

Svenson, O. (1996). Decision making and the search for fundamental psychological regularities: What can be learned from a process perspective? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 65*(3), 252–267. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1996.0026.

Svenson, O., Salo, I., & Lindholm, T. (2009). Post-decision consolidation and distortion of facts. *Judgment and Decision Making*, *4*(5), 397–407. http://hdl.handle.net/1794/22047.

Tan, A. (2015). College choice behaviors of international students. *Sage Open, 5*(4), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015618995.

Tantivorakulchai, K. (2018). Thai students' destination choice for higher education. *AU Journal of Management*, *12*(2), 31–41. https://aujm.au.edu/index.php/aujm/article/view/26.

Tasci, A. D. A. (2011). Destination branding and positioning. In Y. Wang & A. Pizam (Eds.), *Destination marketing and management: Theories and applications* (pp. 113–129). Wallingford, UK: CAB International.

Taylor, G., & Ali, N. (2017). Learning and living overseas: Exploring factors that influence meaningful learning and assimilation: How international students adjust to studying in the UK from a socio-cultural perspective. *Education Sciences, 7*(1), 35–60. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci7010035.

Teichler, U. (2017). Internationalisation trends in higher education and the changing role of international student mobility. *Journal of International Mobility, 5*(1), 177–216. https://doi.org/10.3917/jim.005.0179.

Theurer, C. P., Tumasjan, A., Welpe, I. M., & Lievens, F. (2018). Employer branding: A brand equity-based literature review and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 20*(1), 155–179. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12121.

Townsend, P., & Jun Poh, H. (2008). An exploratory study of international students studying and living in a regional area. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 18*(2), 240–263. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841240802487411.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1991). Loss aversion in riskless choice: A reference-dependent model. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 106*(4), 1039–1061. https://doi.org/10.2307/2937956.

Tudge, J. R., Mokrova, I., Hatfield, B. E., & Karnik, R. B. (2009). Uses and misuses of Bronfenbrenner's bioecological theory of human development. *Journal of Family Theory & Review, 1*(4), 198–210. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1756-2589.2009.00026.x.

Urban, E. L., & Palmer, L. B. (2014). International students as a resource for internationalization of higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(4), 305–324. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313511642.

Varghese, N. V. (2008). *Globalization of higher education and cross-border student mobility* (pp. 1–34). Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.

Veletsianos, G. (2011). Higher education scholars' participation and practices on Twitter. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 28*(4), 336–349. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2729.2011.00449.x.

Verbik, L., Lasanowski, H., & Lasanowski, V. (2007). *International student mobility: Patterns and trends.* Wes.org. http://www.wes.org/educators/pdf/StudentMobility.pdf.

Vilhelmson, B., & Thulin, E. (2008). Virtual mobility, time use and the place of the home. *Tijdschrift voor economische en sociale geografie, 99*(5), 602–618. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9663.2008.00494.x.

Voramontri, D., & Klieb, L. (2018). Impact of social media on consumer behaviour. *International Journal of Information and Decision Sciences, 462,* 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJIDS.2019.101994.

Wæraas, A., & Solbakk, M. N. (2009). Defining the essence of a university: Lessons from higher education branding. *Higher Education*, *57*(4), 449–470. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-008-9155-z.

Wilkins, S., Balakrishnan, M. S., & Huisman, J. (2012). Student choice in higher education: Motivations for choosing to study at an international branch campus. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16*(5), 413–433. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315311429002.

Woodall, T., Hiller, A., & Resnick, S. (2014). Making sense of higher education: Students as consumers and the value of the university experience. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(1), 48–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.648373.

Woodruff, R. B. (1997). Customer value: The next source for competitive advantage. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 25*(2), 139–153. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02894350.

Xin, H., Kempland, M., & Blankson, F. H. (2015). Adaptability and replicability of web-facilitated, hybrid, and online learning in an undergraduate exercise psychology course. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *14*(1), 19–30. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1057333.

Yan, L., & Pei, S. (2018). "Home away from home"? How international students handle difficult and negative experiences in American higher education. *Journal of International Students, 8*(1), 453–472. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1134337.

Yang, M. (2007). What attracts mainland Chinese students to Australian higher education. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation and Development*, *4*(2), 1–12. http://hdl.cqu.edu.au/10018/5964.

Yrjölä, M., Kuusela, H., Närvänen, E., Rintamäki, N., & Saarijärvi, H. (2019). Leading change: A customer value framework. In A. Kangas, J. Kujala, A. Heikkinen, A. Lönnqvist, H. Laihonen, & J. Bethwaite (Eds.), *Leading change in a complex world: Transdisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 145–164). Tampere, Finland: Tampere University Press. https://trepo.tuni.fi/handle/10024/105096.

Zhang, Y. L. (2018). Using Bronfenbrenner's ecological approach to understand academic advising with international community college students. *Journal of International Students, 8*(4), 1764–1782. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1468084.

Živković, Ž., Nikolić, D., Savić, M., Djordjević, P., & Mihajlović, I. (2017). Prioritizing strategic goals in higher education organizations by using a SWOT–PROMETHEE/GAIA–GDSS model. *Group Decision and Negotiation, 26*(4), 829–846. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10726-017-9533-y.

CHAPTER 5

Recommendations and Remedies

Edna Rabenu and Or Shkoler

First and foremost, we must stress the importance of consciousness and awareness of higher education institutions worldwide. As we discussed in earlier chapters, institutions do not work in a vacuum and in an "ideal" environment. This market (of higher education) is rapidly changing and has become volatile and challenging. Competition increases as more higher education institutes are being founded. Customers (i.e., the students) are becoming exceedingly diverse in background, expectations, and needs, and also more competent and confident (in their perception). Funding is also an issue for many institutions. All this necessitates and compels higher education institutions to be aware of the market environment within which they operate. As such, if they wish to increase their revenue (among other things), they must be proactive and use adequate, flexible, and perhaps broad, marketing strategies, and hire professional and skilled marketers who have the ability to create, sustain, enhance, and protect the brands (e.g., Kotler & Keller, 2012).

Second, we argue that marketing in these institutions (i.e., marketing managers and departments) should *not* be considered from only a financial viewpoint, as it is wrong and misleading to do so. Marketing should not only focus on how to make more money, but how to propel the organization and its brand forward in the purpose of increasing profits through increased "buyers." In other words, marketing should focus on the human needs of potential customers and meet them, as in every deal, in a mutual way—the buyer should *want* to buy a product or a service

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5_5

from the seller, the money made in the deal is collateral from a marketing perspective, but it is the end goal for the organization as a whole. Thus, the main goal of marketing strategies is to increase the probability that a potential customer will make the decision to "go for you instead of your competitor," in all ways possible.

We also encourage institutions to think about *long-term* strategies and not *short-term* tactics to increase their profitability and revenue. As this is a very agile and tumultuous market environment, short-term planning may yield a (debatable) relative success, but the organization might ultimately fail. A good example of a bad strategy is lowering entry levels to a certain academic institution to increase class size and number of enrollments, which will translate into de facto students. It might probably escalate the number of enrollments and students, but might also create an unfavorable class atmosphere, and maybe even make some students feel uneasy about their choice of the institution. In the long run, this might decrease the number of enrolled "good" students, as word-of-mouth will begin to proliferate in corridor conversations, social media, and chats with friends or family, ultimately creating negative publicity for the institution and its brand.

Finally, we posit a basic axiom for marketing and marketers: "Think before you act." In other words, marketing is about careful planning and specific strategy designing, not ignorance, impulsive actions, or impetuous choices. Its aim is to increase the organization's profitability and revenue in many ways (e.g., brand positioning), and as such should be carried out with great care.

In the next section, we will provide several recommendations revolving around the three major actors: (1) the country; (2) the institution; and (3) the students themselves, but we begin with a quote:

> Institutions need to recruit students, to engage them and to persuade them of the benefits of partaking in the global circulation of knowledge. Students need to see the effects of and be affected by the institutional reach of education providers. They need to identify with knowledge institutions, their ability to enhance the students' status and employability and to recognise the institutions as key players in global knowledge. (Raghuram, 2013, p. 148)

Furthermore, we wish to emphasize that the recommendations given in this chapter are from an ideal vantage point. We are aware of the (potentially) many constraints and difficulties in implementing them (e.g., time, staffing, or funding). As such, we will also recommend that you do not take the suggestions in this chapter purely at face value but adopt those that may be applied and implemented in certain situations or under particular constraints (e.g., instead of a pre-academic/preparatory English-language program on-campus, create the same program virtually—an online learning method).

Strengthening National Branding

Positive national branding has many advantages (e.g., Lomer, Papatsiba, & Naidoo, 2018; Pinar, Trapp, Girard, & Boyt, 2011), and thus a country may wish to generate, augment, and expose its brand as a high-quality education provider. For example, the United States is branded as a highly ranked, high-quality education source, which attracts and hosts abundant numbers of international students (e.g., Lee, 2015). However, in addition to academic prestige, a country may want to bolster its branding in other aspects that students may find attractive, as they have motivations other than academic (e.g., Teichler, 2017), such as a country's culture, tourist attractions,[1] technological innovation, and food, etc. (e.g., Ahmad, Buchanan, & Ahmad, 2016; Cubillo, Sánchez, & Cerviño, 2006; Huong & Cong, 2018; Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Nathan, 2017; Tan, 2015; Yang, 2007). For instance, Israel has managed to brand itself as a leading innovative and technological country (Nathan, 2017), a "start-up nation" (e.g., Senor & Singer, 2009) that attracts many international students.

It is important to note that sometimes academic reputation is only secondary to other motivation factors—as was discussed in Chapter 3, students choose countries, such as Thailand for example, because of the exotic location, the tourist attractions, and the food (e.g., Jianvittayakit & Dimanche, 2010). On top of that, strong branding may enable a country to be "less proactive" in the search for international students, attracting many non-solicited prospects, because the "country's reputation speaks for itself."

[1] Touristic information could be further augmented and delivered in cooperation with the Ministry of Tourism of a certain country, for example.

The “international outlook” (discussed in Chapter 3) should be generalized and standardized, to be used in more university ranking lists and websites. Moreover, beyond the baseline of being typically defined by (1) the university’s proportions of international students; (2) number of international staff; and (3) peer-reviewed publications in journals with a minimum of one international co-author, more indicators of social and multicultural factors should be added (e.g., discrimination levels, international utilities like student support centers, etc.).

Strengthening Institutional Branding

We can understand, based on prior information presented earlier, that “a brand is not built by accident but is the product of carefully accomplishing—either explicitly or implicitly—a series of logically linked steps with consumers” (Keller, 2011, p. 125).

As we presented earlier in the book, positive reputation and prestige are two of the main attracting factors for students in general, and international students in particular (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Beine, Noël, & Ragot, 2014; Heffernan, Wilkins, & Butt, 2018; Nathan, 2017; Pinar et al., 2011). Enhancing this branding may be achieved in the following ways:

- Working to increase accreditation or recognition of specific/unique diplomas or degrees with local formal higher education entities (e.g., Council for Higher Education Accreditation in the USA, Council for Higher Education in Israel, or Korean Council for University Education).
- Recruiting new, well-trained and reputable academic staff and training current faculty members in this regard.
- Refining courses and curricula with the most up-to-date academic references (which the courses will be based on) and newest applied examples from the relevant industry.
- Increasing good campus atmosphere and studying climate (especially multicultural; e.g., Onk & Joseph, 2017).
- Investing in needed facilities or improving current ones (e.g., international student centers/offices, dorms, and e-learning environments).

- Making it possible for students to be able to work part-time in mid-studies (with special institutional aid for international students).[2]
- As experiences are no less important than branding, and sometimes even dominant in customer evaluation (e.g., Pinar et al., 2011), institutions must strive to make contact with prospective international students (such as in preparatory programs—see below).
- Enhancing alumni base and associations as potential mentors, communicating positive word-of-mouth, since ex-students' opinions are perceived as trustworthy (e.g., Santos, Rita, & Guerreiro, 2018; see also Gomes & Murphy, 2003; Miller, 2012).
- Interfaces may be created between university and society, university and local community, and university and industry (Sridevi, 2019) to support students in general, and international students in particular.

Another point is that most prospective students (around 80%) "expect a personalized email with specific information answering their questions" as opposed to a "broad email with links to relevant information" (Educations.com, 2019, pp. 11–13). This is a great opportunity for an institution to show how it can be responsive and personalizing when it comes to its students (prospective or otherwise). It should not be a difficult task, especially when there are administrative staff on-site. This may help students appreciate that they are not dealing with machines or computerized answers, but human beings, and this can go a long way. A related notion is that most students expect a response from the institution regarding their queries within one to two weeks (57–60%; Educations.com, 2019). As such, we would highly recommend that institutions avoid "dragging their feet," and give the students appropriate responses to their questions within an adequate timetable. Delaying too long might lead them to lose interest or even believe that the institution is not interested in them.[3]

As a general notion mentioned in Chapter 4, almost *every* act has the potential to enhance the branding and positioning of the institution and

[2] The institution should particularly strive to help international students as they are frequently perceived by employers as having more language and social issues and as riskier to employ than potential local employees (e.g., Gribble, 2014).

[3] Even if the institution is indeed *not* interested in student X, this student should be informed properly and promptly. A negative response is still a response, which is still better than uncertainty.

help elevate it above its competitors (e.g., kind and responsive administrative staff, outstanding teaching staff, a warm recommendation about the institution from a graduate student, from alumni or on social media). Moreover, higher education is an ongoing experience and a *long-term service* (e.g., a three-year B.A. degree), and as such there is a need to keep a sharp eye and a keen ear toward the customers/clients at every stage of the process. This is to maintain the branding positioning that students have in their mind when deciding to learn at a specific institution, and sustain their customer value and satisfaction with the "rewards" they perceive to gain from the product the institution provides (see, for example, the Scholarships section in this chapter for more details).

Improving Internationalization

Since internationalization (e.g., Teichler, 2017) became a "buzzword" (e.g., Knight, 2011) as an indicator for quality (e.g., Urban & Palmer, 2014), the extent of an institution's internationalization could be enhanced through:

- increasing ratios of international faculty;
- training current and potential faculty and administrative staff to specifically deal with international students;
- increasing the ratios of international students (for example, by increasing exchange programs);
- international cooperation with other academic institutions or industries;
- conferences, symposia, and seminars (e.g., Qian, 2019);
- internationalizing curricular elements of studies;
- "encouraging transnational scientific research, application and cooperation" (Qian, 2019, p. 6);
- inviting visiting scholars each year to increase the number of scholarly visits and extending their stay, and reciprocally sending scholars from the university to other academic institutions abroad (Qian, 2019).

Improving Transportation

Transportation to academic institutions should be provided or improved to facilitate travel by international students.

"Greasing and Smoothing"

Greasing and smoothing means facilitating socialization and adjustment processes to ease the transition to a new hosting place. We begin by quoting a doctoral dissertation in which the author listed a few recommendations in this regard:

> a strong international student organization, solid linkages with local community colleges especially in their English language courses, mentoring programs for students, cultural education of resident students concerning the unique needs of international students, targeted informational sessions with demographics of ethnicity in your area and continued financial assistance. (Miller, 2012, p. 227)

International students face difficulties in adjusting and adapting to a new country's culture, belief systems, values, language, and behaviors, and as the cultural gap increases so do challenges of adaptation (e.g., Lee, 2015; Lin & Scherz, 2014). This predicament might be expressed through social isolation, acculturative stress, difficulties with non-native language and communication, understanding social, cultural, and non-verbal cues, and more (e.g., Andrade, 2006; Chien, 2013; Glass, Kociolek, Wongtrirat, Lynch, & Cong, 2015; Lee, 2015; Ra & Trusty, 2017; Wu, Garza, & Guzman, 2015; Zhang & Kenny, 2010). To "make it easier" for the international student in this sense, and prepare them for a "study abroad experience" (Andrade, 2006, p. 151), it is recommended that preparatory programs be designed and implemented specifically for international students due to their different cultural backgrounds.[4] The aim is to reduce a student's cultural discrepancy, which will allow the student to act as autonomously as possible in a foreign environment. These preparatory programs should revolve around the following:

[4] These programs are typically undertaken in the hosting country/institution, but some competencies may be acquired in the origin/sending country as well, as they are considered to be just as effective (e.g., Kormos, Csizér, & Iwaniec, 2014; Soria & Troisi, 2014).

- Increasing familiarity with the hosting country's/institution's academic system and academic expectations.
- Increasing familiarity with and consciousness of the hosting country's culture and tourist attractions.
- Meeting the minimum requirement of language skills (in the taught language) in order to ensure adequate learning experience and academic success (e.g., Miller, 2012; Zhang & Kenny, 2010, p. 29). However, those who need to improve their linguistic and communication proficiencies in the local (and taught) language must do so in the preparatory program to reach the minimum level required.[5]
- Organizing meetings and socializing prospective international students with other senior *international* students.
- Helping prospective international students to make contacts and networks with the local community of their own cultural origin/background[6] as "socio-academic integration [is] instrumental for sense of belonging for international students" (García, Garza, & Yeaton-Hromada, 2019).
- Pairing prospective international students with senior *international* (from the same origin/cultural backgrounds) or *local* students (if the prospect wishes) who will serve as a mentor[7] for them.

[5] Non-verbal communication is extremely important and includes a vast amount of human interpersonal communication (such as like smiles, vocal intonation, body language and, other gestures). This creates difficulties for international students, both those who study physically on-campus and virtually, because there are cultural differences in non-verbal cues. However, the difficulties *virtual students* might face are greater than their on-campus counterparts, as the non-verbal medium is almost negated completely, and their communication is mostly text-based, without or with very minimal human physical interaction (based on Zhang & Kenny, 2010).

[6] Yu and Moskal (2018) have concluded that: "The denial of intercultural contact due to a lack of diverse environment may lead to inequality in opportunities for cross-cultural learning and personal growth. High quality intercultural contact is not only beneficial to international students, it also enhances the intercultural competency of native students in the global market place" (p. 654).

[7] Also called a "buddy system" (Taylor & Ali, 2017) or a "buddy program" (Wells, 2014).

- Since living on-campus (i.e., in dorms) has social benefits (e.g., Santos et al., 2018), academic institutions should find accommodation for international students (particularly), starting from the preparatory program stage, and beyond.[8]

Another suggestion that is relatively easy to implement is to provide prospective (or even current) international students with information packages about tourist attractions and travel opportunities in the country, places to eat, currency details, and so on (e.g., Taylor & Ali, 2017).

A final note: try to make websites, library tours, and other virtual means as multilingual as possible (e.g., Downing & Klein, 2019; Lee, 2014).

Preparation and Facilitation for a Prospective Student

Psychological and Emotional Support

Although education and studying are primarily cognitive in nature, there is a significant psycho-social aspect to them for a student in general, and for an international student in particular. Sessions might be held where there will be directed and managed group discussions.[9] In these sessions, the prospects will be asked, for example: (1) "How would you like to see yourself in five years from now?"; or (2) "How do you perceive that a degree or education can help you in getting that future you described?" These questions can help manage and coordinate expectations from both sides—on the one hand, understanding the diverse needs of the students, and on the other hand, the university can give bona fide answers regarding what it can or cannot provide in the process of acquiring the degree and the related services the institution provides.

[8] Nevertheless, if in a hypothetical scenario a university cannot match the demand for dorms with adequate supply, we could suggest other possibilities: (1) leasing apartments in close proximity to the campus and assistance with bureaucratic procedures and contracts; (2) creating a pool of students who need accommodation (international and/or local), and helping to match roommates especially in expensive cities (such as Tel Aviv, London, Manhattan, and Singapore).

[9] In the same vein and to the same end, focus groups, or even individual interviews, can also be utilized and operated.

Marketing the "Whole Package"

When "selling" a degree, do not sell it pure and simple, but sell a "product basket" that the student will be inclined to purchase. Marketing efforts should be made to emphasize that the student will not acquire "just" education, they will also receive a whole package—for example (in addition to the education, the default), support, social networks, atmosphere, expansion of horizons, and more (see Chapter 3). International students who come from afar *need* the "whole package," because they will not return to their original countries at the end of the day. For them, the whole experience as a student becomes so important and prevalent that it *occupies most of their lives* while studying (in a foreign country). It is clear that a prospective international student will likely choose (based on their own perception) an institution that offers a better "student package" over another institution. This points to the importance of good-quality, responsible, and communicated marketing.

Orientation Days

The sending (origin) country could also strive to prepare orientation days (like school fairs) for prospects who are considering short-term studies, such as post-doc students who will go to a foreign country. In these programs, the prospects will be introduced to other students who preceded them, different potential scholarships, research networking, and different alternatives for programs and/or institutions.

Obtaining Student Feedback

Very often, academic institutions see students' responses to questionnaires as administrative information or (raw) research data. Allowing the students, international in particular, to "vent" their thoughts to a *human being* is necessary to help unburden what is on their minds and share their experiences since they began the process of higher education. The main idea is to provide them with the (emotional) support they need as foreigners. Just like employee retention, this can also bolster the institution's image in the students' eyes, and may facilitate their experience as international students, thus *increasing the likelihood that they will not drop out*. As such, it should be in the institution's interest to be attentive to their students and any kind of feedback they may give. This can help both to flush out problems and issues that may need to be dealt with, and also provide "emotional maintenance" to the students.

Scholarships and Financial Aid

As presented in Chapter 4, the tuition fees for international students are usually higher than their domestic counterparts', and might deter them from pursuing a degree abroad. Hence, we would recommend the following:

- Subsidizing the preparatory programs, suggested above (and not just as a gesture of goodwill) to facilitate the decision to join the program and to increase attendance.
- Conditioning interested student's tuition fees such that if they participated in a preparatory program in a specific institution, they will be entitled to a scholarship in the first year of their studies, again in order to facilitate their decision to continue to a degree after the preparatory program (in the same institution).
- Offering loaned scholarship/allowances/stipends (relevant for all academic years and degrees) designated for international students, which they will be able to return through two potential mediums: (1) the students will return the loan through working in local industry, directing some of their salary to cover the loan[10]; or (2) return the loan through contribution to and/or volunteering in the community of either the city or the institution (for example, helping students with difficulties, mentoring, assisting in cultural and/or social events in the city or institution, and volunteering in the students' union/senate/guild).

[10] This has a three-fold advantage, as not only does the student return the loan, but also they also contribute to the local economy, and acquire more experience and skills as a working individual.

Alliances and Cooperation

Countries and institutions[11] alike should find cross-border strategic cooperative partners in order to: (1) exchange students and/or faculty members to increase internationalization at home; (2) widen exposure to a potential pool of international students worldwide; (3) become a local branch of a prestigious foreign academic institution[12]; and (4) determine funding sources (i.e., government, donors, industries, etc.) and how to better budget this funding (e.g., Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012; Onk & Joseph, 2017).

Providing Information on a Hosting Country and/or an Institution

The decision to learn abroad is based, at least in the beginning of the decision-making process, on *raw* information and not on direct experience with the potential hosting countries and institutions (e.g., Santos et al., 2018; see also Gomes & Murphy, 2003). Hence, it is important that the prospects will be exposed to relatively valuable, professional, reliable, and adequate information from various sources. The information may be derived from online, hard-copy, social media, and other sources (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, advertisements, family, friends, graduate students, advisors, professors, and alumni). For example, an institution may want to provide prospective students with a virtual open-day tour (see Chapter 4 in the Strengths section); make a video of interviews with graduates of the institution to help to promote it; create an active Facebook group for each department of the institution; create and maintain a well-established, informative, and up-to-date home website[13] (and strive to build it on a multi-language platform, so more potential students will use it; see Lee, 2014); and make an attractive corporate video. All in all, the

[11] As even a student reported: "I also looked to another university, but this program have some advantage. First of all, they cooperate with Adidas and I have a scholarship" (Yao & Garcia, 2017, p. 32).

[12] However, Wilkins and Rumbley (2018) warn against replicating the home campus model since many factors vary (contexts, opportunities, expertise, etc.).

[13] The institution can generate occupational quizzes, for example, which will assess the main motivations of prospective students to study and may offer them potential routes or programs in that institution, accordingly.

role of this information is also to emphasize the strengths and uniqueness of the institution/programs or the country, as opposed to other alternatives, and create targeted advertisements on the particular benefits related to the institution that international students may enjoy.

Be More Proactive! The Student's Version

We begin, again, with a quote from a recommendation section in a doctoral dissertation:

> Get involved with the students and the culture; utilize the community college system that is available in the US; stay in touch with your family; focus on your studies, but have fun as well; avoid excessive partying and alcohol; volunteer to help others; and realize that this will be a challenge, but a challenge worth taking. (Miller, 2012, p. 232)

The (international) student should realize and internalize that pursuing tertiary education (especially *abroad*) is a very complex and high-risk purchase decision (e.g., Caldwell & Hyams-Ssekasi, 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Pimpa, 2003). As such, the student must also act as "an active agent" (Elliot, Reid, & Baumfield, 2016, p. 2215). That is to say, one needs to proactively (1) formulate awareness of one's own personal motivations and needs to study abroad[14]; which will lead to (2) searching for information about relevant academic alternatives that may fulfill those needs (to a certain extent); (3) converge and focus on the pros and cons of several alternatives very carefully[15]; and then (4) choose the option that best fits one's needs, all things considered. In addition, we would warmly suggest any prospective students to get acquainted with the local and taught languages of the receiving country and institution. Being more familiar with the language (e.g., English or French) may facilitate the immigration and make the experience of studying in a foreign country more pleasant and enriching, and less awkward or frustrating.

[14] From both internal (e.g., self-thinking, self-inquiry, and introspection) and external (e.g., advisors, occupational psychologists, occupational quizzes, and friends) sources.

[15] The student must remember that there is no "perfect decision" (or a "perfect institution").

Be More Proactive! The Institution's Version

The market of international students is highly dynamic and in constant flux, making quick and flexible reactions on one hand, and futuristic strategic orientation on the other, mandatory. Thus, only an institution that is proactive and not just reactive will prosper. So, we suggest formulating self-awareness through SWOT analysis (for example), allowing the identification of strengths (among other things), in order to communicate them to prospective students. However, should there be a significant discrepancy (e.g., more weaknesses than strengths), strategic actions must be taken to further attract international students (see SWOT analysis in Chapter 4).[16]

We also encourage institutions to proactively think about their positioning (or repositioning, for that matter) and give considerable thought to its process. According to Fyall (2019):

> With regard to a suitable process to implement positioning and re-positioning strategies, Lewis et al. (1995) advocate a five-stage procedure, namely: (i) determine the present position; (ii) determine what position you wish to occupy; (iii) ensure the product … is truly different from the former position; (iv) undertake re-positioning strategy; (v) continue to measure if there is a position change in the desired direction. (Fyall, 2019, p. 278)

In addition, regardless of whether students are customers or not,[17] their parents are in a significant position of power as potential "customers" (e.g., Conway, Mackay, & Yorke, 1994), sponsors (e.g., Huang, Binney, & Hede, 2010), or recommenders (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2016; Cubillo et al., 2006). Thus, their motivations and attitudes are also important (e.g., Bodycott, 2009) for marketing efforts, and they should not be overlooked when strategically planning.

Another aspect is distance learning. It is clear that the development of the Internet has changed many things in our lives (e.g., Dexeus, 2019). However, students who study through an online mode (i.e., e-learning)

[16] One of the more important mediums for understanding a SWOT-related positioning, in the modern era, is the opinions and perceptions of potential or actual students (or others, like friends and family) on social media. One quick and efficient way to do so is by utilizing data/text mining (e.g., Santos et al., 2018).

[17] See Chapter 4 for a discussion.

are more likely to drop out from the courses than on-campus students (e.g., Garratt-Reed, Roberts, & Heritage, 2016; Stravredes & Herder, 2015). However, as there is an enormous potential pool of students who would want to study virtually, there are some strategies to increase their engagement and success in such programs—for instance, creating online communities or groups (e.g., forums and Facebook groups) to encourage general discussions, regardless of academic facades. In addition, this will also facilitate developing relationships among the different members.

Furthermore, ensure regular interactions between teachers/professors and their students, and increase their engagement in assignments and tasks (for example, frequent feedback from the professor, encouraging elaborative discussions, sending summaries of classes or important discussions via emails, giving more frequent short-term-and-scope exercises or assignments, and making checklists of assignments to be done from week to week).[18] Akhtar and Kroener-Herwig (2019) support this argument, finding that different cultural groups use different coping strategies, and hence deal with stress differently. International (and multicultural) students need ethnically sensitive supervision because this student group is largely heterogenous (McKinley, 2019), such that there is a:

> need for professional development focusing on supporting teachers to develop the capabilities to not only deal with the challenges in teaching an increasingly diverse student population but importantly, build productive interactive relationships with their international students. In this regard, interactive relationships are centred around recognising cultural differences and positioning international students as partners on a more equal basis in the construction of transnational knowledge, skills and competencies. (Tran & Pasura, 2019, p. 539)

Do not sit idly by, believing your market share will last forever. As discussed in Chapter 4—it will *not*. Always try to monitor your competitors, maybe derive inspiration from them and produce unique and distinct advantages that consumers may perceive as more rewarding and attractive in your institution as opposed to your competitors.

A successful business never neglects the hearts and minds of its customers, as these will net your organization the high(est) position in the consumers' perceptions. Always try to see how you can *meet your customers'*

[18] For further reading, see Stravredes and Herder (2015).

needs, create more value for them so that in the future they might be your goodwill ambassadors. Positive word-of-mouth (WOM) is all well and good, but negative WOM is even more detrimental, and might be more impactful (e.g., Luethi, 2016; Sweeney, Soutar, & Mazzarol, 2005). We offer a simple mathematical metaphor[19]: "positive WOM = **+ 3** future customers, but negative WOM = **–8** future customers."

Regardless, we must also consider that, in reality, many marketing strategies might be hampered by lack of resources, motivation and enthusiasm, good marketing practices, and departments of well-trained staff.

Post-decision Institutional Efforts

In Chapter 4, we showed that the decision-making process comprises the pre-decision, differentiation, and consolidation (i.e., post-decision) stages. Each is unique and important in its own right, but we recommend institutions pay particular attention to the post-decision stage. The post-decision stage may be the best time to support and nurture the decision made by students in choosing to study in a specific institution. This is when an institution could and should communicate and emphasize to its students that "they chose correctly." It would be wise to bolster and maintain their satisfaction, as it is a critical predictor of student retention (e.g., Garratt-Reed et al., 2016). Furthermore, in this regard too, the maintenance of international identity that students develop (from the first year of their studies and beyond) may prove beneficial for both the students themselves and the institutions. Students may enjoy better language skills and job opportunities (e.g., Teichler, 2017), self-improvement (such as competencies, skills, and worldviews), social networks (e.g., Gu & Schweisfurth, 2015), and academic success (e.g., Andrade, 2006).[20] For example, positioning international graduate students in key roles, making and encouraging social networks of international students, and more.

[19] Numbers are merely a presentation of the fact that we suffer more from the negative than we derive enjoyment from the positive (Tversky & Kahneman, 1991), and we do not assume they are in any way representatives of reality.

[20] In addition, institutions may also enjoy a higher academic research reputation (e.g., Onk & Joseph, 2017), valuable networks between host and origin countries (e.g., Lee, 2015), and more.

It is also important to note that adjustment is an ongoing process. Thus, providing transition support is very important, starting from the first year and beyond (e.g., Andrade, 2006).

Also, please refer to the addendum at the end of this chapter for a list of suggestions and key takeaways for international students, by geographical region.

Research Recommendations

As for the research aspect of international students, we begin with an important notion. In accordance with our premise that the research area surrounding international students has some fundamental problems, we can find conceptual support in Jansson-Boyd's (2019) work. Meaning, consumer behavior is becoming exceedingly complex, based on the fact that consumer psychology has become a field in which the theoretical underpinnings are drawn from a many other disciplines. As such, now researchers need a broader knowledge base, than in the past, in the attempt to ensure that they have a good understanding of their forte research domain. Ergo, researchers should have a broader understanding of human behavior to understand how their own work fits. However, such difficulties open up new windows of opportunities for using multidisciplinary research methods (e.g., new techniques, new analyses approaches, new research skills). It is evident that research methods "burrowed" from related areas has greatly helped deepen the understanding of consumer behavior, at large (mostly by encouraging systematic investigation of different research topic under consumer psychology). All these point out the importance and significance of having a good understanding of different types of methodologies and/or statistical comprehension (based on Jansson-Boyd, 2019, pp. 1–2).[21]

Another, often overlooked, issue is that "after the data are collected, the research is faced with the general question: *Should a reader believe these findings*?" (Brinberg & Brinberg, 2019, p. 454; original emphasis). This question has spurred us to look more closely and deeper still into the research that was done in this field (see Chapter 3). Consequently, we advocate the unification and standardization of the definition of

[21] Consumer psychology was be elaborated in Chapter 4.

international student. We recommend adopting our new and revised definition of what an international student is on four different levels[22]:

1. *Terminologically*: Because the term "international student" differs vastly from country to country, and, sometimes, between institutions in a certain country, this may confound research on the subject in a cross-cultural/country comparison. Adopting a standardized definition will facilitate and enable clearer theoretical reasoning and build-up. It would be better, in general, to use a unified base definition for all research.
2. *Theoretically*: Theoretical is not a dirty word.[23] It is clear that this field is lacking in theoretical rigor (as was discussed in Chapter 3), focusing on other elements that do not contribute much (or at all) to the accumulation of knowledge in this research field. It is recommended, not just *for the sake of publication*, to use: (1) well-defined and tested theories; and (2) produce results that have significant theoretical contributions as well (for further reading, see Houston, 2016; Moorman, Van Heerde, Moreau, & Palmatier, 2019; Rabenu & Tziner, 2018).
3. *Methodologically*: Worldwide measurement standardization was found to be lacking (as mentioned in Chapter 3), with regard to international student data. For research to be comparable and produce valid, reliable, and replicable conclusions, it is also best to use standardized operationalizations (i.e., measurement).
4. *Statistically*: As was discussed in Chapter 3, there is heavy use of inadequate methodologies and statistical analyses in the research field of international students. In order to produce results and conclusions with more generalizability, validity, power, and marketing relevance, we also suggest implementing standardization of more advanced statistical methods (for pure quantitative advocates), which also necessitate larger sample sizes (for further reading in this regard, see Janicack, 2017; Mazzocchi, 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Warner, 2013; Weinstein, 2010), or educated use of both qualitative and quantitative methods (i.e., mixed methods) to broaden the scope of the phenomenon under investigation.

[22] The definition is broadly discussed in the Chapter 1.

[23] A paraphrase of Houston's (2016) paper title: "Is 'strategy' a dirty word?"

Addendum: Key Suggestions for International Students, by Geographical Region

In this section are a few important takeaways and points to pay attention to regarding the *recruitment* of international students, divided by geographical region. All the information here is based on Educations.com's (2019) report:

- North America:
  - Does the country offer opportunities for students to obtain work visas after graduation? (North American students are showing a growing interest in the ability to work in a new country after graduation).
  - Nearly half the North American prospective students choose the program they wish to pursue *before* the country of study. As such, while country brand remains an important factor, it is highly recommended to also advertise at program level.
  - Details on living costs, teaching quality, and campus life are very important when marketing your university. This is because they are the top factors for prospective North American students when evaluating and deciding on a higher education institution.
  - There is a growing factor that is also gaining more awareness and interest from North American students—the reputation of the program. So, it would be wise to include any information about rankings and achievements of professors or program alumni in your digital marketing campaigns.
- Northern Europe:
  - Northern European students have an increasing interest in career services during their international studies, and opportunities for work visas after graduation. Underline any unique benefits your university or country can offer to international students.
  - The most frequent path for prospective students in Northern Europe is to choose a country first, program second, and university last. That is, a country branding is a first potential touchpoint.

  - Although the most important reasons for choosing a location for international higher education remain idealistic and focused on personal growth and adventure, the more practical factors of cost of living and safety of the country are receiving more attention and even rise to the top of the consideration factors. As such, marketing campaigns need to be backed up by helpful information about practical considerations as well.
  - Northern European students show great interest in the teaching quality of universities and even individual programs. As a general recommendation, it would be wise to effectively promote small class sizes, mentorship, outstanding professors, or other such details in your marketing campaigns.

- South America:

  - For prospective South American students, country brand and university brand carry the same weight in their decision for international higher education. As such, market outwards that your university is located in a country known for its high educational standards and that it puts value on higher education.
  - In addition, South American students are also paying increasing attention to lifestyle and leisure opportunities. A general suggestion is to highlight social and cultural opportunities and events that international students can enjoy at your university.
  - In addition to the previous point, when focusing on the South American student pool, in order to set your university apart from competitors, it is recommended to also have standout campus facilities that would set your university apart from competitors.
  - South American students pay growing attention to tuition fees when selecting a program. Thus, provide information and other details about how students can fund and budget their studies to put their minds at ease.

- Southeast Asia:

  - When targeting Southeast Asian students, marketing efforts should focus on careers your programs may lead to, funding options available, and any opportunities for work visas post-graduation.

- There is a decreasing interest by Southeast Asian students in the country's spoken language when choosing a country to study in. This indicates a growing opportunity for universities to attract students with, for example, foreign-language-taught program options.
- As usual, we recommend providing clear cost-of-living information and focus on the teaching level at your institution.
- A competitive advantage may be to emphasize and capitalize on the friendliness and openness to international students that your university community, broader community, and country offer to foreign and international people/students.

• Western Europe:

  - Western European students have reported that experiencing a new culture is their top reason to study abroad. So, marketing efforts should be directed at the unique opportunities your university offers for international students to immerse themselves in the local culture.
  - Western European students prioritize the program over the university itself. Hence, emphasizing the program branding, regardless of the country or institutional branding, is of high importance.
  - Students from Western Europe show clear interest in teaching quality and graduate career opportunities. As such, marketing efforts should be focused on these venues as well.
  - One of the more influential factors in deciding where to study abroad by Western European students is program-specific work placement opportunities. Highlight any singular benefits your university or country may offer to international students.

• Middle East:

  - Middle Eastern students seek graduate career outcomes, work placement opportunities, and school or program rankings. Thus, we suggest appealing to their overarching priority for a good career (resulting from the education they received at your institution).

- Students from the Middle East report decreasing influence of family and friends than in the past. This means that even far-away countries or institutions have more opportunities than ever to attract Middle Eastern students.
- It is highly recommended to attract Middle Eastern students at the first point in their international journey. This may be achieved by employing a robust marketing strategy to spotlight your programs and teaching level.
- A good idea is to include ease of visa and career opportunities in your country to distinguish yourself from competitors.

References

Ahmad, S. Z., Buchanan, F. R., & Ahmad, N. (2016). Examination of students' selection criteria for international education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(6), 1088–1103. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2014-0145.

Akhtar, M., & Kroener-Herwig, B. (2019). Coping styles and socio-demographic variables as predictors of psychological well-being among international students belonging to different cultures. *Current Psychology, 38*(3), 618–626. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-017-9635-3.

Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education, 5*(2), 131–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240906065589.

Beine, M., Noël, R., & Ragot, L. (2014). Determinants of the international mobility of students. *Economics of Education Review, 41*, 40–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.03.003.

Bodycott, P. (2009). Choosing a higher education study abroad destination: What mainland Chinese parents and students rate as important. *Journal of Research in International Education, 8*(3), 349–373. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240909345818.

Brinberg, D., & Brinberg, M. (2019). Perspectives on validity, validation, and research paths in consumer research. In F. R. Kardes, P. M. Herr, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in consumer psychology* (pp. 438–457). New York, NY: Routledge.

Caldwell, E. F., & Hyams-Ssekasi, D. (2016). Leaving home: The challenges of Black-African international students prior to studying overseas. *Journal of International Students, 6*(2), 588–613. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1094889.

Chien, Y. Y. (2013). *Adjustment of international students in a UK university: Reasons for study abroad and subsequent academic and socio-cultural* *experiences* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter, UK). https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10871/15044.

Conway, T., Mackay, S., & Yorke, D. (1994). Strategic planning in higher education: Who are the customers? *International Journal of Educational Management, 8*(6), 29–36. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549410069202.

Cubillo, J. M., Sánchez, J., & Cerviño, J. (2006). International students' decision-making process. *International Journal of Educational Management, 20*(2), 101–115. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540610646091.

Dexeus, C. R. (2019). The deepening effects of the digital revolution. In E. Fayos-Solà & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The future of tourism: Innovation and sustainability* (pp. 43–69). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Downing, A., & Klein, L. R. (2019). A multilingual virtual tour for international students: The web-based library at Baruch College opens doors. *College & Research Libraries News, 62*(5), 500–503. https://doi.org/10.5860/crln.62.5.500.

Educations.com. (2019). *International higher education report: Student trends 2019*. https://www.educations.com/read-student-trends-2019-15494.

Elliot, D. L., Reid, K., & Baumfield, V. (2016). Beyond the amusement, puzzlement and challenges: An enquiry into international students' academic acculturation. *Studies in Higher Education, 41*(12), 2198–2217. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1029903.

Fyall, A. (2019). Tourism destination re-positioning and strategies. In E. Fayos-Solà, & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The future of tourism: Innovation and sustainability* (pp. 271–284). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

García, H. A., Garza, T., & Yeaton-Hromada, K. (2019). Do we belong? A conceptual model for international students' sense of belonging in community colleges. *Journal of International Students, 9*(2), 460–487. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v9i2.669.

Garratt-Reed, D., Roberts, L. D., & Heritage, B. (2016). Grades, student satisfaction and retention in online and face-to-face introductory psychology units: A test of equivalency theory. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7,* 673. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00673.

Glass, C. R., Kociolek, E., Wongtrirat, R., Lynch, R. J., & Cong, S. (2015). Uneven experiences: The impact of student–faculty interactions on international students' sense of belonging. *Journal of International Students, 5*(4), 353–367. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1066288.pdf.

Gomes, L., & Murphy, J. (2003). An exploratory study of marketing international education online. *International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(3), 116–125. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310467787.

Gribble, C. (2014). *Employment, work placements and work integrated learning of international students in Australia*. Melbourne: International Education Association of Australia.

Gu, Q., & Schweisfurth, M. (2015). Transnational connections, competences and identities: Experiences of Chinese international students after their return "home". *British Educational Research Journal, 41*(6), 947–970. https://doi.org/10.1002/berj.3175.

Heffernan, T., Wilkins, S., & Butt, M. M. (2018). Transnational higher education: The importance of institutional reputation, trust and student–university identification in international partnerships. *International Journal of Educational Management, 32*(2), 227–240. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-05-2017-0122.

Houston, M. B. (2016). Is "strategy" a dirty word? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 44,* 557–561. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-016-0481-x.

Huang, H. T., Binney, W., & Hede, A. M. (2010). Strategic marketing of educational institutions. In *ANZMAC 2010: Doing More with Less: Proceedings of the 2010 Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference* (pp. 1–9). http://www.anzmac2010.org/proceedings/pdf/anzmac10Final00468.pdf.

Huong, T. T., & Cong, L. V. (2018). Motivations of Vietnamese students in study abroad: A case of Vietnamese graduate students in the Philippines. *International Research in Education, 6*(1), 14–29. https://doi.org/10.5296/ire.v6i1.12245.

Janicack, C. A. (2017). *Applied statistics in occupational safety and health* (3rd ed.). London: Bernan Press.

Jansson-Boyd, C. V. (2019). Quantitative research: Its place in consumer psychology. In P. M. W. Hackett (Ed.), *Quantitative research methods in consumer psychology: Contemporary and data driven approaches* (pp. 1–21). New York, NY: Routledge.

Jianvittayakit, L., & Dimanche, F. (2010). An investigation of travel motivation as a factor in international students' choice of a foreign university: A Thai case study. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Colloquium on Tourism & Leisure, Bangkok, Thailand* (Vol. 6). https://www.academia.edu/519548/An_Investigation_of_travel_motivation_as_a_factor_in_international_students_choice_of_a_foreign_university_A_Thai_Case_Study.

Keller, K. L. (2011). *Strategic brand management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity.* Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Knight, J. (2011). Five myths about internationalization. *International Higher Education, 62,* 14–15. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.62.8532.

Kormos, J., Csizér, K., & Iwaniec, J. (2014). A mixed-method study of language-learning motivation and intercultural contact of international students. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 35*(2), 151–166. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2013.847940.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2012). *Marketing management: Global edition* (14th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Lee, C.-F. (2014). An investigation of factors determining the study abroad destination choice: A case study of Taiwan. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(4), 362–381. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313497061.

Lee, J. J. (2015). Engaging international students. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (pp. 105–120). New York, NY: Routledge.

Lin, S. Y., & Scherz, S. D. (2014). Challenges facing Asian international graduate students in the US: Pedagogical considerations in higher education. *Journal of International Students, 4*(1), 16–33. https://jistudents.files.wordpress.com/2013/02/2-challanges-facing.pdf.

Lomer, S., Papatsiba, V., & Naidoo, R. (2018). Constructing a national higher education brand for the UK: Positional competition and promised capitals. *Studies in Higher Education, 43*(1), 134–153. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1157859.

Luethi, A. P. (2016). *Effects of negative online word-of-mouth on consumer evaluations of an underdog brand* (Honors thesis, University of New Orleans, USA). https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/512a/cb31edd04615065e393ece7fda7e076d84ae.pdf.

Maringe, F., & Carter, S. (2007). International students' motivations for studying in UK HE: Insights into the choice and decision making of African students. *International Journal of Educational Management, 21*(6), 459–475. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710780000.

Mazzarol, T. W., & Soutar, G. N. (2002). "Push–pull" factors influencing international student destination choice. *International Journal of Educational Management, 16*(2), 82–90. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540210418403.

Mazzarol, T. W., & Soutar, G. N. (2012). Revisiting the global market for higher education. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 24*(5), 717–773. https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851211278079.

Mazzocchi, M. (2008). *Statistics for marketing and consumer research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McKinley, M. T. (2019). Supervising the sojourner: Multicultural supervision of international students. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 13*(3), 174–179. https://doi.org/10.1037/tep0000269.

Miller, R. S. (2012). *Understanding the motivation of Vietnamese international students and their higher education experiences in the United States* (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas, USA). http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.456.7101&rep=rep1&type=pdf.

Moorman, C., Van Heerde, H. J., Moreau, C. P., & Palmatier, R. W. (2019). Challenging the boundaries of marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(3), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022242919867086.

Nathan, G. (2017). *The OECD expert group on migration SOPEMI annual report: International migration—Israel 2016–2017*. Kfar Monash, Israel: The

Institute for Immigration and Social Integration, Ruppin Academic Center. http://www.israel-sociology.org.il/uploadimages/26102017_4.pdf.
Onk, V. B., & Joseph, M. (2017). International student recruitment techniques: A preliminary analysis. *Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education, 13*(1), 25–34. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1139145.pdf.
Pimpa, N. (2003). The influence of family on Thai students' choices of international education. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(4), 211–219. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310484931.
Pinar, M., Trapp, P., Girard, T., & Boyt, T. E. (2011). Utilizing the brand ecosystem framework in designing branding strategies for higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 25*(7), 724–739. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541111172126.
Qian, Z. (2019). SWOT analysis on international exchange and cooperation of higher education with ASEAN countries of universities in Guizhou province. *Sisaket Rajabhat University Journal, 13*(2), 1–6. https://www.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/sskrujournal/article/view/210604/145791.
Ra, Y. A., & Trusty, J. (2017). Impact of social support and coping on acculturation and acculturative stress of East Asian international students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 45*(4), 276–291. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12078.
Rabenu, E., & Tziner, A. (2018). Adapting to the New Era: A necessary move for the advancement of robust science. *Amfiteatru Economic, 20*(48), 470–476. https://doi.org/10.24818/EA/2018/48/470.
Raghuram, P. (2013). Theorising the spaces of student migration. *Population, Space and Place, 19*(2), 138–154. https://doi.org/10.1002/psp.1747.
Santos, C. L., Rita, P., & Guerreiro, J. (2018). Improving international attractiveness of higher education institutions based on text mining and sentiment analysis. *International Journal of Educational Management, 32*(3), 431–447. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-01-2017-0027.
Senor, D., & Singer, S. (2009). *Start-up nation: The story of Israel's economic miracle*. New York, NY: Twelve & Hachette Book Group.
Soria, K. M., & Troisi, J. (2014). Internationalization at home alternatives to study abroad: Implications for students' development of global, international, and intercultural competencies. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(3), 261–280. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313496572.
Sridevi, P. (2019). Academic audit—A SWOT analysis for the higher education institutions. *International Journal of Scientific Research, 8*(5), 48–49. http://worldwidejournals.co.in/index.php/ijsr/article/view/2506/2506.
Stravredes, T. M., & Herder, T. M. (2015). Engaging students in an online environment. In S. J. Quaye & S. R. Harper (Eds.), *Student engagement in higher education: Theoretical perspectives and practical approaches for diverse populations* (pp. 257–269). New York, NY: Routledge.

Sweeney, J. C., Soutar, G. N., & Mazzarol, T. (2005). The difference between positive and negative word-of-mouth—Emotion as a differentiator. In *Proceedings of the ANZMAC 2005 Conference: Broadening the Boundaries* (pp. 331–337). Perth, WA: ANZMAC. https://cemi.com.au/sites/all/publications/Sweeney_Soutar_Mazzarol_ANZMAC_2006.pdf.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Tan, A. (2015). College choice behaviors of international students. *Sage Open, 5*(4), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015618995.

Taylor, G., & Ali, N. (2017). Learning and living overseas: Exploring factors that influence meaningful learning and assimilation: How international students adjust to studying in the UK from a socio-cultural perspective. *Education Sciences, 7*(1), 35–60. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci7010035.

Teichler, U. (2017). Internationalisation trends in higher education and the changing role of international student mobility. *Journal of International Mobility, 5*(1), 177–216. https://doi.org/10.3917/jim.005.0179.

Tran, L. T., & Pasura, R. (2019). Teacher interactive and reflexive positionings in accommodating international students: Implications for teacher professional development. *Professional Development in Education, 45*(4), 539–550. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2018.1449005.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1991). Loss aversion in riskless choice: A reference-dependent model. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 106*(4), 1039–1061. https://doi.org/10.2307/2937956.

Urban, E. L., & Palmer, L. B. (2014). International students as a resource for internationalization of higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(4), 305–324. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313511642.

Warner, R. M. (2013). *Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weinstein, J. A. (2010). *Applying social statistics: An introduction to quantitative reasoning in sociology*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Wells, A. (2014). International student mobility: Approaches, challenges and suggestions for further research. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 143*, 19–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.350.

Wilkins, S., & Rumbley, L. (2018). What a branch campus is: A revised definition. *International Higher Education, 2*(93), 12–14. https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.0.93.10416.

Wu, H. P., Garza, E., & Guzman, N. (2015). International student's challenge and adjustment to college. *Education Research International, 2015*, article 202753. https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/202753.

Yang, M. (2007). What attracts mainland Chinese students to Australian higher education. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation and Development, 4*(2), 1–12. http://hdl.cqu.edu.au/10018/5964.

Yao, C. W., & Garcia, C. E. (2017). International students in their own country: Motivation of Vietnamese graduate students to attend a collaborative transnational university. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education*, *4*(2), 22–38. http://dx.doi.org/10.18275/fire201704021134.

Yu, Y., & Moskal, M. (2018). Missing intercultural engagements in the university experiences of Chinese international students in the UK. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *49*(4), 654–671. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2018.1448259.

Zhang, Z., & Kenny, R. F. (2010). Learning in an online distance education course: Experiences of three international students. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *11*(1), 17–36. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v11i1.775.

Appendices

Appendix A: Facet Theory Approach[1]

Facet theory is an approach to the social sciences that has traditionally been used as a quantitative methodology (Shye, 1978) and has addressed many substantive areas of psychological, social science, and behavioral research (e.g., Canter, 1985). The facet approach provides a framework of pertinent aspects (variables, features, etc.) for a specified research area in the form of a mapping sentence. This framework is then used to design research tools and enquiries into the domain specified in the mapping sentence. Information gathered in this way is then analyzed in order to assess the pertinence and relevance of the components of the mapping sentence in providing understanding about the substantive area of enquiry.

When faced with operationalization and conceptual difficulties, the facet theory is advocated (e.g., Elizur, 1984; Shkoler, Rabenu, Vasiliu, Sharoni, & Tziner, 2017), as it allows the researcher to formally and parsimoniously define complex phenomena, as was explained by the theory's founder, Louis Guttman (1954, 1957, 1968, 1982).

[1] See Chapter 2 for the full list of references cited in Appendix A.

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5

As mentioned, the primary goal is to conceive a *mapping sentence* composed of different *facets* and *elements*. Specifically, a “facet” is a group of common traits that represents semantic components of a context field (Yaniv, 2011). Each facet is represented by few-to-several “elements” (subcategories of the facet) (Elizur, 1984). Further, “a mapping sentence allows formal and exacting consideration of the variables that comprise a research domain” (Hackett, 2014a, p. 67), and is the heart of the facet theory approach (Hackett, 2014a). Generally, the mapping sentence serves as a guide for formulating hypotheses, creating structured assumptions, planning and collecting observations, and analyzing data (Levy, 2005).

Appendix B: Suggested Factors Influencing Students’ Choice to Study Overseas (in Selected Literature[2])

Please see table in the next page.

[2] See Chapter 3 for the full list of the references cited in Appendix B.

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
Personal goals	Enhance career/job prospects (including educational obligations for academic career)	Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Varghese (2008), Yang (2007)
	Higher social status/position (e.g., increasing income/salary, higher degrees, etc.)	Cubillo et al. (2006), Tan (2015), Varghese (2008)
	Openness to experiences (e.g., experiencing a different culture, teaching methods, new places, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010); see reviews in: Lewis (2016); Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nathan (2017), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Varghese (2008), Yang (2007)
	Make social and/or international networks	Cubillo et al. (2006); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Tan (2015), Yang (2007)
	Improve language skills (mostly English)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Nathan (2017), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Varghese (2008), Yang (2007)
	Acquisition of non-linguistic knowledge and skills	Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Tan (2015)
	Psychological growth (e.g., improving self-efficacy, acceptance of ambiguity, independence, personal pride, etc.)	Huong and Cong (2018), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Yang (2007)
	Lifestyle and living standards (e.g., a free/different way of life, hedonistic style of living, sex, drinking culture, traveling opportunities, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Huong and Cong (2018), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Nathan (2017), Nghia (2015), Tan (2015), Yang (2007)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
	Being obligated/committed to pursue education by family (e.g., asked by family, familial expectations, etc.)	Nghia (2015), Woodall et al. (2014)
Support	Family (e.g., financially, emotionally, physically, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
	Friends/acquaintances	Becker and Kolster (2012), Beine et al. (2014), Li and Bray (2007), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nghia (2015), Tan (2015), Yang (2007)
Recommendations	Family	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
	Academic, professor/teacher or students	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018)
	Agent/advisor	Ahmad et al. (2016), Huong and Cong (2018), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Yang (2007)
	Friends/peers	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
Country (destination)	Country reputation (e.g., social, touristic, international, technological, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nathan (2017), Tan (2015), Yang (2007)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	Factor	Selected references
	Academic reputation (e.g., better education system than in home country)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018), Maringe and Carter (2007), Nathan (2017), Yang (2007)
	Growth and/or stability degree of the country (e.g., economically, politically, unemployment levels, global workforce, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Beine et al. (2014), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010)
	Cost of living	Aarinen (2012), Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Beine et al. (2014), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Mikalayeva (2015), Yang (2007)
	Legal procedures (e.g., visa, immigration legislation, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Varghese (2008), Yang (2007)
	Opportunity of working during studying (e.g., part-time jobs)	Cubillo et al. (2006), Nghia (2015), Yang (2007)
	Job/employment and/or immigration opportunities	Ahmad et al. (2016), Huong and Cong (2018), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
	Encouragements and incentive policies to pull foreign students to the host country	Becker and Kolster (2012), Nathan (2017)
	Safety and security (including discrimination of racial backgrounds, religions, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nathan (2017), Yang (2007)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
	Exotic/exciting and/or tourist attractions	Ahmad et al. (2016), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Kishun (2011), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Appealing atmosphere/climate (relaxing vs. boring, comfortable or similar-to-home weather, friendly natives, vibrant student scene, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Huong and Cong (2018), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nathan (2017), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
	Facilities and infrastructure (e.g., for tourism, etc.)	Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010)
	Value of origin currency in destination country	Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010)
	Information about the *host country* from online, hard-copy and mass media sources (e.g., TV, news)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018)
Country (home/origin)	*Higher education* difficulties (e.g., difficult to gain entry, admission, fees, programs unavailable, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Wilkins et al. (2012), Yang (2007)
	Country problems (e.g., political, economic, resources, facilities, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018)
	Encouragements and incentives policies for domestic students to study overseas	Becker and Kolster (2012), Hong Nguyen (2013)
Origin-destination connections	Affiliation/ties (e.g., political, religious, economic, linguistic, historical, colonial, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016); Becker and Kolster (2012), Bolsmann and Miller (2008), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018), Kishun (2011), Lasanowski (2011), Nathan (2017), Varghese (2008)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
	Language barriers	Beine et al. (2014); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Varghese (2008), Wilkins et al. (2012), Yang (2007)
	Available transportation intra- and/or inter-country	Huong and Cong (2018), Tan (2015)
	Cost of transportation inter-country	Becker and Kolster (2012)
	Geographical proximity	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Beine et al. (2014), Huong and Cong (2018), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
City	City dimension (e.g., physical, demographical growth/decline, etc.)	Aarinen (2012), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Mikalayeva (2015)
	(Lower) Cost of living	Aarinen (2012), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Mikalayeva (2015)
	Climate and ambiance	Becker and Kolster (2012)
	Linguistic similarity	Cubillo et al. (2006)
	Safety and security (including discrimination of racial, religious, etc. backgrounds)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010)
	Facilities (e.g., research, social, sports, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006)
	Job/employment opportunities	Becker and Kolster (2012)
	International environment	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006)
	Environment around the university	Cubillo et al. (2006)
	Academic reputation	Becker and Kolster (2012)
	Information about the *city* from online, hard-copy, and mass media sources (e.g., TV, news)	Becker and Kolster (2012)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
Institution	Institution prestige (i.e., ranking position, brand and quality reputation, academic reputation, research reputation, innovative reputation)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Beine et al. (2014), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Varghese (2008)
	International reputation[a]	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Academically recognizable degrees/diplomas and their marketability	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Huong and Cong (2018), Maringe and Carter (2007), Nathan (2017), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
	Quality of staff (e.g., expertise, research reputation, experience, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Satisfaction with institutional communication and administrative staff	Becker and Kolster (2012), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Campus atmosphere	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Nghia (2015)
	Safety and security inside the institution (e.g., crime rates, discrimination levels, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006)
	Financial stability	Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Facilities and resources (e.g., library, sports, technological, quiet areas for studying, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tantivorakulchai (2018)
	Facilitated admissions (e.g., easier processes, recognizing previous qualification, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Huong and Cong (2018), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tan (2015)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
	Academic freedom	Becker and Kolster (2012)
	Home-destination institutions linkages (e.g., accreditation, shared programs or funds, strategic alliances, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Knight (2012b), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Expenses beyond tuitions (e.g., dormitories, printing or copying, cafeteria/Mensa, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Public vs. private institutions	Becker and Kolster (2012), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	On-campus job/employment opportunities (e.g., teaching or research assistance, lecturing, laboratories, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012)
	Strong alumni (size, quality, recommendations, etc.)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Jianvittayakit and Dimanche (2010), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Tantivorakulchai (2018)
	Information about the *institute* from online, hard-copy, and social media sources (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, advertisements)	Becker and Kolster (2012), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nghia (2015), Reddy (2014)
	Marketing actions by the institution	Chien (2013), Eder et al. (2010), Mazzarol (1998)
Program/diploma	International recognition	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006)
	Programs flexibility, specialization, availability suitability, and diversity, including different courses, morning/evening courses, summer semesters, concentrated and shorter programs, etc.)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nathan (2017), Tan (2015), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Yang (2007)
	Quality of program	Ahmad et al. (2016), Cubillo et al. (2006), Yang (2007)

(continued)

(continued)

Category	*Factor*	*Selected references*
	Recognition by future employers	Becker and Kolster (2012), Cubillo et al. (2006), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002)
	Total costs/tuition fees	Becker and Kolster (2012), Beine et al. (2014), Cubillo et al. (2006), Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Nathan (2017), Tantivorakulchai (2018), Varghese (2008), Yang (2007)
	Financial aids (e.g., scholarships, loans, subsidies, and funds)	Ahmad et al. (2016), Becker and Kolster (2012), Huong and Cong (2018); see reviews in: Lewis (2016), Nathan (2017), Nghia (2015)

[a]Although this factor could easily be considered as a part of the total institutional prestige, we, in line with the selected literature, chose to present it as a standalone factor

Appendix C: (Self-)Selection Bias[3]

In addition to what is written in Chapter 3 about selection bias, we give a slightly more elaborate explanation about this phenomenon from a research-centric point of view. Selection bias:

> occurs when representation of the population of interest … is not achieved on key characteristics. Studies are vulnerable to selection and recruitment bias when those with particular characteristics are excluded or under-recruited. Selection bias occurs when samples are drawn from non-random subpopulations to estimate what is happening in the whole population, causing errors. (Russell et al., 2019, p. 9)

Groves and Peytcheva (2008) have used the leverage-salience theory to also explain this phenomenon. The theory:

> asserts that the causes of the survey participation decision vary over persons and over the presentational content of the survey request. Some persons are stimulated to respond because of one feature of a survey request (e.g., the stated purpose of the survey), and others, because of some other feature (e.g., the fact the survey is quite short). The impact of each feature is determined by how salient the given feature is made in the introduction to the survey. (Groves & Peytcheva, 2008, p. 169)

Moreover, Bundi, Varone, Gava, and Widmer (2018) have added (based on Groves & Peytcheva, 2008) that "when an attribute has a great leverage on the decision to participate for many invited persons, the sample is likely to have a self-selection bias" (p. 779) (see also Lohr, 2019; Nestor & Schutt, 2018).

Heckman (1979) argued that selection bias arises for two related reasons. One is the self-selection by individuals or data units under investigation/research. The second is the selection of analysts and researchers, which is a paraphrase on self-selection mentioned earlier. Heckman (1979) gives a few examples, such as: "wages for union members who found their non-union alternative less desirable" (p. 153), which closely resembles the problem with research on international students, because: "functions estimated on selected samples do not, in general, estimate population (i.e., random sample)" (pp. 153–154). Bundi et al. (2018) further

[3] See Chapter 3 for the full list of references cited in Appendix C.

explain that self-selection bias occurs when the true (de facto) selection of sample differs from the sample specified in the research design (de jure), and this might confound the research and its viability by inducing random and/or systematic errors.

Appendix D: Important Marketing Terms[4]

Brand: Brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, or design or a combination of these. The brand identifies the products or services of provider(s) and differentiates them from those of competitors (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G1).
Brand equity: The added value endowed to products and services (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G1).
Brand mantra: An articulation of the heart and soul of the brand and is closely related to other branding concepts. Mantras are short, three- to five-word phrases that capture the irrefutable essence or spirit of the brand positioning (based on Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 306).
Branding: Branding is endowing products and services with the power of a brand. It is all about creating a difference between products. Branding helps a program, an institution, or a country achieve a unique position (cited from Chen, 2008, p. 7; Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 265).
Branding strategy: The number and nature of common and distinctive brand elements applied to the different products sold by the firm (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G1).
Competitive advantage: A company's ability to perform in one or more ways that competitors cannot or will not match (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G2).
Competitors: Companies that satisfy the same customer need (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 300).
Consumer: Derived from the word "consume." An end user, and not necessarily a purchaser, in the distribution chain of a good or service. The ultimate user or consumer of goods, ideas, and services. However, the term is also used to imply the buyer or decision-maker as well as the ultimate consumer (Business Dictionary, 2019b; Marketing Dictionary, 2019a).

[4] See Chapter 4 for the full list of the references cited in Appendix D.

Consumer behavior: The study of how individuals, groups, and organizations elect, buy, use, and dispose of goods, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs and wants (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G2).

Customer: Derived from the word "custom," and also called purchaser or client. Party that acquires, or agrees to acquire, ownership (in case of goods), or benefit or usage (in case of services), in exchange for money or other consideration under a contract of sale. The actual or prospective purchaser of products or services. The customer is able to choose between different products and suppliers (Business Dictionary, 2019a, 2019c; Marketing Dictionary, 2019b).

Customer-based brand equity: The differential effect that brand knowledge has on a consumer response to the marketing of that brand (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G2).

Customer orientation: A set of beliefs that puts the customers' interests first (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster, 1993, as cited in Guilbault, 2018, p. 296).

Customer value: A customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations. The net benefits of a company's products or services that are valued by target customers, and how they rate the relative value of various competitors' offers. What customers perceive as meaningful and important for them—why customers choose and buy certain products or services and become loyal to particular companies (based on Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Kotler & Keller, 2012; Woodruff, 1997, p. 142; Yrjölä, Kuusela, Närvänen, Rintamäki, & Saarijärvi, 2019, p. 147).

Customer value proposition: An encapsulation of a strategic management decision on what the company believes its customers value the most (cited from Rintamäki, Kuusela, & Mitronen, 2007, p. 624).

Delivery: How well the product or service is delivered to the customer (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G3).

Design: The totality of features that affect how a product looks, feels, and functions to a consumer (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G3).

Differentiation: Differentiating the market offering to create superior customer value, distinguishing it from competitors (based on Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G3).

Electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM): Any positive or negative statements made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which are made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet (cited from Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004, p. 39).
Exchange: The process of obtaining a desired product from someone by offering something in return (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G3).
Identity: Comprises the ways that a company aims to identify itself or position its product (cited from Kotler, 1997, p. 292).
Image: The way the public perceives the company or its products (cited from Kotler, 1997, p. 292).
Industry: A group of firms offering a product or a class of products that are close substitutes for one another (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 300).
Market: The set of all potential and actual buyers of a product or a service (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G5).
Market segmentation: The division of a market into well-defined "slices." A market segment consists of a group of customers who share a similar set of needs and wants. Segmentation can be based on descriptive characteristics (e.g., geographic, demographic, and psychological) or on behavioral consumer-response considerations (e.g., responses to benefits, usage occasions, or brands) (based on Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. 236). Dividing a market into smaller segments with distinct needs, characteristics, or behavior that might require separate marketing strategies or mixes (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G5).
Market segments: A group of consumers who respond in a similar way to a given set of marketing efforts (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G5).
Marketer: Someone who seeks a response (attention, a purchase, a vote, a donation) from another party, called the prospect (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G5).
Marketing strategy: The marketing logic by which the company hopes to create customer value and achieve profitable customer relationships (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G5).
Needs: States of felt deprivation (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G5).
Positioning: The act of designing a company's offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the minds of the target market (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G7).

Product: Anything that can be offered to a market to satisfy a want or need, including physical goods, services, experiences, events, person, places, properties, organizations, information, and ideas (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G7).
Prospect: A prospect (i.e., prospective student) is an individual who is considered likely to become a student (see Lakkaraju, Tech, & Deng, 2018).
Quality: The totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G7).
Satisfaction: A person's feelings of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing a product's perceived performance or outcome in relation to his or her expectations (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G8).
Service: An activity, act, performance, benefit, or satisfaction offered for sale that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G8; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G7).
Shopping goods: Goods that the consumer, in the process of selection and purchase, characteristically compares on such bases as suitability, quality, price, and style (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G8).
Strategic brand management: The design and implementation of marketing activities and programs to build, measure, and manage brands to maximize their value (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G8).
Strategy: A company's game plan for achieving its goals (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G8).
Style: A product's look and feel to the buyer (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G8).
Target market: The part of the qualified available market the company decides to pursue (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G9).
Targeting (market targeting): The process of evaluating each market segment's attractiveness and selecting one or more segments to enter (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G5).
Trend: A direction or sequence of events that has some momentum and durability (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G9).
Value proposition: The whole cluster of benefits the company promises to deliver (cited from Kotler & Keller, 2012, p. G9).
Wants: The form human needs take as they are shaped by culture and individual personality (cited from Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. G8).

Word-of-mouth (WOM): The impact of the personal words and recommendations of trusted friends, associates, significant others, and other consumers on buying behavior, for they are usually perceived as more credible than commercial sources, such as advertisements or salespeople. It is the individual person-to-person communication between non-commercial recipients and communicators about brands, products, or services. Informal advice passed between consumers, usually interactive, swift, and lacking in commercial bias, having a powerful influence on consumer behavior (based on Arndt, 1967; Chiosa & Anastasiei, 2017, p. 157; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. 163).

Index

O. Shkoler et al., *International Student Mobility and Access to Higher Education*, Marketing and Communication in Higher Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-44139-5