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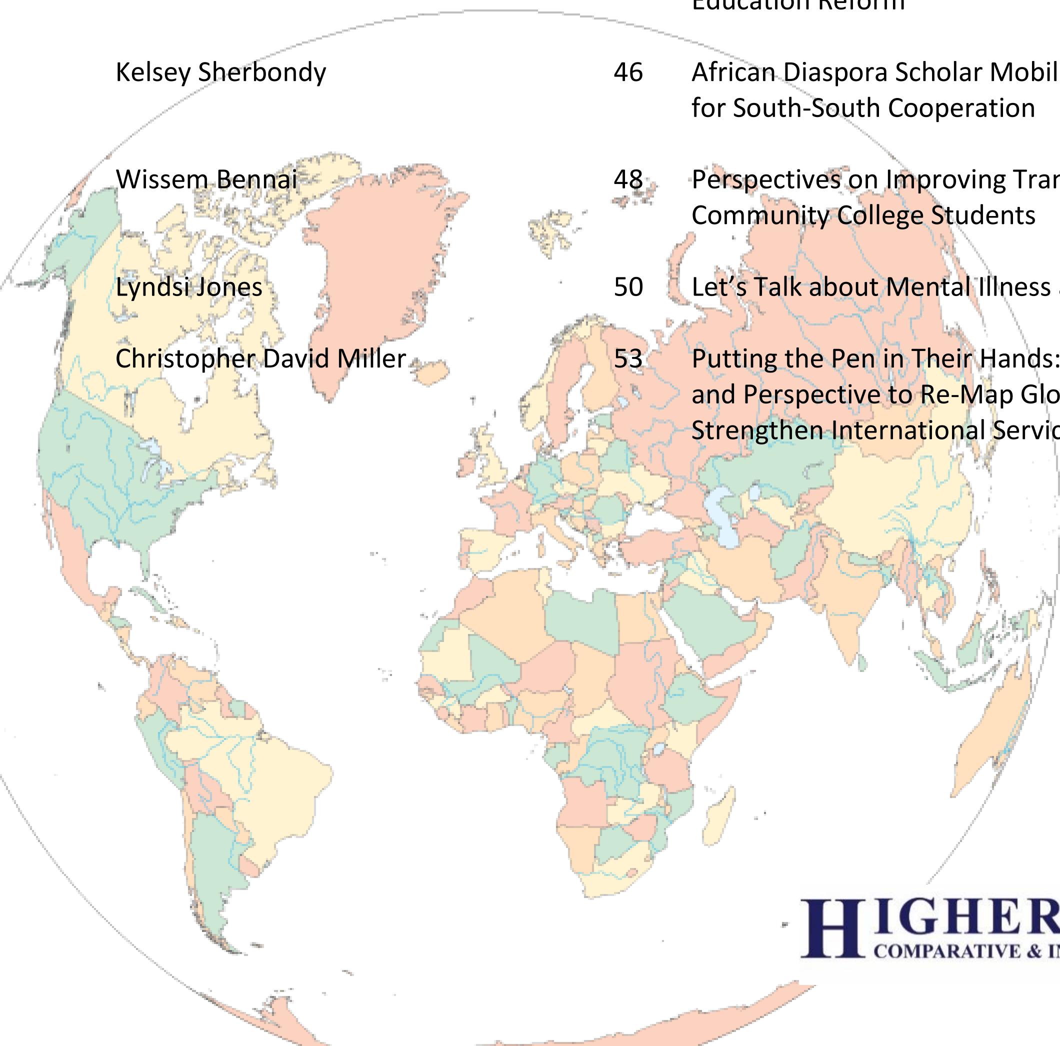

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COMPARATIVE & INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY

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

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

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Introduction to Winter 2017 JCIHE

Dear Readers -

I would like to welcome you to the Winter 2017 special issue of the *Journal of Comparative and International Higher Education* (JCIHE). This year, JCIHE changed our name to more fully embrace our new mission of promoting scholarship opportunities and critical dialogue with the purpose of engaging professionals and academics to the international aspects of higher education. All future JCIHE issues will now will include a combination of research articles and comparative report analysis. Each Winter issue will also include Graduate Student Research in-progress. We are proud to announce the launch of the new journal website: www.jcihe-hesig.org. Please visit the website to submit manuscripts or register as a peer reviewer.

The Winter 2017 issue includes three research articles and showcases graduate student work-in-progress. All three articles examine the effect of the university on building student knowledge economy. Two of the articles link higher education access to future economic prosperity. Rashed Al-Haque writes about Canada's citizenship and immigration policies and how they have overtime impacted international students. These barriers and challenges to citizenship pathways are connected to why international students choose to study in Canada and how political changes will impact university internationalization efforts and Canada's future economic prosperity. Shahrzad Kamyab writes about Syrian refugee access to higher education and how the lack of physical institutions, lack of access to existing institutions in other countries, and the lack of collaborative effort by universities throughout the world not only limit opportunities for learning, but will severely impact the next generation's contributions to economic prosperity. The third article by Samar Abid, Edgar Apanecatl-Ibarra and Stephen Wanger explores the values of Arab Gulf and American undergraduate students who are studying in an American university to see how they interpret a set of conditions that mark a changing university climate and are that are key to the success of a local adaptation of the American model of the research university in the Arab States of the Gulf.

The special Graduate student contributions are made by students who are currently studying in a MA, Ed.D. or Ph.D. program at George Washington University, Kent State University, Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey, and San Francisco State University. The selected students for this issue highlight a range of emergent issues for the field and illustrate how their research will contribute to the field of comparative and international higher education.

Two themes are found within the Winter 2017 Graduate student research: faculty voices and experiences and student mobility issues. Within the faculty voices and experiences are those diaspora Sub-Saharan scholar exchanges and Hungarian faculty who lead oppositional efforts within a far-right political environment. In both contexts, these voices and their stories lend support for intentional capacity building. The second theme is multi-faceted impact of student mobility programs. The research examines if differential tuition results in increased services for international students, if the experience of international students leads to successful transfer into universities, the impact of mental health on the study abroad experience, and the well-intentioned international service learning program and its impact on local communities.

Jessica Jewell examines the need to understand the live-experiences and stories of Hungarian higher education faculty who work in often oppositional efforts in light of a far-right political environment that is limiting internationalization outreach. Kelsey Sherbondy explores South-South diaspora scholar exchanges that include the purpose of knowledge sharing and capacity building in Sub-Saharan Africa. Wissem Chefai Bennani examines the transfer experiences of international students from a community college to a four-year university. This study revealed that international students face many sociocultural and academic challenges at the community college level. However, some of the students were able to overcome these challenges and transferred successfully to highly selective universities. Lyndsi Jones shows that there is a lack of resources to support education abroad professionals in understanding and dealing with mental health issues of students who are studying abroad. Christopher David Miller introduces the International Service Learning theory which urges mobility programs to be co-created by communities and for academic to advance the common good and yet may unwittingly at the same time perpetuate the marginalization of indigenous peoples.

Special thanks are given in this edition to our peer reviewers:

Lilian Butungi, Africa Specialist, New York Institute of Technology
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Many thanks also go to Nickie Smith, the JCIHE Managing Editor. The editorial staff of JCIHE is pleased to help support the CIES Higher Education SIG in advancing JCIHE as a professional forum that supports development, analysis, and dissemination of theory, policy, and practice-related issues that influence higher education.

Editor in Chief,
Rosalind Latiner Raby
Winter 2017

University Internationalization, Immigration, and the Canadian Dream: How Federal Citizenship Immigration Legislation Marginalizes International Graduate Students

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An Overview

From 2014 to 2017, Canada's citizenship and immigration policies underwent significant changes that directly impacted international students in Canada, and through extension, the internationalization of Canadian higher education. At a time when "international education is critical to Canada's success" and "is at the heart of [Canada's] future prosperity" (Government of Canada 2014, p. 4), it is critical that scholars look at how citizenship and immigration policies are linked with the internationalization aspirations of higher education, as it relates to international student recruitment, support, and retention. Canada's International Education Strategy seeks to increase the number of international students studying in the country and to make it a global hub for education to compete with other host countries such as the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia.

This article is part of a larger study that looked at the relationship between citizenship and immigration policies and the internationalization of higher education in Canada. Around the time when Canada published its International Education Strategy, the Canadian federal government and Citizenship and Immigration Canada, under the leadership of the Conservative Party of Canada, reformed Canada's Citizenship Act. These changes significantly impacted international students studying in Canada (Adams, Macklin, and Omidvar 2014). These changes meant that international students were no longer given a time credit for the years they spent in Canada studying as an international student when applying to Canadian citizenship. They would also have to live in Canada for longer to be eligible for Canadian citizenship. Last, other federal policy changes dictated that only certified immigration consultants at the university could offer immigration advice, limiting how much support international students could get from the university on immigration matters. Some feared that these changes would marginalize international students and make Canada an unattractive place to study (Tamburri 2014). While the current Liberal government in Canada curtailed some of the restrictive elements of Canada's citizenship and immigration policies (McCallum 2016; Zilio 2016), the reality is that international graduate students still face barriers and challenges with Canada's citizenship and immigration policies pathways.

As such, this article discusses how Canada's citizenship and immigration policies impacted international graduate students who aspired to transition into permanent residents and eventually Canadian citizens. The article will discuss why international students chose Canada to pursue graduate studies, why they want to become permanent residents and Canadian citizens, and share the challenges international students face when going through Canada's immigration pathways. Last, this article will discuss the detriments of systemic barriers to Canada's citizenship and immigration pathways and how that will impact both Canadian universities looking to internationalize and ultimately Canada's future economic prosperity.

Methodological and Theoretical Framework

I collected data for this study using qualitative methodologies and an instrumental case study approach. The qualitative approach was useful because I wanted thick and descriptive data with respect to how international graduate students were affected by Canada's citizenship and immigration policies (Shavelson and Town 2002). Using an instrumental case study (Yin 2014), I was able to investigate internationalization, as a phenomenon prevalent in Canada, with respect to Canada's citizenship and immigration policies.

This study was conducted as a research-intensive public university in Southern Ontario called Central University (pseudonym) that is dedicated to internationalization on campus by increasing the number of international students in both its undergraduate and

graduate programs. Data was collected in the summer of 2015, about four to five months prior to the 2015 Canadian federal elections. I collected my data through both policy analysis and interviews. First, I analyzed a series of policies that included Central University's Strategic Plan and its complementary International Action Plan for 2014-2019. Other policy documents included Canada's International Education Strategy, Canada's Citizenship Act, Bill C-24 of the Citizenship Act that introduced the restrictions places on international students, and Canada's Immigration and Refugee Protection Act. Systematically reviewing these policies gave me a better understanding federal citizenship and immigration legislations, understand the nature of internationalization at Central University, and gave me a sense of if the federal government and the university made a link between citizenship, immigration, and higher education internationalization. A thorough understanding of the polices also guided what questions I would ask during my interviews with university administrators and international students.

Second, I interviewed ten university administrators and staff members who are responsible for internationalizing the university and ten international graduate students from across the various faculties and departments at Central University. All the interviews were open-ended and semi-structured in their nature, which gave me an opportunity to ask clarifying questions as the interview progressed. Each interview lasted about 45 to 60 minutes. While the university administrator perspective is invaluable, it is beyond the scope of this paper to address their views. As such, this article will focus primarily on the voices of the international graduate students I interviewed in my study and will highlight their experiences with Canada's citizenship and immigration policies.

Using Actor Network Theory (ANT) (Edwards and Fenwick 2014; Latour 2005; Law 2009) as a way to do Critical Policy Analysis (CPA) (Ball 2006; Rizvi and Lingard 2010), I used a critical-sociomaterial approach to understand the intended and unintended consequences of how citizenship and immigration laws impacted international graduate students and how these participants were assembled around Canada's citizenship, immigration, and internationalization policies. ANT attention to sociomateriality seeks to understand how material objects exert agency to affect the network of relationships between actors. At the heart of this research is a re-evaluation of what is "critical" in CPA. While CPA has been used to understand whose voices are championed and whose agendas are ignored, sociomaterial theories such as ANT opens the analysis by exploring what is produced as a result of the connections between actors and actor-networks. Thus, using the critical-sociomaterial approach allowed me to explore citizenship, immigration, and internationalization policies in a relational context. As such, I was able to understand how international graduate students were affected by these policies and understand how much of their voice and concerns were reflected in policy documents.

International Graduate Students Find Canada Desirable for Study and Stay

International graduate students were attracted to Canada because of the quality and affordability of its higher education, the quality of graduate programs at Central University, and the existing personal connections they had in the country. Canada promised international graduate students a "world-renowned education" and the ability to work "with the best researchers in the world" shared Adam, a health science Masters student from the Middle East (personal communication July 7, 2015). Additionally, "when an international student selects a country they are going to study in, the immigration policy is [also] part of the factor" argued Chi, a Chinese international graduate student in mechanical engineering, who explained why he chose Canada (personal communication July 9, 2015). Irrefutably, the opportunity to transition from international student to permanent resident to Canadian citizen was a pull-factor for almost all the participants in my study. A 2013 survey of international students conducted by The Canadian Bureau of International Education (CBIE) showed that close of half of 50% of those interviewed wanted to transition to permanent residency whereas roughly 25% of students planned to work in Canada for up to three years after graduation, before returning to their home countries (Humphries, Rauh and McDine 2013; Ortiz and Choudaha 2014).

International graduate students wanted to become Canadian permanent residents and citizens for a variety of reasons. Andrea, a PhD candidate in Hispanic Studies, argued that being able to stay in Canada after graduation would give her and her children a better life than what they had in Cuba. Time and time again, participants claimed that permanent residence would allow them to secure a job in Canada. For many, Canada was a land of opportunity. Isabella, a PhD candidate in Chemistry from Mexico, claimed that her peers "were getting good job opportunities" once they had transitioned from being an international student to permanent resident (personal communication July 10, 2015). Canada's citizenship and

immigration pathways gives preference to those who have job offers form Canadian employers.

Many participants felt that they were making positive contributions to Canadian academia, the labor market, and society. “International students bring diversity of knowledge into [the] university” with their “different opinions” and “new energy” shared Lei, a Chinese graduate student in the health sciences (personal communication July 7, 2015). Others felt that international students acted as cultural and communication bridges between Canada and their home countries, which in turn fostered greater cultural understanding. Almost all felt that their research contributions could benefit Canadian society. For instance, Sophia, a Masters student from Norther Europe, felt that her expertise and research in rehabilitation services could be transferred to communities in Northern Canada and support those who need occupational therapy. Others such as Ezekiel, a Ghanaian, who conducted policy research on renewable energy argued that his area of research and expertise would help address the various issues associated with wind energy implementation in Ontario. There is no doubt that international students, as a result of their studies in Canada, possess skills, knowledge, and expertise that can benefit Canada’s industries and economy.

International Graduate Students Face Barriers to Immigration

Participants cited changing immigration policies, the inability to keep up with the latest policy changes, the lack of access to campus resources with respect to immigration, and systemic barriers within Canada’s immigration pathways as challenges to becoming Canadian permanent residents and citizens. Most participants only became aware of how to become permanent resident once they saw themselves staying in Canada post-graduation. However, accessing the latest information was frustrating. Sophia argued that “one of the biggest hindrances, [was the] lack of information. You get information here and information there and maybe they don't match. So it's kind of misleading” (personal communication July 14, 2015).

Once participants got to know the process, they shared that they were getting mixed messages from Canada. On one hand, international students are courted by the federal government in policy documents and by universities to internationalize Canadian higher education. On the other hand, Canada’s citizenship and immigration policies marginalize international graduate students from accessing both the Canadian labor market and permanent residency. From the ten interviews with international graduate students in this study, it became clear that immigration was not the strongest pull factor for their decision to study in Canada. They were largely attracted by the reputation of Canadian universities, the high quality of the education provided at Canadian institutions, and the research opportunities afforded to them by the university. It is only after international students spend time in Canada do they realize they want to stay and continue living and working in the country. International graduate students in Canada can apply to become permanent residents through the federal government’s Express Entry system, which ranks applicants according to criteria based on the applicant’s educational and occupational backgrounds, language abilities, and whether or not they can make an economic contribution to Canada. Only those who acquire a designated threshold are invited to apply to become Canadian permanent residents. However, the pathway poses many systemic barriers. Participants noted that priority is given to those who have Canadian job experience and/or a job offer from a Canadian employer. However, “for international students…it is hard to find one” noted Chi (personal communication July 9, 2015). International graduate students shared that it was difficult for them to work full-time while completing graduate studies. Those who worked as teaching or research assistants on campus were unsure if their work counted as Canadian work experiences within the Express Entry system.

Others shared that many Canadian employers were hesitant to hire foreign employees. Participants shared that in order to hire a foreigner, Canadian employers had to file a Labour Market Impact Assessment (LMIA). The LMIA is in place to ensure that Canadian citizens and permanent residents get priority for jobs over foreigners. However, for international students, Canada’s labor laws, in conjunction with Canada’s immigration laws made it extremely difficult for them to become permanent residents. “So it becomes this, sort of catch-22 of, ‘I can't get a job because I don't have status. I don't have status because I can't get a job’” lamented Karen, an American PhD student studying in Canada (personal communication June 30, 2015).

The money needed to apply to and be eligible for the Express Entry pathways was also a barrier to international graduate students. “Applying for permanent resident status...is...stupid expensive” exclaimed Karen (personal communication June 30, 2015). Express Entry applicants who want to apply as skilled workers need to have roughly $12,000 in their bank account to demonstrate that they can support themselves. This

amount is extremely difficult for cash-strapped international students to save. Richard, a Ghanaian Masters student shared that international students do not make enough money as teaching assistants to save $12,000. For students with a family like Sophia, this sum adds up to $22,000. Other pathways within the Express Entry system such as the Ontario Immigrant Nominee Program (OINP) costs $1500. Student visa regulations dictate that international students can only work for a limited number of hours. They also have to focus on their studies and research instead of looking for employment outside of the university. Both these factors limit how much money students can save to apply to become permanent residents.

International students also have to pay for and take an English language proficiency test as part of the immigration application. Many participants felt that the English test was an unnecessary hassle seeing that international students were required to demonstrate adequate English language proficiency prior to studying in Canada. Moreover, after doing graduate work in English at a Canadian university, many participants questioned the government's rationale for requiring international students to take another English test. Participants claimed that the English test was an unnecessary, costly, and time-intensive requirement that placed an undue burden on their already stressful academic lives.

Barriers Make Students Feel Unwelcomed and Hinder Recruitment and Retention

These barriers made international graduate students feel unwelcomed, unwanted, and undervalued in Canada. "Irrespective of our skills and PhD degrees, we don't think [Canada] really want us here because everything is indicative of the fact that [Canada] want us to suffer more to stay here" shared Ezekiel who argued that it may be better for him to seek employment and career opportunities elsewhere. Others such as Karen argued that while "it is fine enough" to get a student visa under current regulations, the barriers meant that "retaining people...is going to be a lot harder" (personal communication June 30, 2015).

Some participants noted that Canada, in comparison to the United States and the United Kingdom, was easier to immigrate to as a student. However, others felt that systemic barriers within Canada's immigration pathways would make Canada an unattractive place for future international students to come and study. Moreover, participants expressed that frustrated Canadian-trained international talent would seek greener pastures elsewhere if federal immigration policies continued to marginalize international graduate students. Students such as Charles, an international student from Indonesia, argued that international students are "pretty open to going somewhere else" if they "don't have...options in Canada" (personal communication July 8, 2015). Participants noted that Canada spent a lot of time, money, and resources on nurturing and training international students. However, the systemic barriers coupled with the lack of employment opportunities and the feelings of frustration with Canada's immigration system meant that many students were looking to return home or seek opportunities in Canada's competitor countries. As Richard boldly stated, "at the end of the day, [Canada] has lost" (personal communication July 17, 2015).

Conclusions and Implications for Canada

The implications of Canada's citizenship and immigration policies on higher education and specifically on international student recruitment and retention is significant. International students "are the ideal immigrants if you assume the perspective that you want immigrants who produce economic benefits for Canada" (Tamburri 2013). The sentiment is shared by the former Liberal immigration minister, John McCallum who championed a few changes to the Express Entry pathways after the Liberal government won the 2015 federal elections and reverted some of the restrictions placed by the former Conservative government. Under the new rules, international students will be given back their time credit for studying in Canada. Additionally, under the Express Entry's new ranking system, international students who have Canadian post-secondary degrees will be awarded 30 points, increasing their chances of being invited to apply to become permanent residents. Moreover, the revised Express Entry places less emphasis on having a job as a prerequisite for being immigration eligibility (Zilio 2016). While these changes are undoubtedly welcome news by international students, only time will tell how these new regulations will play out.

Despite the changes, the systemic barriers mentioned by the participants still exist. The costs associated with the application, lack of recognition of work done within the university, the lack of access to immigration support, changing regulations, and employers' reluctance to hire foreigners continues to add to the frustrations and struggles endured by international graduate students who are eager to make Canada home. This study clearly demonstrates that while international students are key actors in Canada's internationalization aspirations, they

nevertheless have little say in how federal citizenship, immigration, and through extension, labor policies affect them. Silencing their voices perpetuates the problematic normalized narrative that international students are merely objects and commodities to be used in Canada's internationalization project (Trilokekar & Kizilbash 2013).

The findings from this study show that the Canadian federal government is largely unaware of the struggles faced by international students. If Canada is serious about attracting the best minds from around the world and ensuring that it is competitive in today's knowledge-economy (as articulated in Canada's federal International Education Strategy), the Canadian federal government must examine citizenship, immigration, and internationalization in a relational context. They must uncover how sweeping reforms to immigration laws impacts international students on the ground. Doing so will not only ensure that Canada remains an attractive place to study but will also guarantee that Canadian-trained international talent will choose to make Canada home post-graduation. Only from the contributions of these skilled-workers to Canadian society, industry, and economy can Canada achieve excellence on the world stage.

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Syrian Refugees Higher Education Crisis

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Introduction

The Syrian conflict which started in 2011 has resulted in the displacement of millions of Syrians, extreme loss of life, and societal and physical destruction. Since the start of the war in Syria, an estimated 4.8 million Syrians have registered as refugees in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Turkey, and North Africa, and approximately 1.17 million have applied for asylum in Europe (Luo and Craddock 2016). One of the most serious consequences of this massive displacement is a “lost generation” of students—i.e., students who are without the financial means or institutional access to continue their education (Watenpaugh 2014). When the conflict is over, Syria’s ability to repair itself will be severely impacted by the dearth of educational opportunities within the country as well as the extremely limited access to education outside of Syria for university-age refugees.

Without question, higher education is of tremendous importance in post-conflict societies. Many feel that higher education should be given high priority along with addressing the physical needs of refugees. Keith David Watenpaugh (2014), the lead author of an important work on Syrian refugees' students and scholars in Lebanon, states that “the war will end but the young people instrumental in re-building the country will fall behind” (p. 1). He argues that educating these youths will give them a stake to reconstruct their war -torn country. His report identifies the barriers Syrian refugees are facing and he proposes educational outreach by non-governmental organizations and a collaborative effort by the universities in north America and Europe to build a relationship with the universities in the host countries of Turkey, Lebanon, and Jordan.

In a policy briefing at Brookings, Doha center, Sultan Barakat and Sansom Milton (2015) report that higher education acts as a catalyst for the recovery of war-torn countries in the Arab world, and will not only supply skills and knowledge to re-build the physical infrastructure and the shattered economy, but also can help with the restoration of the collapsed governance systems and fostering social cohesion. Efforts to educate the young people will equip them with knowledge and skills to rebuild their nations (Barakat and Milton 2015, p. 1). Barak and Milton (2015) also argue that the severe toll that regional conflicts have taken on higher education is further exacerbated by a failure to recognize the strategic role of the sector in stabilizing and promoting the recovery of war- torn communities and states.

Barriers to Providing Higher Education to Syrian Refugees

While providing higher education to the generation of Syrian refugees who are college age is of paramount importance, there are many obstacles to reaching this goal. Although neighboring countries, such as Lebanon, Turkey and Jordan have accommodated millions of Syrian refugees', in general, the international response has been unwelcoming. While the US and European Union have been blamed for not doing more, the Arab world’s wealthiest Gulf states have taken no Syrian refugees in at all (Open Source 2017). In the opinion of this author, the priority of the international community has been to safeguard their own borders and to offer aid to meet the physical and basic needs of the Syrian refugees in other host countries. Therefore, providing higher education by the international community is viewed more as a luxury and not as a necessity.

Other obstacles include lack of funding to educate the Syrian refugees, political tensions in the host countries, lack of identification documents or academic transcripts to enroll in the universities, and lack of

language skills to attend universities outside of Syria. For example, in Turkey, Syrian refugees need to learn Turkish to pass the university entrance exams or attend the universities. In Lebanon, knowledge of French/English is needed to enter the universities as Lebanon has a distinct higher education system divided between French and American-patterned higher education institutions (Loo and Magaziner 2017).

One huge hindrance to having access to education in general and higher education, in particular, is the rise of global nationalism. This has further increased the support of far-right parties in Europe due to fears that the wave of refugees may lead to fewer jobs and more terrorist attacks (Massaro 2016).

Efforts to Enroll Syrian Refugees in Universities in Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan

Since the host countries of Turkey, Jordan and Lebanon have made significant contributions in receiving the majority of the Syrian refugees and providing access to higher education, it is worthwhile to highlight their efforts in this article.

Although Turkish higher -education institutions have struggled to adjust their admissions processes for incoming Syrian students, with few administrative staff members speaking Arabic to transfer Syrian course credits to Turkish ones, many universities, like Bahcesehir, are proactive about enrolling Syrians. According to IIE's report (2014) based on findings in Turkey, Syrians face the added challenges of navigating the decentralized Turkish higher-education system and obtaining proficiency in Turkish or English to participate in courses at the university level. They also struggle with lack of or incomplete documentation and ability to transfer past credits (Bonessi 2016).

In spite of all the obstacles facing Syrians in Turkey, their enrollment in the higher education institutions has dramatically increased recently as the government of Turkey has committed itself to expand the Syrian educational opportunities (IIE 2014).

In 2015, three universities were proposed in Turkey to meet the needs of the Syrian refugees. Zakat University was founded by the Zakat Foundation of America—a Muslim foundation—and takes its name from the third pillar of Islam, referring to systematic charitable giving (Plakett 2015). Zakat university's academic programs are offered in Arabic. Offering programs in Arabic language facilitates learning and removes the language barrier to enter Turkish universities. In the same year, Turkey and Qatar announced ambitious plans to establish a Turkish Qatari University in Gaziantep province to serve the Syrian refugees there. The announcement also stipulated that it would help to foster scientific cooperation between Turkey and Qatar—although the form and extent of that cooperation was not explained. It seems that the proposed university is still in the planning stages, with the Turkish ministry of education looking for potential land to give to the project. The Middle East Peace University was proposed by the Turkish entrepreneur Enver Yücel, who called for a network of university campuses designated for Syrian refugees to be built in Turkey's border cities close to the Syrian frontier (Magaziner 2015). He also proposed employing exiled university professors in the refugee camps to work at these universities. The project remains at the proposal stage as no progress has been reported since it was proposed (Placket 2015). Since it is expected that Syrians stay in their host countries for an extended period of time, the cultural integration becomes more of a necessity. Therefore, the idea of Syrian-only institutions may not be the best solution which could potentially alienate students in their new environment (Magaziner 2015).

In Lebanon, the overwhelming majority of Syrian university students and scholars especially Syrian young women, are not continuing any form of higher education or advanced training; in addition, many are facing continued security concerns, as well as popular and official discrimination. The influx has placed new pressure on already scarce resources and created resentment against Syrians (IIE 2014).

Language barrier is an obstacle to enter Lebanese universities as students need to take tests of English or French language to pass the university entrance exam to attend universities. Financial constraints coupled with a lack of institutional aid such as scholarships, all has contributed to the low enrollment of Syrian refugees at the Lebanese higher education institutions (Gutten 2014).

The situation in Jordan is no better than Lebanon for the Syrian university-age students and scholars. The preliminary report by a multidisciplinary research collaboration between the University of California, Davis Human Rights Initiative and the Institute of International Education's Scholar Rescue Fund that took place in Jordan (IIE 2013) on the status of Syrian refugee university academics and students, revealed that while Jordan has contributed a great deal of support and humanitarian aid to Syrian refugees and has generously provided Syrian refugees with a high degree of human security and safety, the country is facing increasing economic, environmental, and social pressures. Consequently, Jordan has increasingly become an inhospitable location for refugees.

In addition, since the tuition, fees and the cost of living in Jordan are all much higher than in Syria, continuing education at a Jordanian university is out of reach for all but a small elite of Syrian refugee students; most universities in Jordan treat Syrian refugees as international students and charge them higher fees (Al-Hawamdeh and Al-Ghali 2017). As it appears, in general, of all three major host countries to Syrian refugees, Turkey with its large size, robust economy, and relatively stable political situation presents a favorable situation in comparison with Lebanon or Jordan (IIE 2014).

Alternative Options to Make Higher Education Accessible to Syrian Refugees

One alternative to physically attending universities is the on-line model of higher education for the Syrian refugees. A research study based on interviews with 178 young Syrian refugees in the three major host countries of Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan revealed that on-line teaching/learning is unappealing as the Syrian refugees culturally prefer one-to-one instruction. The interviewees also expressed that self-motivation, time management and maintaining momentum would be difficult in the chaos of camp life. In addition, many female interviewees from this study who lived in the refugee camps in Jordan expressed high interest in campus life and learning as they felt that the traditional classroom/campus learning would free them from the imprisonment of camp life. They found that mode of learning more enjoyable than learning on a computer (Bothwell 2017).

Conclusion

Without any doubt, investing in higher education is imperative to transform post-conflict societies, particularly in the Middle East. It is also important to provide the student -age refugees with high quality and accredited higher education to enable them successfully to integrate into their new homelands and re-build their home country once the peace is achieved. This calls for international cooperation and collaboration for the protection of academic institutions in times of war and increased university networks to promote academic solidarity world-wide.

The international academic community must put their efforts together to come up with sustainable solutions that enable the Syrian refugees to pursue higher education to become productive members of their societies whether in or out of Syria. Such solutions to make the higher education accessible to Syrian refugees could potentially prevent and lower the likelihood of youth joining violent organizations and possible radicalization. Syrian youth are vulnerable to recruitment of radical groups if they are not provided with a protective environment and opportunity to education (Al-Hawamdeh and Al- Ghali 2017).

In addition, the international community, specifically the oil rich GCC states of Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain, Kuwait and Oman must take responsibility to help with the Syrian refugee crisis. As it appears, so far, they have been hesitant to allocate financial resources or assist with the Syrian refugees' resettlements in the Gulf states (Open Source 2017).

Unfortunately, many challenges exist in the path to success for Syrian refugees' university-age students; one of the most deterring is the rise of global nationalism especially in Europe. Such sentiments in Europe could potentially threaten refugees' access to free social programs such as free education. The far- right parties in Europe accuse migrants of abusing the welfare

benefits, stealing jobs, and threatening the local's national identity (Masasaro 2016). It is not surprising that in both Germany and Austria for example, the far-right parties won big for the first time in decades in the 2017 elections. Those parties vehemently oppose the countries' immigration policies in the face of the ongoing refugee crisis in Europe.

In spite of all challenges, it is hoped that the international community realizes the necessity of providing higher education to the refugees in general and particularly to Syrians. Providing higher education helps the ambitious and talented Syrian university -age students to begin new productive life elsewhere or to return and rebuild in a post-conflict Syria.

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The American Model of the Research University: A Factor Analysis of Arab Gulf and American Student Perceptions

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Introduction

The challenges imposed by internationalization and globalization trends in higher education—in particular that of escalating competitiveness—are forcing higher education institutions worldwide to look for models to respond (Schoorman 2000; Parsons and Fidler 2005; Yao 2009; Agnew 2010; Matta 2010). The effects of globalization have been studied, mainly, from a corporatization perspective (Kleypas and & McDougal 2012) and have used classic economic and academic capitalism theories (Walker 2009), and administrative theoretical frameworks (Barrow, Didou-Aupetit, and Mallea 2003). Such views have contributed to the widespread adoption of a business model of the university that emphasizes knowledge production and the view of education as a commodity (Murphy 2006; de Wit 2011).

A common response is the adoption, and in some cases the local adaptation, of the American model of the research university (AMRU) [a model that has its roots in the United Kingdom and is employed in Australia, so it is also referred to as the Anglo-Saxon model of the research university (Teichler 1998; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Wang and Wanger 2011)]. The Bologna Accord, signed by 40 European countries, for example, utilizes the model as the base in an attempt to homogenize higher education degrees and to harmonize standards in Europe (Finn 2007).

Within the Arab Gulf region, efforts to emulate the research university model are well documented (Obst and Kirk 2010). In this region, also referred to as Al Khaleej region within the Arab World, reforming and modernizing higher education to create knowledge-based societies is ongoing (Obst and Kirk 2010). The Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)—composed of the countries of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates—shares a regional vision to make the Arab Gulf region a hub for world-class education (The Cooperation Council of the Arab States of the Gulf 2014). Arab higher education systems that were long characterized by mass production of undergraduate programs and graduates, as well as incremental support of the state, are shifting to new Western models. Several factors, as Adrian Acosta-Silva (2000) states—including the development of the knowledge economy, massive access to higher education, and increasing higher education differentiation—contribute to a push for universities to transition quickly and, in many cases, without certainty toward new models. To achieve the vision the AMRU is widely adopted (Mazawi 2010). The model also is embraced through the large number of GCC students studying in American universities. According to the 2015 Open Doors annual report, Saudi Arabia and Kuwaiti are ranked as two of the top twenty-five places of origin of international students studying in the United States. The report also notes that there is a steady and notable increase in the number of Arab Khaleeji students studying in the United States. The growing number within the region of Western branch campuses further attests the strength of the model. André Mazawi (2010) also asserts that "Gulf educational policies are drawn mainly into the orbit of American and British educational policy making through the active involvement of think tanks and consultants" (p. 215). These educational policy reforms have significant implications. For example, policy borrowing from the global center

represented by the U. S. and the U. K. links the GCC States to educational systems of Western countries. This kind of partnership implies Arab Gulf dependency on policies and strategies foreign to the region for the sake of achieving international competitiveness status. For Gari Donn and Yahya Al Manthri (2010), "this is not 'policy borrowing' but rather 'cultural replacement'" (p. 24). Thus, the impact of the AMRU on Arab Gulf students can be significant. This study accordingly assesses the perceptions of Arab Gulf students of the AMRU and compares them to the perceptions of American students.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is based on a composite model that characterizes the American research university as developed by multiple researchers (Teichler 1998; Arthur, Brennan and de Weert 2007; Finn 2007; Gill 2008; Wanger, Azizova, and Wang 2009; Yao 2009; Arthur and Little 2010; van Santen 2010; Wang and Wanger 2011). The composite model comprises six key characteristics: 1) using of English as the lingua franca, 2) having a relatively fixed structure of academic programs, 3) having a flexible curriculum and a growing stratification of programs/institutions, 4) promoting autonomy and decentralization of higher education, and 5) integrating research into higher education. In addition to these five elements, and also derived from the literature review on this theme, an element conceptualized as "Understanding of knowledge as national capital" was also explored in this study to gain insight on its perceived value. These six key elements of the AMRU were conceptualized as follows:

1. Use of English as lingua franca (ELF). This element refers to the increasing use in higher education of English as the primary language of instruction, academic materials, and publication of research (Zierer 1974; Mauranen 2003; Baker 2009; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Bjorkman 2010, 2011a, 2011b; Mauranen, Hynninen and Ranta 2010; "The pragmatics of English as a lingua franca in the international university: Introduction 2011; Wang and Wanger 2011; Smit 2012; Hevey 2013; Wilkins and Urbanovic 2014).
2. Structuring of academic programs in three tiers (SAP). This element is defined as the structuring of academic programs that incorporate a three or four-year bachelor degree program, a two-year master program, and a three five-year doctorate degree (Montoya 2004; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Wang and Wanger 2011; Leake 2013).
3. Flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs and institutions (FSP). This element refers to the increasing flexibility of graduate curriculum and higher education programs, a greater institutional flexibility that allows students to transfer between institutions, and the increasing preeminence of university rankings in students' decision to pursue a program at a given institution (Ross 1977; Acosta-Silva 2000; Wang 2004; Bougnol and Dulá 2006; Bastedo, Jaquette, and Harris 2009; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Aboites 2010; Wang and Wanger 2011; Davies and Zafira 2012; Leake 2013; Knutson, Jackson, Beekman, Carnes, Johnson, Johnson, and Keszler 2014).
4. Promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education (PAD). This element denotes the promotion in higher education of students' autonomy in learning and scholarly work, as well as the governmental decentralization of higher education, that allows institutions a greater autonomy to deliver education services and to grant degrees with minimal legal regulations (Ross 1977; Brown 1990; Acosta-Silva 2000; Merino Juarez 2000; Larson 2003; Eaton 2009; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Aboites 2010; Overall, Deane, and Peterson 2011; Wang and Wanger 2011; Leake 2013; O'Donnell, Chang, and Miller 2013).
5. Integration of research into higher education (IRH). This element refers to an increasing emphasis in higher education programs on the production and publication of scholarly research

(Acosta-Silva 2000, 2002; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Aboites 2010; Wanger 2011; Leake 2013; Knutson et al., 2014).

6. Understanding of knowledge as national capital (KNC). This element is characterized by the growing emphasis in higher education on the understanding and the promotion of knowledge as a private good that serves for personal and national economic advancement (Alexander 2000; Lynch 2006; Wanger, Azizova and Wang 2009; Cucchiara, Gold and Simon 2011; Taylor and Judson 2011; Wang and Wanger 2011; Davies and Zafira 2012; Judson and Taylor 2014; Sellar and Lingard 2014).

This six-fold conceptual model provided the lens through which the study was both conducted and analyzed.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore the values of Arab Gulf and American undergraduate students regarding core elements of the AMRU and to compare and contrast these values. Q methodology was used to determine extant views between and among two groups of undergraduate students enrolled at a public research university in central United States. The results indicate the presence of at least three predominant views of the model among Arab undergraduate students as well as three predominant views among American undergraduate students. The predominant views for both groups suggest that students view higher education primarily as a tool for economic advancement. The results suggest that students' views are aligned with the global trend that frames higher education as a private good.

Q Methodology

Q is a systematic methodology that utilizes a sorting technique and a combination of research methods to identify factors or subjective views that groups of individuals hold of a given issue (McKeown and Thomas 1988, 2013; Brown 1993; Watts and Stenner 2012). This methodology has been used widely in the behavioral sciences and related fields for over eight decades (Watts and Stenner 2012; McKeown and Thomas 2013). Q methodology is increasingly used in higher education to explore the perceptions of students and personnel. Q was recently explored for the study of the subjectivity of university students and faculty members on issues such as media access and use (Riggs 2011), emotion in the higher education workplace (Woods 2012), and sustaining college students' resiliency (Seaman 2014). Q correlates individual perceptions of participants (sorts) to determine if groups of participants (factors) sharing similar perspectives exist. Therefore, Q was determined as the methodology that best served the purpose of identifying the existence of different viewpoints of the AMRU between and among the groups of undergraduate students that participated.

Sites

Data for this study were collected at an American Public University (APU) during the 2015 spring and fall semesters. APU is a comprehensive institution located in a rural area that grants bachelor, master, and doctoral degrees in most knowledge areas. A total of 30 participants, 15 American and 15 Arab students comprised the P-sets. Approval to conduct research with human subject was granted by the institution to which the researchers are affiliated. Data from both groups of students were obtained individually on diverse campus locations. All students volunteered to participate and received no compensation.

Participants

Purposive snowballing was used to select participants. The only criteria established by the researchers was that students were classified as undergraduate students and matriculated from either the Arab Gulf or the United States. American participants included 11 females and 4 males. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25, with an average of 20. Ten of the participants self-identified as white, one as Hispanic, two as American Indian, and two as multi-ethnic. Their number of university semesters in undergraduate programs ranged from 1 to 13, with an average of 5. All participants in this group were students in education related fields. Arab participants included 2 females and 13 males. Their ages ranged from 20 to 30 years old, with an average of 23. All participants self-identified as citizens from an Arab country. Their number of university semesters in undergraduate programs ranged

from 4 to 11, with an average of 7. Fourteen participants in this group majored in engineering and one was a science major.

Instrument

The instrument for data collection included a set of 36 paper squares (Q-set) containing statements related to the six elements of the AMRU. Table 1 includes the 36 statements (six per element). These were numbered randomly to avoid interfering with the rank-order that students were asked to conduct. The same set of statements in English was used for both groups of participants because all participants were fluent in English.

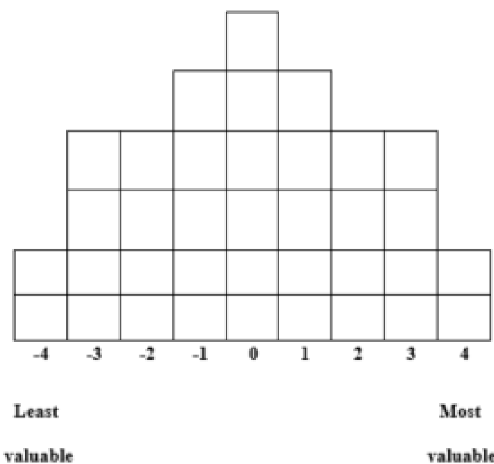
TABLE 1: *STATEMENTS ASSOCIATED WITH KEY ELEMENTS OF AMRU*

Random Number	Statement with Element Code	ASM Element
34	[ELF] Getting university instruction exclusively in English	Use of English as the lingua franca [ELF]
14	[ELF] Reading academic materials in English	
6	[ELF] Publishing in English	
19	[ELF] Not using materials in languages other than English	
26	[ELF] Improving my English proficiency	
8	[ELF] Studying in English speaking countries	
9	[SAP] Having a graduate degree	Structuring of academic programs in 3 tiers [SAP]
27	[SAP] Taking graduate courses	
2	[SAP] Studying a demanding program	
35	[SAP] Having incremental graduation requirements	
21	[SAP] Studying more than four years at a university	
15	[SAP] Following the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence	
28	[FCS] Studying a flexible university program	Flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs/institutions [FCS]
10	[FCS] Being able to transfer from one institution to another	
22	[FCS] Taking distance learning classes	
3	[FCS] Taking courses without prerequisites	
16	[FCS] Conducting multidisciplinary work	
36	[FCS] Choosing a program based on university rankings	
17	[PAD] Developing independent learning	Promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education [PAD]
23	[PAD] Getting a degree without government intervention	
4	[PAD] Studying a program that has minimal legal regulations	
11	[PAD] Studying at a university with little bureaucracy	

29	[PAD] Getting preparation to be autonomous	
32	[PAD] Completing administrative processes easily	
18	[IRH] Conducting research in class	Integration of research into higher education [IRH]
24	[IRH] Improving research skills	
12	[IRH] Publishing research studies	
5	[IRH] Studying a program that emphasizes research over teaching	
31	[IRH] Writing a thesis or dissertation	
30	[IRH] Taking classes that integrate theory, research and practice	
7	[KNC] Creating new knowledge	Understanding of knowledge as national capital [KNC]
20	[KNC] Learning new knowledge in class	
33	[KNC] Studying to succeed economically	
1	[KNC] Acquiring knowledge that makes me more competitive	
25	[KNC] Getting preparation to be a professional leader	
13	[KNC] Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	

As Figure 1 demonstrates, the instrument also included two paperboards for students to glue their sorts onto, with a scale ranging from of a negative value of -4 to a positive value of +4.

FIGURE 1: PAPER BOARD WITH SCALE



Students were provided with glue-sticks. A brief survey was also attached to the boards to gather participants' demographic data, as well as their feedback on their sorting experience and/or on the Q-set. A record sheet was also added to the instrument for the researchers' use. The components of the instrument, except for the Q-set, were stapled altogether.

Data Collection

All participants were informed, in English, of the purpose of the study. Participants were informed that the set of paper squares contained statements regarding elements of higher education that the literature suggests are key; however, they were not informed that the statements belonged to the six elements. We did this to avoid confusion and interference in the sorting process. Students were instructed about the procedures to rank-order the Q-set and were invited to express any doubt about the procedure at any time during the sorting procedures. We communicated to participants that all written information provided on the different components of the instrument would both remain anonymous and would be destroyed at the completion of the study.

Procedures

All participants were asked to sort the set of statements (Q-set) twice using two different conditions of instruction. The conditions of instruction were given in participants' native languages. The first condition of instruction for all participants was to rank-order the Q-set according to the question, "What elements of my undergraduate education are valuable to me?" To complete the sorts students were asked to first separate the statements into three piles that represented high value, low value, or neutral value. Participants were informed that, due to methodological purposes, any statement that was not understandable to them or any statement that had conflicting values should be placed in the pile of statements that they considered of neutral value.

Participants were then asked to select the two pieces of paper containing the statements that were most valuable to them (from the pile of statements they had presorted as being of a high value) and glue them onto the column with the highest value (+4) of the paper boards. They were informed that the position within the column was not important because any statement in the column would have the same methodological value. Next, they were asked to select the two pieces of paper containing the statements that were least valuable to them (from the pile of statements they had presorted as being of a low value) and glue them onto the column with the lowest value (-4). They were asked to go back and forth to the piles and glue the statements from the outside columns to the center. They were informed that once they ran out of statements on any pile that they could use a statement in the neutral value pile and place it in any column according to their perceived value. They were also informed that they could change the position of statements among the piles or the columns if the wanted to, even if the statements were already glued onto the board.

After participants glued all statements onto the first board, we requested that they complete a second Q sort. This was done to capture if the higher education values they held for themselves differed from what they perceived were the values of others. Thus, the second condition of instruction for American participants was to rank-order the Q-set according to the question, "What elements of undergraduate education are valuable for American students?" For Arab participants the second condition of instruction was the same, "What elements of undergraduate education are valuable for American students?" Because the Arab participants in this study had firsthand experience both studying in the U. S. and interacting with American students, we asked this question to determine Arab students' views of the value of higher education held by American students. Participants followed the same procedures as they did for the first sort. After completing both sorts, participants were asked to provide anonymous demographic information and their feedback on sorting and/or on the Q-set.

Data Analysis

PQMethod was used to perform the Q methodological analysis of data. PQMethod is an access-free software widely used in Q methodology studies (available from http://schmolck.userweb.mwn.de/qmethod/). A first-order factor analysis was conducted for the 30 sorts for both groups to determine if participants in each group held more than one view of the AMRU. This meant: (1) creating a PQMethod project for each group, (2) entering the 30 sorts of each group in each project, (3) performing a principal components factor analysis and a Varimax rotation for each group, and (4) performing a final z-score calculation of the rotated factors. A three-factor solution resulted for each group indicating that participants in each group had three different views of the AMRU. A threshold of 0.45 significance (when rounded to two digits) was observed to flag manually the defining sorts for all nine views. These three factors are represented respectively for American and Arab students in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2: *VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION FOR SELF AND OTHERS HELD BY AMERICAN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS*

	Factors			
Q Sort	**1**	**2**	**3**	
1 AU_1	0.6480X	0.0968	0.4066	
16 AU_1_2	0.1930	-0.0064	0.6567X	
2 AU_2	0.2841	0.7318X	-0.0979	
17 AU_2_2	0.2930	0.7458X	-0.0577	Exemplar
3 AU_3	0.3765	0.2827	0.5235X	
18 AU_3_2	0.3519	0.1449	0.6941X	
4 AU_4	0.3886	0.3765	0.0480	
19 AU_4_2	-0.0864	0.6841X	-0.0689	
5 AU_5	0.5127X	0.1619	0.4223	
20 AU_5_2	0.1799	0.3746	0.4494	
6 AU_6	0.6700	0.0167	0.5284	
21 AU_6_2	0.5594	-0.1340	0.6845	
7 AU_7	0.6711X	0.2486	0.1304	
22 AU_7_2	-0.1118	0.2572	0.7321X	Exemplar
8 AU_8	0.7857X	0.1505	0.0749	Exemplar
23 AU_8_2	0.7324X	0.3806	-0.1542	
9 AU_9	0.5894X	0.2765	0.1465	
24 AU_9_2	0.1743	-0.1131	0.6907X	
10 AU_10	0.4419	0.7064X	-0.0611	
25 AU_10_2	0.1988	0.6486X	0.2005	
11 AU_11	0.0391	0.5592X	0.1773	
26 AU_11_2	0.0144	0.6673X	0.2266	
12 AU_12	0.4134	0.4220	0.5058X	
27 AU_12_2	0.2042	0.4777X	0.4074	
13 AU_13	0.6177X	-0.0595	0.2712	

28 AU_13_2	-0.0528	0.1134	0.6562X
14 AU_14	0.4936	0.2626	0.4584
29 AU_14_2	0.2780	-0.0402	0.6897X
15 AU_15	0.5784	-0.0082	0.5090
30 AU_15_2	0.7133X	0.2808	0.2557
% Expl. Var.	**20**	**15**	**19**
# Defining Sorts	**8**	**8**	**8**

TABLE 3: *VALUE OF HIGHER EDUCATION FOR SELF AND OTHERS HELD BY ARAB UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS*

	Factors			
Q Sort	**1**	**2**	**3**	
1 AR-1	0.0505	0.0313	0.7710X	
16 AR-1-2	0.5714	0.4512	0.2418	
2 AR-2	0.4378	0.1329	0.5178X	
17 AR-2-2	0.0526	0.7516X	-0.1681	
3 AR-4	0.3337	0.3201	0.6050X	
18 AR-4-2	0.4542X	-0.3527	0.1747	
4 AR-6	0.6763X	0.0301	-0.0453	
19 AR-6-2	0.0648	0.6249X	-0.1150	
5 AR-7	0.6446X	-0.0861	-0.0958	
20 AR-7-2	0.3558	0.4853X	-0.3071	
6 AR-10	0.7544X	-0.2377	0.1424	
21 AR-10-2	0.1018	0.6734X	0.1864	
7 AR-12	0.4055	-0.2228	0.6479X	
22 AR-12-2	0.0633	-0.1489	0.8592X	Exemplar
8 AR-13	0.5263X	0.1396	0.4185	
23 AR-13-2	-0.4744	0.6054	-0.0555	
9 AR-14	0.6235X	0.0660	0.2505	

24 AR-14-2	0.4767X	0.4384	0.1558	
10 AR-15	0.6409X	-0.3000	0.1648	
25 AR-15-2	-0.1747	0.6929X	0.0238	Exemplar
11 AR-17	0.8174X	-0.0651	0.2376	
26 AR-17-2	0.5325X	0.1232	0.1430	
12 AR-18	0.7704X	-0.2262	-0.0043	Exemplar
27 AR-18-2	0.0751	0.2688	-0.0536	
13 AR-20	0.6006	-0.3288	0.4877	
28 AR-20-2	0.5354X	0.3825	0.1093	
14 AR-21	0.6693X	0.2107	0.1563	
29 AR-21-2	0.5701	0.5142	-0.0528	
15 AR-23	0.4231	-0.6351X	0.1432	
30 AR-23-2	-0.0449	0.6793X	0.1446	
% Expl. Var.	**24**	**17**	**10**	
# Defining Sorts	**14**	**8**	**3**	

Tables 4 and 5 highlight the correlation between factors for both groups.

TABLE 4: *CORRELATION BETWEEN FACTORS FOR AMERICAN STUDENTS*

Factors	1	2	3
1	1.0000		
2	0.4947	1.0000	
3	0.4716	0.2789	1.0000

TABLE 5: *CORRELATION BETWEEN FACTORS FOR ARAB STUDENTS*

Factors	1	2	3
1	1.0000		
2	0.2468	1.0000	
3	0.4684	0.3391	1.0000

Correlations between factors 1 and 2, and 1 and 3 of the American students, were fairly high at 0.4947 and 0.4716 respectively. Such strong correlations may be

explained in part by the number of consensus statements that are discussed in subsequent sections. A high correlation suggested at first that a homogeneous view among American students did exist. However, the low correlation between factors 2 and 3, and a deeper analysis of individual factors, suggested that American participants indeed held both strong and subtly different views. Correlation between factors 1 and 3 of Arab students was fairly high at 0.4684, also suggesting some degree of a shared view among some Arab participants. However, the fairly low correlation between factors 1 and 2, and 2 and 3, and a deeper analysis of individual factors, also suggested that Arab participants also held both strong and subtly distinct views at the time the study was conducted.

Factor arrays, distinguishing statements, consensus statements, statements' array positions, and z-scores were all used to interpret the views and values that participants held at the time the study was conducted. Factors were then named and characterized. The interpretation of the factors and their characterization is presented and discussed in subsequent sections.

Findings

Two groups of fifteen undergraduate students participated in the study (30 sorts). Each group of participants (American and Arab undergraduate students) sorted statements belonging to elements of the AMRU twice, resulting in 30 sorts for each group and a total of 60 sorts. For both groups, statistical loading charts showed that three factors were statistically significant in each group. Of the 30 sorts produced by the American group of undergraduate students, 24 sorts were defining and six were confounded at the 0.45 significance threshold. Eight defining sorts loaded on each of the three factors. This means that these three factors were statistically significant and that they were almost equally strong. Of the 30 sorts produced by the Arab group of undergraduate students, 23 sorts were defining and 7 were confounded. Seven sorts loaded on factor 1, and an equal number of 8 sorts loaded on factor 2 and factor 3. Analysis of these loading also indicated that the three factors identified by Arab students were statistically significant and reflected views that were almost equally strong.

Our focus was on analyzing and understanding all views of both groups of participants, as manifested by the factors particular to each group. Although the focus was on understanding positive and negative values, neutral views or views that had zero value on the array charts were also considered. It is worth noting, however, that neutrality toward certain statements could be attributed to a lack of understanding or the clarity of these statements.

The analysis of factors' arrays and statements' positions in the arrays indicated that students in both groups held clearly defined views of what is most valuable for them in their academic experiences as undergraduate students studying in American higher education institutions. Further analysis of factors' distinguishing statements and consensus statements among factors helped to characterize and to name each view in accordance to their value orientation. Three defining viewpoints characterized the participants in each group as follows:

American Undergraduate Students

The Market-Oriented

Students of this group of participants are best described as the competitors. They assigned significantly high positive values to all statements related to the core element of understanding knowledge as national capital. In addition, they were in favor of the autonomy and decentralization of higher education. However, they placed negative or neutral values on the use of English as lingua franca. Also, they did not care much about either learning or producing research or the flexibility of programs and the stratification of institutions. In addition, they were significantly neutral about the structuring of the academic programs that might or might not follow the traditional 3-tier academic system. Table 6 highlights these findings.

TABLE 6: *VIEWS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS: THE MARKET-ORIENTED GROUP*

Statement number	**Element**	**Statement**	**Column position**	***z*-scores**
17	PAD	Developing independent learning	4	1.910
25	KNC	Getting preparation to be a professional leader	4	1.909
7	KNC	Creating new knowledge	3	1.858
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	3	1.687
28	FSP	Studying a flexible graduate program	3	1.090
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	3	0.945
36	FSP	Choosing a program based on university rankings	-3	-0.997
19	ELF	Not using materials in languages other than English	-3	-1.008
14	ELF	Reading academic materials in English	-3	-1.021
8	ELF	Studying in English speaking countries	-3	-1.134
31	IRH	Writing a thesis or dissertation	-4	-1.647
5	IRH	Studying a program that emphasizes research over teaching	-4	-1.843

The Planners

Unlike the previous factor, this group of American students positively valued preparation that might lead to further education, as exemplified in statements related to the core element of the structure of academic programs and the realization of knowledge as national capital that might help them get a better job. However, the array position of statements related to the core AMRU elements (the use of English as a lingua franca, the promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education, and flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs/institutions) showed that these three elements had more of a negative value for this group of students. The array position of statements and *z*-scores related to the integration of research into higher education highlighted that these students are particularly neutral about this core element. These findings are presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7: *VIEWS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS: THE PLANNERS GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	4	1.777
7	KNC	Creating new knowledge	4	1.741
9	SAP	Having a graduate degree	3	1.491
29	PAD	Getting preparation to be autonomous	3	1.090
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	3	1.056
17	PAD	Developing independent learning	3	1.028
23	PAD	Getting a degree without government intervention	-3	-1.301
19	ELF	Not using materials in languages other than English	-3	-1.335
35	SAP	Having incremental graduation requirements	-3	-1.366
11	PAD	Studying at a university with little bureaucracy	-3	-1.370
10	FSP	Being able to transfer from one institution to another	-4	-1.527
4	PAD	Studying a program that has minimal legal regulations	-4	-1.816

The Pragmatic

This group of American students held a view that seemed contrary to that of the planners and an extreme version of the market-oriented group. These students decisively placed all statements related to the understanding of knowledge of as national capital in array positions with the highest positive value, and therefore having the highest *z*-scores. Also, they assigned negative values to statements related to the integration of research into higher education. They were seemingly either undecided or neutral about the remaining core elements of the AMRU. Table 8 presents these findings.

TABLE 8: *VIEWS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS: THE PRAGMATIC GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	4	1.933
33	KNC	Studying to succeed economically	4	1.889
1	KNC	Acquiring knowledge that makes me more competitive	3	1.769
25	KNC	Getting preparation to be a professional leader	3	1.263
14	ELF	Reading academic materials in English	3	1.011
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	3	0.889
5	IRH	Studying a program that emphasizes research over teach	-3	-1.279
12	IRH	Publishing research studies	-3	-1.534
18	IRH	Conducting research in class	-3	-1.604
26	ELF	Improving my English proficiency	-3	-1.716
31	IRH	Writing a thesis or dissertation	-4	-1.738
24	IRH	Improving research skills	-4	-1.820

Arab Undergraduate Students

The Investors

This group of students placed positive value on three core elements of the AMRU: understanding of knowledge as national capital, the use of English as lingua franca, and flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs/institutions. On the other hand, they placed low negative value on the elements of structuring academic programs in three tiers and the integration of research into higher education. However, they placed zero value on the element of the promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education. The findings for this group appear in Table 9.

TABLE 9: *VIEWS OF ARAB STUDENTS: THE INVESTORS GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	4	1.864
33	KNC	Studying to succeed economically	4	1.788
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	3	1.615
8	ELF	Studying in English speaking countries	3	1.364
14	ELF	Reading academic materials in	3	1.322
25	KNC	Getting preparation to be a professional leader	3	0.838
30	IRH	Taking classes that integrate theory, research and practice	-3	-1.109
18	IRH	Conducting research in class	-3	-1.167
31	IRH	Writing a thesis or dissertation	-3	-1.225
9	SAP	Having a graduate degree	-3	-1.467
27	APS	Taking Graduate Courses	-4	-1.559
15	APS	Following the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence	-4	-1.661

The Creators

Participants in this factor highly valued the core AMRU element of understanding knowledge as national capital. They also positively valued the integration of research into higher education. However, they negatively valued the use of English as lingua franca, the structuring academic programs in three tiers, and the flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs/institutions. In addition, just like the previous group, this group of Arab students felt neutral regarding the promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education. Their views are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10: *VIEWS OF ARAB STUDENTS: THE CREATORS GROUP*

Statement number	**Element**	**Statement**	**Column position**	***z*-scores**
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	4	2.110
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	4	1.708
33	KNC	Studying to succeed economically	3	1.695
7	KNC	Creating new knowledge	3	1.484
25	KNC	Getting preparation to be a professional leader	3	1.246
24	KNC	Improving research skills	3	1.202
27	SAP	Taking graduate courses	-3	-0.819
19	ELF	Not using materials in languages other than English	-3	-0.830
22	FSP	Taking distance learning classes	-3	-1.065
8	ELF	Studying in English speaking countries	-3	-1.466
21	SAP	Studying more than four years at a university	-4	-2.036
26	ELF	Improving my English proficiency	-4	-2.135

The Progressives

In addition to valuing and understanding knowledge as national capital, this group of participants was particularly attracted to the traditional 3-tier structure of academic programs. However, they negatively valued the integration of research into higher education and the flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs/institutions. Similar to those in the two previous groups, these students negatively valued flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of programs/institutions and the integration of research into higher education. Their views regarding the use of English as lingua franca and the promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education were seemingly neutral. Table 11 presents these findings.

TABLE 11: *VIEWS OF ARAB STUDENTS: THE PROGRESSIVES GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	4	1.937
26	ELF	Improving my English proficiency	4	1.695
1	KNC	Acquiring knowledge that makes me more competitive	3	1.462
2	APS	Studying a demanding graduate program	3	1.430
25	KNC	Getting preparation to be a professional leader	3	1.393
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	3	1.379
10	FSP	Being able to transfer from one institution to another	-3	-1.177
5	IRH	Studying a program that emphasizes research over teaching	-3	-1.240
12	IRH	Publishing research studies	-3	-1.261
21	APS	Studying more than four years at a university	-3	-1.267
3	FSP	Taking courses without prerequisites	-4	-1.352
31	IRH	Writing a thesis or dissertation	-4	-1.528

Distinguishing Statements

Data analysis revealed statistically significant distinguishing statements for each factor of the two groups of students sampled for this study. Distinguishing statements were especially important to consider because they highlighted the domains, or the degree of a given domain, to which participants in a factor were distinct from participants in other factors. Coincidently, these statements had statistically

significant z-scores. The statements are detailed below in both narrative and in Tables 12—17.

American Students

Distinguishing Statements for the Market-Oriented Group.

Because these students were primarily concerned with obtaining better jobs they placed a high value on developing learning and leadership skills that prepare them to work independently. They highly valued academic and institutional flexibility that facilitate their end goals. They were definitely not in college for the sake of academic work. Therefore, research and publishing were not for them. They were in school in search of instruction. They were not concerned with the type or ranking of the institution from which they obtain their degree from, so long as they get the degree. They wanted to obtain their degree with the least bureaucratic and legal complications. Graduate education for them seemed of neutral value.

TABLE 12: *VIEWS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS: DISTINGUISHING STATEMENTS FOR THE MARKET-ORIENTED GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
17	PAD	Developing independent learning	4	1.91*
25	KNC	Getting preparation to be a professional leader	4	1.91*
10	FSP	Being able to transfer from one institution to another	2	0.89*
2	FSP	Studying a flexible graduate program	1	0.48
23	PAD	Getting a degree without government intervention	1	0.45*
27	SAP	Taking graduate courses	-1	-0.28
11	PAD	Studying at a university with little bureaucracy	-1	-0.72
34	ELF	Getting university instruction exclusively in English	-1	-0.76
12	IRH	Publishing research studies	-2	-0.76*
4	PAD	Studying a program that has minimal legal regulations	-2	-0.96*
36	FSP	Choosing a program based on university rankings	-3	-1.00*
5	IRH	Studying a program that emphasizes research over teaching	-4	-1.84

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Distinguishing Statements for the Planners Group.

Students in this factor strongly valued having a graduate degree and developing independent learning. Because they were considering and preparing for future opportunities, they cared about the structure of the higher education system. They were interested in academic work and therefore wanted to see research integrated into higher education. They also encouraged some level of autonomy. Unlike the previous group, and because they valued education as a means for academic training, they were not bothered by processed dominated by institutional bureaucracy and legal regulations.

TABLE 13: *VIEWS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS: DISTINGUISHING STATEMENTS FOR THE PLANNER GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
9	SAP	Having a graduate degree	3	1.49*
29	PAD	Getting preparation to be autonomous	3	1.09
17	PAD	Developing independent learning	3	1.03*
2	SAP	Studying a demanding graduate program	2	1.02
15	SAP	Following the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence	2	0.88*
31	IRH	Writing a thesis or dissertation	2	0.85*
32	PAD	Completing administrative processes easily	-2	-1.06*
23	PAD	Getting a degree without government intervention	-3	-1.30*
35	SAP	Having incremental graduation requirements	-3	-1.37*
11	PAD	Studying at a university with little bureaucracy	-3	-1.38*
10	FSP	Being able to transfer from one institution to another	-4	-1.53*
4	PAD	Studying a program that has minimal legal regulations	-4	-1.82*

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Distinguishing Statements for the Pragmatic Group.

Students in this group significantly valued obtaining a university degree to get a better job. Therefore, they were studying to be more successful economically. To them, education meant acquiring knowledge that makes them more competitive. For this reason, they were inclined to learning and creating new knowledge in class. However, they were not concerned with publishing research studies, conducting research in class, or improving research skills. Success for this group was measured by the economic status a degree can offer rather than by pursuing academic publication.

TABLE 14: *VIEWS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS: DISTINGUISHING STATEMENTS FOR THE PRAGMATIC GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
13	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	4	1.93*
33	KNC	Studying to succeed economically	4	1.89*
1	KNC	Acquiring knowledge that makes me more competitive	3	1.77*
14	ELF	Reading academic materials in English	3	1.01*
20	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	3	0.89*
7	KNC	Creating new knowledge	2	0.71*
16	FSP	Conducting multidisciplinary work	-2	-0.53
5	IRH	Studying a program that emphasizes research over teach	-3	-1.28
12	IRH	Publishing research studies	-3	-1.53*
18	IRH	Conducting research in class	-3	-1.60*
26	ELF	Improving my English proficiency	-3	-1.72*
24	IRH	Improving research skills	-4	-1.82*

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Arab Students

Distinguishing Statements for the Investors Group.

Students in this factor strongly desired global employability. Therefore, it was important to them to study material in English and to use English as lingua franca. Mobility was thus a key factor that they considered when choosing a higher education program. They looked for flexibility in the structure and format of the classes and programs. They were part of a growing segment of students who are globally focused. They saw value in a universally recognized 3-tier system of higher education and the ranking of universities. In addition, this group realized that adequate training in research was an essential skill for global employability.

TABLE 15: *VIEWS OF ARAB STUDENTS: DISTINGUISHING STATEMENTS FOR THE INVESTORS GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
14	ELF	Reading academic materials in English	3	1.32*
19	ELF	Not using materials in languages other than English	2	0.83*
3	FSP	Taking courses without prerequisites	2	0.80*
28	FSP	Studying a flexible graduate program	2	0.80*
10	FSP	Being able to transfer from one institution to another	2	0.77*
34	ELF	Getting university instruction exclusively in English	1	0.61*
24	IRH	Improving research skills	-1	-0.65*
36	FSP	Choosing a program based on university rankings	-2	-1.10*
18	IRH	Conducting research in class	-3	-1.17
9	APS	Having a graduate degree	-3	-1.47*
27	APS	Taking graduate courses	-4	-1.56*
15	APS	Following the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence	-4	-1.66*

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Distinguishing Statements for the Creators Group.

This group was different from the other two groups of Arab students particularly with regard to the integration of research into higher education. They valued creating new knowledge. Therefore, improving their research skills, taking classes that integrate theory, research and practice, and publishing research studies were viewed as critical attributes of education that could prepare them to be knowledge creators. They viewed the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence of higher education as a viable structure of education. To them knowledge was universal, and so it was important that they improve their language skills, study, and produce knowledge in English.

TABLE 16: *VIEWS OF ARAB STUDENTS: DISTINGUISHING STATEMENTS FOR THE CREATORS GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
7	KNC	Creating new knowledge	3	1.48*
24	IRH	Improving research skills	3	1.20*
12	IRH	Publishing research studies	2	0.72*
30	IRH	Taking classes that integrate theory, research and practice	2	0.71*
15	APS	Following the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence	2	0.69*
5	IRH	Studying a program that emphasizes research over teaching	1	0.38*
3	FSP	Taking courses without prerequisites	-2	-0.78
34	ELF	Getting university instruction exclusively in English	-2	-0.78
19	ELF	Not using materials in languages other than English	-3	-0.83*
8	ELF	Studying in English speaking countries	-3	-1.47*
21	APS	Studying more than four years at a university	-4	-2.04*
26	ELF	Improving my English proficiency	-4	-2.14*

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Distinguishing Statements for the Progressives Group.

Postsecondary education, for this group, was highly valued as national and personal capital. Therefore, rigorous education and acquiring language skills were viewed as important for positioning within competitive workforces. However, the structure of the educational system and observing the traditional bachelor-master-doctorate sequence was not necessarily of concern. Here, a flexible educational system was perceived as an attribution that facilitates the acquisition of knowledge and language skills.

TABLE 17: *VIEWS OF ARAB STUDENTS: DISTINGUISHING STATEMENTS FOR THE PROGRESSIVE GROUP*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position	*z*-scores
26	ELF	Improving my English proficiency	4	1.70*
1	KNC	Acquiring knowledge that makes me more competitive	3	1.46
2	APS	Studying a demanding graduate program	3	1.43*
17	PAD	Developing independent learning	2	1.14*
9	APS	Having a graduate degree	2	1.06*
29	PAD	Getting preparation to be autonomous	1	0.44
34	ELF	Getting university instruction exclusively in English	0	-0.26
15	APS	Following the bachelor-master-doctorate sequence	0	-0.27*
11	PAD	Studying at a university with little bureaucracy	-1	-0.49
18	IRH	Conducting research in class	-1	-0.56
10	FSP	Being able to transfer from one institution to another	-3	-1.18*
3	FSP	Taking courses without prerequisites	-4	-1.35

($P < .05$; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at $P < .01$)

Consensus Statements for American and Arab Students

Consensus statements highlight the statements with which the students most agreed; they reflect shared similar values and views. These statements are subsequently presented by group in Tables 18 and 19.

American Students

Consensus Statements for All Groups.

Data analysis revealed that American students shared similar views about statements that emphasized preparation to become autonomous, studying more than four years at a university, conducting multidisciplinary work, publishing in English, and taking courses without prerequisites.

TABLE 18: *VIEWS AMONG AMERICAN STUDENTS: CONSENSUS STATEMENTS FOR ALL GROUPS*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position			*z*-scores		
			F1	F2	F3	F1	F2	F3
29	PAD	Preparation to become autonomous	1	3	1	0.49	1.09	0.54
21*	SAP	Studying more than four years at a university	0	1	0	-0.24	0.23	-0.15
16*	FSP	Conducting multidisciplinary work	0	0	-2	0.08	0.07	-0.53
6*	ELF	Publishing in English	-1	-1	-2	-0.74	-0.65	-0.43
3*	FSP	Taking courses without prerequisites	-2	-2	-2	-0.84	-1.07	-1.03

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Arab Students

Consensus statements for all groups.

Agreement among Arab students clearly focused on obtaining a university degree to get a better job, studying to succeed economically, learning new knowledge in class, reparation to become a professional leader, reparation to become autonomous, conducting multidisciplinary work, publishing in English, completing administrative processes easily, and studying a program that has minimal legal regulations.

TABLE 19: *VIEWS AMONG ARAB STUDENTS: CONSENSUS STATEMENTS FOR ALL GROUPS*

Statement number	Element	Statement	Column position			*z*-scores		
			F1	F2	F3	F1	F2	F3
13*	KNC	Obtaining a university degree to get a better job	4	4	4	1.86	2.11	1.94
33	KNC	Studying to succeed economically	4	3	2	1.79	1.69	1.24
20*	KNC	Learning new knowledge in class	3	4	3	1.61	1.71	1.38

25	KNC	Preparation to become a professional leader	3	3	3	0.84	1.25	1.39
19	PAD	Preparation to become autonomous	0	0	1	-0.14	-0.08	0.44
16*	FSP	Conducting multidisciplinary work	0	1	0	-0.10	0.25	-0.01
6*	ELF	Publishing in English	0	0	0	-0.20	-0.15	-0.38
32*	PAD	Completing administrative processes easily	-1	-1	1	-0.22	-0.23	0.06
4*	PAD	Studying a program that has minimal legal regulations	-1	-1	-1	-0.34	-0.53	-0.81

(P < .05; asterisk (*) Indicates Significance at P < .01)

Discussion

Analysis indicates that significant differences exist in students' perceptions, both within and among the groups of participants and the aggregate of all participants. The results reported above emphasize collective perceptions, which correspond to the purpose of this study to examine Arab and American students' views of the AMRU and to compare and contrast their views.

The use of English as a lingua franca was a factor an element that characterized students' perspectives and views in both the Arab and the American groups of students. Evidently, this element had low or negative value to the American participants except for the *pragmatic group* of students who positively valued reading academic materials in English and getting university instruction exclusively in English. However, for Arab students this element was once positively valued (as with the *investors group*), negatively valued (as is the case with the *creators group*) or reflected mixed views as with the *progressive group* of Arab students.

Structuring of academic programs also had significant value for students in both groups. While American students in the *market-oriented group* assigned neutral or low positive/negative values to this element, the *planners group* positively ranked statements related to this element. Again, the students composing the *progressive group* indicated mixed views of this element. For Arab students, although the structuring of academic programs was of negative value to the *investors group*, it had mixed perceptions for those in the *creators group* and the *progressive group*.

In regard to the core element of flexibility of curriculum and growing stratification of academic programs and institutions, students in both group and in all factors had mixed views and values placing statements of this element all over the array charts. Likewise, students in both groups and for all factors revealed mixed views in relation to the core element of the promotion of autonomy and decentralization of higher education.

The core elements of the AMRU that emphasize the recognition of education as a national/personal capital and the integration of research into higher education are the two elements that reflected most defining and extreme views of students. For example, the *market-oriented* group of American students show cased a population of American students who are so market driven and to whom a college degree is the best way to be more economically enabled over others in the labor market. For them, earning knowledge and theories is a sufficient traditional learning experience as long as it will lead to the degree. As such, this group has no interest whatsoever in conducting or publishing research or emphasize research at any stage of the learning experience. Their focus is on short term goals that are embodied in a degree that will immediately lead to employment and better opportunities. According to the *planners group* of American students, American higher education degree is essential to make them competitively more attractive labor. Plus, it is a step toward possible further education plans.

The *investors group* of Arab students has greater understanding of knowledge as personal and national capital. Studying in an American higher education institution is perceived as a means to gain a degree that makes this group of students more economically successful. Having a degree from an American institution for these students equates to being equipped with new knowledge which, in return, makes them more competitive and enables them to be professional leaders. The focus of this group of participants is on the

immediate outcomes of graduation that mobilize them economically rather than on how courses are designed or structured or if research is an integral part of the learning process or not. Likewise, pursuing a graduate degree or taking graduate courses is least valued for this group. The focus is solely on graduation rather than on pursuing further graduate education. For these students, their educational investment is furthered by studying in an English-speaking country. This group represents a more globalization oriented segment of students who embrace the sort of education that emphasizes the English language as the lingua-franca of a globally connected labor market.

To the *creators group* of Arab students, although academic education is also viewed as a step to be economically successful in life, this group of participants highly value the knowledge and academic skills they gain by studying in an American institution. Learning to be better researchers and being able to disseminate and publish new knowledge is very valuable for this group of students. The structure and design of course matter for these participants because they inspire to gain knowledge through integrated and comprehensive approach to learning that includes theory, research, and practice. To this end, time-to-graduation is not an issue for this population of students as long as the educational process leads to gaining and creating new knowledge. Unlike the *investors group*, this knowledge can be pursued anywhere and in any language. However, it is important that this educational training process is administratively controlled, structured, and follows the traditional bachelors-masters-doctorate degree sequence.

The *progressive group* of Arab students holds peculiar views about education at a Western institution. For this group of participants, education is not only an economic empowering tool. An academic degree from an American institution is viewed as a status that authorizes the degree holder to be in position to act and lead in society. Gaining education in an English-speaking country is perceived to be rigorous and prepare graduates to be effective and proactive workers. This group of students does not place high value on the regulation of educational process or how learning is approached. That is, conducting research is not considered as a valuable skill that they need to learn or practice in order to obtain the academic degree.

During the course of this research study, the focus of the researchers was on analyzing and understanding all views of both group of participants sampled for this study as manifested by the factors particular to each group. Although the focus was on understanding positive and negative values, neutral views or views that had zero value on the array charts were also considered. It is worth mentioning, though, that neutrality towards certain statements could be attributed to lack of understanding or clarity of these statements.

Interestingly, comparing the consensus statements from the two groups highlights that both American and Arab students highly and positively value obtaining a degree from an American research university because they perceive it as a means to better jobs. Conversely, most students sampled in this study do not place high value on doing research and publishing. This certainly could be attributed to the fact that all participants were pursuing undergraduate education at the time the study was conducted.

The student's views discussed above prove that these six core elements of the AMRU (Teichler 1998; Arthur, Brennan and de Weert 2007; Finn 2007; Gill 2008; Wanger, Azizova, and Wang 2009; Yao 2009; Arthur and Little 2010; van Santen 2010; Wang and Wanger 2011), are core values of the model. This study evidently supports the structure of this model specifically. Although other researchers suggest other elements as characteristics of the AMRU, however, this particular study examined six core elements and their viability to students' perceptions of the American research university.

In conclusion, this exploratory study highlights the importance of international and domestic undergraduate student perceptions of the American model of the research university. Focusing on two initial groups of students from the Arab Gulf and the United States, this research study is the first of its kind and, as such, establishes a baseline for ongoing expansion of the line of inquiry. Exploratory in nature, the study only controlled for type of university, namely, the research university. Future studies may focus on other classifications of higher education institutions. In addition, considerations such as age, gender, disciplinary differences, or other demographics may be controlled.

Given growing efforts across the globe to either adopt or adapt the American model of the research university as a means to strengthen national higher education systems and to compete within the global knowledge economy, understanding the perceptions of students educated or influenced by the model is an important addition to the literature that may inform higher education administration and public policy. Hence, this study may contribute to the emerging conceptualization of the research university model that is currently widely emulated around the world. In addition, understanding the perceptions of an important population of international students studying in American higher education institutions, such as Arab

Gulf students, may be of value for university administrators when they endeavor to host students from this region.

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Research In-Progress: A Narrative Inquiry into the Work Lives of Hungarian University Faculty and Their Perceptions of Higher Education Reform

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Introduction

With a history that spans centuries, Hungary's top higher education institutions have been recognized for their scholastic endeavors and international collaborations. Hungarian campuses are hubs for innovative thinking and have nurtured newcomers and Nobel Laureates alike. Though Hungary is a member of the European Higher Education Area and its top public universities engage faculty who are global leaders in research and innovation, the increasingly authoritarian Hungarian government is waging a war on public education, which threatens academic freedom throughout the region and the professional lives of those who work for higher education institutions (Jewell, 2017; Reisberg, 2017). In a recent World Bank report, since 1999, the amount of spending on public education in Hungary has atrophied relative to economic output (The World Bank, 2017). This, according to *Bloomberg*'s Leonid Bershidsky (2017), is in keeping with authoritarian regimes around the world—Turkey, Iran, Azerbaijan, to name just a few, all who share the same philosophy of spending less on education in an effort to stall or purge political dissent.

Internationalization in Hungarian higher education institutions is not systematic, though in the nearly fifteen years since Hungary's adoption of the Bologna guidelines, early internationalization strategies proved successful (Rozsnyai 2008) in that they encouraged student and faculty mobility, international partnerships, and collaborative research projects. Unfortunately, as the Hungarian government increased barriers to public education, a campaign that has run concurrent with its increased stranglehold on freedoms fundamental to developed Western countries (press, speech, assembly, etc.), barriers to internationalization have also been erected (Pusztai & Szabó 2008; Hockenos 2013; Muller 2017).

Despite standing at the intersection of pressing international and comparative higher education issues, qualitative research into Hungarian higher education, and especially the faculty at its helm, is surprisingly sparse, especially those studies that consider the influence of political factors. A focus on faculty will allow the researcher to observe ways in which these individuals navigate the complexities of internationalization agendas in Hungarian higher education institutions, as well as pursue an understanding of how education reform (or anti-reform) affects their professional lives. Driven by the desire to document vital narratives, the researcher will travel to Hungary this spring to study faculty lives at one of the nation's best universities. The purpose of the research is to understand the internal and external forces that affect the professional lives of current and past university faculty members. The concept of "forces" is broadly interpreted, though the researcher has defined them as the pedagogical, political, sociological, economic, and philosophical stressors that push faculty members into certain decisions about curriculum, research, and service. The research design is qualitative with narrative inquiry as the governing methodology, allowing participants to tell the stories of their work lives at a time when political volatility and despotism seeks to silence them.

Research Methodology

In order to understand the lived professional experiences of Hungarian university faculty, the researcher has selected narrative inquiry as a methodological approach. Narrative inquiry is an in-depth interview method that "gather[s], analyze[s], and interpret[s] the stories people tell about their lives…beginning with the assumption that people live 'storied' lives and that telling and retelling one's story helps one understand and create a sense of self" (Riessman 1991, in Marshall & Rossman, 2015 p. 155). The researcher will meet with study participants in an off-campus location and will spend several hours engaged in semi-structured interviews. Though conversation will be guided by interview questions, participants will be encouraged toward a sense of authorship—to give voice to their experiences throughout their professional lives, especially to those experiences that have been shaped or affected by higher education reforms—or, in the case of Hungary, anti-reforms.

The hope is that this research will contribute to an understanding of how and if far-right political environments affect Hungarian faculty and internationalization agendas at one university. Though limited by the experiences of the research participants, the researcher believes a comparative examination would uncover similar faculty experiences throughout the region, particularly in those countries currently administered by authoritarian governments. This research plan is propelled by the desire to contribute knowledge about those who work in service of academic freedom and a general belief that despite oppositional efforts, in an era of silences, we must continue tell each other's stories.

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African Diaspora Scholar Mobility Programs: Looking toward Models for South-South Cooperation

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Introduction

The international development community has long acknowledged the diaspora is a source of economic development, primarily through remittances, for countries of origin. Within the international higher education sector, scholars and practitioners alike have begun to apply this concept of generating financial support via the diaspora to sharing and developing knowledge by tapping into the intellectual expatriate community. To this end, initiatives to promote diaspora scholar mobility and research partnership have taken shape, most often focusing on engaging the intellectual Sub-Saharan African diaspora in the strengthening of higher education capacities in that region (Teferra 2010; Ferede 2013). However, these programs in their current form raise questions of asymmetry in the scholarly partnerships they facilitate and fail to incorporate valuable expertise from a significant portion of diaspora communities, as they draw only from scholars within the Global North for placement in institutions in the Global South. Already, migration scholars acknowledge a weakness of diaspora studies literature, which is that it places too great an emphasis on diaspora communities that reside in the Global North rather than fully including and even conceptualizing a Southern diaspora (Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera 2016). As South-South diaspora engagement comes to the fore of the economic development conversation (Christiansen 2013), my research explores the importance of and potential for South-South diaspora scholar exchange programs within the international higher education sector. Identifying and including Southern intellectuals in this growing trend of diaspora mobility programming has both the possibility to promote knowledge sharing and capacity building in Sub-Saharan African tertiary education, and to correct for documented inequalities in global educational development and exchange.

It is widely accepted that the field of international higher education is faced with unequal participation of world regions, power dynamics, and student and scholar flows (Altbach and Knight 2007). Relevant literature typically characterizes higher education partnerships between institutions in the developed and developing world—and in Sub-Saharan Africa in particular—as means of capacity building and institutional development for the Southern partners more so than means of cultural exchange or research collaboration from which the Northern partners also benefit (Altbach and Knight 2007; Grant 2014; McEvoy et al 2016). The negative implications of asymmetric, typically South-North, flows of students and scholars from the region are also documented in the scholarship related to brain drain (Altbach and Knight 2007; Gribble 2008). In spite of what international educators know to be true about the unequal relationships across the field, I would argue that these inequalities continue to be perpetuated even in attempted solutions to the recognized challenges at hand, as evidenced by the design of particular international educational programming.

Specifically, and through a post-colonial lens (Bhabha 1994; Chakrabarty 2000), I focus on how these power dynamics persist in the design of a growing number of initiatives that facilitate diaspora engagement in the development of higher education, which are meant to combat the negative effects of brain drain and build capacity among institutions. Many of these programs have origins in the Global North and aim to send diaspora academics from the United States, Canada, and Europe on often short-term assignments to Sub-Saharan African universities. My research asks how these programs might be structured differently in order to correct for

asymmetry in the partnerships they create, as well as to implement lessons already learned from the study of the Southern diaspora and its economic capacity. I seek to analyze outbound tertiary and highly-skilled migrant mobility data from a set of Sub-Saharan African countries for the purposes of identifying and locating alternative, Southern, diaspora communities with which international higher education practitioners and African universities might partner.

Already, research on South-South mobility indicates that Southern diaspora communities are highly-skilled, are willing to engage in the development of their home countries (International Organization for Migration 2014), and, of course, are often geographically more proximate to their place of origin than Northern diasporas. I therefore argue that looking to the results of my analysis of Southern diaspora intellectual communities could provide answers to challenges of North-South asymmetry and sustainability in current and future diaspora scholar exchange program design while enhancing university capacity in Sub-Saharan Africa. To realize the intended goal of South-South diaspora scholar mobility programming, I call for additional research, improved data collection, and dedicated funding. Yet, this preliminary study is significant for the international higher education field, which has thus far not fully explored or facilitated these South-South avenues of diaspora scholar mobility in the Sub-Saharan African context. Doing so would mean seizing an opportunity and truly beginning to combat dominant North-South power dynamics present in the field of international higher education.

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Perspectives on Improving Transfer for International Community College Students

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Problem Statement

As the largest higher education institution in the United States, with 2.1 million students enrolled at 114 colleges, the California community college system has a fundamental role in making higher education more accessible and affordable (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office 2017). The transfer function and the "two-plus-two" model contributed to the popularity of California community colleges worldwide (Anayah and Kuk 2015) and persuaded many international students to start their U.S. higher education experiences at the community college level (Farnsworth 2005). This function provides students with the opportunity to complete the first two years of the baccalaureate, then, transfer to four-year institutions to finish an undergraduate degree. Yet, there is little to no research on the transfer experiences of this student population and the existent data suggest that many international students are not transferring on time (Hagedorn and Mi-Chung 2005). This is particularly disconcerting given that the majority of international students aim to transfer in two years so they can earn a baccalaureate degree in four years.

The theoretical lens for this dissertation was informed by the Racist Nativism (Huber 2010) and Critical Race Theory frameworks (Solorzano and Yosso 2001; Hiraldo 2010). Both frameworks were relevant to show that internationalization policies provided domestic students with opportunities to enrich their cultural skills and helped many U.S. institutions to improve the quality of education; however, these same policies placed extra burdens on international students. In practice, these policies reproduced inequity by disqualifying international students from equity programs (Hiraldo 2010). Through this lens, I was able to collect the narratives of international students and faculty and focus on the coping strategies used by international students to navigate the complexity of the community college system despite the challenges they encountered.

Methodology

This study took place at two medium size California community colleges. The qualitative research methodology was used to illuminate the connections between internationalization policies, transfer preparedness, and equity issues facing international students. In order to provide a balanced and richer insight into international students' experiences, I used a combination of focus groups with international community college students who successfully transferred to four-year institutions and interviews with faculty from various academic areas. The following questions guided this research:

What are the international students' perceptions as to (a) the hurdles they faced in trying to successfully transfer, and (b) how they were able to overcome these hurdles?

What are the perceptions of faculty as to (a) the challenges facing international students (b) and the adjustments they adopted in the classroom to tackle these challenges?

Findings

Three themes emerged from the data analysis. The first theme, "cultural capital" that highlights the cultural and educational backgrounds international students bring with them to their institutions. The second theme, "self-efficacy" focuses on the strategies used by international students to overcome challenges and transfer to four-year universities. The third theme, "belongingness" discusses the campus climate and the impact of support services on

the academic and social experiences of international community college students.

Recommendations

Community colleges need to provide international students with necessary resources to serve their special needs; provide faculty with the proper professional developments to help them in the internationalization of the curriculum and the implementation of new pedagogical ways of teaching and learning that endorse the inclusion of international students; create social platforms where international students can connect with their domestic counterparts and other community members.

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Let's Talk about Mental Illness and Study Abroad

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"…[T]his life-changing experience is also challenging and a lot of work" (Lucas, 2009).

Introduction

Over 20% of people between the ages of 18 and 24 are struggling with a mental illness of some kind, according to the National Institute of Mental Health (2015). For students between these ages, studying abroad can seem too stressful to try and tackle on top of everyday school work. How can professionals in the field of international education create positive study abroad opportunities for these students who may feel that the experience is not meant for them? Additionally, how should scholar-practitioners approach a topic that is still stigmatized on many campuses, and sensitive to many students?

According to Karen Leggett, a leading scholar and freelance writer on international education, "planning and preparation must include students from the moment they first begin contemplating an overseas adventure" (2011, p. 11). International education practitioners must work with students to discover their specific needs for a study abroad program, and let students know that having a mental illness is not equal to an inability to go abroad. I was diagnosed with anxiety and depression when I was seven years old and have lived with both ever since, and I still had an incredibly fulfilling experience abroad that has led me to my current studies. Because of this, I am interested in studying how practitioners can help more students with anxiety and depression get abroad. I am also interested in researching further support methods that practitioners can begin to offer students with these problems.

What are the Challenges?

One of the biggest challenges that international education faces regarding students with mental illness studying abroad is lack of research. There is very little discussion in the field on how studying abroad impacts students with mental health concerns, and even less research on the subject. This makes it difficult to provide recommendations to professionals in the field.

Similarly, many offices and programs have a lack of resources. Study abroad offices are often small, which means there isn't enough funding or staff to spend a sufficient amount of time finding solutions for mentally ill participants. A limited staff can only focus on so much, and one student's concerns about mental health may not be put to the top of the list when every staff member, and the budget, is stretched thin. Depending on the university's values, the international office may only have enough money in their budget to pay program providers and faculty members, with maybe some set aside for marketing materials and events. Hiring a new staff member, or even delegating an existing staff member to spend more of their time researching ways to better assist students with mental health, may be out of the question when that person is needed elsewhere.

Additionally, students rarely disclose all mental health information before leaving for their program. Amber Bathke and Ryoka Kim (2016) found that over 50% of students with mental illness that participated in their survey did not disclose any mental health issue to their office or program. The professionals that work with these students can only help guide the students to the right program if they have all necessary information. Unfortunately, for legal reasons, study abroad providers cannot require students to report their mental health issue. The laws and stigma that surround mental health are another obstacle study abroad offices must face.

So, What Can I Do?

Because of my experience as a student with mental illness who is now entering the field of international education, I have a unique opportunity to understand the problems and find solutions first-hand. I'm also in a unique position because of my age; undergraduate students preparing to study abroad are only a few years younger than me, and I can relate to them in many ways. Because of these things, I would ideally like to interview a random pool of students preparing to study abroad. I would ask if they have ever experienced depression or anxiety, and considering the data on how many college students do, expect roughly 20% to say yes. However, because this is a sensitive subject and students don't always disclose this information, I would settle for a survey.

While Bathke and Kim (2016) did survey students in their study, mine would be different because it would not be about how a student's mental illness affected his or her time abroad—it would be about what students who have mental illness and have not studied abroad, and furthermore, deem it too stressful or daunting, want out of study abroad offices and providers to help them undergo the process.

What Else Can Be Done?

Speaking from personal experience, it is important for any students with mental health concerns to speak with their study abroad office or provider about mental health before planning their experience abroad. However, for the sake of my argument, I'm going to specify what would be most helpful for students suffering from depression and anxiety, as these are very common diagnoses with which I have first-hand experience.

As seen in the literature, study abroad programs typically have "limited prescreening"; meaning, programs accept students with little to no knowledge about their mental health (McCabe, 2005). Disclosing this information makes it possible for the professionals to gauge whether a student is a good fit for the program they are choosing; for example, major depression is a serious thing to take into account when planning an academic year exchange. Though no professional in the field wants to turn a student away from a program, it can sometimes be in the best interest of the student.

As a student in this situation, I was able to attend my preferred program—however, my Study Abroad Advisor did recommend a shorter program due to my mental health. I was then able to consider her recommendation and make a well-rounded decision about which program I would prefer, and what I was able to handle. When students do not disclose this information, however, there are obvious obstacles around helping them plan the right program. Practitioners cannot give adequate advice without the necessary information, so students must feel that their mental health problems will be confidential between them and the study abroad professional with whom they meet.

In order to know what recommendations to give to students in this situation, professionals need some sort of professional training or certification to assess a student's mental health. It can be a simple online course; one example is the Massive Open Online Course, or MOOC, in Integrative Mental Health. Though this course is not specific to international education, study abroad professionals need a basic understanding of mental health before assessing whether a student is fit for a program abroad. They should also be able to recognize warning signs in a student's behavior that may signify mental illness. Though binge drinking, excessive sleeping, and overwhelming stress are things many college students experience, together they are a sign of depression. It is important for study abroad offices to recognize these symptoms. At the very least, if a student is attending therapy at home, they should need a recommendation from their therapist before studying abroad.

It is also important to note that sometimes, studying abroad *improves* a student's mental health, as Bathke and Ryoka (2016) learned through their analysis of students' mental health abroad. In these cases, international educators need to focus on providing a smooth re-entry transition when the student returns home, to ensure their mental state remains positive.

Overall, studying abroad is a beneficial experience for any student. However, there are challenges, both on the side of the student, and the professional, that may hinder their ability to participate. The question I will

leave you with is—what can professionals in the field of international higher education do to alleviate the stigma of mental illness and get everyone in the field thinking about solutions?

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Putting the Pen in Their Hands: Using Indigenous Knowledge and Perspective to Re-Map Global Education and Strengthen International Service Learning

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Introduction

Universities in the global north increasingly send students on International Service Learning (ISL) programs designed to contribute to communities abroad and facilitate student learning (Baker-Boosamra 2006). ISL literature urges programs be co-created by communities and academia to advance the common good, but in practice community partners are often afterthoughts (d'Arlach, Shanchez and Feuer 2009). Marginalizing community partners in ISL is especially problematic when working with Indigenous Peoples who embrace their ethnic and cultural ties to pre-colonial societies and who have been marginalized for centuries throughout the global south (United Nations 2009). We find many ISL programs unwittingly perpetuate the marginalization of Indigenous Peoples and exhibit paternalistic attitudes during community engagement (Frost-Arnold 2015). These patterns reinforce structures of inequality, rather than develop social-change agents, and privilege universities over the communities they supposedly serve (Bortolin 2011). As Debra Chapman (2016) noted, ISL research must examine how global education governance and practices can enhance social justice, not perpetuate inequalities.

In 1979, Robert Sigmon's article "Service-learning: Three Principles" laid out guidelines for cultivating "good" service learning relationships which are still reflected in current ISL writing (Stanton, Giles and Cruz 1999). His principles are 1) those being served have control, 2) those served become better able to serve themselves, and 3) those serving are learners who shape their own outcomes (Sigmon 1979). Nearly 40 years later, we find only the third principle pertaining mostly to western academia is applied consistently in ISL programs. While many studies (Tonkin and Quiroga 2004; Kiely 2006; Sandman, Kiely, and Grenier 2009; Crabtree 2013) focus on ISL's effect on faculty and students, partners and beneficiaries of ISL programs are often mentioned fleetingly, if at all. Community partners are rarely consulted on project goals (Baker-Boosamra 2006) and receive little focus during impact assessment (Dorado and Giles 2004). When research does incorporate marginalized communities, researchers often simply extract data and learning to publish results in academic journals; depriving communities the right to manage information about their own lives (Jordan, Gust, and Scheman 2005). This pattern of extraction and marginalization is so pervasive that long-time international educator Nadinne Cruz left the field entirely rather than perpetuate the cycle (Bargerstock and Bloomgarden 2016).

We must challenge existing paradigms and use increased south/north collaborations as a space for Indigenous Peoples to contribute to their own sustainable development programming, hearing their voices, and facilitating their active involvement (Crabtree 2013). In order to translate Sigmon's theoretical principles into action, this study advances knowledge and strategies about the role of Indigenous Peoples in ISL and discusses ways to design and implement ISL programs towards more respectful, integrated learning opportunities by exploring the following question: What effect does the inclusion of community voices in the design, implementation and assessment of ISL have on the development, facilitation, and impact of these programs? Raising many implication questions to be addressed, including:

- How can we include Indigenous Peoples voices/ideas/needs in every aspect of

programs/research from design to execution, impact and assessment?

- How do/can ISL programs incorporate Sigmon's three principles?
- What prevents ISL programs from incorporating community involvement?
- How do we overcome these barriers?

This mixed-method research begins with a qualitative analysis of comparative literature on ISL, emphasizing Ibero-America theories and practices highlighting service done in partnerships/solidarity with community members (Batlle 2010; Tapia 2010; Aramburuzabala 2013). Additionally, quantitative data will be incorporated from the evaluation of ten years of action research and reciprocal ISL programs the author has conducted in conjunction with communities in Peru. Finally, this research will conduct a case study of an ISL program being co-designed by an American university and a Peruvian community-development organization.

In addition to a paper, the authors will produce best practices and implementation guidelines for universities on including Indigenous Peoples voices in program development as advocated by Fisher's (1985) narrative paradigm, among others. It is imperative that we move from words to action and choose proper participatory methodologies dignifying host communities, allowing them to identify the objectives, indicators and timelines for engagement. Including Indigenous knowledge leads to mutual understanding and benefit by promoting students and faculty as scholar-practitioners who participate in the lives of local partners, meaningfully contribute to development initiatives, and highlight how people of all backgrounds can practice true "reciprocal learning" (Sigmon 1979).

Diverse voices lead to collaboration that is more authentic, speaks to alternative narratives, challenges our ideas, and makes us think about new solutions. This study advances theory and practice, aiding scholar-practitioners to find solutions to problems of inequality and marginalization in ISL and highlights how diverse groups can strengthen each other's' work across the entire cycle of ISL programs.

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