AN EXAMINATION OF LEGAL ISSUES CONCERNING INTERNATIONAL

AND IMMIGRANT STUDENTS IN THE U.S.

by

BETÜL TARHAN

(Under the Direction of John Dayton)

ABSTRACT

International students contribute to America's scientific and technical research, bring international perspectives into U.S. classrooms, help prepare American undergraduates for global careers, and lead to longer-term business relationships. They have a considerable impact on the country's economy. In 2015, international students contributed $30.5 billion to the U.S. economy and supported 373,000 jobs. However, although the international students keep flowing into the country in steadily growing numbers, the rate of increase is much below the ratio of worldwide growth of international students, which means that international students choose to pursue higher education in other countries, as numerous competitors have emerged to seize a larger slice of the growing global marketplace of students.

The present dissertation first sets the framework of the study. In the second step, it reviews the historical, social and administrative context of international mobile students and international student enrollment trends in U.S. colleges and universities, and analyzes the

inbound mobility patterns over the three periods of years based on the data from OECD UIS and

IIE Open Doors statistics. Having thus set a picture of the inbound mobility pattern, the study

then reviews the laws and policies and political, social, and economic movements affecting the

enrollment of the U.S. inbound international students—The Patriot Act, Homeland Security Act,

Arab Spring, the 9/11, Eurozone Crisis, Brexit vote and other factors—in the third step. The

fourth step is where the study tries to analyze the context and the factors and group them under

legal issues, students' expectations and motivations, and factors affecting application. The

dissertation concludes, in the fifth step, reviewing and presenting some recommendations.

INDEX WORDS: International students, U.S. inbound international tertiary students,
                Mobility patterns, Visa policies, Factors affecting the mobility
                patterns

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2016

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my son, Joshua Tarhan Alkan, to my parents, Dilek Tarhan and Mustafa Emir Tarhan, to my nephew, Emir Ali Huban, and to my guru Dr. Aybars Erozden. Their endless support and their unshakable confidence in me have always served as a source of strength. I am so blessed that I have known them!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Prof. Dr. John Dayton, my major professor. His expertise and encouragement helped me from the beginning of the doctoral program and to the completion of this dissertation. To him I am forever indebted, for I have learnt from him not only what education law is but how infinite goodness can be in a person's soul.

I would like to express my gratitude to the other committee members of mine, Prof. Dr. Elizabeth DeBray and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sheneka Williams for their time, assistance and continuous support.

I owe a debt of thanks to all the beautiful EDAP faculty for allowing me the wonderful opportunity of enjoying top quality doctoral education. I hope I have not wasted their time, understanding and confidence in me.

And, being an international student myself, preparing now to return to my home country, it would be ingratitude if I missed my last chance of thanking the United States of America and all the people I have met here for the experience that I shall always remember on the other side of the world.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Introduction

Richard Dremuk was asking, in 1966, if the United States should keep admitting foreign students (Dremuk, 2012). Anticipating that these applications "continue to come and will increase in number—perhaps beyond our present expectations", Dremuk emphasized the importance of enrolling foreign students and proposed that each college and university "undertake a self-evaluation of its resources in order to determine if and how it can educate foreign students" (p. 6).

In 1966, when Dremuk was asking if the United States should keep admitting foreign students, there were over 82,000 international students in the United States[1]. In 2015, there were 974,926[2].

As an outbound Turkey international student myself in the United States of America and having gone through all the standard procedures for non-immigrants, the issue of international students has been a point of interest in my mind, which, in time, became a topic, and, by the encouragement of my professors, led me to the writing of the present dissertation.

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[1] Institute of International Education (2015)
[2] Institute of International Education (2016b)

The Importance of International Students

Professor Dremuk was stating some academic concerns as the reasons for admitting international students. One of them was that all colleges and universities had "a basic obligation and responsibility to communicate among scholars throughout the worldwide academic community". Besides, the students from abroad would give to the American youth the opportunity "to study and assimilate with individuals with whom they may, someday, have to deal". In addition, foreign students would provide the opportunity for an institution to serve "our national interests by sharing its resources with less privileged countries" (Dremuk, 2012).

Another aspect of the international students is in a field related to what Professor Richard Florida names as "creative class" (Florida, 2002). Their importance lies not only in intellectual development but in their ability to create new ideas, technology, and forms to design new products, write new software, and start new businesses. This new social class is comprised of scientists, engineers, architects, novelists and poets, musicians, entertainers, actors, editors, think-tank researchers, opinion-makers, as well as the professionals in business and finance, law, health care, and related fields. The "creative class" is the leading power in the intellectual and economic development of a nation (Florida, 2002). Due to globalization, the creative class people are not only the people native to a country, but the foreign nationals coming from other countries as well. Traven (2006, p.5) argues that the most economically successful nations will be those that are able to acquire the most talented people from around the world; and, hence, the importance of foreign national students. The U.S. has been able to attract the most talented people from around the world to its academic institutions. To give a few examples, at the New Jersey Institute of Technology, 80% of the doctoral degrees were awarded to international students in 1999. At

Rockefeller University in New York City, that number was 61% in the same year (Open Doors, 2006).

The importance of international students can also be viewed, however, from a different aspect: the revenue through tuition expenses and fees. Foreign students usually pay the full amount of their tuition because they are not eligible to receive the certain types of financial aid available to U.S. citizens. Just as an example, although the international students formed 3.4% of total enrollment in 2000, they paid about 8% of the tuition and fees (Traven, 2006, p.3). International education can thus be considered a commercial issue and one of America's largest service-industry exports. International students contributed over $9 billion to the U.S. economy in 2005-2006 in the form of tuition and fees (p. 4). Tuition and fees should not be seen as the only source of revenue. International students naturally keep living in the country and spend money on their daily life expenses. Moreover, a certain number of them have their dependents and families. It was calculated that foreign students and their dependents contributed over $13 billion to the U.S. economy in 2005 (Traven, 2006, p.3). Citing the year 2010 figures of Institute of International Education (IIE), Mamiseishvili (2011, p.2) states that international students contributed almost $20 billion to the U.S. economy in 2009–2010, in which there were 690,923 international students enrolled in the U.S. higher education institutions (p. 1), China being the leading place of origin in the United States with 127,628 students in that academic year (Ozturgut, 2012, p.2). According to IIE figures for the year 2012, the U.S. economy benefited from $22.7 billion dollars in both tuition and living expenses attributed to foreign nationals who study in the USA (Redding, 2013, p.9).

On the economic impact of international students, the Institute of International Education's (IIE) *Open Doors* report (IIE, 2016a) states:

In 2015, the continued growth in international students coming to the U.S. for higher education had a significant positive economic impact on the United States. International students contributed more than $30.5 billion to the U.S. economy, according to the U.S. Department of Commerce.

According to the report, "72 percent of all international students receive the majority of their funds from sources outside of the United States, including personal and family sources as well as assistance from their home country governments or universities." The primary source of funding for international students in the U.S. is personal and family sources with the percentage of 64. Foreign government or university sources comprise 8% of their funds (IIE, 2016b). Only about one fifth of the international students find funds from U.S. colleges and universities (IIE, 2016b). The remaining four fifths, totaling $ 30.8 billion, are paid by the students and contributed to the country's economy in the sector of higher education (IIE, 2016b).

The *Open Doors* report (IIE, 2016a) enumerates the contribution of the students from around the world who study in the United States to the country as contributing to America's scientific and technical research, bringing international perspectives into U.S. classrooms, helping prepare American undergraduates for global careers, and leading to longer-term business relationships and economic benefits.

The Association of International Educators report states that the contribution of international students to the U.S. economy reached $ 30.5 billion and that those students supported more than 373,000 jobs during the 2014-2015 academic year (NAFSA, 2016a). The report states that "the economic contributions of international students are in addition to the immeasurable academic and cultural value these students bring to our campuses and local

communities." In line with the increasing number of international students who study in the U.S., their economic impact increases every year as shown in Figure 1:
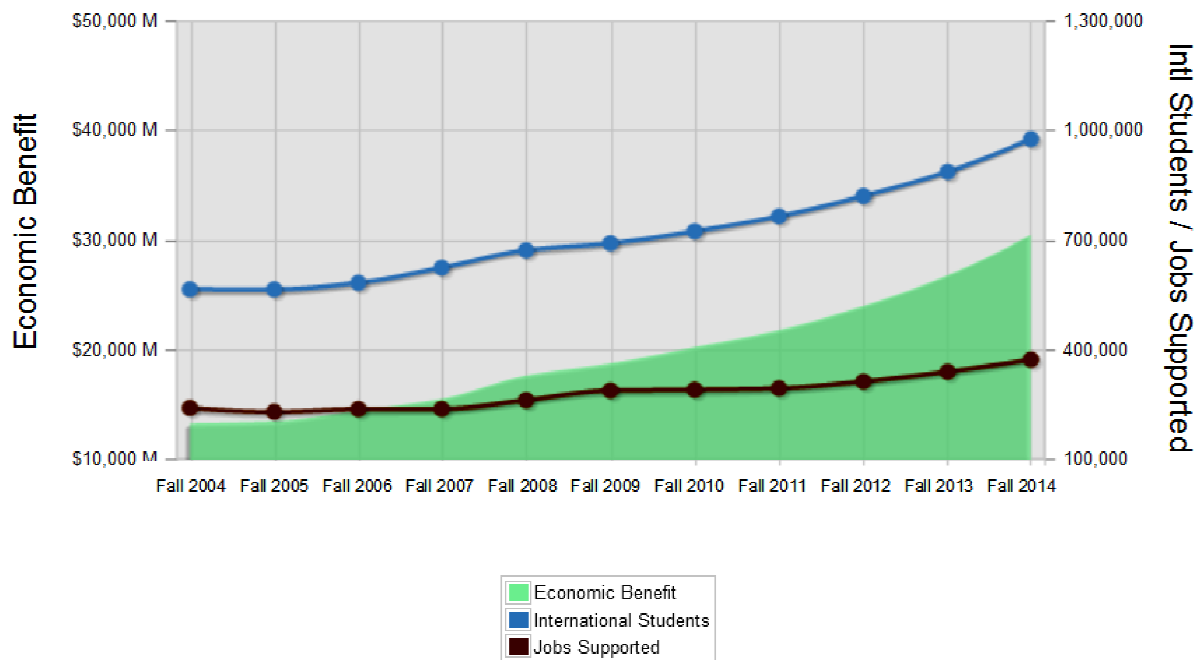
Note: The total dollar value depends on many factors, meaning that enrollment, jobs, and economic contribution

Figure 1. Economic benefit of international students to U.S. economy 2004 – 2014 (Source: NAFSA, 2016a).

The NAFSA report (NAFSA, 2016a) also provides the number of direct and indirect jobs created or supported as a result of the economic benefit of international students in the United States during the 2014 – 2015 academic year. In that academic year, there were 135,425 direct jobs and, in addition to that, 237,956 indirect jobs, totaling 373,381 jobs.

The report further gives the percentage of the United States direct jobs created as a result of spending in various industry sectors. The chart in Figure 2 displays the percentage of direct jobs within the total, created by the benefit of international students on various industries.
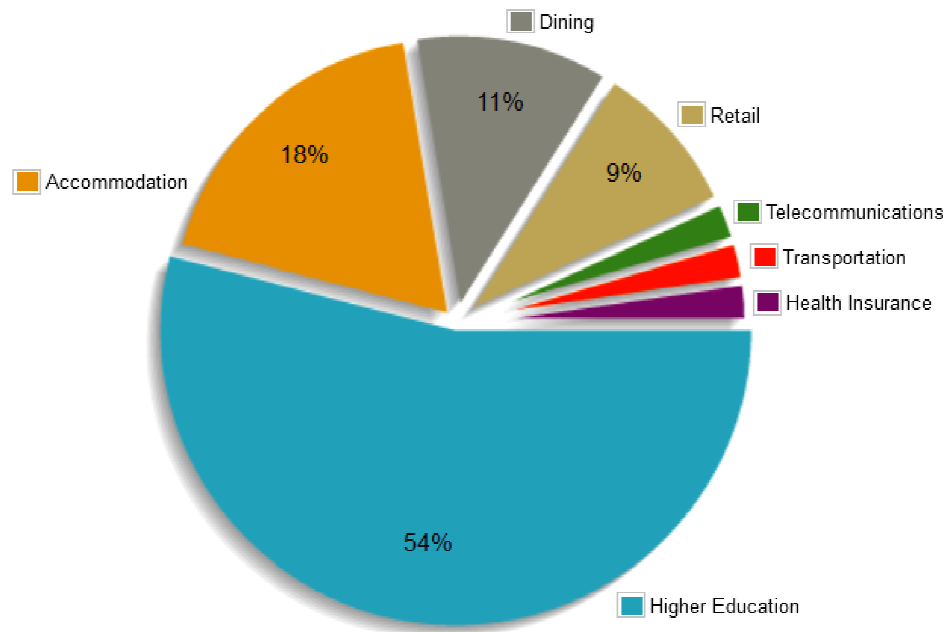
Figure 2. Percentage of the United States Direct Jobs Created as a Result of Spending in

Various Industry Sectors (Source: NAFSA, 2016a).

According to the NAFSA report, 54% of the direct jobs created/supported are directly

created by spending within the Higher Education sector (NAFSA, 2016a). The second group of

direct jobs is in the accommodation sector with a percentage of 18, followed by dining and retail

sectors with the percentage values of 11 and 9, respectively. Apparently, when there are more

people, there will be need for more personnel and persons to take care of them and their work.

More buildings will be built, more agencies will be established, more products will be

manufactured, and more services will be put into practice.

Why do International Students Consider Academic Studies in American Universities?

The results of the research carried out by Ozturgut (2012) may provide some better understanding on how international students view educational opportunities in American institutions of higher education. Although his research was conducted on Chinese students, the responses are noteworthy and can explain the reasons why international students seek opportunities to enjoy education in the U.S. Their specific descriptions may be generalizable. The researcher asked the students to describe their experiences "if they were to wake up one day to find themselves in the United States as U.S. citizens" (p. 2). In response, the students described the perceived educational environment of American universities (in their mind) as "freedom", "high efficiency", "much better", "nice teachers", "more personal", "more interesting", "more activities", "independent", and "free" (p. 5).

Although the share of the United States in the "global international student market" had decreased from 28% in 2001 to 20% in 2009, American institutions of higher education still remain as the leading destination for students from around the world (Mamiseishvili, 2011, p.1). Lewis' (2012) survey on 61 university admissions officers from the U.K., 20 from the U.S., and 31 from 14 E.U. nations also shows a significant level of preference of international students for American universities. He asked the university admissions officers to state "which country they thought would be the most popular destination for their home students applying to university abroad" (Lewis, 2012, p.36). The survey results[3] yield that the most popular destination, in the university admissions officers' mind, for British students who may choose to study in another country is the U.S. with a percentage of 49, followed by Holland, Germany, and Australia with 38%, 25%, and 18%, respectively (p. 38). The most popular destinations for European students

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[3] The researcher notes that the majority of admissions officers each mentioned two countries as possible destinations; hence, the total percentage is more than 100 (Lewis, 2012:37).

who may choose to study in another country were the U.K., the U.S., and Germany with the percentages of 74, 61, and 29, respectively. In return, the most popular destinations for American students who may choose to study elsewhere were the U.K., Canada, and Australia with the percentages of 80, 55, and 50, respectively (p. 37).

Whatever the reason, it is observed that each and every year, hundreds of thousands of international and immigrant students apply for undergraduate and graduate programs to seek the quality and environment of academic thought and learning that they would not enjoy in their home countries.

International Students' Enrollment in American Universities

Diachronically, foreign student enrollment showed a steady increase from 1970's, as anticipated by Dremuk (1966). After "certainly, yes!" to answer his question, "Will we be admitting foreign students in 1975?", his "real" question was "How many?" (Dremuk, 2012, p.5). In academic year 1944-45 there were 7,000 foreign students; in 1950-51, 30,000; in 1955-56, 36,500; in 1960-61 58,000; and in 1965-66, 82,000. He states, "Because of this sharp increase we are now thinking of 120,000 by the end of [1960's]" (Dremuk, 2012, p.5). In 1979, approximately 2.4% of the total nationwide enrollment was international students (Traven, 2006, p.3). In 1980's, the total enrollment increased at a ratio of 35%. A decade later, in mid-1990's, the total foreign student enrollment was nearly 3.1% of the total enrollment. In the second half of 1990's, their numbers formed 4.3% of the nationwide enrollment. At the beginning of the new millennium, there were about 600,000 foreign students enrolled in U.S. higher education institutions, forming 4.6% of the total nationwide enrollment (Traven, 2006, p.3).

Despite the overall tendency to increase, The Council of Graduate Schools reported that the number of international student applications for 2004 dropped by 32% (Traven, 2006, p.9). The students from the nations where the U.S. had traditionally experienced the highest numbers of applicants were choosing not to apply. Chinese and Indian applications, for instance, dropped by 76% and 58%, respectively. Consequently, the revenue collected by other resources also declined. The number of the international students who applied to take the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) dropped by 33%, as reported by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) (Traven, 2006, p.9). In a world of global competition for the world's most intelligent people, the number of foreign students attending colleges in nations other than the U.S. increased in Australia, the U.K., Ireland, New Zealand and Canada as well as Germany (Traven, 2006, pp.9-10).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine current laws concerning international and immigrant students, and to evaluate how these laws affect attracting and enrolling international and immigrant students in U.S. institutions of higher education.

Research Questions

This study will investigate the following research questions:

1. What historical events and circumstances have significantly influenced laws and policies governing the enrollment of international students in U.S. institutions of higher education?

2. What contemporary political, economic, and/or social movements may be influencing laws and policies governing the enrollment of international students into U.S. institutions of higher education?

3. How have changes in visa requirements impacted the admission of international and immigrant students to U.S. institutions of higher education?

4. What are the likely principal consequences, intended and unintended, of these laws and policies for U.S. institutions of higher education and the U.S. more generally?

Procedures

This study will approach the topic from a legal scholarship perspective and utilize legal research methods. Research is most broadly an attempt to discover knowledge through systematic and rigorous means, and different research methods are employed for different purposes. As Dayton (2013, p. 6) stated: "The purposes of legal research are to understand and improve the law." While many aspects differentiate legal research from research conducted in other social disciplines, especially regarding data collection methods, the most distinctive differentiator is that legal scholars attempt to identify and analyze significant legal issues emerging from constitutions, statutes, regulations, judicial decisions, and established institutional policies. As Dayton (2013, p. 6) stated:

Based on verifiable facts and legal authorities legal research presents relevant evidence; findings based on the evidence; conclusions logically deduced from the findings; and when warranted by the strength of the evidence, findings, conclusions, and needs in the

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field of practice, the researcher may make policy recommendations based on the research conclusions. Each element of legal research builds on and relies on the prior elements.

Elements of Legal Research

This study employs the methods and conventions of legal research and utilizes relevant constitutions, statutes, regulations, judicial opinions, institutional policies, and legal scholarship. As Dayton (2013, p. 6) further stated:

> Legal research may draw on a variety of research tools, sometimes including quantitative or qualitative methodologies, but more commonly relying on unique frameworks of legal analysis (*e.g.*, analyses rooted in classical and modern legal and philosophical frameworks, for example, natural law; utilitarianism; pragmatism; libertarianism; positivism; realism; critical legal studies; etc.); case law interpretation; statutory interpretation; constitutional theory; legal history; and methods adapted from the fields of logic and economics.
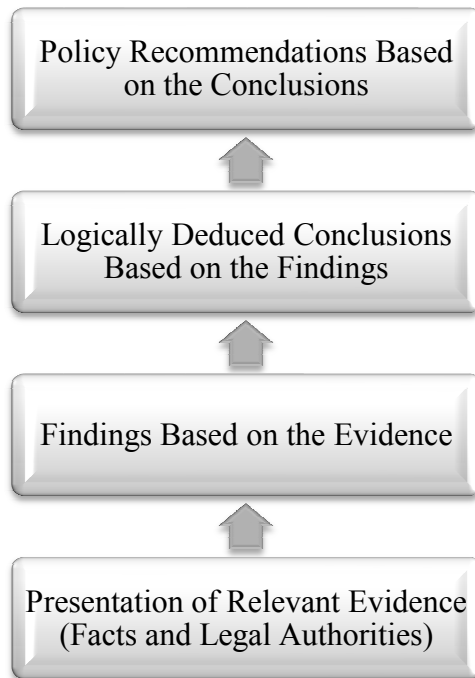
Figure 3.   Elements of legal research. Dayton (2013). © Dayton.

Methodological Tools in Legal Research

Legal research essentially involves a meta-analysis of the relevant evidence and legal authorities comprised of three key tasks:

1) A search for relevant evidence (*e.g.*, documents);

2) An analysis of the relevant evidence; and

3) A synthesis of research findings into a current composite picture of the law.

Figure 4.   Methodological tools in legal research. Dayton (2013). © Dayton.

Legal Research: A Reductive Process

Specifically, the resources employed in this study are: (i) Relevant state statutes and regulations related to international and immigrant students; (ii) Legislative artifacts related to changes in homeland security policy; (iii) Federal policies necessitating alterations to visa policies and procedures for international and immigrant students; and (iv) Other legal documents and research relevant to changes in visa policies and procedures for international and immigrant students.
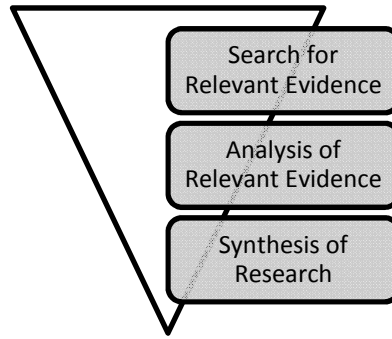
Figure 5.   Legal research: A reductive process. Dayton (2013). © Dayton.

These resources will be analyzed, organized, and then reassembled to create a coherent

framework, providing an orderly and cohesive categorization of legislative changes and an

accurate current composite perspective on laws and policies governing the enrollment of

international students in U.S. institutions of higher education.

Significance of the Study

It is hoped that this research will both clarify the law in this area, and result in

recommendations for law and policy improvements that may be useful for university

administrators and law and policy makers in the U.S.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL, SOCIAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE CONTEXT

Introduction

Through the eyes of a student in developed countries, the United States has been a country of rich opportunities of research, scholarly studies, and rich libraries with its universities and colleges. Through the eyes of a student in developing and underdeveloped countries the United States is, in addition, the country of democracy, human rights, and freedom. With these characteristics, the United States of America has been a dream land of utmost possibilities and opportunities of education for all the undergraduate and graduate students elsewhere in the world. They put every effort to enjoy the best education that anyone can ever have at an American higher education institution. This is what they can never have in their own countries, and, with the rich resources they can find at an American university will equip them with all the knowledge and skills to actualize their talents which will otherwise be wasted under the modest conditions of their home countries.

American colleges and universities pride themselves on their status as leading institutions of research, teaching, and diversity of ideological exchange (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 9). According to a 2009 study, more than one-third of the world's top 100 universities are located in the United States. In many American colleges and universities, internationally recognized scholars conduct research, teach a variety of subjects, and promote international student programs that contribute

to the institutions' revenue, the diversity of ideological exchange on campus, and the development of the world's intellectual talent (p. 9).

Within the stated context, the present chapter provides factual information mainly derived from the *UIS Data Center* of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Institute for Statistics and from the *Open Doors* data of the Institute of International Education. International student enrollment trends in U.S. colleges and universities will be briefly mentioned and inbound mobility trends of international students for the U.S., U.K., Australia, Germany, France, China, Japan, Canada, New Zealand, Ireland, Korea (Republic of), and South Africa will be analyzed with reference to relevant literature and the statistical data. Inbound international students in the U.S. universities will take another separate section. Their mobility patterns can be studied in three periods: 1949/50 – 1989/90, 1994/95 – 2004/05, and 2005/06 – 2014/15. Tables and charts will be given to base the analysis. The section will end with a brief roundup on the U.S. inbound international students in 2014/15.

International Student Enrollment Trends in U.S. Colleges and Universities

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) statistics, in 2004, 2,455,250 students studied in a country other than their own. For the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), more than 2.7 million students were enrolled in higher education outside their country of citizenship in 2005 (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 1). UNESCO statistics also reveal that more than 90% of international

students enroll in institutions in thirty-four OECD countries[4], among which the five destinations, namely, the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, attract more than 70% of them. Such major source countries as China and India provide a large number of enrollments for those English-language destinations (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 1).

Making reference to the reports of IDP Education Pty Ltd, an Australian international recruitment organization, Verbik & Lasanowski (2007) state that the demand for higher education is expected to triple between 2000 and 2025 to reach a total of 7.2 million potential students, India and China being the main source countries and accounting for 50% of the global demand for international higher education in 2025 (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 1).

Inbound Internationally Mobile Students

Verbik & Lasanowski analyze the inbound mobility trends of international students in their lengthy report (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007) based on the data they derived from UNESCO statistics. Their analysis also includes some comments, obviously highly influenced by published UNESCO reports on education, for the reasons of the changes in mobility patterns. However, their analysis starts from year 1997 and cover a period until 2006, naturally, because of the year of their publication. To see the progress of mobility trends toward destination countries (inbound) after 2006, the same source of UNESCO statistics was used (UIS, 2016). The statistical data were selected by means of UIS' web-based interface[5]. In Verbik & Lasanowski (2007), the countries taken for analysis were U.S., U.K., Australia, Germany, France, China, Japan, Canada, and New

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[4] Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, , France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States. Retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/about/membersand partners/
[5] http://data.uis.unesco.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EDULIT_DS&popupcustomise=true&lang=en

Zealand due to their prominence in attracting international students. However, for the present paper, three more countries, Ireland, Korea (Republic of), and South Africa were added for the analysis. Ireland and South Africa were added because of the stated reason (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 10) that the medium of instruction is a determinant in the selection of the destination countries by international students, and that the European countries on the Continent start to open more tertiary programs offered in English. South Korea was added to the list because of its growing importance in the 'market' of international students (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 14). The period of years was chosen as the range between 1998 and 2014. 2014 had to be the last year in the analysis, because no data were available for the years 2015 and 2016. The latest year with complete data was, however, 2013, while the year 2014, though the latest, did not contain any data for Canada, Japan, South Korea, South Africa and Ireland.

The number of the international students that the countries in the research data base receive (inbound internationally mobile students) and their distribution to the years in the research range are given in Table 1 along with their visual representation in Figure 6.

According to the UIS data, the U.S. admitted 842,384 international students in 2014, followed by the U.K. with 428,724 students, almost as half the number of students for the U.S. Australia was the third ranking country in the list with 266,048 international students, about 60% and 30% as fewer as the U.K. and the U.S., respectively. France was in fourth place with 235,123 inbound international students, which was 27% as fewer as the U.S., while Germany took fifth place with 210,542 students, 24% as fewer as the U.S. China was in sixth place to recruit inbound international students with a value of 108,217. However, please bear in mind the fact that the UIS statistics for the year 2014 did not include any data for Canada, Japan, South Korea, South Africa and Ireland.

The other data base used for the present research is the U.S. Institute of International Education's *Open Doors* data. The Institute of International Education (IIE) was founded in 1919, and has conducted an annual census of international students in the U.S. Their report, which provides data on student flows into and out of the U.S., has been known as the *Open Doors Report* since 1954, and their work has been supported by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the U.S. Department of State since 1972.[6]

The UNESCO's *UIS* data do not exactly overlap with the U.S. Institute of International Education's *Open Doors* data. For the year 2014, while the UIS yields 842,384 international students, the Open Doors reports 886,052[7]. The difference between the two data bases to a degree of only 0.05 is insignificant and can be ignored because it does not change either the size or the ranking order.

According to the UIS data, the top five countries among the ones in the survey group do not seem to change in 2013 and 2012. In alphabetical order, they are Australia, France, Germany, U.K. and U.S. While U.S. and U.K. are the first two, Australia and France interchangeably take third place in 2013 and 2012, respectively. Germany is in fifth place. The UIS data also show that the U.S. is the first (and unrivaled) country recruiting international students.

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[6] http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/Infographics#.V2rlSxL8k4F
[7] http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/International-Students/All-Places-of-Origin/2012-14

Table 1

Total Inbound Internationally Mobile Students

Country	Year							
	1998	**1999**	**2000**	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**
Australia	109437	117485	105764	120987	179619	188160	166954	177034
Canada	28116	32466	36450	42711	49572	59067	65001	69126
China	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
France	†	130952	137085	147402	165437	221567	237587	236518
Germany	†	178195	187033	199132	219039	240619	260314	259797
Ireland	6904	7183	7413	8207	9206	10201	12698	12887
Japan	55751	56552	59691	63637	74892	86505	117903	125917
New Zealand	5912	6900	8210	11069	17732	26359	41422	40774
Rep.of Korea	2538	2869	3373	3850	4956	7843	10778	15497
South Africa	15494	34770	45377	39752	46687	49979	51012	50129
U.K.	209554	232540	222936	225722	227273	255233	300056	318399
U.S.	430786	451935	475169	475168	582996	586316	572509	590158
Total:	864492	1251847	1288501	1337637	1577409	1731849	1836234	1896236
Average:	96055	113804	117136	121603	143401	157441	166930	172385

(continued)

Country	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Australia	184710	211526	230635	257637	271231	262597	249588	249868	266048
Canada	68520	92881	93479	95590	106284	120960	†	151244	†
China	36386	42138	51038	61211	71673	79638	88979	96409	108217
France	247510	246612	243436	249143	259935	268212	271399	228639	235123
Germany	207994	206875	189347	197895	200862	207771	206986	196619	210542
Ireland	12740	16758	12794	12937	13489	21018	11100	12861	†
Japan	130124	125877	126568	131599	141599	151461	150617	135803	†
New Zealand	†	33047	31565	38351	37878	40854	40995	41352	48891
Rep.of Korea	22260	31943	40322	50030	59194	62675	59472	55536	†
South Africa	53738	59237	63964	60856	66119	70428	†	42351	†
U.K.	330078	351470	341791	368968	389958	419946	427686	416693	428724
U.S.	584719	595874	624474	660581	684807	709565	740482	784427	842384
Total:	1878779	2014238	2049413	2184798	2303029	2415125	2247304	2411802,8	2139930
Average:	170798	167853	170784	182067	191919	201260	224730	200984	305704

† Data not available for the indicated year.

21
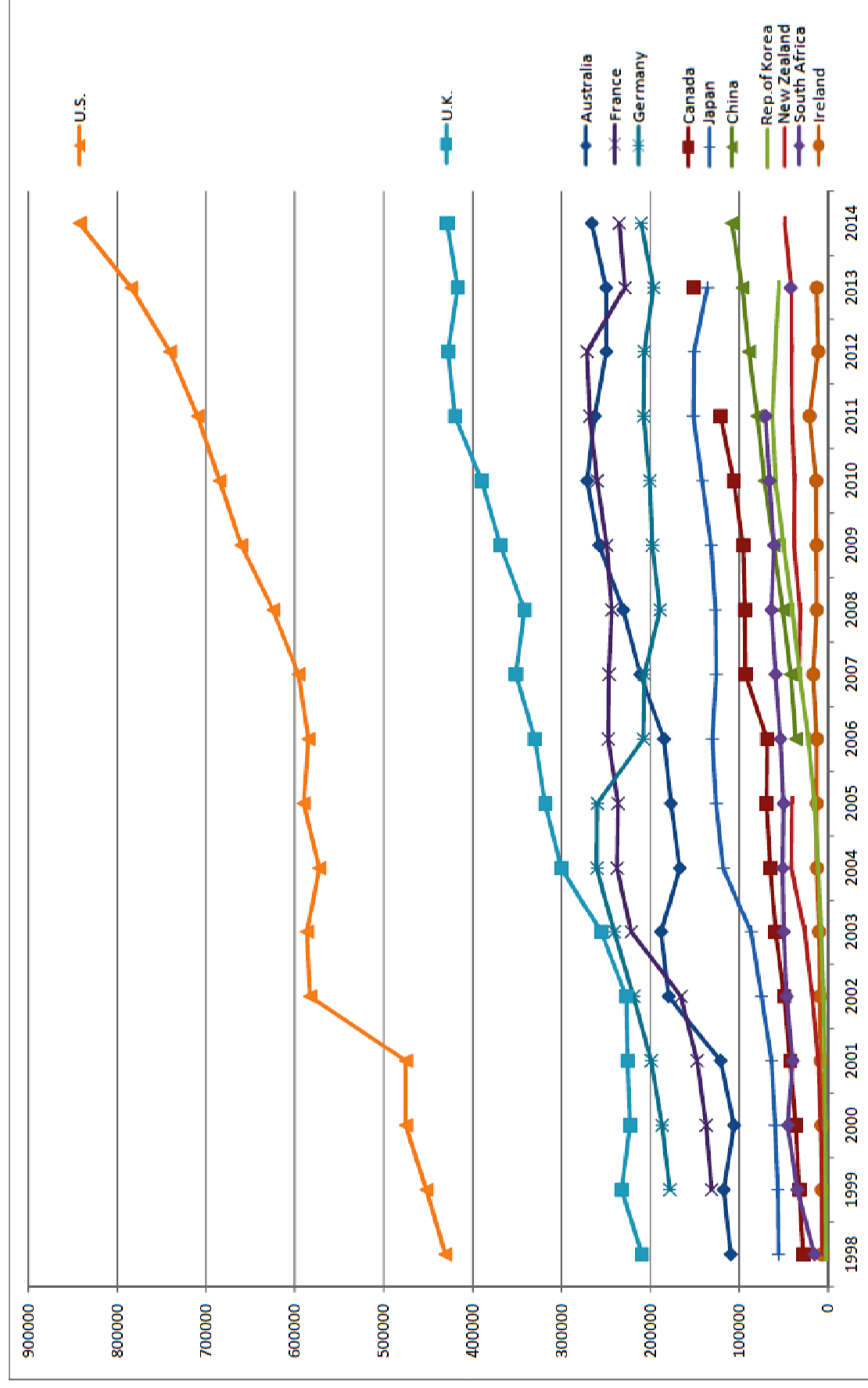
Figure 6. Total inbound internationally mobile students in the survey group of countries.

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The United States of America, despite some fluctuations, apparently attracts a vast majority of the internationally mobile students in an ever-increasing fashion. The trend, as the Figure 6 shows, is on an increasing scale. Is this a general tendency for the countries in the survey group or does it hold true for the U.S. only?

When the data are evaluated as a whole, it can be seen that every year there are increasing numbers of internationally mobile students to the countries in the survey group. Figure 7 is a graphic visualization of this fact. To compose the data for the graph in Figure 7, mean values of the internationally mobile inbound students over the years 1998 – 2014 were taken into consideration instead of the totals of each year. This was because of the fact that for some years, some UIS data were missing for some countries. If the total figures had been taken into consideration, there would have been some false sharp drops due to the blocks of figures omitted for some countries.

Figure 7 clearly shows without any doubt that despite some declines in the years 2004, 2011 and 2012, the overall trend is an increase. When there were 96,055 internationally inbound students to the countries in the survey group, their numbers reach a total of 305,704 in 2014. These figures show that there were about three times as many students in 2014 as there were in 1998. Their numbers seem have tripled over a decade and a half. Even though the figures for the year 2015 are not presently available in UIS data base, it could be assumed that the upward trend should continue in 2015 as well.
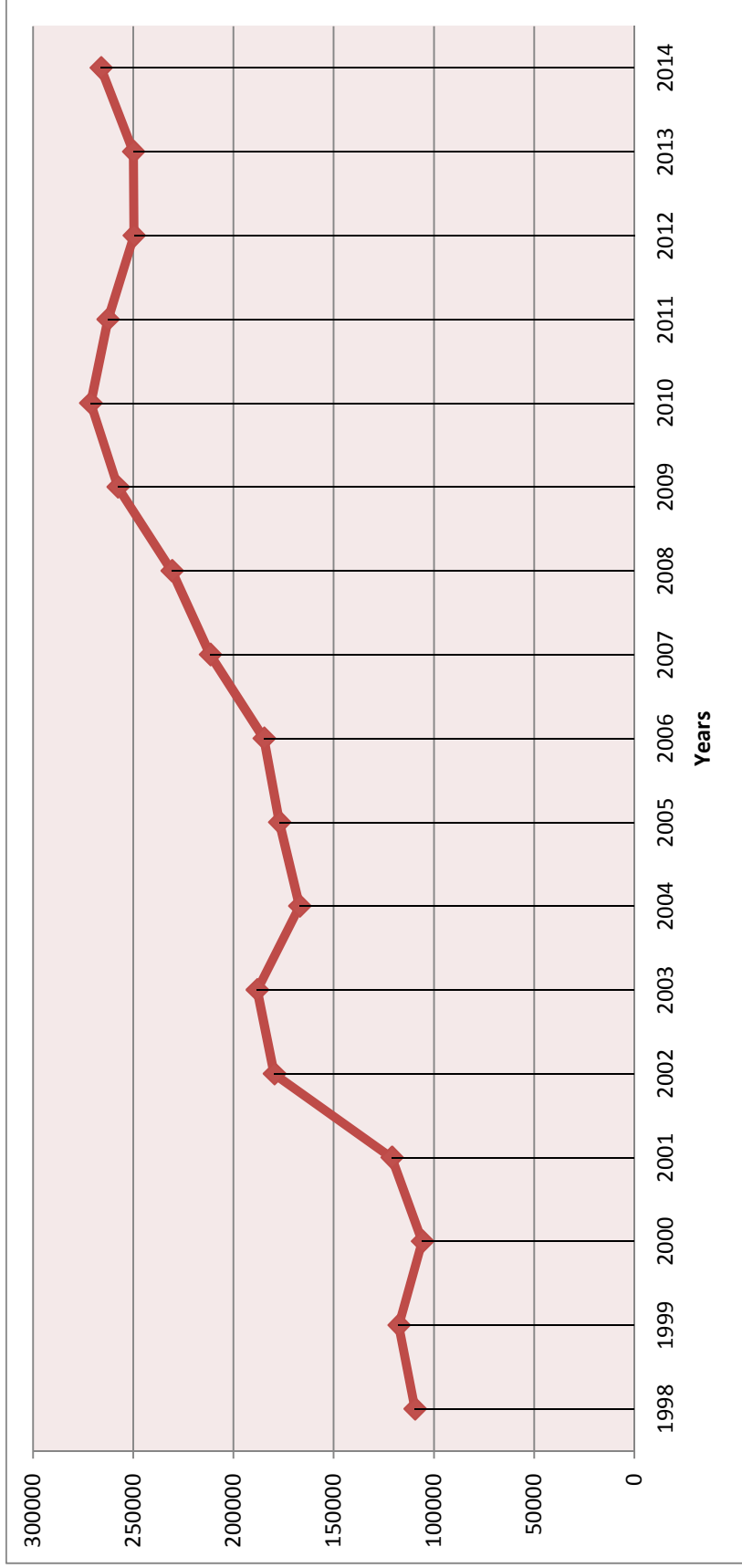
Figure 7. Average number of inbound international students in the survey group of countries.

Verbik & Lasanowski (2007) report was anticipating a possible decline in the number of international students that the major destination countries recruit, and the authors were stating that international student demand might not continue to focus on what had been the main destinations in the past, because "the U.S., the U.K. and Australia [had] all experienced either a decline in enrolments or a 'slump' in the growth experienced in previous years". For them, many European as well as some Asian and Middle Eastern countries were entering the marketing efforts, and those new destinations could attract as many as several hundred thousand international students (p. 2).

Verbik & Lasanowski report was published in 2007, and their analysis could (naturally) cover only the years up to 2007, the latest year in their analysis being 2006. Table 1 and Figure 6 show that the number of U.S. inbound international students jumps from 475,168 in 2001 to 582,996 in 2002; but, after 2002, the numbers seem to remain around an average figure with 586,316, 572,509, 590,158, and 584,719 students for the years 2003, 2004, 2005, and 2006, respectively. The U.K., on the other hand, kept a steadily increasing trend in the number of students with 225,722, 227,273, 255,233, 300,056, 318,399, and 330,078 international students within the same period for the years 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, and 2006, respectively. Verbik and Lasanowski were justifiably making the comment that the future may not be the same for the major destination countries, especially the U.S., and they might lose those students.

However, we are now in a position to see how the number of the international students did actually develop after Verbik and Lasanowski made their anticipation. The official UNESCO statistics used for the purpose of the present paper reveal that the numbers of U.S. inbound international students take an upward trend and steadily increase with 595,874, 624,474, 660,581,

684,807, 709,565, and 740,482 students for the years 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012, respectively.

Any study like Verbik and Lasanowski's or the present paper will have to rely on the statistical data provided by national and international institutions. Working with figures with six digits will also mean that the statistical data may not exactly be the same, as the institutions providing these figures use quite similar but not identical criteria to form their data sheets. The present paper used the same institution's (UNESCO) statistics to continue from where Verbik and Lasanowski left in 2007. Even in this situation, however, it is rather annoying to see that the figures do not match. As for an example, the number of U.S. inbound international students is reported to be "close to 565,000" for the year 2006 in Verbik & Lasanowski (2007, p. 4). However, the figure for the year 2006 was found to be 584,719 as the result of the inquiry made for the present paper in the same UNESCO statistics. This must be due to the revision of the statistical data by the provider institution.

The authors, addressing the same concern, state that the data presented in such reports as UNESCO's do not necessarily provide information any more accurate than that released by national education agencies, because such organizations rely on individual countries to voluntarily provide them with data concerning 'international students', and "countries still differ in the criteria used to report student mobility (if they report it all)" (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 3).

Defining "International Students"

Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) argue that the terminology used in one country often has little or no equivalent in another, and for this reason, countries report enrolment statistics in different capacities as they relate to their own national contexts.

Australia, for instance, defines "international students" as those "studying onshore only with visa subclasses 570 to 575, excluding students on Australian-funded scholarships or sponsorships or students undertaking study whilst in possession of other temporary visas", also excluding students with New Zealand citizenship because they do not require a visa to study in Australia.

For Canada, "foreign students" are the "temporary residents who have been approved by an immigration officer to study in Canada", while the students of the courses of six months or less "do not need a study permit if they finish the course within the period of stay authorized upon entry".

In France, the data for "foreign students" include those students who are "long-term or permanent residents without French citizenship in France and overseas territories such as Guadeloupe, Reunion and Martinique".

Germany defines "foreign students" as "mobile foreign students", who travel to Germany specifically for study, and "non-mobile foreign students", who are in possession of German secondary school qualifications and who are likely to have German residency status.

For New Zealand, "international students" are foreign nationals who "travel to New Zealand for the purpose of education, and/or are currently studying on a student permit or

domestic passport", thus excluding the students who are permanent residents as well as the students with Australian citizenship.

In the United Kingdom, "international students" are defined as "students who are not U.K. domiciled, and whose normal residence is either in countries which were European Union members as of 1 December of the reporting period or whose normal residence prior to commencing their programs of study was outside the E.U.", thus excluding students who are permanent residents without British citizenship.

And, in the United States, "foreign students" are "the students who are enrolled at institutions of higher education in the U.S., who are not citizens of the U.S., immigrants or refugees", including the holders of F (student) visas, H (temporary worker/trainee) visas, J (temporary educational exchange-visitor) visas and M (vocational training) visas, and excluding the students who have long-term or permanent residency (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 36).

To address the existing discrepancies, UNESCO introduces the concept of "internationally mobile students"—the individuals who leave their country or territory of origin and travel to another for the purpose of studying there (p. 3).

International Students in the U.S. Universities

The U.S. is the top ranking country to attract international students. To analyze the number of students from the world countries, a classification was made. The countries were grouped into eight major locations: Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America, Middle East, North America, Oceania, and stateless, in alphabetical order. Each geographical location contains the following countries:

Africa: Burundi, Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Reunion, Rwanda, Seychelles, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola, Cameroon, Chad, Republic of the Congo, Dem. , Democratic Rep. of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Sao Tome and Principe, Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Côte d'Ivoire/Ivory Coast, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, St. Helena, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo.

Asia: People's Republic of China, Hong Kong, Japan, Macau, Mongolia, North Korea, South Korea, Taiwan, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Brunei, Cambodia, East Timor, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar/Burma, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam.

Europe: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Kosovo, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Macedonia, Malta, Moldova, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, San Marino, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, USSR, Vatican City/Holy See, Yugoslavia.

Latin America: Caribbean, Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, Montserrat, Netherlands Antilles, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos, Caribbean,

Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Falkland Islands, French Guiana, Guyana, Paraguay, Peru, Suriname, Uruguay, Venezuela.

Middle East: Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestinian Territories, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, United Arab Emirates, Yemen.

North America: Bermuda, Canada.

Oceania: Australia, Cook Islands, Fiji, French Polynesia, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Nauru, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Niue, Norfolk Island, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Wallis and Futuna, Pacific Islands.

The data to analyze the number of international students that those countries *send* to the U.S. were derived from the Institute of International Education's Open Doors statistics (IIE, 2015). To see the progress of the outbound trend (*i.e.*, how the numbers of the students that the countries in the eight groups described above send to the U.S. have changed over the years), a vast range of a period of years between 1949 and 2012 was selected. The total number of the international students in the U.S. universities can be seen in Table 2 along with its visual representation in Figure 8. According to the Open Doors data, the U.S. seems to maintain an upward trend through the years despite some drops in some certain years.

Table 2

International students in the U.S. universities: World total

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
26433	34232	48486	82045	134959	154580	286340	342110	386850	452635	514723	547867	582996

(continued)

2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
586323	572509	565039	564766	582984	623805	671616	690923	723249	764495	819644	886052	974926
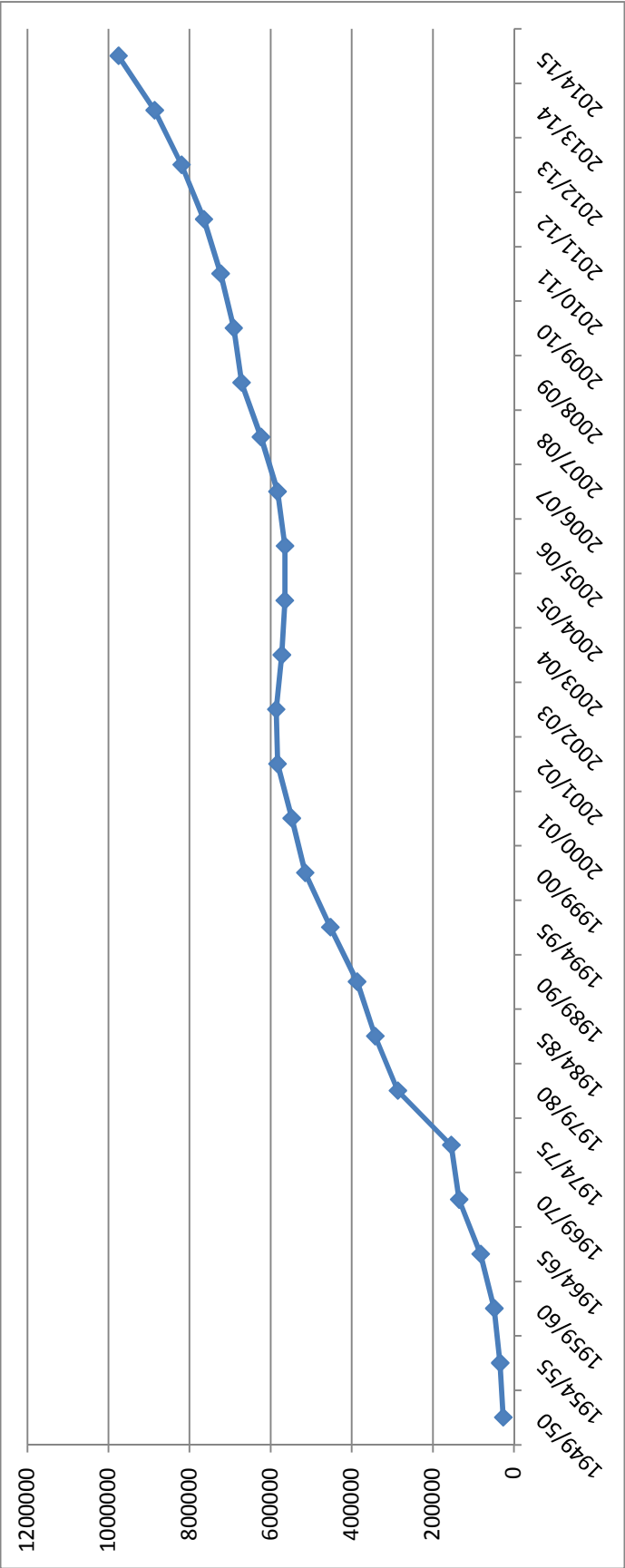
Figure 8. International students in the U.S. universities: World total

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U.S. Inbound International Students: Data and Evaluation for Three Periods

In this section of the paper, the data derived from Open Doors statistics on U.S. inbound international students are presented as grouped for three periods of time. The distribution of the students coming to the U.S. from the eight geographical locations is given in Tables 3, 4, and 5 along with their visual representations in Figures 9, 10, and 11.

Tables 3, 4, and 5 (also Figures 9, 10, and 11) show the numbers of those students for the sub-ranges of years 1949 – 1989, 1994 – 2004, and 2005 – 2012, respectively. The reason why the data were further grouped into three sub-ranges of years is two of the dramatic changes in the world (and U.S.) history: the Gulf War, and 9/11 terrorist attacks, the last sub-range being due to the re-classification of the two countries, Cyprus and Turkey, from the Middle East category to the Europe category as of 2005-2006 academic year.

Early Years: 1949/50 – 1989/90

Table 3 shows, in five-year intervals, the number of international students coming to the U.S. between 1949/50 and 1989/90 academic years.

Table 3

Place of origin of the U.S. inbound international students (1949 – 1989)

Place of Origin	Year								
	1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90
Africa	901	1234	1959	6855	7607	18400	36180	39520	24570
Asia	6806	10175	17808	30640	51035	58460	81730	143680	208110
Europe	6105	5648	7290	11323	20022	15361	25200	38190	51190
Latin America	6044	8446	9428	13657	24991	26271	42280	48560	48090
Middle East	1724	3636	5579	8762	11761	22290	81070	51740	32180
North America	4362	4714	5761	9338	13415	8630	15570	15960	18590
Stateless	195	42	93	205	341	134	170	270	110
Oceania	198	337	568	1265	2077	2650	4140	4190	4010

While, in the mid-20th century, all the regions send students to the U.S. in relatively similar numbers making it difficult to detect any trending pattern or prominent region, one region seems to separate itself from the rest a decade later, in 1959/60. While, in 1949/50, Asia sent 6,806 students to the U.S., it sent 17,808 students in 1959/60 with an increase ratio of 216.65%. Although when compared with a massive 525,849 students in 2012/13, those 17,808 students might sound really "few", Asia was the region to send the most students to the U.S. even fifty-five years ago; and it has been so ever since in an ever-increasing manner. Asia was followed by Latin America in second place and the other regions in descending order were Europe, North America, Middle East, Africa, and Oceania with the student numbers of 9,428, 7,290, 5,761, 5,579, 1,959, and 568, respectively.

Table 3 data also yield another result when the increase ratios instead of figures are taken into account. Although Asia was sending the most students in 1959/60, it was in third place in the order of increase ratio. The first and second places were held by Middle East and Oceania with the percentages of 323.6 and 286.8, respectively. Asia's percentage of 261.65 in third place was followed by Africa, Latin America, and North America with the percentage values of 217.42, 155.98, and 132.07, respectively. Europe held the last place in the order of increase ratio with 119.41%.

One other decade later, in 1979/80, the first place in descending order of the number of students they sent to the U.S. was held, again, by Asia with 81,730 students, closely followed by 81,070 of the Middle East. In fact, the difference between the two figures is so small (0.8%) that it is statistically ignorable. Third place of Latin America with 42,280 students was followed by

36,180, 25,200, 15,570, and 4,140 students of Africa, Europe, North America, and Oceania, respectively.

As for the increase percentages, the table yields a different set of results. While, in the number of students, Asia was the top-ranking region, it comes in the last place as far as the increase ratios are concerned. The first two places are held by Middle East and Africa with the percentage values of 363.70 (%) and 196.63 (%) respectively. The third place of North America with 180.41% is followed by Europe, Latin America, and Oceania with the values of 164.05%, 160.93%, and 156.22%.

That was the mobility pattern of the international students at the end of the third quarter of the 20th century: Asia with its largest population of the world was sending most of the students to the American colleges and universities, while Middle East appeared as the actor of the play who had the greatest rate of increase to send those students, and Africa was the actor who played the role of the second promising character.

The upward trend in the increase of the number of the students coming from the Middle Eastern countries into the U.S. is so significant that in 1979-1980 academic year their number caught that of Asia, which is the top ranking region to send international students to the U.S.
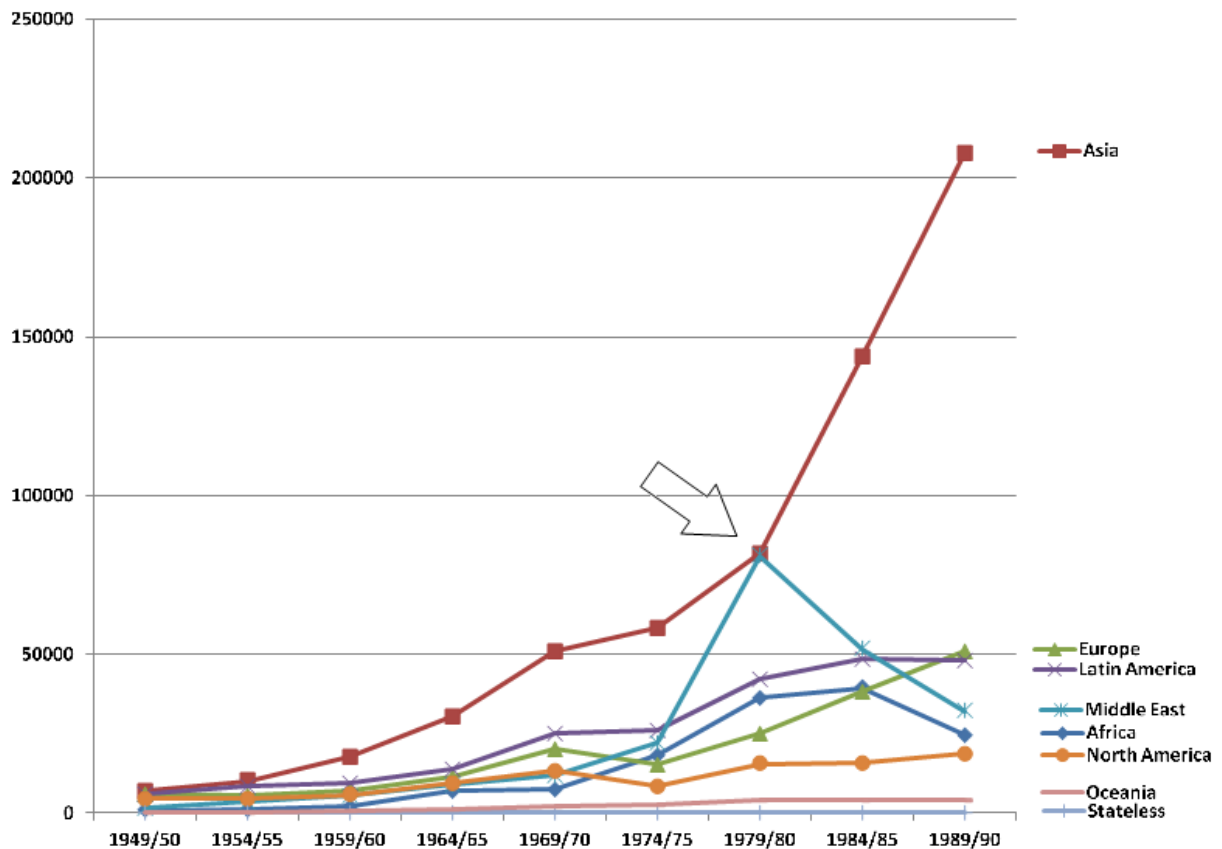
Figure 9. Place of origin of the U.S. inbound international students (1949 – 1989)

The trend, however, suddenly (even traumatically) drops afterwards, also indicated with an arrow in Figure 9, due to the understandable reason of the Gulf War crisis. The Gulf War seems to play a major role not only in the international relations but in the mobility patterns of international students as well. That cut-off point is caused (and followed) by such strong reasons that the Middle East figures take a steady downward trend, which seems to improve only after 2009-2010 academic year.

A similar pattern comparable to that of Middle East is Africa. Despite its second place in the increase percentage in 1979/80, it loses its place afterwards. In 1984/85, Asia establishes its position and maintains it throughout as the top-ranking region to send the most students to the

U.S. with great increase ratios. Asia's first place with 175.79% in the percentage values is followed by Europe, Latin America, Africa, North America, Oceania, and, finally, Middle East with the percentage values of 151.54, 114.85, 109.23, 102.50, 101.20, and 63.82, respectively. The percentage value of 63.82 (for Middle East in 1984/85) should read as that Middle East sent students to U.S. to the proportion of 63.82 percent when compared with 1979/80 reference point, *i.e.* almost half as few.

A comment, though highly tentative and quite arguable, could be made for this "breaking point" (indicated by the arrow in Figure 9) by taking, again, the Gulf War crisis as one of the major reasons. Although U.S. foreign policy has not been biased upon ethnic or religious differences, and definitely upon no differences whatsoever, the reflections on various aspects of social life and administrative procedures could be so. Although Islamic countries and regions have never been officially recognized as enemies, the officers, officials and administrators at various levels may have more carefully checked and double-checked the documents of the non-immigrant, temporary visitors from those countries. Middle East and Africa with their major Islamic populations may have been affected within this international context. And, a kind reminder: Cyprus and Turkey were included in Middle East region in Open Doors data for the sub-range of years 1949 – 1989.

On the whole, the first sub-range of years 1949 – 1989 is a period of "rise and growth" of international students coming to the U.S. colleges and universities. While, in 1949/50, there were 26,433 U.S. inbound international students in total, their numbers reach 386,850 in 1989/90, within forty years. The rate of increase is 1,463.51%. To put it in other words, the number of the students were about fourteen hundred times as many.

Middle Period: 1994/95 – 2004/05

Table 4 and Figure 10 show the numbers of those students for the second sub-range of years, 1994 – 2004. The table continues from the previous table, 3, in a five-year interval. The first two slices in the data show the numbers in five-year intervals; the rest on a yearly basis. Upon a first glance at the figures and their graphic representation, this second sub-range can be characterized as "stagnation". Despite some dramatic falls and rises in between the two reference points of 1994/95 and 2004/05, the overall numbers center around some average values. While, in 1994/95, there were 435,186 U.S. inbound international students, their numbers reach 563,308 in 2004/05. The rate of change is 129.44%. To put it in other words, the number of the students were only 1.29 times as many. Please note that the rate was 1,463.51% for the previous period.

Table 4

Place of origin of the U.S. inbound international students (1994 – 2004)

Place of Origin	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Africa	20724	30296	34217	37724	40193	38150	36100
Asia	261789	280149	189371	324812	332298	324006	325112
Europe	73489	90661	80584	81579	78001	74134	71609
Latin America	47239	62097	63634	68358	68950	69658	66087
Middle East	21568	22725	36858	38545	34803	31852	31248
North America	23394	24128	25888	27039	27227	27650	28634
Stateless	105	7	10	87	33	19	37
Oceania	4327	4677	4624	4852	4811	4534	4481
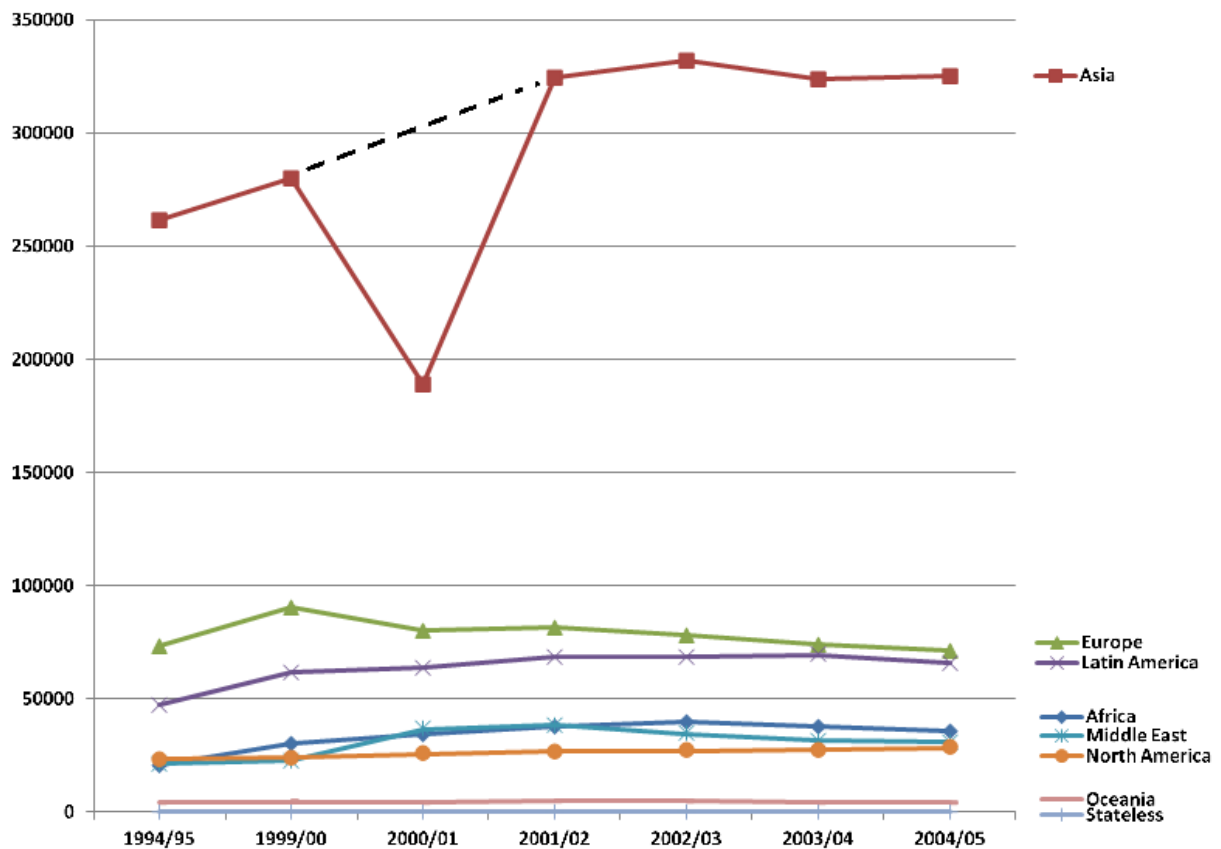
Figure 10. Place of origin of the U.S. inbound international students (1994 – 2004)

Asia is still the largest sender of international students to U.S. colleges and universities; and Europe's position in second place seems to be well-maintained. The numbers continue to increase (from the previous sub-range) between 1994/95 and 1999/00. The 2000/01 reference point forms the second breaking point due to the obvious reason of the international consequences of the 9/11 tragedy of terrorist attacks. The cause of the sharp drop can be accounted for by the tightened U.S. visa policies and procedures brought by the *USA PATRIOT Act* of 2001.

The international students from Asia seem to be mostly affected by the new regulations. While there were 280,149 students coming from Asia in 1999/00, their numbers drop down to 189,371 in 2000/01. Second place was held by Europe with 80,584 students in 2000/01, followed

by Latin America, Middle East, Africa, and North America with 63,634, 36,858, 34,217, and 25,888 students, respectively. If the dramatic drop in the number of students from Asia is due to the new regulations brought after the 9/11 attacks, the students from that region seem to have adapted themselves to them and got themselves perfectly familiar with the new procedures, as the sharp drop is immediately followed by an even sharper rise for the next year, 2001/02. While the number of students was 189,371 for 2000/01, it jumps up to 324,812 the following year, 2001/02, with a rate of change of 171.52%. If one excluded the data for the year 2000/01, the transition from 1999/00 to 2001/02 would not imply any such drop in between, also indicated by the dotted line in Figure 10.

A further analysis on the data provided by Open Doors for the year 2000/01 from the aspect of the rate of change yields some different results. The total number of the students between 1999/00 and 2000/01 obviously drops. However, this does not seem to be due to a global drop, but due to the drops in two major providers of such students for the U.S.; namely, Asia and Europe. The rates of change for Asia and Europe were 67.59% and 88.88%, respectively. In other words, Asia sent almost half, and Europe sent almost one fifth as few students. However, the case for Middle East, Africa, North America, and Latin America seem to be the opposite with their rates of change of 162.19%, 112.94%, 107.29%, and 102.47%, respectively. To put it in different terms, the number of students that Middle East sent to the U.S. in 2000/01 increased as half as the previous year.

And, this is despite the consequences of the 9/11 attacks?

To answer this question on a reliable and valid basis, one needs to view not the annual total of the students, but their distribution to months. It is probable that the number of the students from Middle East dropped after September 2001, which cannot be seen when the data are viewed

on the yearly basis. Data to support this hypothesis could be derived from the same table again. The numbers of students from Middle East (a category which still included Cyprus and Turkey in Open Doors statistics then) for the years 2001/02, 2002/03, 2003/04, and 2004/05 apparently follow a downward trend with the figures of 38,545, 34,803, 31,852, and 31,248, respectively.

Later Years: 2005/06 – 2014/15

The *Open Doors* made some changes in the categorization of the countries into world regions. As of 2005, Cyprus and Turkey, which had previously been classified in the Middle East category, were included in Europe. Beginning with 2013, the Africa region was changed to a reduced Sub-Saharan Africa, and the remaining North Africa was grouped with the Middle East to create a Middle East & North Africa region. In addition, Bermuda, which was one of the two members of the North America group with Canada, was moved from North America to the Caribbean, leaving Canada as the only source of the statistical data for the North America region. And, hence, some numbers are now subtracted from one region and added to another, with no effect on the world totals, though.

For the present analysis, this seemed likely to be some concern, because the analysis had been carried out with those countries in their previous groups, and the regional data were coherent in the groups and valid for the groups. To avoid sudden and false drops and jumps in the figures of the regions, the re-arrangement was not employed in the tables and graphs. Individual sets of data for the countries were drawn from their new groups and added to their previous groups. Therefore, the countries were kept in their previously organized regions so that the development as shown in a linear format would be valid.

Table 5 and Figure 11 show the numbers of U.S. inbound international students for the third (and, the latest) sub-range of years, 2005 – 2012. The table continues from the previous table, 4, and shows the data on a yearly basis. This third sub-range can be characterized as "revival and stability", while Asia and Middle East keep surprising us.

Table 5

Place of origin of the U.S. inbound international students (2005 – 2015)

Place of Origin	Academic Year									
	2005/ 06	2006/ 07	2007/ 08	2008/ 09	2009/ 10	2010/ 11	2011/ 12	2012/ 13	2013/ 14	2014/ 15
Africa	36308	35802	35654	36937	37062	36890	30046	30585	37359	40285
Asia	327785	344495	380465	415000	435667	461790	489970	525849	568510	627306
Europe	84697	82731	83981	87648	85084	84296	85423	85823	86885	90625
Latin America	64769	64579	64473	67731	65362	64169	64410	66864	71930	85991
Middle East	17806	22321	24755	29140	33797	42543	62120	77049	86372	96615
North America	28699	28756	29472	30107	28574	27941	26821	27357	28692	27627
Stateless	†	†	†	0	16	10	8	13	12	6
Oceania	4702	4300	5005	5053	5091	5610	5697	6104	6292	6471

† Data not available for the indicated year.

"Stability" holds true for most of the regions. Europe starts this period with 84,697 students and ends with 90,625; the rate of change being 107%. Since a rate of 100.00% indicates no change ("the same as the previous period"), the percentage of 107 should read as that the number of students increased only to a rate of 1.07, which can be statistically ignorable. Latin America is also another "stable" region in this respect. It starts with 64,769 students and ends with 85,991, the rate being 132.76%. North America could also be considered "stable", despite a slight fall, with the entry value of 28,699 and exit value of 27,627. The rate of change is 96.26%. Since a rate of 100.00% means "the same as the previous period", a value smaller than 100.00 indicates a decrease. The rate of 96.26 should read that the number of students decreased to a percentage of (100.00-96.26=) 3.74 (out of 100), again, statistically ignorable. Africa seems to

have recovered from its declining trend for the last two years, with its entry value of 36,308 and exit value of 40,285; the rate being 110.95%.

Oceania's rising trend may be left unnoticed when its modest four-digit entry/exit values are shaded by the other regions, especially the massive values of Asia. Oceania starts the period with 4,702 students and ends with 6,471. However, its rate of change is 137.62%.
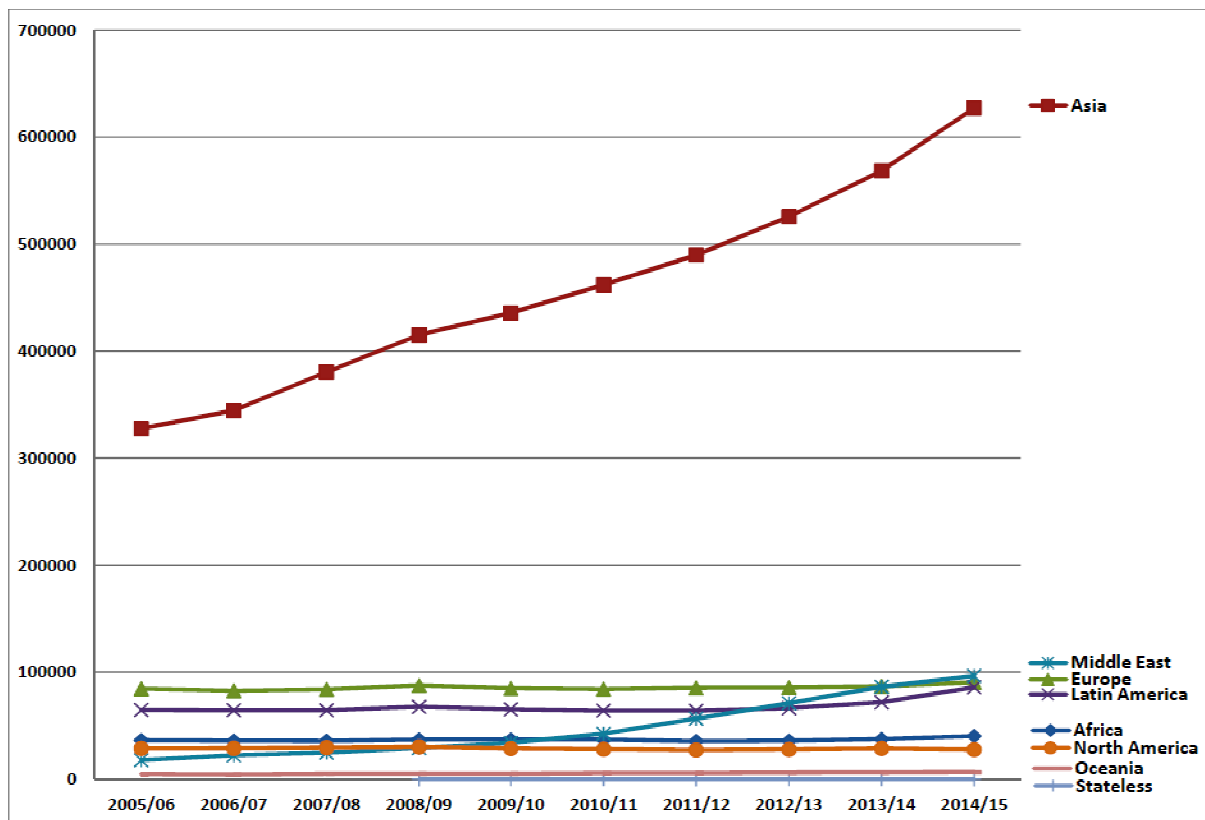
Figure 11. Place of origin of the U.S. inbound international students (2005 – 2015)

The numbers of the Middle East region[8] should be paid due attention. Its entry value is 17,806, and exit value is 96,615. The rate of change here is an enormous 542.59%, which means that the region sent in 2014/15 about five and a half times as many students as it did in 2005/06. The change, however, does not follow a steady line. Although between 2005/06 and 2009/10 it

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[8] Consisting of Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestinian Territories, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen, the later-added North Africa excluded.

seems to be sending roughly the same numbers of students (with still an upward trend, though), it suddenly jumps from 33,797 to 42,543 between 2009/10 and 2010/11. This can be accounted for by relevant changes in international politics, U.S. efforts to compromise for the tightened rules and regulations, and the students from that region getting more and more familiarized with the visa and clearance procedures. The overall rising trend follows a consistent line with the rates of change of 125.87%, 133.19%, 125.6%, 121.36%, 111.85% between the years 2009/10 – 2010, 11, 2010/11 – 2011/12, 2011/12 – 2012/13, 2012/13 – 2013/14 and 2013/14 – 2014/15, respectively.

In 2014/15, Middle East holds second place to send international students to U.S. colleges and universities, with Europe closely following in third place.

U.S. Inbound International Students in 2014/15

Figure 12 shows the percentage values of the U.S. inbound international students as distributed to their regions for the year 2014/15.
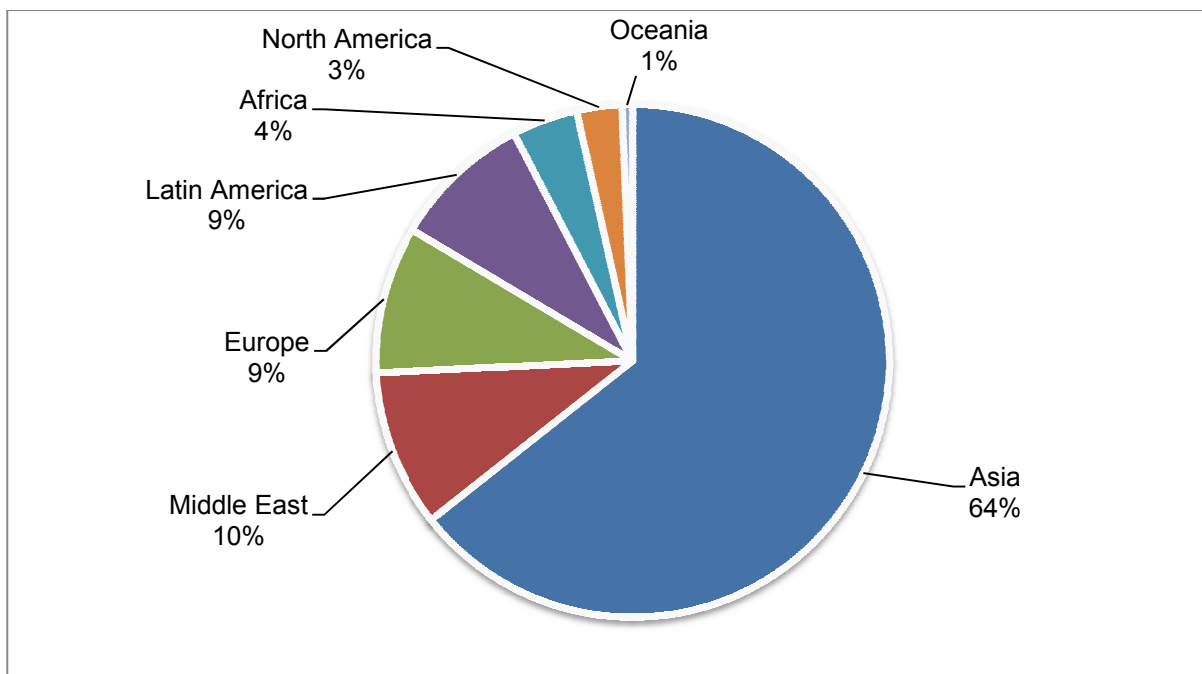
Figure 12. Distribution of U.S. inbound international students to their places of origin in

percentages (2014/15): Synchronic view.

In this synchronic, static dissection image, Asia's "unbeatable" portion can be clearly

seen. Having the largest population of the world, that region can be considered to be sending the

largest number of students for several more years, over a very long time.

However, as done in the data analyses above, when the rate of change is taken as the

viewpoint, the image will change. Figure 13 shows the rates of change in the numbers of U.S.

inbound international students between the reference points of 2005/05 and 2014/15.
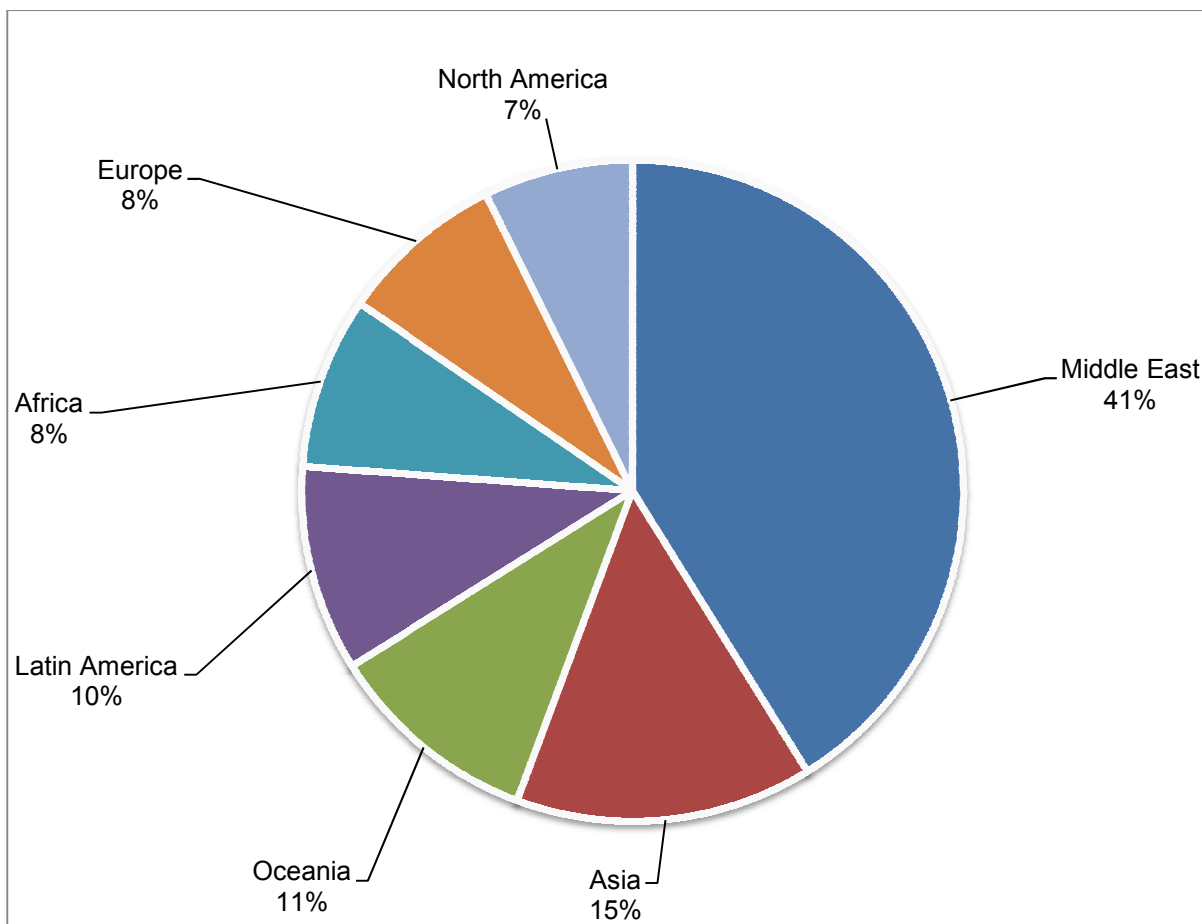
Figure 13. Distribution of the rate of change in U.S. inbound international student numbers to

their places of origin in percentages (2005/06 – 2014/15): Diachronic view.

In this diachronic view, Middle East appears to be the region with the highest rate of

change in the numbers of students sent from a region to U.S. colleges and universities. If the

major determinant factor of international relations and U.S. foreign policies remains stable, one

can confidently expect the numbers of students coming from the Middle Eastern countries to

increase over the upcoming academic years.

CHAPTER 3

FACTORS AFFECTING THE ENROLLMENT OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN THE U.S. UNIVERSITIES

Introduction

On July 10, 2001, the U.S. President Mr. George W. Bush said, in reference to immigration and immigrants, "New arrivals should be greeted not with suspicion and resentment, but with openness and courtesy."

It was only two months before September 11, 2001.

Two months later, September 11th would be the day when "America changed from a nation of immigrants to a nation of suspects" (McKenzie, 2004, p. 1164). Who were those terrorists? How did they manage to cross the border? How did they manage to organize their crime? How could they live in the country and nobody realize their plans? Were the foreigners not tracked? What kind of law and policy failures allowed the terrorists to achieve their evil aims?

The terrorists who took part in the attacks were nonimmigrant higher education students. They had found the opportunity to act freely in the United States once they had entered into the country. The U.S. Government found the system of tracking international (and immigrant) students defective and, hence, the main cause of the terrorists' freely organizing their crimes. Additional precautions and measures were taken. About a month and a half after the September

11th attacks, the 107th U.S. Congress passed the *Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism* (USA PATRIOT) Act of 2001, P.L. 107-56, 115 STAT. 272 (2001) on October 26th. A year later, in 2002, November 25, President George W. Bush signed the *Homeland Security Act*, P.L. 107-296, 116 STAT. 2135 (2002), establishing the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) (p. 13). The U.S. visas issued by the Department of State are under policy guidance which has been the province of the Department of Homeland Security since 2003. At this point, Johnson (2009) makes a distinction between a visa and an individual's admission to the United States. A visa is only a document that permits an individual to apply at a port of entry; whereas, who may enter and how long they may legally remain are determined by DHS (Johnson, 2009, p.6). The determination of admissibility, the provision of immigration services to those legally admitted, and the enforcement of immigration law are the responsibility of three specialized DHS agencies, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS), U.S. Customs and Border Protection (CBP), and U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) (p.11), which have existed in their present form since DHS was created (p.6). Considering DHS to be the necessary locus of U.S. immigration policy, Johnson (2009) emphasizes the necessity of integrating them into a single new department—an action that has not been realized (p.11).

The *Student Exchange and Visitors Information System* (later called SEVIS) was established to fund the digitized system to track international students and visitors in the United States, mandated by the USA Patriot Act. All the schools and programs in the United States hosting international students (and scholars) were required to use SEVIS as of January 30, 2003.

The newly established security policies and procedures did increase the amount of information the government needed about international individuals. However, they seemed to

create a number of problems, among which are a drop in the revenue collected by means of international students, a drop in the number of foreign individuals of the "creative class" of Robert Florida (2002), the threatened image of the U.S.A. as the torch of democracy and human rights, and a drop in the number of international students. Certainly, the legislative power did not aim at creating special barriers to educational pursuits of international students (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 8). But, the new laws and policies have had a diminishing effect on the number of foreign national students, as well as the scholars, researchers and all the individuals of the creative class entering the United States.

Those above are the context of the present chapter. The previous chapter focused on the mobility patterns of international students and their enrollment in the U.S. institutions of higher education. The present chapter will continue from that information and try to summarize the factors that affect the mobility of international students. Those factors can be basically grouped as laws and policies, and political, social, and economic movements.

For the laws and policies, The *Patriot Act*, The *Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act*, The *Homeland Security Act*, and The *REAL ID Act* will be discussed from the point of view of their effects on inbound international students' mobility for the U.S. The same point of view will be held for the second group, and the effects of the political context, international higher education initiatives, social and motivational factors, and economic factors will be discussed in that regard. The Arab Spring, the Terrorist Attacks of September 11, 2001, the Eurozone Crisis, and the British Exit (*Brexit* in short) will be given special attention and separate sections for their effects.

The international higher education initiatives will cover the initiatives of the European

Union, European Higher Education Area, Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation, World Trade

Organization, OECD, and UNESCO, and a brief note will be given on the U.S. interest in higher

education international initiatives. In addition, international students' expectations of a tertiary

education context and situation, motives affecting international students' mobility, global

economic context, and costs associated with higher education will have their own sections.

Laws and Policies Concerning the Enrollment of International Students in the U.S.

Universities

The USA Patriot Act, The Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act, The

Homeland Security Act, the *SEVIS*, and the REAL ID Act are discussed below from this point of

view.

The Patriot Act

The *Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to*

Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism Act of 2001, or in its long title, *An Act to Deter and Punish*

Terrorist Acts in the United States and Around the World, to Enhance Law Enforcement

Investigatory Tools, and for Other Purposes, tried to ensure homeland security by imposing

regulations such as tightening the rules on student visas, implementing stricter penalties and

enforcing them against those who overstay their visas (Traven, 2006, p. 12) in response to the

terrorist events of 9/11. The Patriot Act sought to eliminate barriers that existed between law

enforcement and intelligence communities, such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI),

Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), National Security Agency (NSA), and the Department of Justice (DOJ) (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 2). It is considered to be one of the significant accomplishments of the Patriot Act that it tears down the so-called wall between law enforcement and intelligence concerning the sharing of information (Lungren, 2012, p. 437).

A certain Section of the Patriot Act is especially related to the topic of the discussion, because it directly concerns international students and affects their enrollment: Section 411 regarding entrance visas.

Section 411 and U.S. Visas

Although there are as many as 187 different types of U.S. visa (107 applying to immigrants, 80 to nonimmigrants), seven particular types affect international students, visiting scholars and researchers: F-1[9], F-2[10], F-3[11], M-1[12], M-2[13], H-1B[14], and J-1[15] (Traven, 2006, p. 11). The change in the visa policies drastically changed the dreams and lives of foreign national students. Before the 9/11 attacks, most of the nonimmigrant visas were handled directly by the Immigration and Nationalization Service (INS) and had strict requirements. Student visas, on the other hand, were not usually issued by INS, but by an American consulate located in the foreign student's home country on less strict regulations. The consulate officers typically worked under the strain of time constraints and felt some pressure because when they disapproved an application there was a high possibility of offending the host country.

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[9] For those temporarily and solely for pursuing full-time study, including language training program.
[10] For the spouses and children of F-1's.
[11] For the Canadian and Mexican students near borders and commuting for part-time study including language training program.
[12] To attend a non-academic or vocational school.
[13] For the spouses and children of M-1's.
[14] For the skilled employees as temporary workers of distinguished merit and ability performing services other than as a registered nurse.
[15] The exchange visitor visas for visiting scholars and researchers.

Johnson (2009), however, was writing eight years after the 9/11 attacks that it was "possible to declare partial victory in the effort to rectify this situation" (p.6). He states that although exchange visitor (J) visas recovered fairly quickly, issuance of student (F) visas crashed after 9/11 and did not recover to the 2001 level until 2007. He partly relates the decline in the visa issuance growth curve in 2009 to the global economic downturn. Even though there was a "partial victory", it was necessary to address the remaining problems that "place unnecessary obstacles in the way of those we want to attract, negatively impact their incentives to visit the United States, and inhibit scientific collaboration and innovation—all without any positive impact on U.S. safety or security" (p.7).

Section 411 grants the federal government the power to exclude foreigners who have "used positions of prominence to endorse or espouse terrorist activity" (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 3). International scholars and students who, in the federal government's view, fit this description are denied entrance visas (ACLU, 2005). Ahmadi (2011) argues that inconsistent and arbitrary procedures at various U.S. embassies and consulates result in unequal treatment of students depending on their geographical location and nationality, ethnicity, or religion. She adds that the length of time a visa is valid and the number of entries allowed by the visa differ from country to country, subject to each country's agreement with the U.S. Considering the validity of a student's visa and the length of stay in the U.S. authorized by a visa to be two distinct notions, she further states that both rely upon mutual accord between the U.S. and the student's country of origin. Since only the U.S. immigration officers have the authority to permit a person to enter the U.S., the visa issue is further complicated by the individual discretion of governmental authorities (p. 4).

Johnson (2009) explains that after 9/11, the Secretary of State issued temporary guidance to all consular posts essentially prohibiting waiver of personal appearance (interviews) for most visa applicants in order to give the department time to craft an appropriate policy for the new risk environment (p.7). However, he claims,

> The Congress unwisely wrote this temporary guidance into law in 2004, thus compelling many would-be visitors to the United States to travel long distances and incur significant expense for interviews that available technology and risk-assessment techniques really make unnecessary. Requiring overworked consular officers to waste time on brief, pro-forma interviews with low-risk visitors does little to enhance our security. (Johnson, 2009, p.7)

Toutant's (2009) research on a focus group provides examples in this respect. An Iranian student had to travel to Dubai to get a visa because there is no U.S. embassy in Iran. He had to travel to the embassy in Dubai three times each for another missing item, the last one due to a mistake in I20 form filled in by the host American university. For Iranian students, the F-1 visa is not for multiple entries but for single entry; therefore, they cannot leave the U.S. until their education is finished.

Johnson (2009) also draws attention to the same point and criticizes the repetitive processing of the same people. It both hurts the visiting researchers and students and distracts consular attention from real terrorists and criminals due to extra load that it creates. Renowned scientists who travel to the United States frequently to engage in scientific activities are treated the same as first-time applicants every time they require a new visa. Students and scholars who missed their families and went to their home countries saw their research or their degree

programs collapse because they were unable to return to the United States in a timely manner (p.8).

Making reference to Toutant's (2009) findings to confirm the hypothesis that international students from the Middle East and some Asian countries are more likely to be heavily scrutinized and have greater challenges in obtaining F-1 visas, Ahmadi (2011) argues that visa restrictions and changes in the U.S. immigration process after 9/11 are "burdensome, discouraging, sometimes downright humiliating", and "negatively affect the numbers of students coming to study in the United States" (p. 4).

A reason for the decline in the number of international students enrolling in American universities is the U.S. visa policies after the 9/11 attacks, that have made it difficult for foreign nationals to attend U.S. academic institutions. Such students are now attending schools in other English-speaking countries (Traven, 2006, p. 10). While the visa issuance process was mainly concerned with finding out whether the foreign nationals intended to live illegally in the U.S., the new visa regulations after the 9/11 attacks added one more step of security checks (Traven, 2006, p. 14). According to the NAFSA Survey, a top factor leading to the decrease in foreign student enrollment into U.S. universities has been visa problems with 40% of undergraduate and 29% of graduate institutions reporting that visa denials and delays are the primary reason for decreased foreign student enrollment (Traven, 2006, p. 15). Cole (2003) mentions enhanced restrictions and scrutiny that create difficulties in obtaining student visas as one of the results of the Patriot Act's provisions, which "threaten to undermine some of the core values that universities cannot abandon without significant negative consequences" (quoted in Ahmadi, 2011, p. 10).

As for the H-1B visas, although they apply to foreign-born workers, not students, restrictions in issuance of H-1B visas have an effect on international students' matriculation in

American universities. Kato and Sparber (2013), providing support from their research, argue that after the reduction of the number of available H-1B visas in October 2013, U.S. colleges will be less attractive for international students, because they consider American education to be a pathway to employment in the country. The researchers account for the reason of a drop of 1.5% in SAT scores of international students by these restrictions: "Restrictive immigration policy disproportionately discourages high-ability international students from pursuing education in the United States" (p. 109). Their quantitative research suggests that H-1B visa restrictions have reduced the average math SAT score of foreign prospective students by about 8.5 points, verbal scores by about 10 points, and combined scores by 18.5 points (p. 117).

Kato and Sparber (2013) combine their data with summary statistics from the Institute for International Education (IIE) and conclude that U.S. undergraduate enrollment of students from countries bound by H-1B restrictions declined by14% between academic years 2001-2002 and 2006-2007. For them, what is alarming is that the share of applications from top-quintile students declined by 1.8 to 3.7 percentage points. It is unlikely that U.S. undergraduate institutions maintained a high number of top-quality international enrollees in the face of declining applications from top-quality students (p. 125).

Johnson (2009) emphasizes the need for temporary employment-based visas for skilled individuals, and claims that the H-1B visa capacity of 65,000 annually, as set by law, hampers the ability of American businesses to hire and retain such individuals. This capacity is reached every year. Recognizing this, current law exempts up to 20,000 international students from the capacity who graduate from U.S. higher education institutions with graduate degrees (p.10).

Actually, what makes H-1B visas a center of interest is the unavailability of green cards (Johnson, 2009). The worker waits in line for years for a green card and companies seek

temporary solutions, among which is the H-1B visa, for workers whom they consider part of their permanent workforce (p.9).

Short-term visits for educational or academic purposes pose another problem. Johnson (2009) discusses that there are myriad reasons for short-term visits to the United States for educational or scholarly purposes, among which are to attend summer courses, institutes, or seminars at U.S. universities; to study English, often in conjunction with visits for purposes of tourism; to defend Ph.D. dissertations; and to meet university requirements for a brief period in residence as part of an online degree program. Johnson remarks that there is often no visa that is strictly legal for this category of visitor—i.e., visitors who intend to be students, but not full-time students in a degree program (Johnson, 2009, p.10).

In another piece of research done by NAFSA (now Association of International Educators), the Association of American Universities, the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, the IIE, and the Council of Graduate Schools (CGS) on the administrators in 480 institutions that report a decrease in their international student enrollment, the participants were asked to rank the reasons for the enrollment decrease. The first reason noted by the 40% of the administrators was visa troubles (*i.e.*, delays in issuance and denials) to explain the decline in international undergraduate enrollment. With regard to the decrease in international graduate student enrollment, 29 % noted visa troubles (CGS, 2004, cited in Lee, 2008). The study attributes the enrollment decline to less interest in studying in the United States and perceived barriers about the visa process (Lee, 2008, p. 313).

Since the system is supported by service fees, the visa application process includes several fees that are an additional financial burden, especially for students coming from developing countries that have a weak exchange rate against the U.S. dollar. In my home country, Turkey,

the F-1 visa application fee is USD 160, which is 465 Turkish liras[16]. The minimum wage rate being 1,300 Turkish liras, an ordinary worker has to work for 10 days and pay about a third of his allowance for the fee (probably of his child). All nonimmigrant visa applicants must pay the nonimmigrant visa application processing fee prior to scheduling an appointment. This fee is nonrefundable and nontransferable regardless of whether a visa is issued.

Three other Sections of the Patriot Act are also related to the topic of the discussion here, because the way their provisions are enforced, though indirectly, concerns international students and affects their enrollment; namely, Section 217 (regarding surveillance), Section 505 (regarding National Security Letters), and Section 507 (with provisions conflicting FERPA).

Section 217

Section 217 of the Patriot Act gives the law enforcement the right to search, investigate, and monitor a "computer trespasser" who accesses a protected computer without authorization (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 2). There is also an adopted Patriot Act extender, *roving wiretaps*. A roving or multi-point wiretap is tied to individuals and it enables intelligence officials to obtain a single order which covers any communications device used by the target of the surveillance. Without such authority, government officials would have to seek a new court order every time a change in the location, phone, or computer occurred (Lungren, 2012, p. 436).

Although the persons who are known by the owner or operator of the protected computer are excluded, it may apply to students, faculty, or visiting scholars who are not enrolled in or working for a college or university, but access the university's databases. This can be considered an expansion of governmental powers (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 2). The Act made "numerous amendments to existing statutes governing covert electronic surveillance pursuant to the

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[16] Based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/

investigation of domestic crimes as well as investigations concerning foreign intelligence and terrorism" (Pikowsky, 2002, p. 601). Lungren (2012), making reference to the fact that law enforcement has been able to use roving or multi-point wiretaps to investigate ordinary crimes, including drug offenses and racketeering, argues that Patriot Act "simply authorized the same techniques in national security investigations" (p. 437).

Pikowsky (2002, p. 618) draws a scenario regarding national security investigations. In this (fictitious) scenario, FBI agents contact university officials with information about a suspected computer trespasser, asking for permission to investigate the trespasser's activities. University officials, in turn, may grant permission in the absence of judicial oversight either due to a desire to cooperate with law enforcement or because they may be afraid to deny permission. However, he later states that there is little reason to believe that law enforcement officials will suddenly rely on the Patriot Act amendments to coerce university officials into permitting electronic surveillance within the university's network (p. 618).

Section 505

The National Security Letters (NSLs), introduced by Section 505, provide federal law enforcement agencies access to students', professors', and scholars' private educational records, allowing federal agencies to request information "without prior judicial approval" (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 6). NSLs, viewed in this way, are likely to be excessive abuse of governmental power in the form of a warrantless search and seizure that is prohibited under the Fourth Amendment of the United States Constitution. A provision of the law allows government officials to demand a wide range of communication records from Internet-service providers and to forbid recipients of the letters to tell anyone about the orders. A U.S. District Court stated that the government's

demands for information, made in the form of National Security Letters, violated the First and Fourth Amendments of the U.S. Constitution (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 6).

Section 507

A provision of the Patriot Act in Section 507 authorizes the U.S. Attorney General (AG) to compel colleges and universities to turn over education records about any person suspected of "domestic or international terrorism", which can be considered to alter the *Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act* (FERPA), removing the necessity of probable cause and requiring only specific articulated facts giving reason to believe that the education records are likely to contain information relevant to the investigation, in a language so broad that it makes it very easy for law enforcement officials to obtain education records (O'Neil, 2003). It is argued that the provision in the Patriot Act does not necessarily improve the government's ability to access records, but simply removes the need for the government to have a good reason for the intrusion (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 8).

Drawing upon an article in the British daily, *Guardian*, dated June 6, 2013, Harvard Law Review (2014) publishes the Obama Administration's response to the outrage caused by the article, which reported that the National Security Agency had been collecting "the communication records of millions of U.S. citizens … indiscriminately and in bulk" (p. 1871). The White Paper (1) observes that section 215 requires only reasonable grounds to believe the information is relevant; (2) argues that Congress merely required that the requested documents be relevant to an "authorized investigation", pertaining to individuals suspected of terrorist activity; (3) posits that terrorism investigations are uniquely focused on prevention rather than on "retrospective determination of liability"; (4) argues that because the metadata program contains particularly "robust protections regarding collection, retention, dissemination, and oversight", an

even broader reading of relevance is justified; (5) states that "[u]nless the data is aggregated, it may not be feasible to identify chains of communications", which would "significantly diminish the effectiveness of NSA's investigative tools"; and (6) argues that bulk collection in this context is necessary for effective investigation (Harvard Law Review, 2014, p. 1874).

The Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act

The *Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act*, enacted by bipartisan majority in both Houses of Congress, was signed into law by President George W. Bush on May 14, 2002. The law contains some critical provisions to control the borders. It requires that Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) make interoperable all its internal databases so that all information about a particular alien can be accessed with a single search, that federal law enforcement and intelligence agencies share data on aliens with the INS and the State Department, and that all travel and entry documents, including visas, issued to aliens by the United States be machine-readable and tamper-resistant and include a standard biometric identifier (Jenks, 2012, p. 1). Title V (Foreign Students and Exchange Visitors) requirements are related to foreign student and interim foreign student monitoring system (Section 501) and institutional compliance review (Section 502).

Section 501

This Section requires AG to establish an electronic means to monitor and verify the issuance (by an approved educational institution or exchange visitor program) of documentation of acceptance of a foreign student and its transmittal to appropriate consular officers at State; the issuance of a visa to a foreign student (F or M) or exchange visitor (J); the admission into the

United States of the foreign student or exchange visitor and the notification of that foreigner's entry into the U.S. to the approved educational institution or exchange visitor program; the registration and enrollment of the student or exchange visitor and any other relevant act by the student or exchange visitor, including changes of schools and termination of enrollment (Jenks, 2012, p. 4).

Educational institutions and exchange visitor programs are mandated to notify the INS within 30 days of the class registration deadline if the foreign student fails to enroll or begin classes. Such information about F, J, and M non-immigrants as the date and port of entry, the date of enrollment in an approved program, the degree program and/or field of study, and the date of and reason for termination of enrollment is collected by the AG. Those non-immigrant visa applicants are required to provide U.S. consular officers with their address in their home country, the names and addresses of their immediate relatives, the names of people in the home country who could verify information about the applicant, and any previous work history (Jenks, 2012, p. 4).

Section 502

The INS conducts a review every two years of all the institutions approved to receive F, J or M non-immigrants to determine whether those institutions are in compliance with all record keeping and reporting requirements. State is also required to conduct a similar review every two years of all entities designated to sponsor J non-immigrant exchange visitors. In cases of noncompliance, the penalty is at least one-year suspension or termination of the institution's authorization to receive F, J or M non-immigrants (Jenks, 2012, p. 4).

Homeland Security Act

The *Homeland Security Act* (HSA) of 2002, or in long title, *An Act to Establish the Department of Homeland Security, and for Other Purposes*, was passed by the 107th United States Congress and signed into law by President George W. Bush in November 25, 2002. The HSA created the U.S. Department of Homeland Security and it is the largest federal government reorganization since the Department of Defense was created via the National Security Act of 1947. President Bush stated, "This landmark legislation, the most extensive reorganization of the Federal Government since the 1940s, will help our Nation meet the emerging threats of terrorism in the 21st Century." The enforcement end of the newly established DHS, Border and Transportation Security, was further divided to create the Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), which brought together "the enforcement and investigation arms of the Customs Service, the investigative and enforcement functions of the Immigration and Naturalization Service and the Federal Protective Services" (Traven, 2006, p. 13). The U.S. Government introduced the *Student and Exchange Visitor Information System* (SEVIS) for an effective tracking of international and immigrant students and it was implemented by ICE (Traven, 2006, p. 13).

Johnson (2009) criticizes the housing of the Student and Exchange Visitor Program (SEVP) in ICE, an enforcement agency whose responsibility is to track down and protect America from terrorists, criminal gangs, human smugglers and traffickers, and the like (p.12). He argues that this arrangement has served neither ICE nor students and schools well. On the side of ICE, it means that resources that could be focused on the apprehension of people who are dangerous to the security of the homeland are instead diverted to the management of an extensive database of non-threatening people (*i.e.*, SEVIS) and to the pursuit of "leads" generated primarily

by minor, technical immigration-paperwork violations (Johnson, 2009, p.12). On the side of students and schools, it means that complex determinations of immigration status and the adjudication of immigration benefits for students and exchange visitors are made by a police agency that lacks both the mission and the requisite expertise for carrying out these responsibilities. On either side, this constitutes "a misuse of a specialized agency set up under the law for another purpose, and it negatively impacts international students and U.S. schools for no security benefit" (p.12).

SEVIS

The *Student and Exchange Visitor Information System* (SEVIS) is "a computerized process to collect, maintain and manage information about international foreign students and exchange visitors during their stay in the United States", replacing "an old manual, paper-driven procedure with an automated one in which real time, accurate information is updated and maintained through the use of a Web-based application" and thus "allowing ICE to have real time access to information about all foreign students and exchange visitors in the United States" (DHS/ICE, p. 8). The Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement states that SEVIS does not require foreign students to provide any new information but much of the same information students have always had to provide since the end of World War II in order to study in the United States: What is different is in the change where that information is stored, from the campus to a centralized computer database (p. 9). Although a student can attend a U.S. educational system even if he/she is not registered in the SEVIS program (provided that the student is determined to be a legitimate foreign student attending a SEVIS certified school), only institutions certified to use the SEVIS-system can sponsor a foreign or exchange student (p. 11).

SEVIS is based on several laws. It implements Section 641 of the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act of 1996, which requires ICE to collect current information on an ongoing basis from schools and exchange programs relating to non-immigrant foreign students and exchange visitors during the course of their stay in the United States. The Patriot Act of 2001 amended Section 641 to require full implementation of SEVIS prior to January 1, 2003. The Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act of 2002 adds to and clarifies the requirement to collect information, as well as requires an educational institution to report any failure of an alien to enroll no later than 30 days after registration deadline (DHS/ICE, p. 1).

The SEVIS requirements are not only difficult to understand and time consuming (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 4), but an intrusion into the private lives as well, not to mention the non-refundable application fee. Students have to pay USD200, which DHS could use as additional resources to fund SEVIS. Students may also encounter other fees to cover administrative and delivery costs depending on what services and agencies are used. The electronic database of SEVIS collected information on nonimmigrant students, exchange visitors, their spouses, and the schools and exchange visitor sponsors hosting these individuals in the United States. International students and visiting scholars were fingerprinted and their names were checked against government databases for possible criminal information (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 4). Male visa applicants aging between 16 and 45 were required to disclose private information about themselves, their families, and their activities.

In another study Lee and Becskehazy (2005, cited in Lee, 2008) indicate that international students in the United States hold some resentment related to visa and the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS) procedures; that many students described SEVIS as

"useless" and "complicated"; and that others criticized U.S. visa procedures as being "debilitating" (Lee, 2008, p. 313). As in Toutant's (2009) research, some students reported in Lee and Becskehazy (2005) that visa procedures made it difficult to visit their home country during the summer or winter breaks out of fear that they would not be granted reentry to the United States. Those students also expressed an unwillingness to subject themselves to SEVIS and lengthy visa procedures, which they perceived as humiliating and unnecessary responses to 9/11. Many of them also reported about friends and family back home who were accepted to study in the United States but were not granted visas to enter the United States (Lee, 2008, p. 314).

The REAL ID Act

The *REAL ID Act of 2005*, signed into law by President George W. Bush on May 11, 2005, is an Act of Congress that modifies U.S. federal law pertaining to security, authentication, and issuance procedures standards for the state driver's licenses and identification (ID) cards, as well as various immigration issues pertaining to terrorism (REAL ID Act, 2016). The REAL ID Act enacted the 9/11 Commission's recommendation that the Federal Government "set standards for the issuance of sources of identification, such as driver's licenses." The Act established minimum security standards for license issuance and production and prohibits Federal agencies from accepting for certain purposes driver's licenses and identification cards from states not meeting the Act's minimum standards. The purposes covered by the Act are: accessing Federal facilities, entering nuclear power plants, and, no sooner than 2016, boarding federally regulated commercial aircraft (DHS, 2016a, 2016b).

According to the timetable announced by the Secretary of Homeland Security on January 8, 2016, starting January 22, 2018, passengers with a driver's license issued by a state that is still not compliant with the REAL ID Act (and has not been granted an extension) will need to show an alternative form of acceptable identification for domestic air travel to board their flight. If the traveler cannot provide an acceptable form of identification, they will not be permitted through the security checkpoint. Starting October 1, 2020, every air traveler will need a REAL ID-compliant license, or another acceptable form of identification, for domestic air travel (DHS, 2016b).

To meet the requirements, a State is required to include, at a minimum, the following information and features on each driver's license and identification card issued to a person by the State (DHS, 2016c): (1) The person's full legal name, (2) The person's date of birth, (3) The person's gender, (4) The person's driver's license or identification card number, (5) A digital photograph of the person, (6) The person's address of principle residence, (7) The person's signature, (8) Physical security features designed to prevent tampering, counterfeiting, or duplication of the document for fraudulent purposes, (9) A common machine-readable technology, with defined minimum data elements.

The Law mandates that a State shall require, before issuing a driver's license or identification card to a person, valid documentary evidence that the person: (i) is a citizen or national of the United States; (ii) is an alien lawfully admitted for permanent or temporary residence in the United States; (iii) has conditional permanent resident status in the United States; (iv) has an approved application for asylum in the United States or has entered into the United States in refugee status; (v) has a valid, unexpired nonimmigrant visa or nonimmigrant visa status for entry into the United States; (vi) has a pending application for asylum in the United States;

(vii) has a pending or approved application for temporary protected status in the United States;

(viii) has approved deferred action status; or (ix) has a pending application for adjustment of

status to that of an alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence in the United States or

conditional permanent resident status in the United States (DHS, 2016c).

The Department of Homeland Security rejects the claim that DHS is trying to build a

national database with all of the information, and asserts that REAL ID does not create a federal

database of driver license information. Each jurisdiction will continue to issue its own unique

license, maintain its own records, and control who gets access to those records and under what

circumstances. It is said that the purpose of REAL ID is to make the identity documents more

consistent and secure (DHS, 2016b).

Restricting illegal or legal immigrants who are unable to prove their legal status, or lack

social security numbers, from obtaining driver's licenses may keep them from obtaining liability

insurance and from working, causing many immigrants and foreign nationals to lose their jobs or

to travel internationally in order to renew their driver's license. Furthermore, for visitors on J-1

and H1B visas, visas may expire before their legal stay is over due to the fact that J-1 Visas are

issued with a one-year expiration date but visitors are allowed to stay for their "duration of

status" as long as they have a valid contract. This can make the process of renewing a driver's

license extremely complex and force legal foreign citizens to travel abroad only to renew a visa

which would not need to be renewed if it weren't for the need to renew one's driver's license

(REAL ID Act, 2016).

There have been some Congressional efforts to change or repeal the *REAL ID Act*.

Johnson (2009) criticizes the law as "functionality and workability go[ing] out the

window in the rush to accomplish a laudable goal," and adds, "Often there has not been a proper

recognition of the diversity of immigration statuses, or the training required to understand the complexity of the law" (Johnson, 2009, p.12). For him, The REAL ID Act passed "without any real debate". Its provisions will effectively bar some international students and scholars legally in the United States from obtaining driver's licenses, and require others to renew licenses annually, which, he claims, "an imposition that serves no legitimate purpose but does overburden already-swamped Departments of Motor Vehicles across the nation". He is concerned that if this act goes into full effect, it will constitute "yet another disincentive for students and scholars to choose the United States, without providing any additional security" (p.12).

Political, Social, and Economic Movements Influencing Laws and Policies Governing the Enrollment of the U.S. Inbound International Students

Federal and state policy makers have tried various legislative approaches to provide homeland security. In an attempt to increase homeland security, federal and state policies have tried various legislations. These attempts have resulted in a radical shift in the demographics of international students' nationalities. However, this radical shift is not only the result of the U.S. policies, but also the developments or policies of the original countries of those international students.

The factors and causes affecting the mobility of international students can be enumerated as the following (Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 125, adapted from Vincent-Lancrin, 2008, pp. 111-112):

1) The destination country's integration policy (*i.e.* visa),

2) Employment possibilities,

3) Recognition of skills and foreign qualification in the country of origin,

4) The cost of studies abroad,

5) Reputation and supposed quality of institutions of learning and education system of the host country,

6) The choice of post-secondary education offered in the country of origin and the possibilities of success,

7) The existence of network of students or former students from the country of origin,

8) The language of the destination country and the language of instruction,

9) The perceived quality of life in the host country,

10) The geographical and cultural proximity of the host country and the country of origin, as well as historical ties, and

11) The infrastructure and social benefits available to foreign students.

The list is important in that it denotes the areas that a host (or destination) country should observe. The factors and causes affecting the mobility of international students can be classified as (1) the political context, (2) international higher education initiatives, (3) social and motivational factors, and (4) economic factors. In the present paper, these factors will be briefly discussed with a special emphasis on the last three.

Political Context

Political context is undoubtedly a key factor affecting the mobility patterns of international students. The Middle East has been a focus of particular attention in international relations and political context. The war in Iraq (along with the Gulf Crisis), petroleum crisis and

the Arab Spring have their effects beyond the boundaries of the related countries. Also in Europe, the economic collapse of European Union, (as in Greece and Bulgaria) plays an important role in the decisions of the international students from that region on their destination countries. As for the United States, the 9/11 terrorist attacks have changed not only the security sanctions of a particular country, but the mobility patterns of international students. The United States is the leading country in attracting international students. However, the security measures that had to be taken after the attack have played a particular role in the decisions of international students, because of the tightened visa regulations and security checks.

Some of those international crises are briefly discussed below with their impact on the international student inflows.

Arab Spring

The Arab Spring is a revolutionary wave of demonstrations and protests, riots, and civil wars in the Arab world that began the day after 17 December 2010, when a Tunisian jobless graduate, Mohamed Bouazizi, doused himself with gasoline and set himself afire after a municipal inspector confiscated his wares while he was selling fruit at a roadside stand. His self-immolation brought together various groups dissatisfied with the existing system in Tunisia, and the escalated protests soon spread over the countries of the Arab League, Middle East and North Africa. While some minor protests occurred in Djibouti, Mauritania, Saudi Arabia, Somalia and Palestine, a number of major protests took place in Algeria and Sudan. Protests led to governmental changes in Bahrain, Kuwait, Lebanon, Morocco and Oman, and governments were overthrown in Egypt, Libya, Tunisia and Yemen. In Egypt, Hosni Mubarak was overthrown and later sentenced to life in prison. In Libya, Muammar Gaddafi was overthrown and killed by rebel forces. Civil wars broke out in Iraq and Syria. The civil war in Syria still continues. The death toll

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of the Arab Spring, which some refer to as the Arab Winter due to the aftermath of revolutions and civil wars post mid-2012, is estimated to be more than 226,000, more than 80 per cent of which were in Syria.[17]

For the present paper, the statistical data from the Institute for Statistics of the United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) were used to investigate the effect of the Arab Spring on the number of the international students from the concerned countries. The statistical data were selected by means of UIS' web-based interface[18]. The total number of the international students that the major countries of the Arab Spring send (outbound internationally mobile students) to the whole world and their distribution to the years of the Arab Spring are given in Table 6 along with their visual representation in Figure 14.

Table 6

The numbers of outbound internationally mobile tertiary students from major Arabic countries during the Arab Spring and the ratio of change in percentage values: World total

	Number of students				
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Algeria	22525	22850	23962	24701	20695
Bahrain	3947	4118	3975	4106	4481
Egypt	12688	14325	14738	16266	19744
Iraq	10553	12583	13147	14310	16039
Jordan	14681	15128	15791	16677	19366
Kuwait	9569	9997	11025	13746	16799
Lebanon	14051	13243	13160	12596	12000
Libya	5795	7389	7420	6811	6448
Morocco	42247	42829	43381	43494	38599
Saudi Arabia	31366	42651	51679	63833	73548
Syrian Arab Republic	18400	16150	17267	18303	22591
Tunisia	18983	19779	19525	18908	16889
Mean=	*17067*	*18420*	*19589*	*21146*	*22267*

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[17] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arab_Spring
[18] http://data.uis.unesco.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EDULIT_DS&popupcustomise=true&lang=en

(continued)

	Ratio of change (%)			
	2009 to 2010	**2010 to 2011**	**2011 to 2012**	**2012 to 2013**
Algeria	1,4	4,9	3,1	**-16,2**
Bahrain	4,3	**-3,5**	3,3	9,1
Egypt	12,9	2,9	10,4	21,4
Iraq	19,2	4,5	8,8	12,1
Jordan	3	4,4	5,6	16,1
Kuwait	4,5	10,3	24,7	22,2
Lebanon	**-5,8**	**-0,6**	**-4,3**	**-4,7**
Libya	27,5	0,4	**-8,2**	**-5,3**
Morocco	1,4	1,3	0,3	**-11,3**
Saudi Arabia	36	21,2	23,5	15,2
Syrian Arab Republic	**-12,2**	6,9	6	23,4
Tunisia	4,2	**-1,3**	**-3,2**	**-10,7**
Mean=	*7,9*	*6,3*	*7,9*	*5,3*

Figure 14. Outbound internationally mobile tertiary students from major Arabic countries during the Arab Spring: World total

According to the UIS data, the number of outbound international students from the region hardly displays a drop, not even a slight one. On the contrary, the outbound students from the Arab Spring countries apparently grew larger and larger over the five years. To illustrate this fact in a clearer graphic representation, Figure 15 was designed on the average numbers of the students that those countries sent to the universities abroad. Figure 14 graphically displays the numbers for all the countries; and, hence, in quite a messy appearance with the lines for some countries going upward, while, for some others, downward and almost overlapping in some years. For the countries with close numbers, it gets sometimes very difficult to follow a certain line throughout the chart. Figure 15(1) aims to eliminate this difficulty.

The mean values of the outbound students per year in the time span of the Arab Spring are 17,067, 18,420, 19,589, 21,146 and 22,267 for the years of 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively. This means that, overall, the politically diverse conditions in the home countries had not much negative effect on the outbound mobility. One of the reasons could be that the university students in that region intentionally preferred to study abroad because of the adverse social and political situation in their home countries. However, an important point could be the number of returnees. Although the figures display an increase in the number of outbound students from the region, the statistics do not include data on how many of them return to their countries due to the political situation in their countries of origin. This is a point put forward in Beets and Willekens (2009), and will be further mentioned in the Eurozone Crisis section below.

Whatever the reason, the *overall* trend is a rise. As Bruner (2013) states:

At the outset, you must understand that contrary to the claims of the staunchest nativists, attendance by international students hardly constitutes a tidal wave. In the 2011-12 academic year, international students were 3.7% of all students enrolled in U.S.

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institutions of higher education. In 2012-13, international students comprised 14.2% of all students enrolled in U.S. B[usiness]-schools.

However, that comment does not seem to hold true for all of the related countries. The overall picture in Figure 15 should not mislead the reader into thinking that the upward trend is valid for each of the countries in the group. As seen in Table 6, Lebanon undergoes a steady decline between 2010 and 2013 with the percentage values of -5.8, -0.6, -4.3 and -4.7. So does Tunisia. Despite a 4.2% increase from 2009 to 2010, the percentage values are -1.3, -3.2 and -10.7 for 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively. A similar situation can be found in Libya, too. Despite a considerable increase of 27.5% from 2009 to 2010, the ratio stagnates for 2011 at 0.4%, and keeps dropping at -8.2% and -5.3% for 2012 and 2013, respectively. On the other hand, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait seem to keep an upward trend all through the Arab Spring period. Saudi Arabia's outbound international students increase with the percentage values of 36, 21.2, 23.5 and 15.2 for 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively. Kuwait also keeps a steady increase with the percentage values of 4.5, 10.3, 24.7 and 22.2 for 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively.

The case of Saudi Arabia with large figures of increase seems to be an exception; and, therefore, a supplementary chart was designed as in Figure 15(2) with the figures of Saudi Arabia excluded from the mean values. This was done to see if the huge positive values from Saudi Arabia affected the overall picture in a misleading way. However, as seen in Figure 15(2), even without the numbers from that country, an overall rise is still present. Even if they may not be so sharp as the ones including those of Saudi Arabia, an increase is still seen with the percentage values of 2.9, 2.8, 3.6, and 2 for 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively.

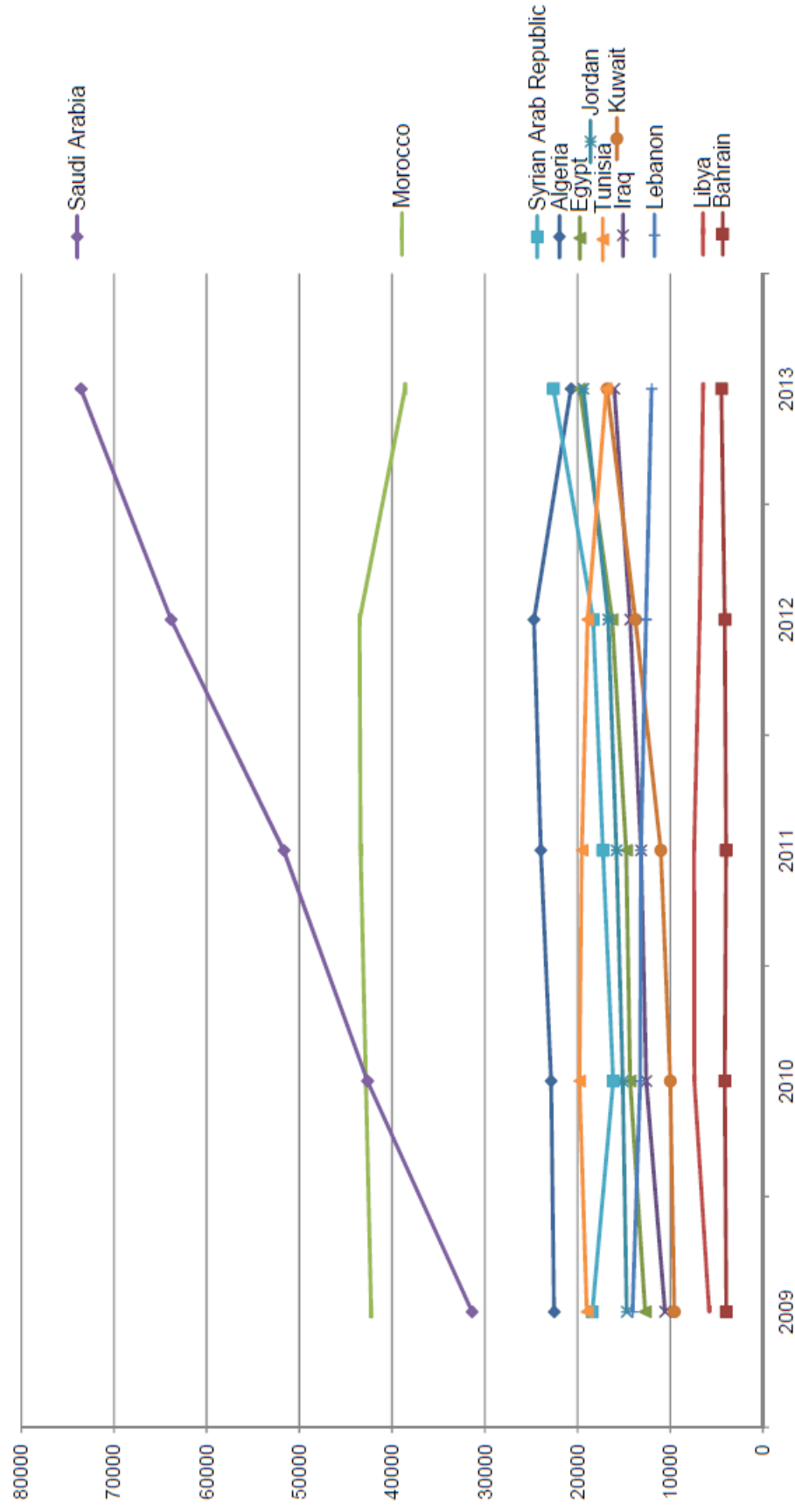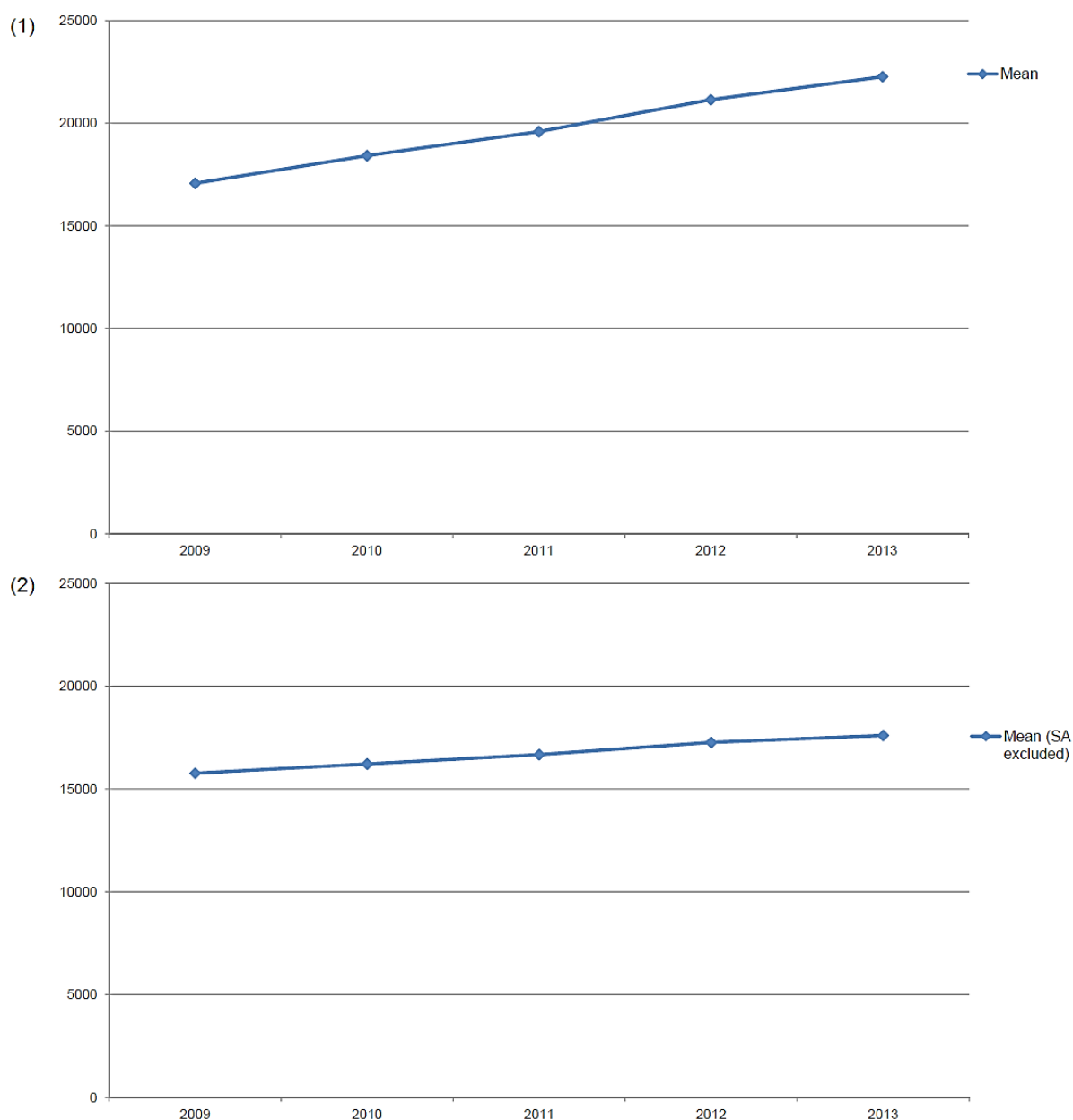*Figure 15.* Outbound internationally mobile tertiary students from major Arabic countries during

the Arab Spring: World total mean figures (top) and world total mean figures

excluding Saudi Arabia (bottom)

One thing that should be borne in mind is that the UIS gives those figures as estimations.

It is quite good that UIS updates the statistics; however, it is rather bothersome that the figures

change. Those figures used in the present dissertation are the very recent statistical data, derived in June 2016. But, when the preliminary study for the dissertation was done in 2014, they were different and not estimations. Another thing with the UIS data is that still in June 2016 it only gives the statistical data until 2014—the values for 2014, 2015 and 2016 are not available.

To get a more reliable picture and an accurate understanding of the situation, and to see it in relation to the topic of the present dissertation, the international (and immigrant) students in the United States, a second search was done on the *Open Doors* data of the Institute of International Education (IEE). Also, the IIE statistics cover the years 2014 and 2015, as well. The search yielded in the data presented in Table 7 and, as its graphic representation, Figure 16.

Table 7 below shows the numbers of the international students coming from the major Arabic countries to the United States (the U.S. inbound) during the period of the Arab Spring:

Table 7

The number of U.S. inbound internationally mobile tertiary students from major Arabic countries during the Arab Spring and the ratio of change in percentage values

	Number of students						
	2009	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**
Algeria	172	178	158	177	176	173	175
Bahrain	431	415	409	438	459	467	474
Egypt	1915	2271	2181	2201	2608	2838	2974
Iraq	359	423	616	809	1074	1491	1727
Jordan	2225	1995	2002	2062	2109	2148	2215
Kuwait	2225	2442	2998	3722	5115	7288	9034
Lebanon	1823	1608	1462	1350	1266	1367	1416
Libya	667	1064	1494	1328	1343	1379	1578
Morocco	1169	1120	1201	1305	1293	1324	1373
Saudi Arabia	12661	15810	22704	34139	44566	53919	59945
Syrian Arab Republic	454	424	526	458	505	693	792
Tunisia	306	308	386	445	459	538	592
Mean=	*2034*	*2338*	*3011*	*4036*	*5081*	*6135*	*6858*

(continued)

	Ratio of change (%)					
	2010	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**
Algeria	3,5	**-11,2**	12	**-0,6**	**-1,7**	1,2
Bahrain	**-3,7**	**-1,4**	7,1	4,8	1,7	1,5
Egypt	18,6	**-4**	0,9	18,5	8,8	4,8
Iraq	17,8	45,6	31,3	32,8	38,8	15,8
Jordan	**-10,3**	0,4	3	2,3	1,8	3,1
Kuwait	9,8	22,8	24,1	37,4	42,5	24
Lebanon	**-11,8**	**-9,1**	**-7,7**	**-6,2**	8	3,6
Libya	59,5	40,4	**-11,1**	1,1	2,7	14,4
Morocco	**-4,2**	7,2	8,7	**-0,9**	2,4	3,7
Saudi Arabia	24,9	43,6	50,4	30,5	21	11,2
Syrian Arab Republic	**-6,6**	24,1	**-12,9**	10,3	37,2	14,3
Tunisia	0,7	25,3	15,3	3,1	17,2	10
Mean=	*14,9*	*28,8*	*34*	*25,9*	*20,7*	*11,8*
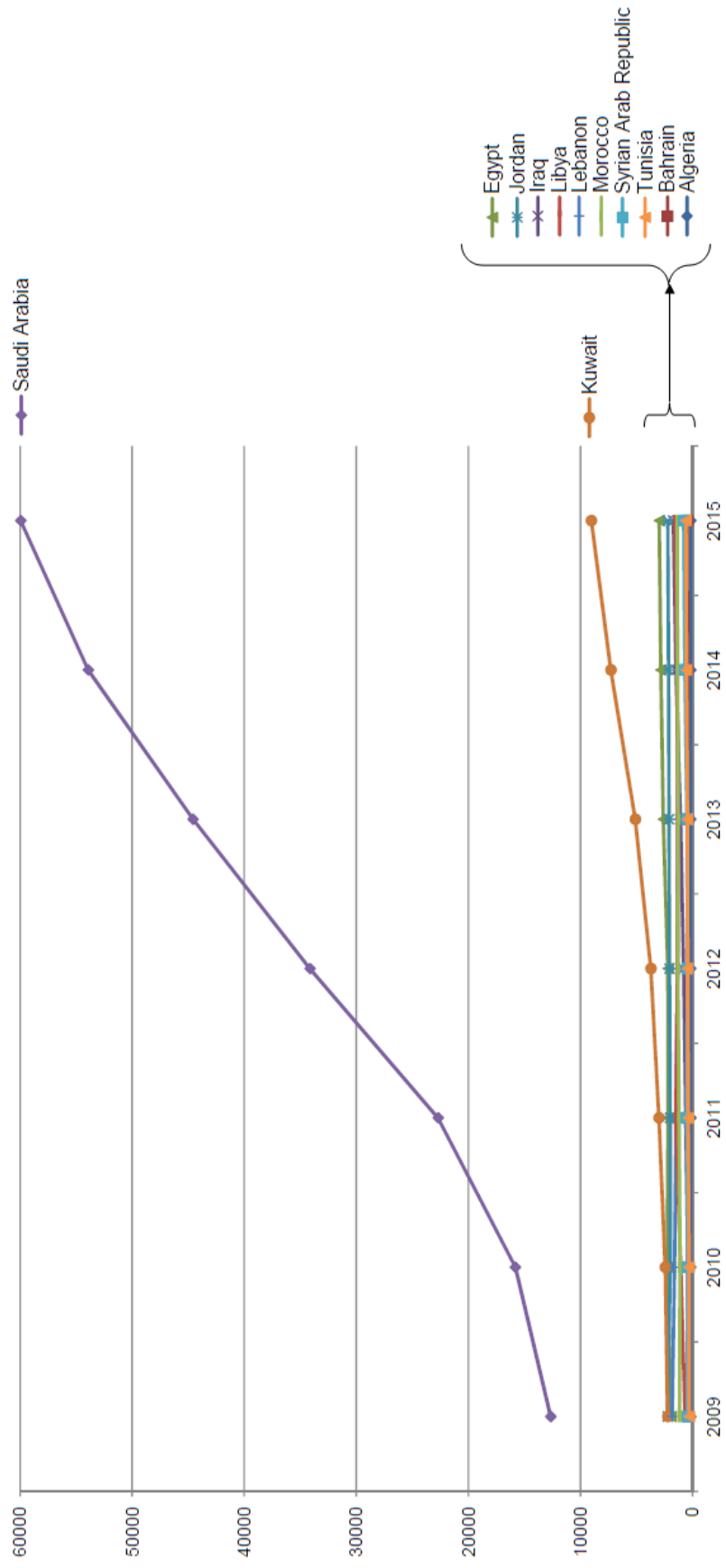
Figure 16. U.S. Inbound internationally mobile tertiary students from major Arabic countries during the Arab Spring

The IIE data in Table 7 (and Figure 16) also point to an increase in the numbers of the international students coming from the same group of Arabic countries to the U.S. during the period of Arab Spring and its aftermath, though less obvious than the UIS data. It is rather difficult to detect a mobility pattern over the years—the ratios of change rise and drop sporadically. The number of Saudi Arabian students keeps soaring with the ratios of change of 24.9%, 43.6%, 50.4%, 30.5%, 21% and 11.2% for the years 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015, respectively. The country sent more and more students not only on a world total basis, but to the U.S. as well.

The situation is different for Tunisia. While, according to the UIS statistics, it sent fewer and fewer students on a world total basis, the students from Tunisia into the U.S. increase, according to the IIE statistics, with the ratio of change percentage values of 0.7, 25.3, 15.3, 3.1, 17.2 and 10 for the years 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015, respectively. It could be interesting (and important) to learn why Tunisian international students stopped going to other destination countries but decided to go the U.S., instead.

Iraqi international students also display a trend in a similar fashion. Even though both the UIS and IIE statistics show a steady increase over the years, the magnitude of the ratio of change is much higher for the U.S. In comparison to 19.2%, 4.5%, 8.8%, and 12.1%[19] worldwide values, the percentages are 17.8, 45.6, 31.3, 32.8, 38.8 and 15.8[20] for the destination U.S.

As done with the UIS data above, the average numbers of the ratio of change for the students going from the set group of Arabic countries into the U.S. were calculated to reach the information in Figure 17 below:

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[19] For the years 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively.
[20] For the years 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015 respectively.
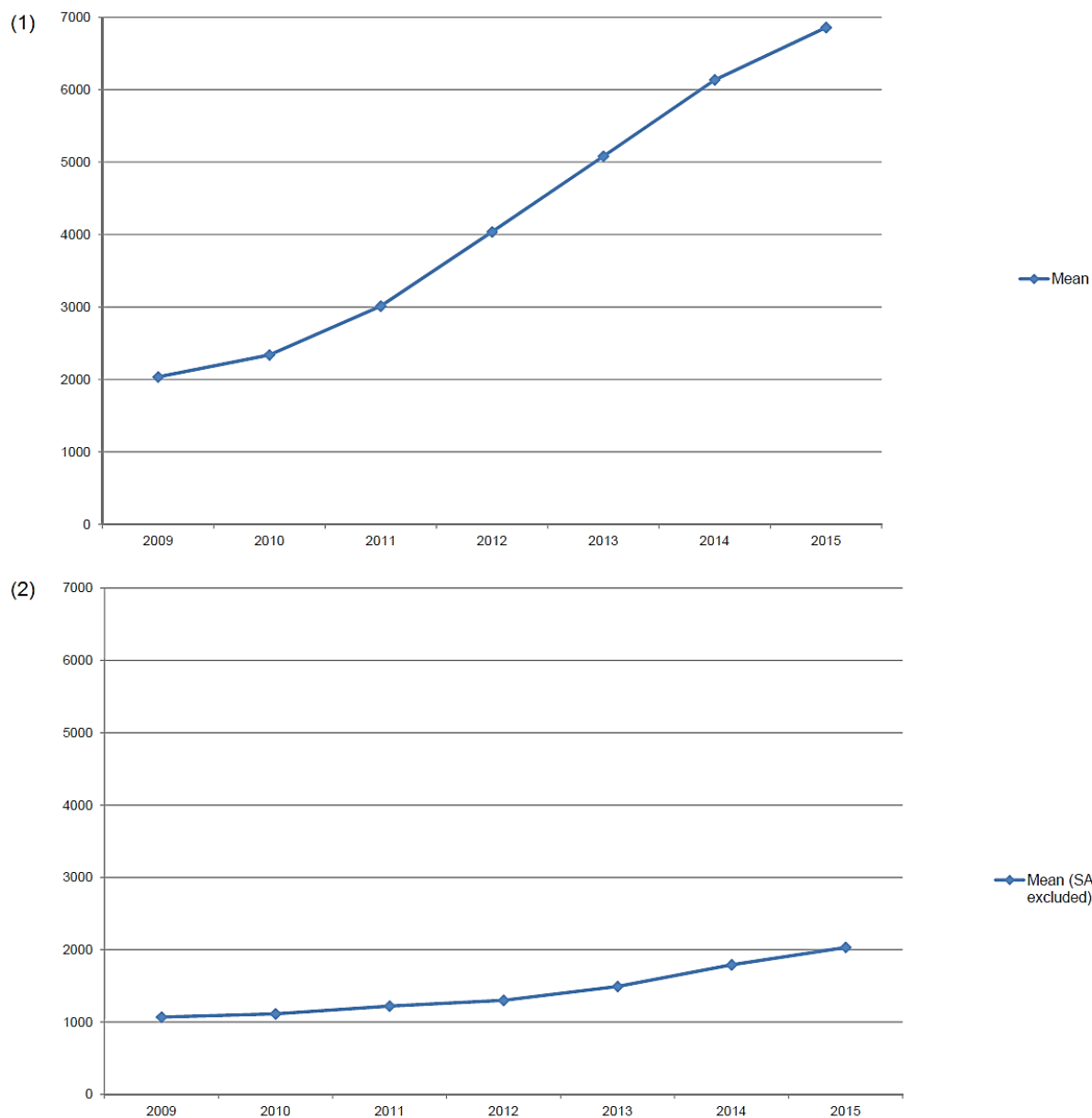
Figure 17. U.S. Inbound internationally mobile tertiary students from major Arabic countries during the Arab Spring: Mean figures (top) and mean figures excluding Saudi Arabia (bottom)

The chart (1) in Figure 17 above graphically represents the mean percentage values on the whole of the set group of countries. Considering the possible influence of Saudi Arabia on the overall picture, a supplementary chart was designed excluding the values for that country. In either case, the result does not seem to change: During the Arab Spring (and aftermath), more and more students came from the set group to the U.S. If we interpret it taking the U.S. as the point of reference, however, it can be argued that despite the uncertain international political situation *and* despite the concerns and "complaints" about the tightened visa and immigration policies of the U.S. after the 9/11 terrorist attacks, the U.S. kept admitting more and more international students from some sensitive regions of the world.

The Terrorist Attacks of September 11, 2001

On July 10, 2001, the U.S. President Mr. George W. Bush said, in reference to immigration and immigrants, "New arrivals should be greeted not with suspicion and resentment, but with openness and courtesy." Two months later, September 11, would be the day when "America changed from a nation of immigrants to a nation of suspects" (McKenzie, 2004, p. 1164).

The September 11 attacks (also called as "9/11") were a series of four coordinated terrorist attacks launched by the Islamic terrorist group al-Qaeda, whose leader, Osama bin Laden, first denied any involvement, but then, three years later in 2004, claimed responsibility for the attacks. Four passenger airliners, hijacked by 19 al-Qaeda terrorists, were targeted to four critical buildings in suicide attacks. Two of them were crashed into the North and South towers of the World Trade Center in New York City. A third was crashed into the Pentagon. The fourth

plane was targeted at Washington, D.C., but crashed into a field after its passengers tried to overcome the hijackers. Both of the towers collapsed and a partial collapse occurred in the western side of the Pentagon. 2,996 people died in the attacks, including the 227 civilians and 19 hijackers aboard the planes.[21]

The terrorists were nonimmigrant higher education students, who, taking advantage of the defective system of tracking international and immigrant students at that time, had entered into the country and found the opportunity to freely organize their crimes, as the U.S. Government concluded. A series of precautions and measures were taken, among which were The *USA PATRIOT Act*, The *Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act*, The *Homeland Security Act*, and the *Student and Exchange Visitor Information System*.

The USA PATRIOT Act

The *Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism Act* of 2001 sought to eliminate barriers that existed between law enforcement and intelligence communities, such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Central Intelligence Agency, National Security Agency, and the Department of Justice (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 2) and tried to ensure homeland security by imposing regulations such as tightening the rules on student visas, implementing stricter penalties and enforcing them against those who overstay their visas (Traven, 2006, p. 12). It is considered to be one of the significant accomplishments of the Patriot Act that it tears down the so-called wall between law enforcement and intelligence concerning the sharing of information (Lungren, 2012, p. 437).

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[21] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/September_11_attacks

The Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act

Enacted by bipartisan majority in both Houses of Congress, it was signed into law by President George W. Bush on May 14, 2002. The law contains some critical provisions to control the borders, and requires (a) that Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) make interoperable all its internal databases so that all information about a particular alien can be accessed with a single search, (b) that federal law enforcement and intelligence agencies share data on aliens with the INS and the State Department, and (c) that all travel and entry documents, including visas, issued to aliens by the United States be machine-readable and tamper-resistant and include a standard biometric identifier (Jenks, 2012, p. 1).

The Homeland Security Act

Passed by the 107th United States Congress and signed into law by President George W. Bush on November 25, 2002, it is the largest federal government reorganization since the Department of Defense was created via the *National Security Act* of 1947. The U.S. Department of Homeland Security was established with the Border and Transportation Security on its enforcement end, which was further divided to create the Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement, bringing together "the enforcement and investigation arms of the Customs Service, the investigative and enforcement functions of the Immigration and Naturalization Service and the Federal Protective Services" (Traven, 2006, p. 13). The U.S. Government introduced the *Student and Exchange Visitor Information System* (SEVIS) for an effective tracking of international and immigrant students and it was implemented by the Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (p. 13).

SEVIS

The *Student and Exchange Visitor Information System* (SEVIS) is "a computerized process to collect, maintain and manage information about international foreign students and exchange visitors during their stay in the United States", replacing "an old, manual, paper-driven procedure with an automated one in which real time, accurate information is updated and maintained through the use of a Web-based application" and thus "allowing [the Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement] to have real time access to information about all foreign students and exchange visitors in the United States" (DHS/ICE, p. 8). All the schools and programs in the United States hosting international students (and scholars) were required to use SEVIS as of January 30, 2003, with a fee collected to fund the digitized system.

The Eurozone Crisis

The Eurozone, officially called the euro area, is an economic and monetary union of 18 European Union member states[22] that have adopted the euro as their common currency and sole legal tender[23]. Nelson *et al.* (2012), in their report presented to the U.S. Congress, describe the Eurozone Crisis as:

What started as a debt crisis in Greece in late 2009 has evolved into a broader economic crisis in the Eurozone that threatens economic stability in Europe and beyond. Some analysts view the Eurozone crisis as the biggest potential threat to the U.S. economic recovery. (Nelson *et al.*, 2012, p. ii)

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[22] The Eurozone consists of Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Spain.
[23] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eurozone

The current Eurozone crisis has been unfolding since late 2009, when "a new Greek government revealed that previous Greek governments had been underreporting the budget deficit" (Nelson *et al.*, 2012, p. 2). The crisis subsequently spread to Ireland and Portugal, while raising concerns about Italy, Spain, the European banking system, and more fundamental imbalances within the Eurozone (p. 2).

For the authors, the Eurozone faces at least four major, and related, economic challenges: a) concerns persist about high levels of public debt in some Eurozone countries, often referred to as the "periphery"[24], and whether these countries will default on their debt; b) weaknesses in the Eurozone's banking system are compounding concerns about public debt levels; c) there are concerns about the lack of growth and high unemployment in the Eurozone, particularly among the Eurozone periphery; and d) persistent trade imbalances have developed within the Eurozone over the past decade, and some argue that these imbalances make the Eurozone more vulnerable to financial crises (Nelson *et al.*, 2012, pp. 2-3).

European leaders and institutions have implemented a number of policy measures, some of which include: a) financial assistance from other Eurozone governments and the IMF to Ireland, Portugal and Greece, b) austerity programs and structural reforms, c) losses on Greek bonds, d) European Central Bank support, European governance reforms to create a new fiscal compact, and e) proposals to increase funding for the IMF (Nelson *et al.*, 2012, pp. 4-6).

Some analysts and U.S. and European officials have expressed concern about the potential effects of the Eurozone crisis on U.S.-European political and security cooperation. Some observers suggest that the Eurozone crisis has hindered the EU's ability to respond more robustly,

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[24] Some policymakers and analysts refer to Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain as the Eurozone "periphery" and a group of mostly northern European countries, including Austria, Belgium, Germany, Finland, France, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands as the Eurozone "core" (Nelson *et al.*, 2012, p. 2).

both politically and economically, to the recent transformations in the Middle East and North

Africa. However, despite Europe's internal financial problems, others contend that the European

countries have a proven track record of close cooperation with the United States on a multitude of

such common international issues as Iran's nuclear ambitions, law enforcement and

counterterrorism cooperation, a NATO mission in Libya, and peace and stability in the Balkans

and Afghanistan (Nelson *et al.*, 2012, p. 14). As such, those of this view remain more optimistic

that the Eurozone crisis will not significantly alter the EU's willingness or commitment to

transatlantic cooperation (p. 15).

Beets and Willekens (2009) discuss, in their Research Note they produced for the

European Commission, Demography Network of the European Observatory on the Social

Situation and Demography, the impact of the economic recession on remittances and on various

migration groups, which they classify as labor market and return migration, family migration,

student migration, and refugees, asylum seekers and environmental migration. The authors

conclude that of all types of migration, the labor migration, in which they include economic

migrants disguised as asylum seekers, students or marriage migrants, will be affected most (Beets

& Willekens, 2009, p. 1). Concerned about the absence of empirical evidence, and "speculating

on the basis of theory" being the only approach they are left with (p. 2), they argue that "social

capital" and "social security" are "important cushions to absorb the conjunctural shocks" (p. 3),

and give the situation in Spain as an example. In Spain, with high rates of unemployment and

youth unemployment, many people rely on their family for support. The authors cite previous

findings that foreign workers without social capital and social security are more likely to return

(p. 3). Although they make reference to foreign *workers*, not foreign students, it is possible to

expand the scope of the finding to cover the latter group as well. If foreign (or, non-immigrant,

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international) students can have support from family or friends, they will be able to endure the adverse consequences of economic crises, and they will stay in the destination country; otherwise, they will return to their countries of origin. The climate conducive to a restrictive regime of international migration during an economic recession "helps" some of those who have tried to battle the ever-hardening economic conditions to make their decision to leave the host country for their home countries. In general, as Beets and Willekens (2009) remark, a recession fuels an anti-immigrant mood (p. 6); and, in cases of increasing rates of unemployment, the native people of the destination country may not be much eager to distinguish the international students from foreign workers, who pose a potential threat holding job positions while the native people suffer from unemployment.

Beets and Willekens' (2009) comment on the foreigners' decision to return to their home countries in the absence of (what they call as) social capital is important in that it draws attention to the return patterns of foreign people in a host country. The statistical data show that the influx of international students maintains a steady, even upward trend, but it does not decrease. This holds true even during the periods of economic crises. However, the point that is as important as how many international students arrive in a destination country is how many of them do stay in the country but do not return to their home countries during those periods. The influx is in such great numbers that it may compensate for the numbers of returnees. It can be argued that this issue requires some further research.

Focusing on the impact of economic recession on student migration in Europe, Beets and Willekens (2009) comment that student inflows, particularly self-financed flows as often is the case with students from China and India, are sensitive to economic conditions (p. 8). The result

will be that they easily choose for educational institutions closer to home and may thus not come

to Europe. So, they conclude, the numbers of international students are likely to drop (p. 8).

Brexit

This simple portmanteau word, which has become used to denote the United Kingdom

leaving the European Union (EU), coined by merging the words *Br*itain and *exit* to get Brexit, in

a way as a Greek exit from the EU was dubbed Grexit[25] (Wheeler & Hunt, 2016), stands for one

of the most influential political movements in at least the present century. Brexit, a term coined in

2012 before becoming "mainstream political currency" in 2015, moved from "being a niche

obsession to a victorious, mainstream political movement" (Mason, 2016). Briefly stated, it is a

referendum which was held on 23 June 2016 to decide whether the U.K. should leave or remain

in the European Union. The Leave won by 52% to 48% with the referendum turnout of 71.8%,

more than 30 million people voting. Of the countries that the U.K. consists of, England voted

strongly for Brexit, by 53.4% of Leave and 46.6% of Remain, as did Wales, with Leave getting

52.5% of the vote and Remain 47.5%. Scotland and Northern Ireland both voted for staying in the

EU. Scotland voted against Brexit by 62% of Remain and 38% of Leave, while 55.8% in

Northern Ireland voted Remain and 44.2% Leave (Wheeler & Hunt, 2016). Britain's self-ejection

from Europe is the culmination not just of four months of heady campaigning but four decades of

latent Euroscepticism, which, never really went away (Mason, 2016).

The European Union, then-called European Economic Community (EEC), was created by

the Treaty of Rome in 1957 to foster economic co-operation with the idea that countries which

trade together are more likely to avoid going to war with each other (Wheeler & Hunt, 2016). The

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[25] The potential exit of Greece from the euro area monetary union in the 2010s.

origin of the "European Idea" and the first European programs in education were based on the notion of learning for peace (Teekens, 2014, p.3). It is an economic and political partnership involving now 28 European countries[26].

The position of the U.K. in the EU should be of a fundamental role, and the Brexit should be such an unexpected, even shocking action for younger generations and for those who are less interested in European history. However, neither the accession of the U.K. into the EU nor its remaining in the Union has ever been a smooth process, and its leaving the EU can be seen as an action that happened "at last".

The U.K. was not a signatory to the Treaty of Rome, and the country applied to join the EEC in 1963 and again in 1967, both of which were vetoed by the then President of France, Charles de Gaulle, because, from working practices to agriculture, a number of aspects of Britain's economy had made Britain incompatible with Europe and that Britain harbored a "deep-seated hostility" to any pan-European project ("United Kingdom withdrawal from the European Union", 2016). After de Gaulle relinquished the French presidency, the U.K. made a third application for membership—this time successful, joining the EEC (also called the Common Market) on 1 January 1973, when the Conservative Party (*Tories*) was in power.

Campaigners have agitated for EU withdrawal ever since the U.K. joined the Common Market in 1973. The Labour Party's official policy for the next decade was to quit, and a sizeable proportion of Conservatives have never been comfortable Europeans (Mason, 2016). The opposition Labour Party (*Whigs*) contested the October 1974 general election with a commitment

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[26] In order of the years of membership: (1958) Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands; (1973) Denmark, Ireland, United Kingdom; (1981) Greece; (1986) Portugal, Spain; (1995) Austria, Finland, Sweden; (2004) Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia; (2007) Bulgaria, Romania; (2013) Croatia. The accession procedures of Albania, Montenegro, Serbia, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey are underway. (http://europa.eu/about-eu/countries/index_en.htm)

to renegotiate Britain's terms of membership of the EEC and then hold a referendum on whether to remain in the EEC on the new terms, In 1975, under the ruling Labour Party, the United Kingdom held the first referendum on whether the U.K. should remain in the EEC. Almost every administrative county in the U.K. had a majority of Remain ("United Kingdom withdrawal from the European Union", 2016).

Between the two referendums of 1975 and 2016 on the same question, public unease arose due to the failure to prevent immigration from piling pressure on jobs markets and public services, and, more recently, to acknowledge the numbers of Europeans making new homes in the U.K. after the EU's expansion east in 2004 and 2007 (Mason, 2016). The discontent with the scale of migration to the U.K. was the biggest factor for the electorate's possible voting of Leave. Before the 2010 election, the present Conservative Prime Minister David Cameron promised to lower the numbers of migration from hundreds to tens of thousands, which he failed both then and in 2015. Mason (2016) claims that if it had not been for the rise of Nigel Farage, the most vocally xenophobic spokesman of Brexit, and of the U.K. Independence Party (UKIP), Cameron might never have called the referendum. The Leave campaign emphasized also the economy and sovereignty but then solely focused on immigration and immigration-related issues such as shortages of primary school places, difficulty in getting a General Practitioner appointment, and depressed wages (Mason, 2016).

Philip Collins speaks sharply in relation to the immigration issue, stating:

This was a referendum about immigration which was disguised as a referendum about the European Union. The campaign leaders were all motivated by hostility to the EU which most voters find incomprehensible. The bulk of the vote for Leave, though, was a howl of

anger at immigration. The Leave campaign has, whether it knows it or not, made a promise it will find it impossible to redeem (Collins, 2016).

Apparently, "immigration" is a more complicated question than it seems. Only 3.6 per cent of people in Sunderland, where Leave won a massive victory, were born outside the U.K. (Collins, 2016). Therefore, immigration may not really be an issue in Sunderland because there are almost no immigrants living there; but, as Collins (2016) argues, "immigration" is.

The timing of the referendum is also considered highly noteworthy: "[…] when populist revolts against elites were gaining momentum, from Eurosceptic parties in France, Germany, Austria and Scandinavia to Donald Trump's brand of Republicanism in the U.S." (Mason, 2016).

The British Prime Minister David Cameron has recently announced that he will resign by October 2016. His replacement will possibly be Boris Johnson, the former Mayor of London, whom Ward (2016) characterizes as a "flamboyant, polarizing" person "likened to an intellectual Donald Trump". She further argues that throughout Britain, ethnic wounds have been torn open by the bitter campaign leading up to the vote, as the regionally split Brexit vote also threatens the U.K.'s geographical unity. In the Remain-voting north, Scotland's government is preparing for a new referendum on independence, and Northern Ireland's Catholic Sinn Fein party is calling for a vote on uniting with the Republic of Ireland, which is a member of the EU. Protestant politicians would likely oppose it (Ward, 2016). For the author, "the Conservatives will now have until 2020 to rule a Britannia increasingly isolated from Europe, and divided against itself" (Ward, 2016) between a pro-European Scotland and Northern Ireland, and an anti-European England and Wales, which will strain the country's very idea of itself (ICEF, 2016h). Besides, "This vote doesn't represent the younger generation who will have to live with the consequences," as said in a widely circulated post on Twitter. In addition, EU leaders have already said that they now

expect the U.K. to leave the union "as soon as possible" in order to minimize any such confusion for all concerned (ICEF, 2016h).

An immediate consequence of the Brexit vote is in the exchange rates. The British pound lost about 10% of its value against the U.S. dollar in the morning after the vote, which is its lowest exchange rate in more than 30 years. Many analysts, including those at the British Treasury, have widely predicted that a Brexit vote would push the U.K. into a recession (ICEF, 2016h).

From the point of view of British educators, academic institutions and education associations in the U.K., the important question in respect to the Brexit decision is whether or not the U.K. remains a welcoming and open destination for international students. Many of the individual institutions and peak bodies in the U.K. have already been quick to react to the results asserting their continued commitment to internationalization, and student and faculty mobility in particular, in the immediate aftermath of the referendum result, comments the *International Consultants for Education and Fairs*[27] (ICEF, 2016h).

Other comments and reaction to the result include statements from leading educational organizations. The *Universities UK*[28] sees leaving the EU to be creating significant challenges for universities and focuses on securing support that allows U.K. universities to continue to be

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[27] Based in Bonn, Germany, ICEF GmbH (International Consultants for Education and Fairs) is a global market leader in business-to-business networking events and services in the international education sector. The *ICEF Monitor* is a news source providing original articles of relevant news and information from sources around the world. It is an unbiased service of scouring the industry for the latest, critical updates to save readers time and present them with strategic, need-to-know information. http://monitor.icef.com/about-icef-monitor/

[28] *Universities UK* is an advocacy organization for universities, internationalization and immigration, influencing the future of research policy, promoting the student experience, driving innovation, skills and growth, and highlighting the value of European union membership (http://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk/about/Pages/what-we-do.aspx).universities in the United Kingdom, having the priorities of promoting the impact and value of universities, internationalization and immigration, influencing the future of research policy, promoting the student experience, driving innovation, skills and growth, and highlighting the value of European union membership (http://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk/about/Pages/what-we-do.aspx).

"global in their outlook, internationally networked and an attractive destination for talented people from across Europe". *English UK*[29] urges the government to remember that while there has been a great deal of debate about immigration, the majority of people in the U.K. do not classify students as migrants, because "students stay for a short while and then return home to influential positions with positive views of the U.K." The *UK Council for International Student Affairs* evaluates the result as clearly sending "very worrying signals to thousands of EU students and indeed British students hoping to participate in EU mobility programs" acknowledging the need that the students in U.K. be re-assured that there will be virtually no consequences for them (ICEF, 2016h).

Student surveys conducted in advance of the 23 June referendum had indicated that a Brexit could discourage international students from choosing the U.K., adding to the challenging immigration and trading conditions in recent years. *Universities UK* report show that there were about 125,000 EU students at British higher education institutions in 2013/14, representing 5% of total university enrolment in the country. Nearly half of those students, representing about 2.5% of total university enrolment in U.K., came from the five leading sending markets in Europe: Germany (13,675), France (11,955), Ireland (10,905), Italy (10,525), and Greece (10,130). As long as the U.K. remains in the EU, those students are the same as domestic students paying the same fees as British students and having access to the same financial aid. The report anticipated that in the event of a Brexit, U.K. universities would be entitled to charge EU students differential fees. In addition to that, student loans, the massive Erasmus+ mobility program and such other

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[29] *English UK* is the national association of accredited English language centers in the United Kingdom. It is a U.K. registered charity with the key aim of advancing the education of international students "in the English language, in the home of the English language" pursuing "excellence in all aspects of English language teaching and strive to create a welcoming environment for international students in the U.K. (http://www.englishuk.com/who-are-we).

supports would fall away. There will be less financial aid, tuitions would probably increase, the U.K. will be outside of *Erasmus+*, and new immigration requirements may arise (ICEF, 2016d).

Universities UK report published before the referendum estimated that EU students in the U.K. generate £3.7 billion (US$5.25 billion) in economic impact and support more than 34,000 jobs. The organization also state that EU students make a very important academic and cultural contribution to university life, creating "an international, outward-looking culture on campuses which, in turn, benefits U.K. students", and warns, "Leaving the EU and putting up barriers to work and study makes it more likely that European students and researchers will choose to go elsewhere, strengthening our competitors and weakening the UK's universities." Those 125,000 European students certainly will not disappear all of a sudden to go to other study destinations; however, it is not unreasonable that the Brexit decision will make the U.K. less attractive to European students (ICEF, 2016d).

International Higher Education Initiatives

Another set of factors having a direct or indirect influence over the laws and policies governing the enrollment of U.S. inbound international students can be classified as a separate category of "international higher education initiatives". Although they are political in origin, they do not exactly match the political context as described in the section above; and, hence, a distinct category.

European Union Initiatives

After the World War II, the greatest (and, hopefully, the last) disaster the humankind has experienced with tens of millions of lives lost in the most tragic and inconceivable ways, Europe

turned to the ideal or policy (or dream?) of being a unity. The European Union and the Council of Europe re-emerged in this world context.

A way to eradicate all the possibilities of a next catastrophe was to eradicate the concept of "the alien". As mind and language mutually influence one another, the concepts and, thus, the words of "foreign" and "foreigner" were replaced with other words of non-hostile connotations. "Foreign language", for instance, was replaced with "second/third/fourth/etc. language", and later with "additional language", when numbering sounded awkward and obviously fell inconvenient, to denote any language learnt in addition to one's native language. A word to replace "foreign" was "international"; and there were no longer "foreign students", aliens of possible threat into one's home, but there were "international students", guests of colorful cultures to be welcomed joyfully. There were no "differences" that segregate people into hostile blocks of suspicious and mostly threatening origins, but "diversity", the pieces that constitute a harmonious whole.

One could only fear what he doesn't know; and "aliens" were the people to be feared because they were not known. Therefore, mobility of the European peoples among European countries was encouraged, even mandated, so that there were no "aliens" any longer.

The European Union with its 28 member and 6 candidate countries[30] and the Council of Europe with its 47 member and 6 observer countries[31] (among which is the U.S.) today are rather far from the spirit and enthusiasm of 1949, when the Council of Europe was founded by six European countries in May and first expanded the same year with the addition of a few more countries (among which is Turkey). The older generations who lived the devastation of World War II have passed away; and it is arguable whether the younger generations of today revive the

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[30] http://europa.eu/about-eu/countries/index_en.htm
[31] http://www.coe.int/en/web/about-us/our-member-states

same spirit when they are making plans to join the prestigious league of E.U. on humanitarian reasons apart from mere interests.

Whatever the cause, the effect upon becoming a member state of the Council of Europe and the European Union is a number of obligations, one of which is the enhanced and ever-encouraged mobility of their citizens among the member countries, especially of students, teachers and academicians. The world is now a global village; and when one part of it, especially a "strong" part of it initiates some action, it is inevitable that the rest of the village will be affected and will need to adopt an approach—if not join the bandwagon—similar to that part.

There has been a large amount of intra-E.U. higher education mobility and, more recently, mobility between the E.U. and the rest of the world. Facilitating this cross-border movement, the E.U. initiatives have been influential beyond the E.U.'s borders (Terry, 2011, p. 317). The U.S. obviously ceased its pre-war isolationist policy; and when there is a policy of enhanced student mobility even on the other side of the Atlantic, this side will find itself in a position to review and revise the policies that do not fit, even weaken, that "international" mobility.

This is the point also made in Terry (2011):

The European Union (EU) has assumed a leading role in promoting cross-border higher education within the EU, but its influence is felt beyond its borders since some of its initiatives have been emulated elsewhere (p. 313).

Since authority over education matters is reserved to the E.U. member states, the European Union's influence in the area of education is limited to "soft law" measures designed to influence member states' higher education. The oldest and most important of such measures is

the ERASMUS exchange program, which began in 1987 as one of the several programs under the wider Socrates program, for the university students, teachers and administrative staff. The Socrates program later became "Socrates II" and, finally, "Lifelong Learning Program". This initiative also funds the participants in the exchange program by a specially reserved pool budget contributed to by the member countries depositing some annual amount in Euros (Terry, 2011, p. 313-4). "Erasmus+" is, however, the new E.U. program for Education, Training, Youth and Sport for 2014-2020, starting in January 2014[32]. The overall budget for Erasmus+ (2014-2020) is €14.7 billion with an additional € 1.68 billion made available through the E.U.'s external action budget for funding actions with third countries (partner countries). The program provides mobility opportunities for more than 4 million people[33].

Although the Erasmus Plus seems to concern the European countries, there is an agreement signed between the European Union and the United States. The "Atlantis" program is a E.U. – U.S. bilateral agreement primarily aiming to promote understanding between people of the European Union and the United States of America and to improve the quality of their human resource development. The bilateral agreement supports consortia of higher education and training institutions working together at undergraduates or graduates level to improve their educational services, to compare and modernize curricula and to develop joint study programs with full recognition of credits and qualifications (OJEU, 2006). The origin of the European – American cooperation in education and training dates from the "Transatlantic Declaration on E.U.-U.S. Relations" of 1990. After a two-year phase, a first 5-year Cooperation Agreement between the European Union and the United States was signed in 1995, which was renewed in

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[32] http://ec.europa.eu/programs/erasmus-plus/index_en.htm
[33] http://ec.europa.eu/programs/erasmus-plus/discover/key-figures/index_en.htm

2000 for another five years and renewed again in 2006, leading to the Atlantis program on higher education and training[34].

The responsible entities for the management of the Program are the European Commission's Policy and Budgetary setting Education and Culture, and Executive Agency for Education Audiovisual and Culture on the European side, and the U.S. Department of Education, International and Foreign Language Education Office of Postsecondary Education on the American side. The Agreement defines a number of actions (OJEU, 2006, p. 39), in which the Parties:

1) shall provide support to higher education and vocational education and training institutions which form joint EC/US consortia for the purpose of undertaking joint projects in the area of higher education and vocational education and training (Action 1 — Joint European Community/United States consortia projects);

2) may provide financial support for student mobility to joint consortia of higher education and vocational training institutions that have a proven track record of excellence in the implementation of joint projects funded by the Parties (Action 2 — Excellence (follow-up) mobility projects);

3) may provide financial support to multilateral projects involving organizations active in the field of higher education and vocational training with a view to enhancing collaboration between the European Community and the United States (Action 3 — Policy-oriented measures);

4) intend to provide scholarships to highly qualified professionals (including professionals-in-training, who may be engaged in advanced studies at universities and professional schools) who want to undertake studies or training, in areas of specific relevance to

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[34] http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/bilateral_cooperation/eu_us/program/about_eu_usa_en.php

the EU/US relationship, which would be jointly identified by the Parties (Action 4 — 'Schuman-Fulbright' grants); and

5) may provide financial support to alumni associations involving students who have participated in exchanges supported by the EC/US cooperation program (Action 5 — Alumni association).

Among the U.S. institutions of higher education which participated in the program are *Georgia Technical University* ("Policy Project on International Continuing Education Program Benchmarking Based on an EFQM Quality Process", Start: 09/01/2009, End: 08/31/2011, Funding: $ 75,816), *Georgia Institute of Technology* ("Graduate Dual Degree Program in Electrical Computing and Engineering and Computer Science", Start: 09/01/2007, End: 08/31/2011, Funding: $ 408,000), and *Georgia State University* ("Developing Globally Literate Teachers Through Excellence in Mobility Projects", Start: 09/01/2010, End: 08/31/2014, Funding: $ 180,000; and "Undergraduate Dual Degree Program in International Economics and Modern Languages and Economics and Management", Start: 09/01/2009, End: 08/31/2014, Funding: $ 409,948) [35].

The needs of the ERASMUS Program led to the creation of another E.U. initiative: the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS), a mechanism that a student's home institution needed to recognize the time the student spent in the host country so that the student can participate effectively in the ERASMUS Program. The ECTS was expanded in order to standardize credit accumulation and facilitate credit transfer. Because the ECTS has been embraced by the Bologna Process, its influence extends well beyond the borders of the E.U. (Terry, 2011, p. 315).

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[35]http://maps.google.com/maps/ms?ie=UTF8&hl=en&msa=0&msid=102474746775347744221.000470ca2a49b2d84
2a8c&ll=57.340971,-44.952598&spn=58.550024,156.652439&source=embed

The European Higher Education Area

Although the consequences of the "Bologna Process" can be considered a number of important developments of mainly a regional nature, its influences are beyond the E.U. countries. The Sorbonne-Bologna Process, which began in Paris in 1998 by the signing of the Sorbonne Declaration by the ministers of four E.U. states, but later called simply "Bologna Process" named after the city where the ministers met the next year for the second time, led to the creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) (Terry, 2011, p. 318). The goal was to remake the face of higher education in Europe so that it would be more competitive.

The Diploma Supplement, developed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and later expanded by UNESCO, the European Commission, and the Council of Europe, was introduced as a standardized form that can be attached to a diploma in order to explain its meaning to the higher education institutions located in another country. The Bologna Process Members made its adoption one of their primary goals (Terry, 2011, p. 320).

As of January 2011, the EHEA's work program included social dimension, mobility, lifelong learning (by means of *EUCEN Observatory*), employability, qualification frameworks/ degree structures (by means of *ENIC/NARIC Network*), education, research and innovation, international openness, data collection/reporting, funding, quality assurance (by means of *ENQA*, *European Consortium for Accreditation*, and *The Tuning Project*), recognition, transparency tools (by means of *Europass* and *U-Map*), and student centered learning.

A number of global developments can be seen as having been influenced by or in relation to the Bologna Process. These, in addition to the European initiatives, have occurred around the world, including in Asia, Africa, Australia, and North America (Terry, 2011, p. 325). The

education ministers of a number of Southeast Asian countries held conferences on the Bologna Process, and ten countries agreed to focus on a number of issues among those addressed in the Bologna Process. One of them is student mobility. In Africa, although some African countries have rejected certain aspects of the Bologna Process reforms, a number of different countries and organizations have been following and implementing them (p. 326). In Oceania, the governments of Australia and New Zealand have been following Bologna Process developments for enhanced engagement and alignment (p. 327-8).

As for North America, although it has been less active, as a region, in following and implementing the Bologna Process reforms, individual countries within North America are actively following these developments. The members of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada agreed to "commit to undertaking a course of action to address the implications of the Bologna Process for Canadian universities and plan a path forward for engaging with our European partners, both old and new, in a spirit that mirrors Europe's own renewal in higher education" (Terry, 2011, p. 329). The stakeholders around the world, as well as the U.S. Department of Education, the Council of Higher Education, and other important U.S. higher education stakeholders, are monitoring and following Bologna Process/EHEA developments. For Terry (2011, p. 330), there might be global pressure on the U.S. to harmonize its systems to the global consensus at least in terms of such "soft law" developments as the implementation of ECTS.

Higher Education Initiatives of the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation

The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) is a forum for 21 Pacific Rim member economies working in three broad areas of trade and investment liberalization, business

facilitation, and economic and technical cooperation[36]. The word 'economies' is used to describe APEC members because the APEC cooperative process is predominantly concerned with trade and economic issues, with members engaging with one another as economic entities[37]. In 1989, 12 Asia-Pacific economies met in Canberra, Australia to establish APEC. The founding members were Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, New Zealand, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and the United States. In 1991, China, Hong Kong, China and Chinese Taipei joined. Mexico and Papua New Guinea followed in 1993. Chile acceded in 1994. And in 1998, Peru, Russia and Viet Nam joined[38]. APEC operates on the basis of non-binding commitments, open dialogue and equal respect for the views of all participants. It has no treaty obligations required of its participants. Decisions made within APEC are reached by consensus and commitments are undertaken on a voluntary basis[39]. Consequently, its higher education initiatives are "soft law" rather than "hard law" initiatives (Terry, 2011, p. 332).

APEC Education Network has issued or commissioned a number of reports, surveys, and studies addressing higher education issues, among which were the issues related to the Diploma Supplement and supporting its use. It also focused on the "qualifications framework" concept of the Bologna Process, and issued a report intended to facilitate increased transparency and reliability of information about qualification frameworks across the APEC region. Terry (2011, p. 332-4) argues that the U.S. may face pressure to comply if APEC members develop a consensus about such higher education initiatives as standardized unit/credit systems, diploma supplements, and recognition principles.

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[36] http://www.apec.org/About-Us/How-APEC-Operates/Scope-of-Work.aspx
[37] http://www.apec.org/About-Us/About-APEC/Member-Economies.aspx
[38] http://www.apec.org/About-Us/About-APEC/History.aspx
[39] http://www.apec.org/FAQ.aspx

Higher Education and the World Trade Organization: General Agreement on Trade in Services (the GATS)

World Trade Organization (WTO)'s General Agreement on Trade in Services (the GATS) was the first global trade agreement to cover services. The WTO at present has 160 members[40] and a member country's failure to comply with its GATS's "hard law" obligations can have consequences beyond exclusion from the organization (Terry, 2011, p. 334), such as retaliatory trade sanctions that may be imposed by other WTO members (p. 345).

In his lengthy analysis of GATS obligations, Terry (2011, p. 339) gives an interpretation of U.S. commitments on four different "modes of supply" by which the service might be supplied, namely, 1) Cross-border supply, 2) Consumption Abroad, 3) Commercial presence, and 4) Presence of natural persons[41].

"Cross-border supply" refers to the situation in which the service itself crosses an international border, which, in the higher education "sector", applies to correspondence schools or online or virtual higher education programs. "Consumption Abroad" refers to the situation in which the WTO member states' citizens and residents leave their own country in order to obtain the service. This would refer to the situation in which U.S. students travel to another country to study abroad. "Commercial presence" refers to the ability of foreign firms to establish themselves in the U.S., which, in the higher education sector, applies to the ability of a foreign university or institution to physically establish a branch in the U.S. And, "presence of natural persons" refers to the ability of individuals, such as foreign service providers and service users, to cross the border into that WTO member state, which, in the higher education sector, includes the ability of

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[40] http://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/tif_e/org6_e.htm
[41] http://i-tip.wto.org/services/%28S%28sy4cbwxxwq4alm15tx3ejvsd%29%29/GATS_Detail.aspx/?id=United%20States%20of%20America&sector_path=

foreign faculty and students to study in the U.S. This mode does not include any immigration or visa-related limitations since those issues are excluded from the coverage of the WTO and the GATS (Terry, 2011, p. 339).

International Initiatives of the OECD

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is another organization that has been active in the field of higher education with a cross-border reach. With the motto of "Better Policies for Better Lives", the OECD "uses its wealth of information on a broad range of topics to help governments foster prosperity and fight poverty through economic growth and financial stability" to "help ensure the environmental implications of economic and social development are taken into account"[42]. Mutual examination by governments, multilateral surveillance and a peer review process through which the performance of individual countries is monitored by their peers are all carried out at committee-level. Hence, the OECD initiatives are "soft law" rather than "hard law" because the consequence of a failure to comply is exclusion from the group, rather than "hard law" remedies (Terry, 2011, p. 350) of the GATS. The 34 member countries include "many of the world's most advanced countries but also emerging countries like Mexico, Chile and Turkey"[43].

With its "Directorate" of education, the OECD's program on institutional management in higher education brings together higher education institutions and governments to share best practices, ideas and potential models to meet these challenges through networks, studies and research. The "University Futures", one of the projects of the Centre for Education for Research and Innovation, aims to inform and facilitate strategic change to be made by government

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[42] http://www.oecd.org/about/whatwedoandhow/
[43] http://www.oecd.org/about/membersandpartners/#d.en.194378

decision-makers and other key stakeholders in higher education, and sponsors analytical and thematic studies of the major relevant trends promoting dialogue among the stakeholders and experts in higher education (Terry, 2011, p. 351).

International Initiatives of UNESCO

The Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region (CETS No.: 165) of 1997, or "Lisbon Convention" in short, which was jointly developed by UNESCO and the Council of Europe in order to supplement the existing conventions concerning recognition of higher-education degrees, is, for Terry (2011, p. 347), one of the most important of UNESCO's initiatives. Among the Council of Europe countries, Greece, Monaco, and San Marino have neither signed nor ratified the Convention. Of the non-members of the Council of Europe, Canada and the United States have signed but not yet ratified the Convention[44]. It is due to the issues of the agreement with respect to the recognition of higher education degrees that the U.S. maintains the U.S Network for Education Information (USNEI) to participate in the ENIC/NARIC Network (Terry, 2011, p. 349).

U.S. Interest in Higher Education International Initiatives

The U.S. stance vis-à-vis European and international initiatives is more than being a detached observer and certainly not indifference. The U.S. Department of Education has several offices the mission of which is to focus on such international initiatives. One of the most important of these offices is the International Affairs Office, which leads and coordinates the Department's international activities and serves as the Department's liaison office to international organizations, ministries of education abroad, and the diplomatic community in the United States

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[44] http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/Commun/ChercheSig.asp?NT=165&CM=8&DF=03/02/2011&CL=ENG

(Terry, 2011, p. 352). It is responsible for the U.S. Network for Education Information, coordinating the education aspects of U.S. bilateral agreements, and the work with the EU, UNESCO, the OECD, and APEC (p. 353). Its responsibilities also include interagency cooperation with the other federal agencies and departments that are involved in issues related to education (p. 355).

The Advanced Training and Research Group and International Studies Group of the U.S. Department of Education are responsible for certain international initiatives, administering another group of programs related to international higher education. National Center for Education Statistics of the U.S. Department of Education includes an International Activities Program that monitors how U.S. education compares with education in other countries (p. 354). In addition, the U.S. Department of Homeland Security administers the Student and Exchange Visitor Program to monitor the nonimmigrant "student and exchange visitor"[45] process (p. 355).

Social and Motivational Factors

Another set of factors influencing laws and policies governing the enrollment of U.S. inbound international students can be related to the societal context. The quality of the education offered by an institution of higher education and the quality of the academic staff are two important factors directly influencing international students' choice of destination countries. However, it is in such a societal context that the student expectations can or cannot be satisfied.

Since international students have become a "sector", in which some sort of "service" is "sold" to the clients (a word, here, for which people do not much seem to be too uncomfortable to

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[45] F, M, and J visa categories.

use the word "consumers", even "customers"), some researchers use the SERVQUAL criteria of Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) to assess the quality of the education service that the students receive. Education and university education in particular are priceless, for sure, since they depend on humankind's thousands of years' scientific, scholarly and professional background; and the idea of education as some kind of goods to be sold and purchased may be disturbing, though, obviously, becoming less so, or not at all, as the income from that sector can form a portion of a country's budget, that is too large to be calmly ignored and generously presented to others in the highly competitive market place of today's global village. At least, such an income is necessary for the institutions to maintain the quality of the education and educational environment.

In their landmark study in the field of marketing, Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) determine the factors and elements in the service offered to consumers and the relationships between those elements as in the diagram (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985, p. 44) in Figure 18:
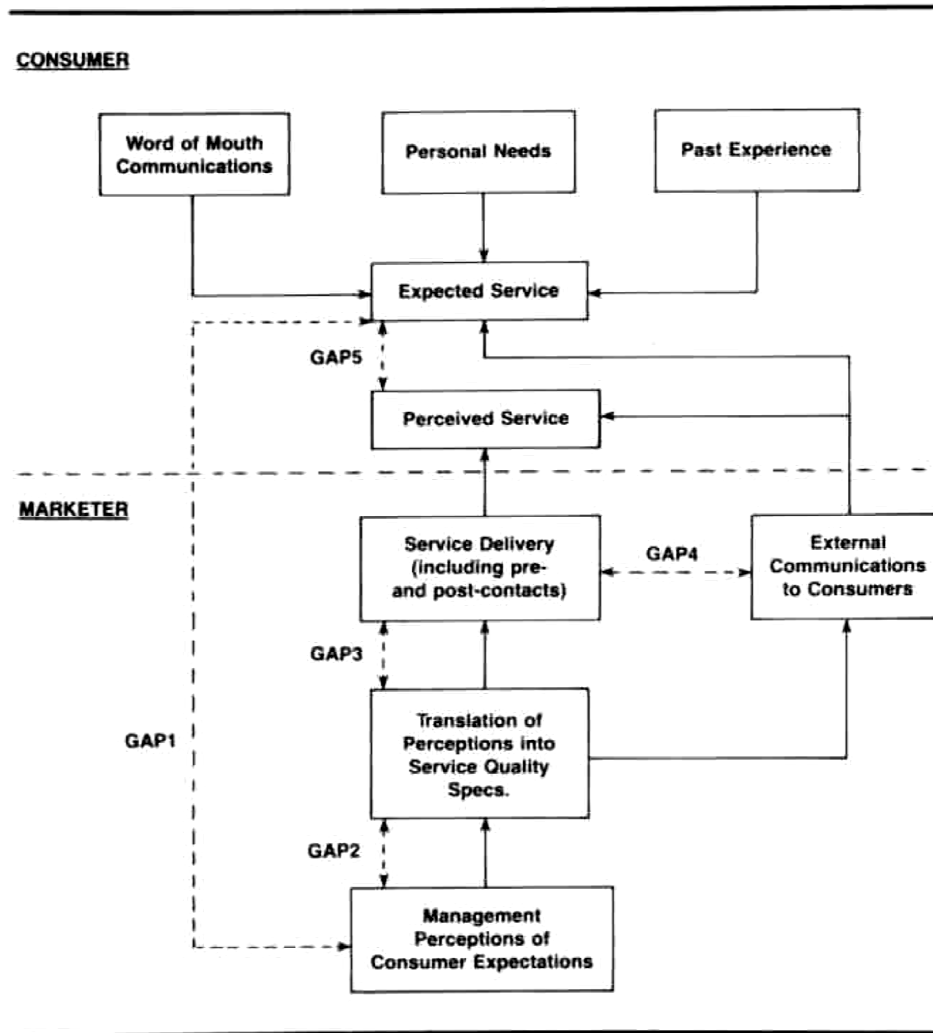
Figure 18. Service Quality Model of Parasuraman *et al.* (1985).

Overall, the larger the "gap" is between the indicated elements, the less satisfied are the consumers of that service. The authors further specify the determinants in the perception of the service quality. The following determinants are, in other words, the factors which will be effective in the optimization of the "gaps" influencing the consumer satisfaction (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985, p. 47):

1) *Reliability*, which involves consistency of performance and dependability. It means that the "firm" performs the service right the first time, and that the "firm" honors its promises.

2) *Responsiveness*, which concerns the willingness or readiness of "employees" to provide service. It involves timeliness of service.

3) *Competence*, which means possession of the required skills and knowledge to perform the service.

4) *Access*, which involves approachability and ease of contact.

5) *Courtesy*, which involves politeness, respect, consideration, and friendliness of "contact personnel".

6) *Communication*, which means keeping customers informed in language they can understand and listening to them. It may mean that the "company" has to adjust its language for different consumers, increasing the level of sophistication with a well-educated customer and speaking simply and plainly with a novice.

7) *Credibility*, which involves trustworthiness, believability, and honesty. It involves having the customer's best interest at heart.

8) *Security*, which is the freedom from danger, risk, or doubt.

9) *Understanding/Knowing the customer*, which involves making the effort to understand the customer's needs.

10) *Tangibles*, such as physical facilities, appearance of personnel, tools or equipment used to provide the service, *etc.*, which include the physical evidence of the service.

The authors visualize the relationship between these determinants and the elements in their service quality model as in the diagram (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985, p. 48) in Figure 19:
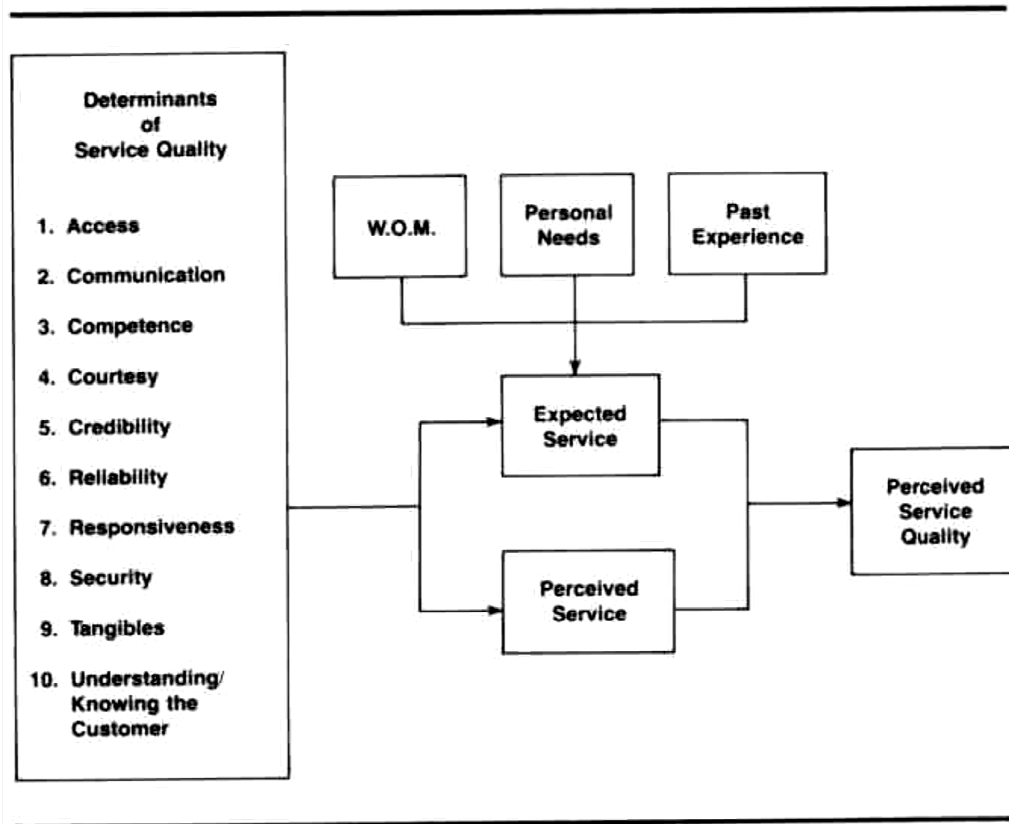
Figure 19. Determinants of Perceived Service Quality. (W.O.M.: Word of mouth communications)

The authors re-examine the contents of the ten determinants in their later study (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988) through statistical tools, and suggest five (instead of ten) determinants, combining some of the items in their 1985 study: *R*eliability, *A*ssurance, *T*angibles, *E*mpathy, and *R*esponsiveness; and, hence, the acronym RATER to replace SERVQUAL in later studies and use. They define the labels (in their original order) as in the following (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988, p. 23):

1) *Tangibles*: Physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel.

2) *Reliability*: Ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately.

3) *Responsiveness*: Willingness to help customers and provide prompt service.

4) *Assurance*: Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence.

5) *Empathy*: Caring, individualized attention the firm provides its customers.

Min *et al.* (2012, p. 130) re-interpret those determinants and specify their contents for a "consumer" in an educational environment (*i.e.*, an international student) as the following:

1) *Responsiveness*: (a) The school would provide prompt service; (b) Staffs would be willing to help; and (c) The school would provide prompt response to my requests.

2) *Assurance*: (a) The school would be able to instill confidence in the success in my study; (b) The certificate or degree conferred by my school would enable me to get a job easily; (c) The course of study that I undertake would be popular; and (d) The course of study that I undertake would be in high demand.

3) *Empathy*: (a) Teaching staffs would be willing to provide individual attention to students; and (b) Support staffs would always provide individual attention to students.

4) *Tangibles*: (a) School staffs would be well dressed; (b) School staffs would have a good appearance; and (c) Materials used in the school would be visually appealing.

5) *Reliability*: (a) The school would always deliver services on-time; (b) The school would help students to solve their problems; (c) The school would perform right the first time; (d)

The school would keep students informed of events; and (e) The school would keep students informed of its services.

We are, therefore, left with 17 statements/criteria in total for consumer-student satisfaction. What all those SERVQUAL (or, RATER) criteria mean within the context of the present paper is that the student will be dissatisfied with the service he/she gets in that educational environment if the conditions are not met, and that the student will share his/her dissatisfaction with other people either in personal communication or in web portals.

Students considering study abroad today have a wide range of possible opportunities available to them in terms of providers and countries. Because of the savvy customer knowledge of the overseas students, the information related to the factors other than the destination country's quality of tertiary education is disseminated via the internet on relevant forum pages. Institutions and countries, in turn, appear to be more aware of the importance of "satisfied international graduates", and are thus looking to ensure that their foreign students receive the education and overall student experience they were promised during the admission process (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 28).

Sometimes student reactions to their dissatisfaction with the overall "service" provided for them can reach such excessive levels of protest demonstrations, lawsuits, even hunger strikes. Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) report a news article in the daily, *The Australian*, stating that a group of students from Japan, Thailand and China were threatening to sue RMIT University over alleged misleading advertising (p. 28). It is certainly an important but apparently neglected issue that the student dissatisfaction with the destination institution and country to the extent that they write in the forum pages or tell their friends not to go to that country is related to their

disappointment with what they experience in that university (and country) as a societal entity not as an academic institution. The present section briefly discusses such factors and issues.

International students' expectations of a tertiary education context and situation

According to the results of an extensive survey on international student satisfaction, conducted by the UK Council for International Education in 2006, while a large majority of overseas students seemed content with the quality of their course, they were less so in relation to their overall student experience, including the accommodation services available to them as non-U.K. nationals (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 28).

Language barrier is another cause of eventual dissatisfaction, though quite indirectly. The English language skills of international students are not developed enough to enable them to digest the instruction offered to them with their English-speaking class mates. A response to such a barrier can sometimes be too practical: lowering the standards of academic achievement for the international students. An Australian report published in 2006 suggested that the English-language abilities of more than 33% of Australian fee-paying foreign graduates were so poor that they should never have been granted a visa to study in the country, and even after graduation from Australian institutions, many foreign students did not have competent English-language skills (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 28). Higher education is a serious process requiring serious—though not rigid—standards so that a diploma can be issued. However, Verbik and Lasanowski argue, with approximately 20% of all higher education enrolments in Australia coming from overseas, universities have (arguably) become financially dependent on foreign fee-paying students (2007, p. 29), and may not afford to lose them because they cannot graduate due to the high standards made even more difficult to attain by a language barrier. In this respect, Verbik and Lasanowski comment that

residency and employment rights and quality accommodation […] stand to affect not only the student decision-making process prior to application, but after the overseas experience itself, and for this reason, the little 'perks and privileges' afforded students could go a long way in today's competitive market (2007, p. 29-30).

Several research studies have demonstrated the importance of the factors other than the quality of tertiary education in the international students' choice of their destination universities and countries. Wang (2004), addressing to this issue, classifies the primary motives of international students as (a) *Academic* (seeking purely high quality, high standard education with recognition from employers, quality teaching, seriously studying), (b) *Career* (seeking opportunities to get a job, now or later, attracted by job market conditions in the host country, aiming to settle down in the host country, *i.e.* migration), and (c) *Experiential* (putting high value on the experience of staying abroad, particularly the host country of study, looking for opportunities to actively participate in social and cultural events, expecting to meet with people from different countries, learning the international culture and host country's culture) (Wang, 2004; cited in Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 124-5).

A study on Vietnamese students' reasons for studying abroad showed (a) quality of education, (b) cultural experience, (c) to improve language skills, (d) to prepare for a future, (e) to obtain a degree, and (f) to become professional as their motives (MITC, 2010; cited in Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 125).

Min *et al.* (2012) classify the basic expectations and motives of international students studying in a foreign country as (a) seeking academic quality, and (b) seeking opportunities (such as employment, migration, experience and exposure). Those students want to explore different cultures, learn new ways of thinking and behaving, make new friends, and improve their cross-

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cultural knowledge and skills, so that the immersion in another culture often helps international students attain higher levels of self-esteem and confidence (p. 123).

In their research, Min *et al.* (2012), hypothesizing that the motives of the international students can be a crucial element in the expectation and perception of service quality and thus the level of satisfaction with regard to the service that international students receive, investigate the role of the motives of studying abroad in international students' judgment of the service quality of private higher education institutions (p. 123).

Motives affecting international students' mobility

Min *et al.* (2012) add one more dimension to the criteria set in Wang (2004):

1) academic and education,

2) career and migration,

3) pleasure and experience, and

4) work (Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 129).

Although the target group of their study was the inbound international students in Singapore, the research and its findings are interesting and noteworthy, because the results may imply some recommendations for the other countries as well. The results of their survey with the number of respondents counting 263 (p. 128) show which factors are the most effective motives in the target students' satisfaction with the service offered to them, and, therefore, in their decision of the destination country.

Among those four sets of motives, "career and migration" appears to be the most effective. In this motive category, the research participants stated that (1) before they came to the

destination country, they believed that it would be possible for them to work there after graduation; (2) they intend to find a job in the destination country after the graduation; and (3) they chose the destination country as the country of their study abroad, because it is a safe place (Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 129).

The second most effective motive was found to be "academic and education quality". For this category, the participants stated that (1) they decided to come to the destination country to obtain good education; (2) they chose to come to the destination country because it is well-known for its education quality; and (3) they came to the destination country to study so that they may go as far as they can in their educational career (Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 129).

"Pleasure and experience" was the effective motive in the third place. For this category, the participants stated that (1) they chose the destination country as the country of their study abroad, because it is a fun place; (2) they came to the destination country because they believed that it is possible to meet people from all over the world; (3) they have visited many places in the destination country while there; and (4) they have travelled to other countries as an international student pass holder of the destination country (Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 129).

"Work", however, was found to be the least effective. The statements in this category were that (1) before they came to the destination country, they heard that it was a land of opportunity for students like them to work while studying; (2) during their study there, they have already tried to find a job; (3) they need usually to get a job to help finance their study in the destination country; and (4) they wanted a course of study that allows them to gain work experience while studying (Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 129).

The motives and their percentage values are shown in Figure 20 below:
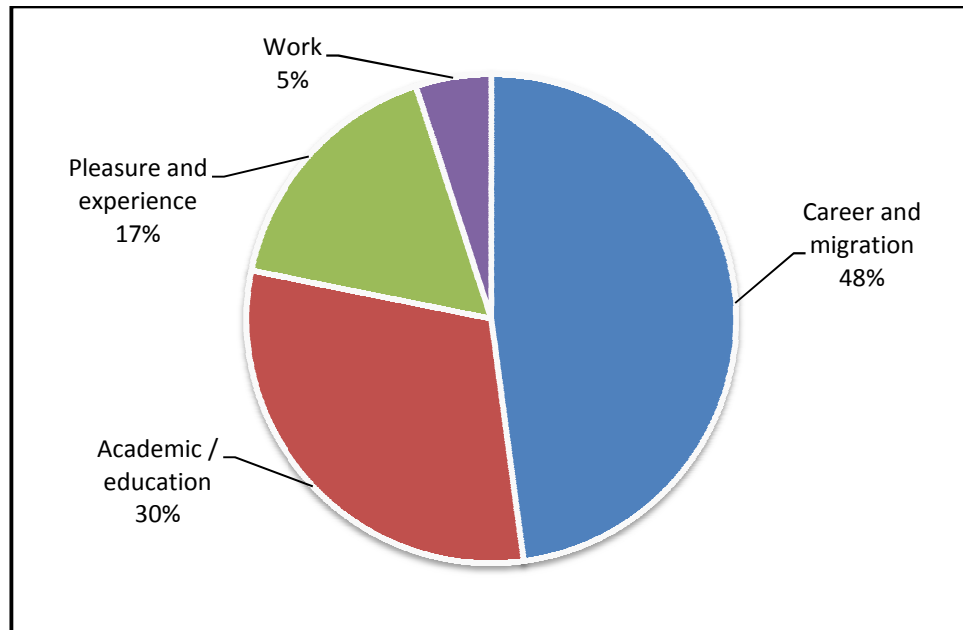
Figure 20. Primary Motives Affecting International Students' Decision of Destination Country. Adapted from Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 132.

Figure 21 below illustrates the service process in higher education with the places of expectation and actual experience:

Figure 21. Service Process in Higher Education. Adapted from Min et al., 2012, pp. 126 and 132.

Motives are important for a person to pursue action. The stronger the motives are, the greater the urge is to maintain the effort and complete the action. However, in the presence of

strong motives, the expectation level will be high, too. If, in such a strong-motive case, the actual experience is far from meeting one's expectations, the satisfaction level will be equally low.

Another study by Baier (2009) yielded results similar to Min *et al.* (2012). The motives for studying in Germany were (a) improving career opportunities, (b) German universities having good reputations, and (c) no tuition fees (Baier, 2009; cited in Min *et al.*, 2012, p. 125). The last one, "no tuition fees", and some related issues are briefly discussed in the section below.

Economic Factors

Global Economic Context

More than 70% of the inbound international students of U.S. come from Asia with more than 4.2 billion people (60% of the world population) living in 46 different countries. Asia is the fastest growing economic region and the largest continental economy by GDP PPP in the world. One of these countries is China with the world's second largest economy by nominal GDP.

Considering the expenditure associated with an overseas education, including tuition fees, living costs and visa and immigration charges, cost is a determinant in the international students' decision on the choice of their destination countries, so that it can motivate them to apply for study to particular destinations, and deter them from applying to others (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 32). Moreover, for the international students coming from the countries other than the U.S., U.K., and Australia, the high currency rates of the U.K. pound and U.S. dollar may dissuade students even further from going to high-cost nations, since unfavorable exchange rates even worsen the already considerable financial concerns of foreign students especially those from Africa and Southeast Asia. When the tuition fees are combined with the cost of living, financial

conditions can be a determining factor in the quality of the student experience, as well. As a result, Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) argue, cost is almost certain to play a more significant role in the development of strategic recruitment initiatives (p. 32).

Lewis (2012) argues that "economic factors and a desire to maximize career opportunities mean that young people are not only considering whether to go to university but also where to undertake their higher education; by which we mean not only which universities they will apply to, but also which *countries*" (Lewis, 2012, p. 34).

Costs associated with higher education

Financial conditions and budgetary constraints have been among the most important factors affecting human endeavor in almost every aspect of life, one of which is education. For some, the cost of education is likely to become an increasingly important factor in the decision-making process of students (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 31). As more and more countries provide education opportunities in English, students will have more choices. Traditionally, the main English-language speaking countries have charged higher fees for international students than have continental European and Asian ones (p. 31). Since some western European countries (Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden) still charge no fees for students in higher education, regardless of nationality, Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) argue, it is likely that the trend of introducing differential and higher fees for international students will continue (p. 31). A comparative analysis carried out by the authors confirms that international students traveling to the U.S., the U.K. and Australia (leading English-language higher education destinations) can expect to pay higher fees than those charged elsewhere (p. 31).

For instance, the tuition fees for a Business and Management program cost $31,450 $21,800, and $18,600, at Harvard University (U.S.), Oxford University (U.K.), and the University of Sydney (Australia), respectively. In considerable contrast, the same degree costs less than $4,500 at Shanghai Jiaotong University (China) and National University of Singapore (Singapore), and even less than $2,000 at the University of Malaya (Malaysia). For a Philosophy program at Laval University (Canada) and the University of Otago (New Zealand) the international tuition fees are nearly $11,500, while the philosophy students at University of Tokyo (Japan) pay less than $4,600, and only a small administrative fee at University of Paris (France) and University of Heidelberg (Germany) (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 31).

Another set of findings related to the effect of tuition fees on international students' mobility and their decision on the destination country comes from Lewis (2012). In a survey he conducted on a target group of 112 university admission officers, comprising 61 university admissions officers from the U.K., 20 from the U.S., and 31 from 14 E.U. nations, Lewis finds that only 24% of U.K. admissions officers expect "this trend (i.e. more students) to be the same next year", while 44% of them say "No" and 30% state "Don't know". He comments that "U.K. university admissions officers' confidence in the future applications may have been bruised by the uncertain impact of tuition fee increases for students commencing their study in autumn 2012" (Lewis, 2012, p. 36).

Apparently, this uncertainty from U.K. admissions officers is in marked contrast to their counterparts in the U.S., where 80 per cent of U.S. admission officers expect "this trend (i.e. more students) to be the same next year". He argues that the tuition fees in the U.S. are "typically" higher than the U.K. (Lewis, 2012, p. 36), and international students are probably used to seeing high tuition fees in U.S. institutions of higher education. However, according to

the results of the survey, "three quarters of American and about half (52 per cent) of the European universities surveyed confirmed that they are now looking to attract students from the U.K. to study in their countries as a direct result of the increase in tuition fees" (p. 36). The increase in the tuition fees of U.K. universities is, for Lewis (2012), an opportunity that should not be missed, such that "U.S. and European universities are actively developing strategies to attract English students to study in their countries as tuition fees at English universities are set to triple from 2012" (p. 36).

The increase in the tuition fees of U.K. universities will affect not only the international students' decision on the destination country, but domestic students of the U.K. as well. Lewis (2012) anticipates that "the trend for English students to study overseas will increase significantly as the differential between English university fees and overseas university fees changes"; and, therefore, the U.K. university admissions officers believe that for U.K. students considering studying abroad, the top destinations are the U.S., followed by the Netherlands, then Germany (p. 38).

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The present chapter is based on the factual information given in the previous sections. It will discuss the U.S. inbound international students based on statistical data, give an evaluation of those students' places of origin grouped as Middle East, Europe, North America, Asia, Africa, Latin America and Oceania; and try to group the reasons affecting international students' mobility patterns into visa schemes and immigration procedures, legal issues, students' expectations and motivations, and factors affecting application. For the legal issues, such concerns as the post-study work visas, the case with the U.K., the case with Scotland, and the case of "English Language Training" (ELT) students will take special interest. Students' expectations and motivations will cover the factors affecting persistence, language and culture as barriers, food, and cost of education. International student recruiting agencies and Pathway programs will have their separate sections under the factors affecting application.

U.S. Inbound International Students: Data and Evaluation for Places of Origin

In this section of the paper, the data derived from Open Doors statistics on U.S. inbound international students are presented to show the chronological progress focusing on the students' places of origin.

Middle East

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from the Middle East are given in Table 8 with their graphic representation in Figure 22.

Middle East seems to deserve a particular attention due to its changeable trends as a source region to send international students. Or, maybe, it would not be much wrong to rewrite the sentence as "due to its changeable trends reflecting the contexts of admission of its students by U.S. colleges and universities". Despite the observable change in mobility behavior as a sharp decline after 1979/80 continuing until 1994/95, the overall image shows the eagerness of that source region to send students to the United States. International relations apparently affect (even distort) the mobility pattern. The Gulf War crisis and its consequences are reflected on the numbers of the international students from that region. The further crisis and consequences of the 9/11 attacks seem to have suppressed the mobility behavior, which could have been much different for the years 2001 – 2005. However, when the international contexts become mild, the mobility behavior gets no longer suppressed, and the mobility pattern of the students from that region seem to find its normal trend: eagerly upward.

The 63-year average is 31,078, fourth place in the seven regions.

Table 8

International students in the U.S. universities: Middle East

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
1724	3636	5579	8762	11761	22290	81070	51740	32180	21568	22725	36858	38545

(continued)

2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
34803	31852	31248	17806	22321	24755	29140	33797	42543	56664	71170	86372	96615
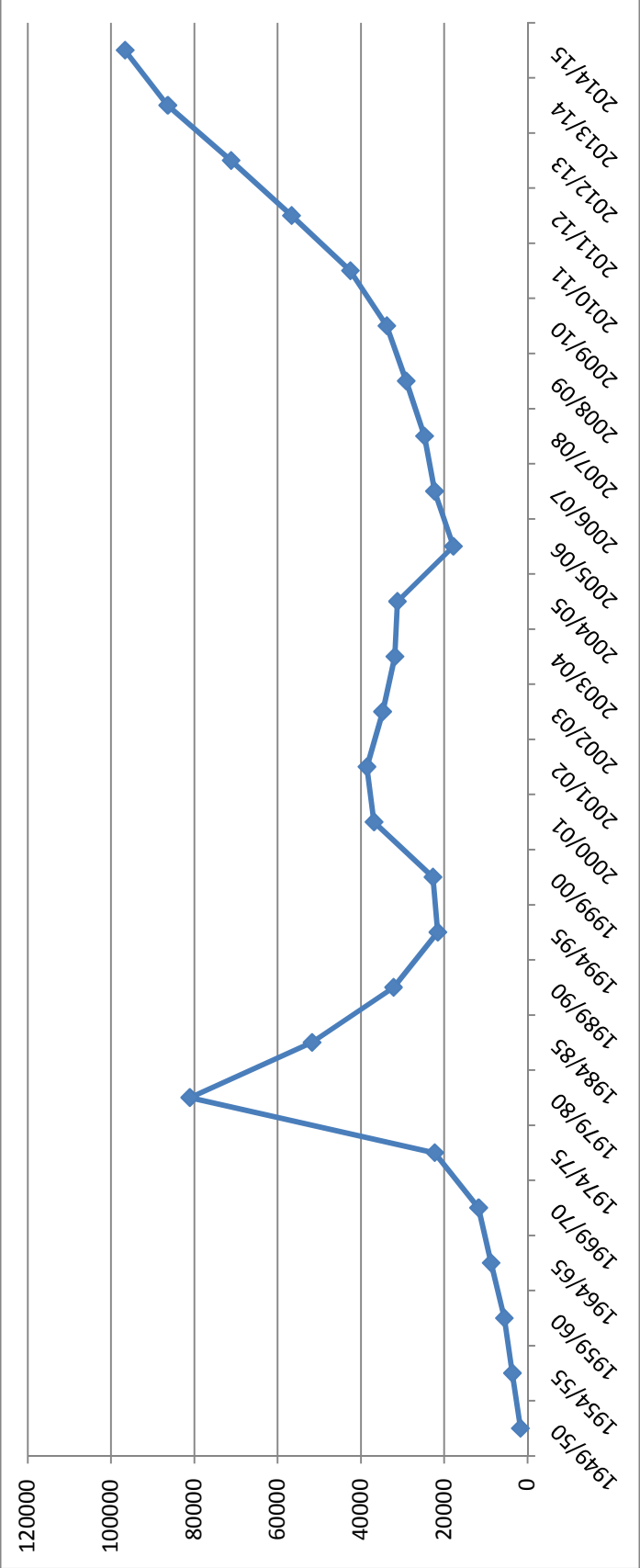
Figure 22. International students in the U.S. universities: Middle East

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Some of the countries in the Middle East region along with the countries in North Africa have undergone the *Arab Spring* political movement and the social and political unrest, conflict and military and militant clashes in its aftermath, as discussed in Chapter 2. Despite the adverse international situation, the flow of international students from the Middle East and Africa (see Table 12 and Figure 26 in the following sections) regions has not even been in much of a state of stagnation, set aside recession; and, this holds true on a world-total basis, too (see Table 2 and Figure 8 in Chapter 2).

It might have been argued that the number of international students from the *Arab Spring* countries would have decreased due to the conditions. At present, taking a look back at the statistics, we can say that this did not happen to be true. Even in 2012, however, researchers were suggesting, based on the preliminary *World Education Services* (WES) data for 2012, that U.S. higher education institutions should be prepared for an increase in the number of Arab students applying for spots in their programs (ICEF Monitor, 2012a). Although the data could only be applied to the U.S., ICEF Monitor (2012a) discusses, it was reasonable to expect that other study-abroad destinations would see more Arab students apply for their study programs, as well.

In a WES article, Kono (2012) argued that this increase was "possibly due to outward mobility fueled by unrest in the region", and wrote,

> With government overthrow and protests in Egypt, intense violence in Syria, and ongoing protests in Bahrain and Jordan, these four countries continue to experience varying degrees of sociopolitical uncertainty and instability, which may be spurring students to look abroad for study and work opportunities (Kono, 2012).

A more positive factor spurring the surge in the number of Saudi Arabian students going to the U.S. to study was the King Abdullah Scholarship Program. The Saudi government was investing 9 billion SAR[46] each year to provide full funding for 125,000 students for both undergraduate and graduate programs abroad (ICEF Monitor, 2012a).

A World Bank paper approaches the issue from a different point of view and relates this situation to the economies of the countries in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) sharing an interest in the supply of and demand for higher education (World Bank, 2011, p.1). Included in the key drivers of increased demand were demographic growth, a youth bulge in the population pyramid, expanded secondary school completion, and increased participation of women in higher education in all countries (p.2). Many nations in MENA have large young populations; and, hence, an increase in the demand for higher education. Some nations facing significant domestic constraints on public expenditures for education struggle to provide a good quality higher education for increasing numbers of students; and, hence, internationalization as a cost-effective alternative to increase domestic provision (p.13). In this context, some MENA countries encourage study abroad. On the other hand, in addition to the drive factors, there are a number of "pull" factors as well, like the "pull" of growing economic opportunities in aging societies, particularly in Europe (p.7).

In short, international students keep coming to the U.S. in increasing numbers. The main upward trend would not have changed, but would the actual numbers have changed, from single-digit to double-digit percentages, if the visa policies had not been tightened and admittance into the country had not been on strict rules? Most probably, yes, the magnitude would have been larger—even though the author of the present dissertation does not have the statistics for the

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[46] 2.4 billion USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/

refused applications. But, it is good to see that even under national security threats, the U.S. has been a country still embracing (probably to a lesser extent, though) the students from all over the world, even from the countries with the governments of which the U.S. government is in conflict.

Another case similar to the MENA countries sending more students during the period of some kind of a crisis (here, the context of the *Arab Spring*) is discussed in the section below for Europe within the context of *eurozone crisis*.

Europe

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from Europe are given in Table 9 with their graphic representation in Figure 23.

The data imply some "saturation point" reached after 1999, not, though, for American institutions of higher education to admit the international students from that region, but for that region to send international students to American institutions of higher education. That saturation point seems to be the average value of around 81,000 new students per year from the region's fifty-four countries. The United Kingdom, France, and Germany, now three major destination countries from the region, seem to reverse their role as the source countries to destination countries in the new millennium (see Table 1 and Figure 6). This is in part due to tightened visa policies and security measures of the U.S., which led potential international students to find new destination countries, and in part due to the marketing efforts of European countries to attract larger portions of international students.

The 63-year average is 58,752, second place in the seven regions.

Table 9

International students in the U.S. universities: Europe

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
6105	5648	7290	11323	20022	15361	25200	38190	51190	73489	90661	80584	81579

(continued)

2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
78001	74134	71609	84697	82731	83981	87648	85084	84296	85423	85823	86885	90625
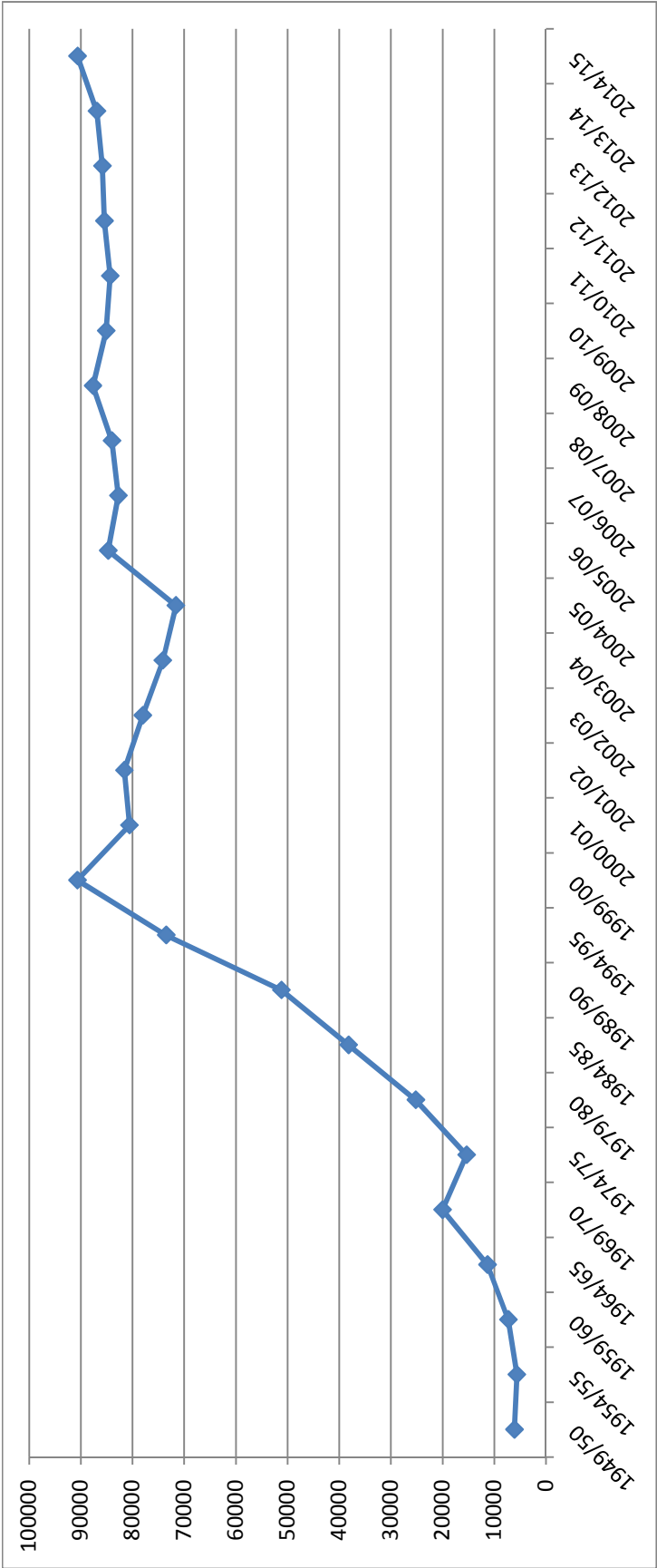
Figure 23. International students in the U.S. universities: Europe

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In a research paper, Teekens (2014) states that the Erasmus Student Exchange Program (now, "Erasmus+") and the Bologna Process have had an immense impact on mobility of international students among the member countries of the Council of Europe. The former encouraged (so strongly that even to an extent of compelling) the member countries to exchange students in their tertiary education, the latter made the acceptance of the courses taken in the host institution by the home institution a smooth process due to the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS).

An increasing number of European students are enrolled in full degree programs outside their own country and the recognition of credits and degrees is common place (Teekens, 2014, p.1). For the author, Europe continues to be the most desired study destination and on a global scale, the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), which is briefly discussed in Chapter 3 of the present dissertation, accounts for 46 percent of all student mobility worldwide. Within Europe, most students go to the United Kingdom, Austria, Denmark, France, Spain, and the Netherlands—net importing countries, sending far fewer students abroad then they receive. Germany, Finland, Sweden, Belgium, and Italy receive almost as many students as they send. Portugal, Greece, Malta, Iceland, and Cyprus display a much larger percentage of students leave than they receive (p.2). Teekens (2014) states that overall, there is a flow from small countries to bigger ones, and the countries in northern Europe profit much more than those in the southern and eastern part (p.2). The author indicates a sharp imbalance in mobility and higher education development among European countries.

Another point that could be made regarding the Europe region is an issue similar to MENA countries during the *Arab Spring* as an article in ICEF Monitor (2012b) points to. The students in the *Arab Spring* countries were seeking in growing numbers international education

opportunities in other countries during the time of the political and social crisis. Here, in Europe, the students in some countries were seeking international education opportunities in other countries, again in growing numbers, too; but, this time during the period of an economic crisis, namely, the *eurozone crisis*. In reference to an article published in *The Telegraph* (Paton, 2012), ICEF Monitor (2012b) article goes on to argue that as the European Union's debt crisis continues, there are increasing signs that economic uncertainty at home is further encouraging students from the most-affected nations to pursue studies abroad as a way to avoid the worst of the economic downturn in their home countries. Due to the crisis, the EU countries are economically divided as "north" and "south", the latter including Spain, Portugal, Greece, Ireland (though in the north, anyhow), and Italy seriously hit by the crisis, and the former including the Netherlands, the U.K., Germany, and Sweden (ICEF Monitor, 2012b).

Conveying some data released in a disclosure by *Study Portals* website[47], Paton (2012) reported that the number of enquiries made through that website from Greek, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese students made an enormous jump by 80,000 in 2012 compared with the year before. Demand to study outside their own country was up by more than 180% among Italian students, 162% from Greeks, 157% from Spaniards and 140% from Portuguese students, which reflected the link between students' economic perspectives at home and their ambition to study – and ultimately work – in better performing economies (Paton, 2012).

A factor that motivated those students was the availability of their desired programs of study given in English. However, a very strong reason was the availability of the opportunities to remain in their host country to work after graduation ICEF Monitor (2012b). This is also one of the reasons why international students consider the U.S. for their (especially graduate) studies.

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[47] http://www.studyportals.com/

Paton (2012) reported that according to researchers, Britain was the most popular destination among those students. However, we can reasonably doubt if the U.K. will enjoy a similar context in future when it leaves the EU after the *Brexit* vote, when the European students may not enter into the country by a simple travel ticket and their backpacks, but by passports and through the customs and the immigration procedures set for them, too, as with the rest of the world. The Brexit referendum and its consequences are briefly discussed in Chapter 3 of the present dissertation.

North America

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from North America are given in Table 10 with their graphic representation in Figure 24.

Although classified as a region, the North America category is basically Canada, as there are only two countries: Bermuda (pop. approx. 65,000) and Canada (pop. approx. 35,000,000). It starts with 4,362 students in 1949/50, and the latest figure from the region is 27,357 for the year 2012/13. The related table and figure show an upward trend over the sixty-five years even though it slows down as of 1994/95 with an average value of 27,445 new students per year. The comments made for Europe can also apply here. While sending 26,821 students to the U.S. colleges and universities as a source country in 2011, it was recruiting about 120,000 international students the same year as a destination country (see Table 1). The upward trend in sending students to American institutions of higher education can also be seen in attracting international students in the global mobility. It can be anticipated that the region will play the role of a destination country in future. The 63-year average is 21,167, sixth place in the seven regions.

Table 10

International students in the U.S. universities: North America

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
4362	4714	5761	9338	13415	8630	15570	15960	18590	23394	24128	25888	27039

(continued)

2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
27227	27650	28634	28699	28756	29472	30107	28574	27941	27210	27763	28692	27627
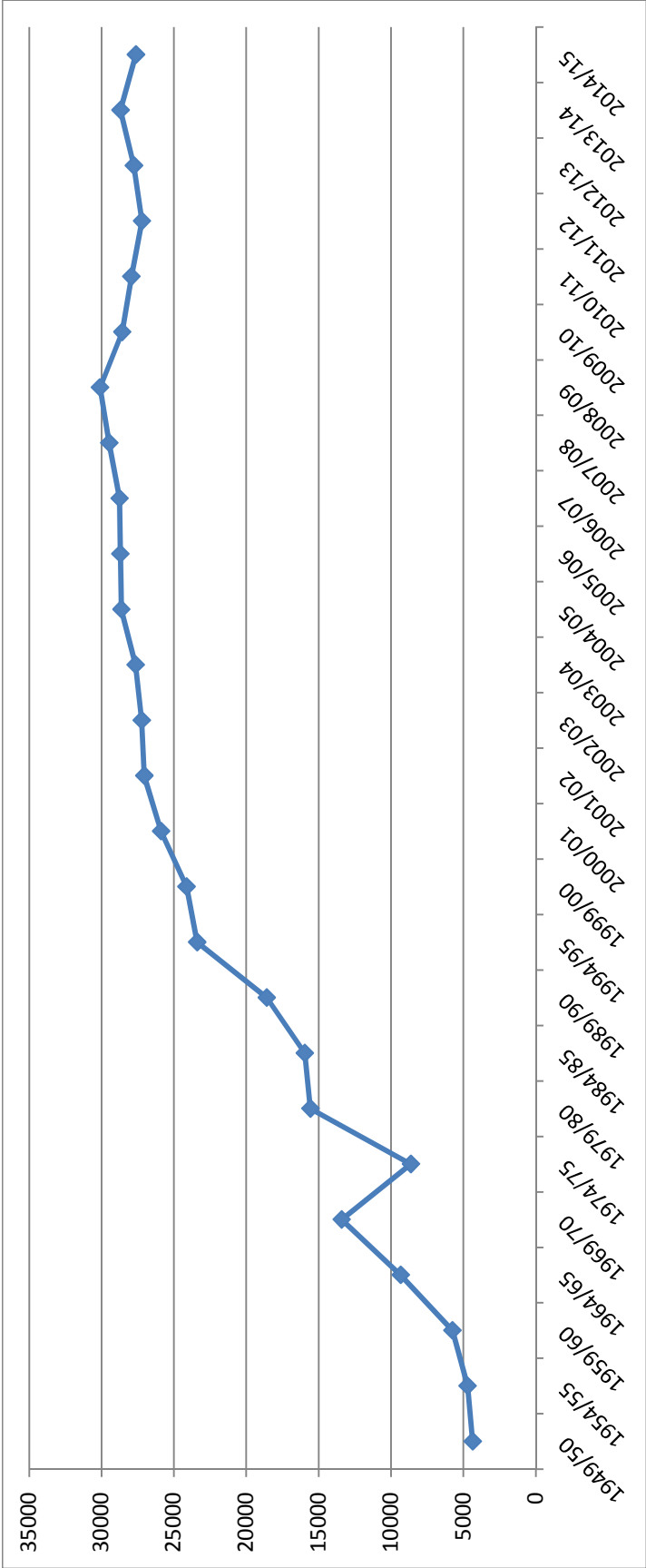
Figure 24. International students in the U.S. universities: North America

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Asia

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from Asia are given in Table 11 with their graphic representation in Figure 25.

With its thirty-two countries in world's most densely populated areas, it is the major provider of international students for American institutions of higher education. Table 1 and Figure 6 show an increasing mobility trend for three of the countries in the region as destination countries, namely, China, Japan, and Korea (Rep. of). Those three countries with the addition of India of the region have traditionally been sending the largest number of students to the United States. If it hadn't been for the sudden, sharp drop in 2000/01 (but, an equally sudden, sharp recovery that followed in 2001/02), it would have been sending students on a steadily increasing scale. When an early figure of 6,806 for the year 1949/50 was recorded, it was probably unlikely to anticipate that the four digits could reach six digits with 525,849 in 2012/13, within sixty years. Each year, the region adds, to its total of international students, as many international students as North America sends. If the rate of change remains the same as it is in 2012/13, the number of students from that region can be expected to exceed over 600,000 by 2015/16.

The 63-year average is 251,125, first place in the seven regions.

Table 11

International students in the U.S. universities: Asia

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
6806	10175	17808	30640	51035	58460	81730	143680	208110	261789	280149	189371	324812

(continued)

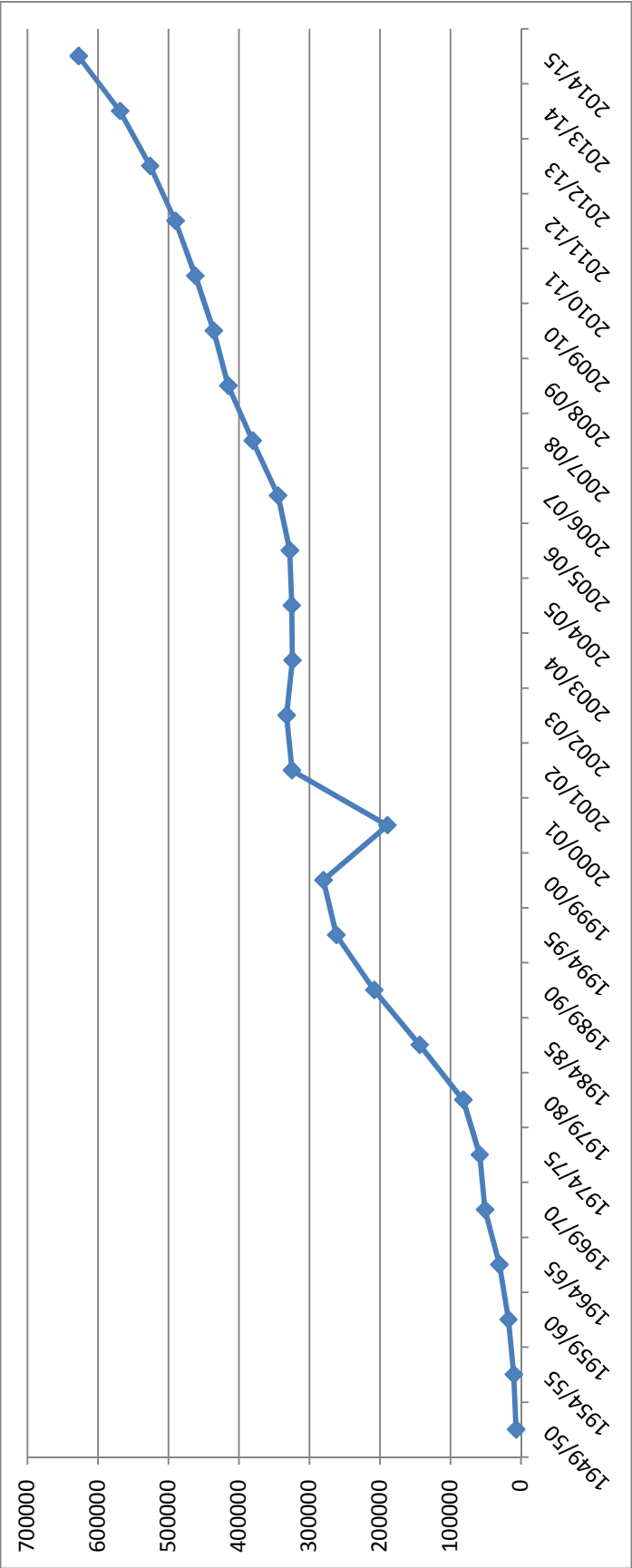| 2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
332298	324006	325112	327785	344495	380465	415000	435667	461790	489970	525849	568510	627306

Figure 25. International students in the U.S. universities: Asia

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The soaring student numbers from Asia may be expected to continue for some more time. And, there are some research findings that support this expectation and provide a rationale. ICEF (2016c) gives an account of a group of findings presented in McKinsey Global Institute's April 2016 research report (McKinsey&Co., 2016). Projected to surpass the U.S. as the world's largest economy by 2028, China's working-age group, aged 15 to 59, will reach from 521 million to 628 million by 2030. The consumption of this group is expected to increase from $2.5 trillion in 2015 to $6.7 trillion in 2030 (McKinsey&Co., 2016, p.54).

According to the report, higher disposable income and a willingness to spend are fueling spending by China's working-age group. This group spends more than China's retiring and elderly population on categories beyond basic necessities, such as personal products, recreation, and dining out. The more the income, the higher the share of household spending on these categories is. Chinese working-age households in the top income brackets (upper middle class and affluent) devote more than one-fifth of their household spending to these categories (McKinsey&Co., 2016, pp. 54-55). Between 2015 and 2030, China is expected to spend 12.5 percent of overall consumption growth on education—the same as Sweden's 12.6 percent (p.10).

China's young people are spending more years in school than their predecessors, and China's education spending is growing quickly. And, this can be a reason why many people are delaying marriage: Chinese people spend more years in school. Chinese citizens with a tertiary education are likely to marry later for both social and economic reasons. The increased economic opportunities available to women in China are also contributing to decisions to marry later, similar to experience in other countries. The share of young women aged 25 to 29 who are unmarried has quadrupled since 1980 (22% in 2014). These consumers, more optimistic about their financial future and more willing than previous generations to spend a greater share of their

disposable income, have grown up in a very different China from their parents. 61% of China's working-age (in comparison to 50% of older consumers) group believed that their household income would increase significantly over the next five years (McKinsey&Co., 2016, pp. 10).

The further forecasted increases in educational spending through 2030 include all manner of education services, including education technology, school fees within China, and study abroad. But the income growth and a further expansion of the middle class, bode well for the country's continued prominence as a key international education market (ICEF, 2016c).

Africa

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from Africa are given in Table 12 with their graphic representation in Figure 26.

Although it is the world's second most-populous continent, it sends only 4% of the international students the U.S. recruits. When compared with the first most-populous continent's (Asia) 64%, the figure may be unexpectedly and disproportionately low. However, it is the world's poorest and most underdeveloped continent with highest levels of illiteracy, set aside sending students to universities—and the universities in another country. According to a United Nations report[48], the average poor person in sub-Saharan Africa was living on 70 cents per day. The countries in northern territories to the south of the Mediterranean are Islamic countries and have relatively more developed economies together with Christian South Africa. Therefore, the international contexts that affect international student mobility of Middle East can be expected to affect the number of the students from those North African countries. Table 12 and Figure 26

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[48] *Economic Report on Africa 2004: Unlocking Africa's Potential in the Global Economy*. Substantive session 28 June-23 July 2004, United Nations, Economic and Social Council.

show a sudden drop in their numbers similar to the one for Middle East (see Table 8 and Figure 22). While the region sent 36,180 students to American institutions of higher education in 1979/80, the post-Gulf War crisis figures keep falling down on 20,724 in 1994/95. Although the number of international students that region sends to the U.S. reaches its peak in 2002/03 with a figure of 40,193, their numbers display a pattern that is far from an upward trend with an average value of 35,353 students per year between 2003/04 and 2012/13.

The 63-year average is 27,246, fifth place in the seven regions.

Table 12

International students in the U.S. universities: Africa

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
901	1234	1959	6855	7607	18400	36180	39520	24570	20724	30296	34217	37724

(continued)

2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
40193	38150	36100	36308	35802	35654	36937	37062	36890	35502	35925	37359	40285
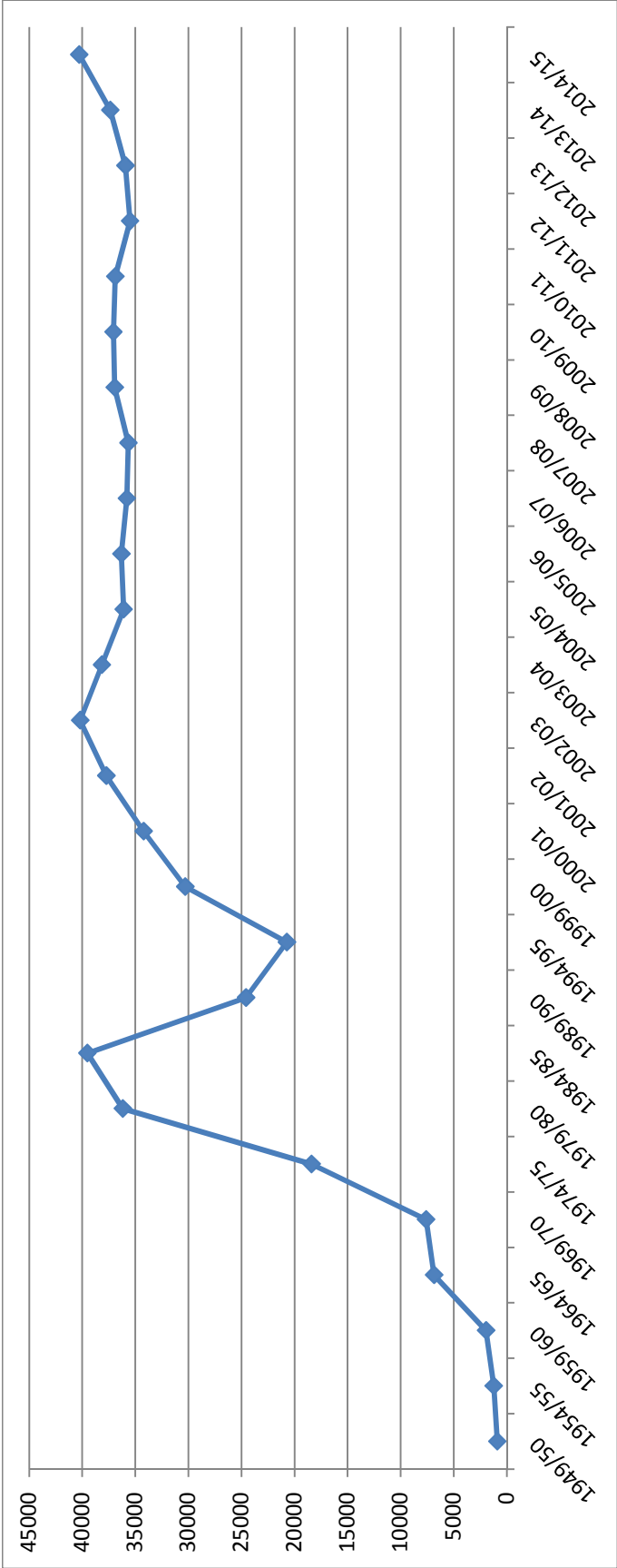
Figure 26. International students in the U.S. universities: Africa

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Latin America

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from Latin America are given in Table 13 with their graphic representation in Figure 27.

The forty-five countries in this region display an increasing mobility pattern between 1949/50 and 2003/04, in which the numbers reach their peak value with 69,658 students. Despite some slight falls and rises, an average value of 65,382 new students per year seems to have been maintained since 2004/05. Based on the stable mobility pattern for the last ten years, it can be anticipated that their numbers can vary around the average value for some more years. Although the region is advantageous in terms of geographical proximity, it may be either that the potential international students in that region are not so eager as their Asian counterparts, who cross an entire ocean each year, or that the post-9/11 regulations do regulate their numbers.

The 63-year average is 49,839, third place in the seven regions.

Table 13

International students in the U.S. universities: Latin America

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
6044	8446	9428	13657	24991	26271	42280	48560	48090	47239	62097	63634	68358

(continued)

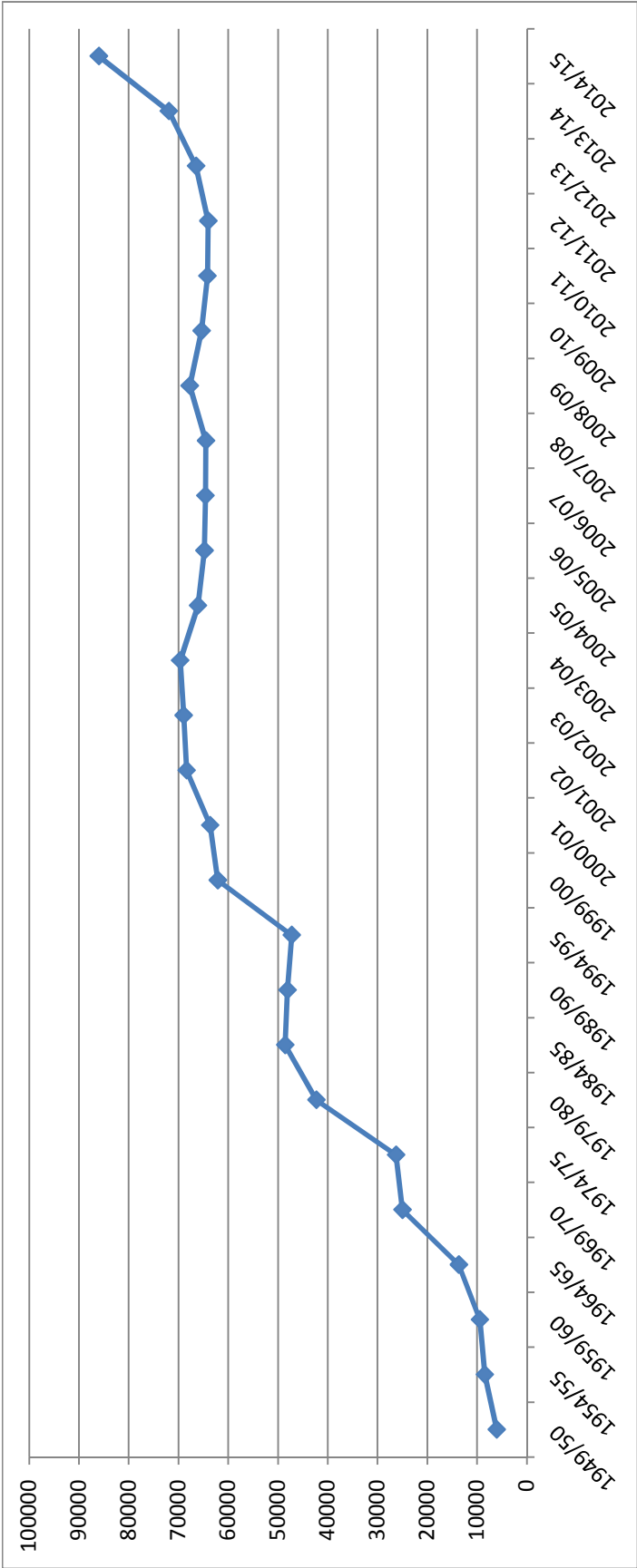| 2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
68950	69658	66087	64769	64579	64473	67731	65362	64169	64021	66458	71930	85991

Figure 27. International students in the U.S. universities: Latin America

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Oceania

The numbers of the international students coming to U.S. colleges and universities from Oceania are given in Table 14 with their graphic representation in Figure 28.

The twenty-one countries in this region send the least international students to the U.S. colleges and universities. Two of the countries, Australia and New Zealand, also play the role of destination countries (see Table 1 and Figure 6). Since the early figure recorded for 1949/50 as (only) 198, the numbers of the international students display a basically upward trend. However, the rapid, constant rise seems to slow down after 1979/80 (possibly due to the Gulf War crisis), and then adopt a declining trend after 2001/02 (possibly due to post-9/11 regulations) until 2006/07, when the mobility pattern takes an upward trend again. A comparison of Table 1 and Table 14 (and Figure 6 and Figure 28) would reveal an interesting overlap in the years when the numbers of the students that the region sends to American universities with the period of decline in the numbers of the international students that Australia recruits.

The 63-year average is 3,887, last place in the seven regions.

Table 14

International students in the U.S. universities: Oceania

1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75	1979/80	1984/85	1989/90	1994/95	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
198	337	568	1265	2077	2650	4140	4190	4010	4327	4677	4624	4852

(continued)

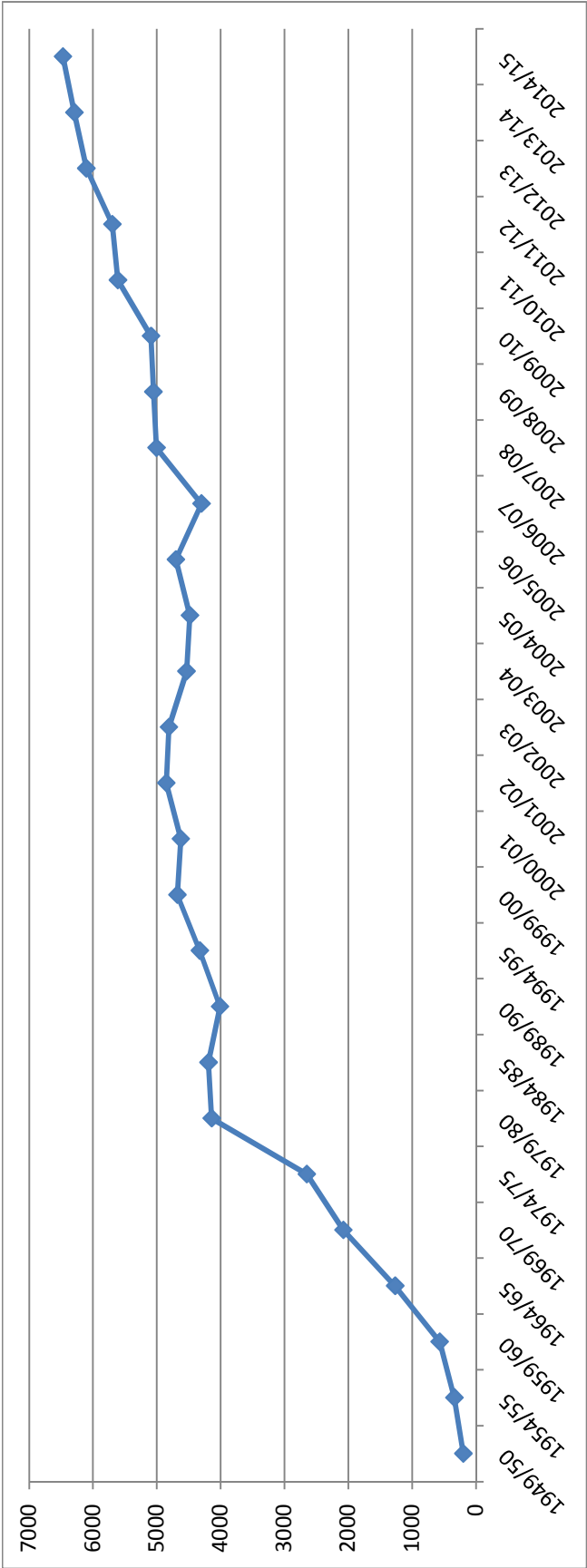| 2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
4811	4534	4481	4702	4300	5005	5053	5091	5610	5697	6104	6292	6471

Figure 28. International students in the U.S. universities: Oceania

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The statistical data in all the regions above point to one common fact: The U.S. enjoys the flow of international inbound students from all around the world in numbers steadily growing each year. Johnson (2009) draws attention, however, to another point. The U.S. is not the only destination; and, between 1999 and 2009, international student mobility worldwide increased at more than twice the rate of international student enrollment in U.S. higher education institutions—57 percent versus 27 percent (p.6). For him, this gap illustrates that over that time span, international students increasingly were choosing to pursue higher education abroad in places other than the United States (p.7).

Johnson (2009) believes this was not accidental but because of the emergence of numerous competitor countries into the growing global marketplace of students. In addition to the traditional competitor countries like the United Kingdom and Australia, newer competitors, such as the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), Canada, Singapore, and New Zealand emerged. Even traditional sending countries like China, South Korea, and Japan entered the competition, announcing international student recruitment targets in six-digit numbers. Traditional or new or once-sending, they all adopted and implemented aggressive national strategies to attract more international students to their colleges and universities (p.7).

Reasons Affecting International Students' Mobility Patterns

Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) identify three main reasons for the changes in mobility patterns (p. 3): visa schemes and immigration procedures, the student experience (expectations and motivations), and costs associated with an overseas education. The post-9/11 international context, higher costs associated with overseas study, increased competition in the market and

enhanced opportunities in the home countries of many students are among the specific causes of the change.

Legal issues

One of the demonstrated reasons for this decline is related to the change in visa policies and other legal issues, no matter how natural and understandable responses they can be following such tragedies as 9/11 terrorist attacks. One of them was the *Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism* (USA PATRIOT) Act passed by the U.S. Congress in 2001, which tried to ensure homeland security by imposing regulations such as tightening the rules on student visas, implementing stricter penalties and enforcing them against those who overstay their visas (Traven, 2006, p.12). The other was the *Student and Exchange Visitor Information System* (SEVIS), introduced by the U.S. Government for an effective tracking of international and immigrant students and implemented by the Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (Traven, 2006, p.13). After 9/11, it was not at all a smooth process for a foreign national student to obtain a visa. For Toutant (2009), the procedure was all too hard, almost humiliating and even discouraging, and Ahmadi (2011, p.4) considers the SEVIS requirements not only difficult to understand and time consuming, but "an intrusion into the private lives as well, not to mention the application fee of non-refundable $200" (cited in Traven, 2006, pp.12-3).

The decline must have been quite temporary—maybe some initial shock—since the figures seem to keep increasing. The Lewis (2012) survey indicates that the admissions officers in the U.S. reported that they had "more students to select from this year (application cycle

10/11) than in the previous year (application cycle 9/10)" to a ratio of 85% (p. 35). When they were asked if they felt this upward trend would continue for the 2011/12 application cycle, 80% of the U.S. admissions officers predicted an increase in student numbers (p. 36).

Visa schemes and immigration procedures

The most widely covered changes to visa regulations were implemented after the 9/11 terrorist attacks. With the Enhanced Border Security and Visas Entry Reform Act of 2002, the U.S. introduced a new overseas student tax to fund an advanced computer tracking system (SEVIS) for visa applications. In addition, to transfer between visa categories became more difficult. International students reported several problems with the application, admission and enrollment procedures of American institutions of higher education. There emerged a common perception that the U.S. became a destination less welcoming for foreign students. Also due to the appeals for change by a range of stakeholders within the country, the U.S. Government has put effort into improving the situation, which, in turn, resulted in reported visa approval rates going back to pre-9/11 levels in 2006 (Verbik and Lasanowski, 2007, p. 24-5).

Post-study work visas

Another issue related to visa regulations is the opportunities and the right to remain in the country for work purposes upon the completion of the course. Verbik and Lasanowski (2007, p. 25) argue that overall policies in the U.S. are less accommodating towards international students and graduates compared to some of the country's major competitors. As part of the student visa

application process, applicants have to state that they are not intending to emigrate to the U.S., also criticized by NAFSA (p. 25).

International students also seek (and pursue) work and career opportunities upon their completion of their programs. Not all those students intend to be immigrants and stay in the country for the rest of their lives—maybe a fraction of them do. However, having completed a course, learnt theoretical knowledge and done some practice during the tertiary program, international students also wish to stay in the country for some more time. Eventually, most of them return to their home countries.

A new scheme proposed in *Securing Knowledge Innovation and Leadership Act* of 2006 aims to increase the number of graduates in science, technology, engineering and mathematics disciplines by enabling them to stay in the U.S. for twelve months upon graduation to undertake an internship with a U.S. employer.

The case with the U.K.

Tightened visa policies are not a concern for the international students in the U.S. only. ICEF (2016a) gives an account of the results of a recent survey by Chartered Association of Business Schools (CABS, 2016) regarding the restrictive visa policies and how they are weakening foreign student enrolments in the U.K. The CABS (2016) report states that one-third of all international students studying in the U.K. are studying on a business and administration course, and gives tabular information on the numbers of the non-EU first year students and all the non-EU students studying business and administration that show how these numbers decline (CABS, 2016, pp. 3-4).

Making reference to the quality of the business schools in their country, the U.K., as "excellent business schools, some are amongst the best in the world, and all offer students good opportunities to meet their career aspirations," the CABS (2016) report suggests that the reason of this decline cannot be the academic quality of the British higher education institutions. Emphasizing a stuttering downward trend since 2011/12 in the total number of international students on a business and administration course, the report relates this trend to the British Government's announcement to limit the rights to post-study work visas in 2011/12.

The U.K. Home Secretary Mrs. Theresa May, who is now emerging as the clear frontrunner to be the next Prime Minister after David Cameron's announced resignation in October 2016 and a supporter of Remain during the run-up to the Brexit referendum (Sky News, 2016), was making a proposal in 2014, when most international students was able to switch easily to a work visa from within the U.K., that the Conservative party's next manifesto should include a pledge to make non-European Union graduates return home and apply for a work visa from abroad if they want to continue living in Britain and that universities and colleges should be fined and stripped of the right to sponsor foreign students if they failed to ensure that students left the U.K. (Sky News, 2014). Mrs. May also reportedly warned the Prime Minister Cameron, who insisted that only the *Tories* can offer "competence" on dealing with immigration and blamed the Labour administration for "letting immigration get out of control", that failure to act on foreign students would make it impossible for him to hit his target of cutting net migration.

As 52% of full-time postgraduate taught students at U.K. business schools in 2013 were international, they represent a highly valuable share of income derived from student fees. If, the report calculates, 54,800 postgraduate taught students paid on average £10,000 in fees in 2013/14, then business schools will have generated £548 million in revenue from fees from non-

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EU students. The effect of this visa policy on U.K. universities budgets is considerable: "Based on the lower end of these fees alone, the decline in international postgraduate students represents just over £34 million[49] in lost income for business schools and universities" (CABS, 2016, p.3). However, the report admits that estimating the value of the decline in postgraduate taught programs is difficult, because some MBA programs cost as much as £60,000[50] in fees, while other MSc one-year degrees are around £10,000[51] (CABS, 2016, p.3).

The report discusses that the value of international postgraduate taught students to the regional economies around business schools and to the U.K. economy as whole is greater. By making reference to *Universities UK* data, the report gives an estimated £11,284[52] as the amount that international students spend on average each year off campus on services and living costs. Therefore, those on postgraduate taught business and administration courses spent £618 million[53] in 2013/14, and over £1.1 billion[54] when combined with their fees. The report reaches £72.6 million[55] as the amount that is lost due to the decline of 3,415 international students studying at this level since 2011 (CABS, 2016, p.3). It is the difficulty of getting a visa to study, and/or the limited prospects of working after graduating, that is causing international students to consider other destinations (ICEF, 2016a).

The CABS (2016) report therefore urges government to consider "the destructive impact of current immigration policies" on the British economy (ICEF, 2016a). In the Foreword to the report, the CABS Chair Professor Simon Collinson summarizes the cause and the effect:

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[49] 45 million USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[50] 79,721 USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[51] 13,287 USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[52] 15,004 USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[53] 822 million USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[54] 1.463 billion USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[55] 96.60 million USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/

In 2014/15 we experienced the sharpest decline of international students starting degree programs in U.K. business schools. This report shows how this is damaging, not just for business schools and the universities that rely on their income, but in terms of the jobs and communities beyond our universities that are supported by the income from international students. Although our business schools remain competitive and our universities are amongst the best in world, international students are choosing other countries for their education because our immigration regulations make this country difficult, or unattractive, to enter. Not only are we turning away investment, we are turning away international talent. These skilled, entrepreneurial and globally mobile students are the leaders of tomorrow and the UK's immigration policies should be designed to attract them so that our universities and our economy can benefit from the diversity and added value they bring (CABS, 2016, p.1).

The case with Scotland

Findings from a country of the United Kingdom, Scotland, are not different at all. Scotland had obtained a post-study work visa in 2005, which allowed non-EU graduates to stay and work in Scotland for two years. A research study by *Universities Scotland* calculates that the 2012 abandonment of this visa has drained the Scottish economy of more than £250 million[56] over the last three years, and 5,400 international students who otherwise would have studied in Scottish institutions did not due to the policy change. It further estimates that a decline in students

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[56] 332.42 million USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/

coming from two key sending countries alone, India and Nigeria, has resulted in a £145.7 million[57] revenue loss for Scotland (ICEF, 2016a).

Universities Scotland has stated the need for a change in immigration policy succinctly: "Scotland is losing out in the recruitment of international students to Australia, New Zealand, America and Canada because the U.K. has one of the least competitive policies on post-study work in the English-speaking world" (ICEF, 2016a). Obviously, this has added to the dense dispute between the Scottish administration and the England-based U.K. government, which is getting to sharp ends after the Brexit referendum, and it prompted Scottish First Minister Nicola Sturgeon to speak out directly (and all too bluntly) on the issue for the first time earlier this year:

> "We are deeply disappointed, and I have to say I'm rather angry, that the Secretary of State for Scotland recently indicated, without any real consultation, that there is no intention on the part of the UK Government of reintroducing the post-study work visa for Scotland. I believe there is a consensus in this parliament and out there in Scotland to reintroduce the post-study work visa – and I think it's time the UK Government got on and did it." (ICEF, 2016a)

Despite the fact that the British Treasury set a goal to increase non-EU enrolment by 55,000 additional students by 2020 and announced a provision allowing dependents of foreign post-graduate students would be entitled to work during their stay in the U.K., and Jo Johnson, Minister for Universities and Science, announced the government's commitment to increasing overall education exports from £18 billion[58] in 2012 to £30 billion[59] by 2020, the Conservative British government has not linked the achievement of such ambitious targets to a more

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[57] 194.14 million USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[58] 23.96 billion USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/
[59] 39.93 billion USD, based on the currency rate on June 30, 2016. Converter: http://www.x-rates.com/

welcoming visa and work environment for international students (ICEF, 2016a). Furthermore, due to the developments following the Brexit vote as discussed in the Brexit section of the present dissertation, the *Tories'* U.K. is now in a situation to lose the existing number of international students, set aside increasing the number to targeted levels.

The case of "English Language Training" (ELT) students

Even though they are not the students who pursue degree programs, the learners of English as an additional language form another international students group. A report prepared by StudentMarketing Youth Travel Consultancy and published by the International Association of Language Centres (IALC, 2016) presents most recent data on the trends in the demand for nine major foreign languages in the language travel industry—Chinese, English, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish. Global language travel is a sizeable market with 2.28 million language learners going abroad to language teaching institutions per year. 61% of this market, which is a total of 1.4 million people who choose to study the language abroad is comprised by English language travel; therefore, the report also provides data on eight major English learning destinations—U.K., USA, Australia, Canada, Ireland, Malta, New Zealand and South Africa.

The International Consultants for Education and Fairs gives in its online bulletin an account of other sets of data on the same issue presented in *2015 ALTO-Deloitte Language Travel Industry Survey* and the latest *English UK* statistics (ICEF, 2016g). According to *English UK*, and considering only private *English UK* schools that reported data in both 2014 and 2015, student numbers fell nearly 7% from 449,961 in 2014 to 419,286 in 2015, and student weeks fell

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12.6% from 1,840,574 in 2014 to 1,608,833 in 2015. This means that there were both (relatively) fewer students coming to the U.K. from abroad to learn English and they stayed at their institutions for shorter periods of time.

Europe send the greatest numbers of ELT students to the UK (accounting for roughly three-quarters of all students in private English UK schools); but, significant enrolment drop-offs came from both Eastern Europe (-11.9%) and Western Europe (-8.8%). Moreover, Europeans stayed for fewer weeks in 2015 than 2014 (-19.7% for Western Europeans and -27.5% for Eastern Europeans). Although student enrolments from Asia were up 2.7% last year, from 55,317 Asian students who studied ELT in the U.K. in 2014 to 56,807 in 2015, student weeks fell by 9.8% among Asian students, too. As for the two other important sending regions for the U.K., student numbers from Latin America and the Middle East, fell by 18.7% and 7.6%, respectively. The decline in both the number of learners and their periods of stay is given for adult learners and junior learners separately in Figure 29 below.
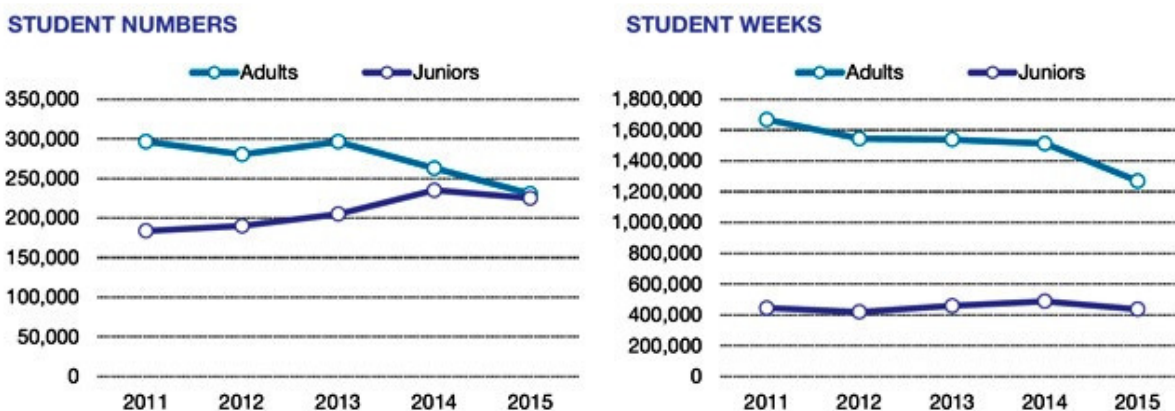

Figure 29. Adult compared to junior segment enrolment by student numbers (left) and student weeks (right), 2011-2015. Source: English UK (ICEF, 2016g).

Of those overall figures, while the decline was less dramatic among the number of junior students with a ratio of -4%, 2015 becomes the first year that the number of junior enrolments have fallen off. *English UK* also notes a decline in student weeks for both adult and junior learners of English travelling abroad to English teaching institutions. Adults stayed an average of 5.6 weeks, while juniors stayed for 2.9 weeks, which compares to 5.7 and 3.3 student weeks respectively in 2014 (ICEF, 2016g). In short, there are relatively fewer people of all ages around the world who travel abroad to learn English and those who do it do not stay for a period of time as long as it was before.

English UK relates this decline to "the effects of the strong British pound, intense and increasing competition from other destinations, unsympathetic visa policies, and a weakening overall demand for learning English abroad" (ICEF, 2016g). The withdrawal of further education schools[60] from the *Accreditation UK* scheme, the removal of work rights for FE students and the government's decision to limit pre-degree international students to a maximum two-year stay in the UK have negatively impacted FE schools (ICEF, 2016g). The *ALTO-Deloitte* survey reveals that the factors negatively perceived by the research participants (ALTO/Deloitte, 2014, p.22) are:

1. "currency exchange rates" (81%),

2. "economic issues in my country" (78%),

3. "competitor agency activity" (71%),

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[60] *Further education* (FE) in the U.K. and Ireland is similar to *continuing education* in the U.S. It refers to education that is distinct from the higher education offered in universities and taken in addition to that received at secondary school. FE colleges in England provide technical and professional education and training for young people, adults and employers and equip them with the skills for the workplace.

4. "destination country's visa policies" (63%), and

5. "destination country's government policies (non-visa related)" (30%).

The list contains the negative impact factors that have been written or spoken of by the tens of thousands of participants during the surveys conducted all around the world. The reasons for the changes in mobility patterns are more or less those factors with varying percentage values in different research reports. The ALTO/Deloitte (2014) survey did not contain any items in the research instrument to find out the degree to which social and motivational factors can be effective.

Students' expectations and motivations

The second main reason of the change in international students' mobility patterns is the students' expectations and motivations. Those students, in the global market and industry of international students, are also the "customers". Verbik and Lasanowski (2007, p. 28) call them "savvy customers", because they spread the news as to which countries, which people, which universities offer best hospitality, service and opportunities and, thus, which universities are most satisfactory in so far as the promises made during the recruitment procedures and public relation activities are met.

Factors affecting persistence

The steady increase in the numbers of international students can actually be maintained by two parameters that coincide: enrollment and retention (or, persistence); hence, the processes before and after admission. Quoting Berger and Lyon (2005, p.7), Mamiseishvili (2012, p.2) relates persistence to "the desire and action of a student to stay within the system of higher education" and retention to "the ability of an institution to retain a student". A number of factors contribute to the international students' persistence to stay within the system of higher education. Mamiseishvili (2012, p.11) identifies five variables significantly related to persistence: degree plans, first-year GPA, remedial English, academic and social integration. The first three of these predictors, *i.e.*, degree plans, first-year GPA, and academic integration, were found to be positively related to persistence. When the international students have strong degree plans, a high GPA at the end of their first year, and improved integration with the academic environment of the host institution, their persistence increases. On the other hand, remedial English and social integration were found to be negatively affecting the outcome. In other words, when the international students are required to take remedial English in their first year, or when they are "socialized" (*i.e.*, spent time on social or leisure activities with friends instead of concentrating more on their studies), their persistence decreases (Mamiseishvili, 2012, pp.12-3). Challenges of communication and language are reported to be among the most significant barriers that international students confront, followed by financial constraints (Tas, 2013, p.2). Female students, older students, students enrolled in scientific and technology courses, and students with limited exposure to foreign cultures are more likely to experience difficulties adjusting to university life in the U.S. (Dee & Henkin, 1999; quoted in Tas, 2013, p.2).

Language and culture as barriers

A concern in this respect is the language barrier. It is reported that some universities lower their course standards and/or offer affordable or free language courses for foreign students (p. 29). Higher education is certainly a serious and strenuous experience. But, it need not be additionally dry and painful.

Pathway programs can be a useful option at this point. They are to a major extent designed for the students preparing for admission to the undergraduate studies where English is the medium of instruction. A large part of the programs offer instruction and practice for especially those requiring English training or other preparation for academic studies. The course design combine academic content with English language studies, study skills, and cultural adaptation courses (ICEF, 2016f).

The importance of the language barrier and cultural adaptation is often highlighted in various studies. On the reasons of the imbalance in mobility and higher education development among European countries, as mentioned in the section on the Europe region previously in the present dissertation, Teekens (2014) enumerates tradition, language, and lifestyle among the largest causes of the imbalance. In a context where language is increasingly a driving force, the United Kingdom combines a long tradition in the Commonwealth with "the provision of education in the most preferred language: English" (p.2). She gives, as an example for the significance of language, such countries as France, Germany, and Spain, which are the homes of three of the world languages, starting to provide more and more courses in English.

Austria attracts most of its international students from other German-speaking nations, and Spain from Latin American countries, while in France, French-speaking students from Africa become the largest group (Teekens, 2014, p.2).

Students like to study where they are familiar with the language and/or the culture.

Food

The results of two research studies show the relevance of another factor, food, as a determinant of student satisfaction. Obviously, when students decide to study abroad, their primary considerations are academics and the extent to which a foreign education can pave the way to greater career opportunities. But once they step into the institution of their choice, a wide array of variables influence their satisfaction, including culture and lifestyle factors, how easy it is to make friends and get involved on campus, and the quality of their accommodations (ICEF, 2016b). Housing is known to be an important determinant. Its importance is hard to overstate in terms of its impact on student success, satisfaction, and retention. Many international educators have learned that if a visiting student has a bad housing situation, this can overshadow all other aspects of their study abroad experience. There are increasing indicators that the same is true of food as well (ICEF, 2016b). Quoting the studies of Stewin (2013) and Stahl (2012), ICEF (2016b) summarizes the importance of home food in the overall satisfaction of international students.

As a University of Guelph Public Issues Anthropology Master's candidate, Stewin began to explore the questions of what international students eat when they come to study at Canadian universities, how they think about the foods available to them on- and off-campus, and what responsibilities universities have when it comes to food security among the international students they actively recruit. Although international students pay three to five times the cost of domestic tuition rates, many felt that their needs were not being met. The participants in her research noted

that they were particularly unhappy with the quality and variety of food items offered on campus, and many students described experiencing food insecurity, a temporary or ongoing inability to access healthy and preferable foods that allow one to live a functional life (Stewin, 2013).

Although some might argue that Canadian universities have no obligation to consider students' food needs and preferences, dissatisfaction with food offerings on-campus *does* have potential implications for universities, her research reveals. The research participants felt that a lack of culturally appropriate foods on campus was just one example of administrations *ignoring their needs*. As a consequence, the international students' great educational opportunity is increasingly becoming associated with sacrifice, poverty and food insecurity. Moreover, some students were considering returning home to finish or further their education, or relocating to another country, as they did not feel that their voices were being heard within their Canadian universities. As such, Stewin recommends, Canadian universities may be able to improve upon student retention and recruitment by striving to meet the food needs of international students (Stewin, 2013).

In another piece of research, mentioning the things you know to worry about when coming to study in the U.S., Stahl (2012) gives such questions as some examples: "How can I relate to people from all over the world?" "Would I cope with speaking in English all of the time?" "Would I ever find anyone like [my uncle] in America?" and such others. Among those things, home food has a significant place. "One thing I never thought about [before leaving home] was food," says a research participant, "how badly I would miss my mother's dishes, and how food would be a huge part of my culture shock." Other examples include such remarks (even bemoaning) as "Oh man I miss my mom's delicious white spicy rice," "Oh my god I miss my favorite Iraqi dish, Biryani," "I still can't stand a day without craving the most simple things I

used to have back home: meals as simple as plain white rice with potatoes and chicken." Stahl (2012) gives an account of a research participant who even traveled all the way from Massachusetts to New York just to find a taste of the desi food she missed from South Asia.

Turning to the reasons why food all of a sudden becomes so important when someone is abroad, why so many international students cite food as the thing they miss most even more than they mention their own families, Stahl (2012) enumerates some things why someone misses food from home while studying abroad. One of them is that food preferences are deep and ingrained. People make their food preferences well before they are born because of the foods their mothers eat while they are pregnant, which flavor their amniotic fluid and are transferred to their babies, as well as the breast milk, which contain what their mothers eat. Another point is that food forms part of a person's identity, as it is an important piece how a person defines culture. Holidays, religious days and observances are tied to special meals, and some family traditions are focused on foods or recipes, which may not be felt like an incredibly important part of people's lives when they are at home in their own culture, because it is already shared with people around. However, when away from home, people actually feel how important they are in their self-definition and identity. A third point is that food is deeply tied to memory, as it can create some of the most significant and deeply-held memories. Since nearly all of the sense of taste is based on smell and without smell, food would be practically tasteless, what we eat is what we smell. Being tied directly to the brain's "limbic system", the part of the brain that processes emotion and memory, taste (due to the smell) has a role in the storage and retrieval of memories and information in the memory (Stahl, 2012).

Cost of education

A final reason is also what adds to the stresses and strains of the lives of international students: the cost of education. It is considered to be an increasingly important factor in the decision-making process of students because as more and more countries provide education opportunities in English, students will have more choice afforded them (Verbik and Lasanowski, 2007, p. 31). Traditionally, the main English-language speaking countries are thought to be charging higher fees for international students than continental European and Asian countries. A nice but extremely limited table to compare international undergraduate tuition fees by country in Verbik & Lasanowski (2007, p. 33-4) places the U.S. and U.K. universities on top as offering the most expensive tertiary education. It is argued that the well-priced provision as available in continental European countries could render them more competitive in the foreseeable future (p. 34).

Factors affecting application

The processes *before* admission are also important in attracting international students to institutions of higher education. Although it can be conceived of as the accuracy of pre-enrollment information (as in Tas, 2013, p.5), it seems to be a wider issue. Emphasizing the "vast range of challenges facing international students […] during the admission process", Redding (2013, p.9) draws attention to the fact that adequate attention is not always paid to the needs of these applicants during the admission process while many universities seek to boost international enrollment. This need is so strong that the gap is filled by Independent Educational Consultants (IECs) providing college guidance to overseas applicants during the complex U.S. college

admission process. The increased level of competition among talented applicants, combined with the complexity of the application process, has led to this increased demand for outside assistance (p. 10). International students are often frustrated by the conflicting messages they encounter on the web pages of the university they are applying for (p.12). For Milena Mareva, head of international admissions at Wellesley College (MA), "just understanding the system is a challenge." And, similarly, for Andre Kostousov, associate director of international admissions at Northeastern University (MA), the "American education system is unique in so many ways. [It is a] hugely complex system—maybe the most complex in the world" (Redding, 2013, p.12). Language issues again become a challenge, this time for recommendation letters and other required school forms. Several IECs in Western Europe and South America state that students are allowed to generate their own transcripts on an Excel spreadsheet, since similar documentation did not exist in their school system (Redding, 2013, p.14).

A preliminary search I have done through a number of universities' web pages reveals that American universities require the following during application for their graduate programs:

1. Completion of online application form

2. Transcripts for all the tertiary programs completed previously

3. GRE Score (to be submitted via the institutional ETS code)

4. TOEFL Score (to be submitted via the institutional ETS code)

5. Writing Sample(s)

6. Statement of Purpose

7. Resume / CV

8. Letters of Reference (from 2-3 reference persons)

9. Application Fee (to be deposited online via a credit card)

10. Other (including Evidence of Financial Support, Visa Documents, Letter of request to be considered for an assistantship, abstract of courses, fact sheet, background form, copy of M.A. thesis, photocopy of passport, etc.)

Some universities require only scanned images of the originals for the pre-evaluation while some others require the original hard copies while few others require both. For a novice, it could be easily missed to submit the GRE or TOEFL scores without an ETS code. Letters of Reference form another challenge as the reference persons may not be competent enough in English to write their letters. The list is quite comprehensive; not all of them are required by the same institution. However, it is obvious that an international student who plan to pursue his/her academic studies at an American university or college may not be familiar with the system; and, although he/she is talented enough to perform well in the program once admitted, he/she may be eliminated at the onset because of the failure in proper application.

Zhang & Hagedorn's (2011) research on Chinese students yields that almost 60% of the participants used an education agents' assistance when they applied to U.S. colleges. Of the 60%, 72 percent indicated little knowledge regarding the college application process as their reason to hire an agent. This was followed by lack of knowledge in visa application and limited knowledge about the U.S. higher education institutions. Some indicated that they felt they were more likely to be accepted by the university if they applied with assistance of an agent (p. 11). A freshman reported that he was willing to "pay for the expertise of an agent to make sure that his documents met the college requirements." The role of the agents is briefly discussed in the section below.

International student recruiting agencies

A very recent market research report prepared by *StudentMarketing Youth Travel Consultancy* and published by Bridge Education Group, Inc. (Bridge, 2016), underscores an increasing pace of international student recruitment agency adoption by U.S. institutions. Over the course of the first 4 months of 2016, the research collated data from 131 U.S. institutions from 36 U.S. states (embodying 93,391 international students, *i.e.* 9.5% of the all international post-secondary students in the U.S). In addition, 343 international agencies from 64 countries responded (embodying 22,382 international students) and the total number of respondents reached 488 (Bridge, 2016, p.7).

The research finds that the pace of international student recruitment agency adoption by U.S. universities has increased since 2013 – the year in which NACAC (the National Association for College Admission Counseling) repealed a previous ban on the use of commissioned international education agents (ICEF, 2016e). According to the report, while 37% of U.S. universities and colleges work with international student recruitment agencies, 12% of U.S. institutions not collaborating with agents report working with pathway operators, and indirectly using their network of agencies to recruit international students to the USA. Collaborating with student recruitment agencies is apparently a new policy: 34% of U.S. institutions report they started using agents in the last three years. It must have promised a future, as those U.S. institutions collaborating with agents work, on average, with 33 agents and plan to add 11 and 12 new partners over the next two years; the more agencies a U.S. university already works with, the more they want to add new partners or aim for a higher final number of agents. However, they consider an average of 20 agents per institution as appropriate to work with (Bridge, 2016, p.7).

While an average of estimated 22% of international post-secondary students were enrolled in U.S. institutions through agencies in 2015 (p.7), 38% of Britain's international students are recruited by agents (p.13). The adoption of agencies in international student recruitment is even commoner in Canada and Australia. 41% of international students in Canada are recruited by agents (p.15). In Australia the ratio is 62% (p.15). While 37% of American higher education institutions and a slightly higher ratio (40%) of U.K. institutions use those agencies, in Canada it reaches 69% (p.15).

The research identified growth in the usage of education agents for international student recruitment in recent years, rather than stagnation or regress (Bridge, 2016, p.18) as shown in Figure 30 below:
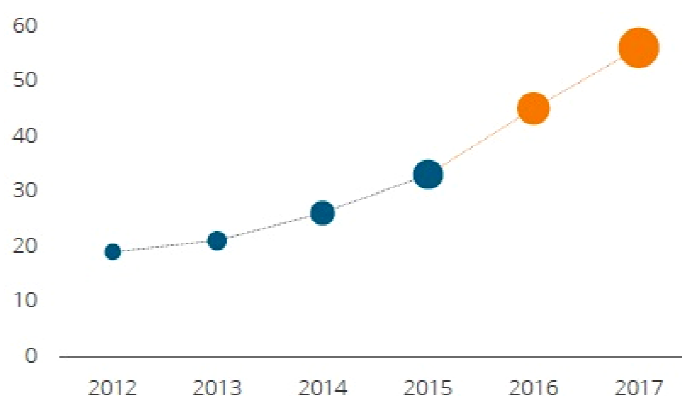
Figure 30. The average number of agencies U.S. institutions worked with (2012-2015) and plans for 2016-2017 (Source: Bridge, 2016, p.18).

As the chart reflects, the average number of agencies that U.S. institutions are engaged with has grown steadily since 2012, and is expected to continue to expand through 2017. NACAC Director of International Initiatives Eddie West says, "The slight growth from 20-30%

to 37% could be argued as a healthy sign. It has not been explosive growth; it has been measured growth" (ICEF, 2016e).

In 2013, when NACAC reconsidered its position, it permitted institutions to use commissioned agencies to recruit international students provided they follow new guidelines to ensure accountability, integrity, and transparency (Bridge, 2016, p.13). According to the Bridge (2016) report, over 70% of universities express concern regarding possible fraud. 72% of agents reported being asked for references from other U.S. institutions when entering new cooperation, more than twice that of any other credential. While 64% of U.S. institutions believe it should be mandatory or optional to disclose their agency partners to the public, 24% think U.S. institutions should not be required to do so. Those agencies are mostly (81%) rewarded by commission, 3% retainer fee, 5% other forms of compensation and 11% do not receive any reward from universities (Bridge, 2016, p.7).

The international student recruiting agencies make most of the application process, including visa application, on behalf of the students who do not want to bother themselves with all that work or who have very little or no experience and/or knowledge in the procedures; and, therefore, such students willingly make use of the service that they provide. The universities which collaborate with those agencies also benefit from that, because they ensure that the application requirements are completed. Another, though quite indirect, type of agencies can be the pathway programs, which will be briefly discussed in the section below.

Pathway programs

Pathway programs (also known as foundation programs), often offered in collaboration with specialized pathway providers, are targeted to students preparing for admission to English-medium undergraduate studies; and especially those requiring English training or other preparation for academic studies; and they typically combine academic content with English language studies, study skills, and cultural adaptation courses. They do not result in an academic credential or other qualification but instead provide for an assured progression to undergraduate studies for students that successfully complete their foundation requirements (ICEF, 2016f).

The pathway model represents a further international recruitment channel that combines the marketing expertise and networks of private-sector partners with the academic programming, facilities, and student services of the college or university. The U.K. is the leading destination for such programs; but, more American institutions are now partnering with pathway program providers as a way of drawing international students to their campuses. Pathway programs have existed for only about 10 years in the U.S. (ICEF, 2016f).

A very recent NAFSA study, *The Landscape of Pathway Partnerships in the United States* (NAFSA, 2016b), aims to supply information to American universities. The study has started with a working definition of pathways providers as "private third-party entities partnering with institutions to recruit international students and offer English-language preparation with academic coursework applicable toward graduation requirements" (NAFSA, 2016b). The preliminary paper of the report states that the process of considering and implementing pathway partnerships has implications for campus stakeholders in different roles, including recruitment and admissions, academic services, and related support services.

Many international students consider rankings in their decision-making process. 56% of the American universities working with pathway providers are not nationally ranked. Dr. Rahul Choudaha, principal researcher and CEO of DrEducation, the higher education consultancy conducting the research for NAFSA, comments on this finding that institutions collaborating with pathway providers aim to expand the applicant pool to international students who are not ranking-conscious and at the same time require additional English preparation to meet admissions requirements (ICEF, 2016f). The study is still in progress while the present dissertation is written. NAFSA announces that the final report will be released in Fall 2016.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

It is argued that the most economically successful nations will be those that are able to acquire the most talented people from around the world. The U.S. has been able to attract the most talented people from around the world to its academic institutions. In 1966, there were 82,000 international students in the United States. In 2015, 974,926. International students contribute to America's scientific and technical research, bringing international perspectives into U.S. classrooms, helping prepare American undergraduates for global careers, and leading to longer-term business relationships and economic benefits. The economic contributions of international students are in addition to the academic and cultural value these students bring to the campuses and local communities. In 2015, international students contributed more than $30.5 billion to the U.S. economy and supported more than 373,000 jobs. Between 1999 and 2009, international student mobility worldwide increased at more than twice the rate of international student enrollment in U.S. higher education institutions. International students are choosing to pursue higher education abroad in places other than the U.S. as numerous competitor countries have emerged during this time to seize a larger slice of the growing global marketplace of students.

But, the Association of International Educators warns that the United States is "at risk of losing these contributions without comprehensive immigration reform and other policy changes" (NAFSA, 2016c). While the number of internationally mobile students has doubled over the last decade, the United States has lost nearly 10% of its market share of international students due to increased competition from other countries with friendlier immigration policies.

This chapter of the present dissertation reviews and briefly comments on the findings presented in the previous chapters and introduces a number of recommendations.

In a report published in 2009, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) state:

There are many reasons why students pursue their education abroad. For some, it is a chance to broaden cultural and intellectual horizons. Others go abroad to avoid the frustrations of under-resourced universities at home. Many have no choice but to go abroad in order to pursue a particular field of education or type of academic program. These are just some of the factors that can 'push' students to pursue educational opportunities outside of their home countries. (UIS, 2009, p. 35)

The UNESCO report also mentions a number of 'pull' factors that impact students' choices of destinations:

For example, reputable academic institutions tend to attract a large number of students from abroad. In addition, certain countries aim to attract and retain highly-skilled immigrants. Some countries charge mobile students a higher rate of tuition and fees; in

these countries, economic incentives drive host institutions to actively recruit students from overseas. (UIS, 2009, p. 35)

For Bruner (2013):

"But," you may ask, "why should they want to come to the U.S.?" There are over 13,000 institutions in the world that award degrees in business. Applicants enjoy an enormous range of choice. The appeal of American schools is summarized in one word: quality. A passel of metrics point to the prominence of U.S. higher education, including the count of Nobel Laureates, the Shanghai Jiao Tong research rankings, and international b[usiness]-school league tables.

International student mobility is changing the global higher education landscape, with an increasing number of students going abroad for tertiary studies. And, according to various statistics,

The U.S. dominates the international student market, and as a result of its high 'brand' visibility and established international reputation, it will likely remain the most popular higher education destination in the coming years (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 34).

If a country aims to enhance inbound international student mobility, its decision-making bodies should improve the conditions within the context of the areas in the list. Conversely, the decision-making bodies should eliminate the negative aspects or obstacles in those areas that hinder the inbound mobility.

The Association of International Educators (NAFSA) published a report suggesting eliminating the legal requirement for student visa applicants to demonstrate their intent not to immigrate to the United States, at least for those pursuing degree programs. NAFSA also proposed several measures that could create a more balanced visa system. First, Congress should return to U.S. consulates the discretion to grant waivers of personal appearance (interviews) based on risk analysis, subject to Department of State guidance and approval. Second, the Department of State should require security clearances for scientists only for the most sensitive cases and eliminate them in cases where neither the applicant nor the applicant's country present concerns. Thirdly, the repetitive processing of frequent visitors and those who temporarily leave the United States should be eliminated. And, finally, overseas advising centers should be put to better use to facilitate visa reviews (Ahmadi, 2011, p. 6).

Kato and Sparber (2013) point to a need for policy reassessment by providing evidence on a potentially serious adverse effect of current H-1B immigration restrictions. Since many international students continue to work in the United States after graduation, lower-quality graduates would imply even more important macroeconomic consequence, because they are found to be especially effective in innovative and entrepreneurial activity, boosting aggregate productivity. With more lower-ability individuals seeking entry into the United States, the country may ultimately sacrifice those aggregate gains (p. 125).

Pikowsky (2002, p. 602), citing material on the Web sites of the American Civil Liberties Union, the Center for Democracy and Technology, and the Electronic Frontier Foundation, states that critics have argued that the Act will unduly increase the power of government to conduct electronic surveillance at the expense of civil liberties. On the other hand, pointing to the 9/11 Commission's statement that "[t]he choice between security and liberty is a false choice, as

nothing is more likely to endanger America's liberties than the success of a terrorist attack at home", Lungren (2012) remarks, "Constitutional governance should not be seen as disabling the state from acting on behalf of those it is obligated to defend", and agrees with Justice Robert Jackson's observing that "the Constitution is not a suicide pact" (p. 456).

All those laws can be considered a direct response to the tragedy of September 11, 2001. Terrorist hijacker Mohamed Atta's application to change status to a student visa was approved on July 17, 2001. Other hijacker Marwan Alshehhi's application was approved on August 9, 2001. Yet the flight school they were to attend didn't receive notification of those approvals until March 2002 as a result of the policy which allowed them to begin classes before their applications were approved (DHS/ICE, p. 9).

However, McKenzie (2004) comments that if local police had been able to stop and detain aliens for immigration law violations, only three out of those nineteen hijackers would have possibly been arrested—the other sixteen had proper documentation (p.1163). Drawing on the fact that the terrorists who intend on committing acts often have the resources and intelligence to maintain proper immigration status, McKenzie argues that the laws and policies are only "targeting the restaurant worker, orange grove farmer, hotel bellhop, or otherwise law-abiding undocumented alien", who provide services "that have benefited American citizens", including "cheap food, as a result of undocumented agricultural workers, and affordable hotel service" (2004, p. 1163-4). Securing the borders of a country and tracking the foreigners who have entered the country is undoubtedly the Government's both right and duty. Yet, its negative consequences must be weighed against its benefits.

Such concerns and debate do not only characterize the issues regarding the non-immigrant temporary visitors holding F, J, and M visas of the U.S., but they are relevant to the other

countries trying to get (and preserve) larger slices from the market of international students, as well. The scholars, politicians, students, and related parties (or, some of them) are criticizing the visa and immigration policies of the U.S., because they discourage international inbound students and get them to choose the competitors. However, the same concern holds true for the "competitors", too. *English UK* was saying,

> We want the government to consider a more student-friendly visa regime, including removing students from net migration figures. Our competitors are demonstrating that they welcome students from all over the world with more accommodating visa regimes and positive rhetoric. We need the same. (ICEF, 2016h)

Brief Counter-Comment: Terrorists Make No Discrimination, Nor Does Death

Negative consequences to be weighed against benefits…

The U.S. Department of Homeland Security states, "Protecting our borders from the illegal movement of weapons, drugs, contraband, and people, while promoting lawful entry and exit, is essential to homeland security, economic prosperity, and national sovereignty." Who can say or what kind of a political movement or an "—*ism*" claim this to be illogical, wrong, outdated or such? *Anarchism*, maybe…

Protecting and securing the borders is not only vital for the citizens but for the international visitors, as well. When a man commits a crime, provides drugs or wishes ill, or a suicide bomber explodes himself taking the lives of tens of innocent people—men, women, children, even babies in their strollers, even the street animals and birds, who just happen to be

there—either at a music venue in Paris or at an airport in Istanbul, he does not make a distinction between the citizens and the temporary, non-immigrant visitors.

Therefore, border security is for the safety of everyone in that country. Johnson (2009) recommends that the ports of entry of the U.S. must look like gateways to a free country, if the United States is to be an attractive destination for the world's best talent and future leaders. Entering into the U.S., the temporary, non-immigrant visitors may complain about or feel humiliated by the rules and regulations. But, having entered into the U.S., they will need and benefit from the very same rules and regulations while safely travelling in the country.

Policy Recommendations

The Association of International Educators has long been scrutinizing the causes of the international student enrollments in the U.S. universities and the effects of the policies to strengthen the nation's security, in this respect. The Association has advocated for policy changes and their work, together with others', has resulted in some incremental successes over the years to balance the degree of the security precautions against the needs of the international students and scholars, while "many of NAFSA's recommendations still remain critical to increasing the numbers of talented international students in the United States" (NAFSA, 2016c).

While trying to weigh their negative consequences against their benefits, the following recommendations can be made within this context (Johnson, 2009):

1. "*The Congress should restore to the secretary of state the authority to grant U.S. consulates discretion to waive personal appearance as appropriate based on risk analysis, subject to State-DHS guidance, and according to plans submitted by each consulate for State Department approval*" [my italics] (Johnson, 2009, p.7).

This highly technical recommendation, requiring a verbatim quote, is supported by the fact that the visitors to the U.S. were compelled to travel long distances and spend considerable amounts of money in some regions of the world to personally appear before the consular officer in visa interviews. Johnson (2009) emphasizes this as "the most important action required" (p .7).

2. *The visa approval procedures for the frequent visitors who have already cleared a background check, and for the students and scholars who leave the country temporarily but require a new visa to return to the same program should be handled separately to shorten the period and eliminate the disincentive.*

Several research studies, including Toutant's (2009), report examples of such situations for, especially, some certain regions of the world. Maybe, their number holds a very small proportion in the total number of all the international students. However, when the applicants from some certain countries or regions are subject to such procedures, they will *all* choose other destination countries, and it is not easy to count how many candidates are lost even before the academic decisions made by the host universities on their applications. The point here is that those applicants have already decided to *go abroad* for their studies; if the disincentive is strong enough, they will go to higher education institutions in other countries.

3. *The annual limit on H-1B visas for international students should be removed.*

As mentioned in previous sections of the present dissertation, various researchers argue that after the reduction of the number of available H-1B visas in October 2013, U.S. colleges will be less attractive for international students because they consider American education to be a pathway to employment in the country. Kato and Sparber (2013), for instance, were providing support from their research. Johnson (2009) was also emphasizing the need for temporary employment-based visas for skilled individuals with the claim that "the H-1B visa capacity […] hampers the ability of American businesses to hire and retain such individuals." Another set of data presented by Min *et al.* (2012, p. 129) was suggesting that for the international students in their target group, this was the primary motive for them to leave their country and travel abroad; the students were stating that before they came to the destination country, they believed that it would be possible for them to work there after graduation. This was not only a case for the international students considering application to the U.S. universities but for the students applying to the universities in the U.K., as well. The *Universities UK* research data were indicating that the limited prospects of working after graduating was causing international students to consider the destinations other than the U.K. (ICEF, 2016a)

4. "*Congress should provide sufficient green card relief to ensure that the U.S. can attract and employ the talent it requires to maintain its universities and economy*" [my italics] (Johnson, 2009, p. 9)

Within the context of the Recommendation #3 above, the proposed solution of NAFSA as written by Johnson (2009) can be introduced here as a verbatim quote. Johnson (2009) considers

an increase in the number of the green cards to be a likely solution for the huge number of applications for the H1-B visas. However, the main concern behind all these policies, laws and regulations should not be let sway: These regulations are not imposed to form barriers before the international students or to block immigration as it was arguably a case with the *Brexit* (Collins, 2016), but to protect everyone within the borders of the country. As stated by Johnson (2009), "No security gain is achieved when people who want to have a relationship with America go through the experience of entry into the United States and vow never to return" (p. 11). Therefore, the reference point should be the solution demonstrated to be more effective and efficient—visa card relief or new quota on H1-B visas or else.

5. *Short-term visitors intending to stay for a short period of time for educational purposes should be able to enter on tourist visas.*

Johnson (2009) proposes a period of 90 days here (p. 11). And, again, the main point should not be missed: protecting the people in the country. The tourist visa has a much less complicated procedure than the F-1 student visa—at least no SEVIS or I-20's… If a person wants to enter the U.S. as a tourist for a period of one month and another person wants to attend an intensive language course for, again, one month, and if one of them wishes ill, he can attempt it while having a tourist visa, as well.

6. *The SEVIS should be excluded from the ICE.*

The Student and Exchange Visitor Program (SEVP), which administers the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS), is a program within the U.S. Immigration and

Customs Enforcement (ICE). The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and ICE are the two largest criminal investigative agencies of the United States. As also noted in Johnson (2009), ICE is "an enforcement agency whose responsibility is to track down and protect us from terrorists, criminal gangs, human smugglers and traffickers, and the like" (p. 12). SEVIS is for all the students and scholars with an F, M, or J visa. A SEVIS remaining within the ICE could imply that the F, M, or J visa applicants are considered potential "terrorists, criminal gangs, human smugglers and traffickers, and the like". It is certainly a decision of the executive power to consider students and scholars to be such threats—there is no single indication that the administration has such an opinion, though. Therefore, international students and scholars should be put under a different category; and, hence, the exclusion of SEVIS from the domain of the ICE. This issue is also raised in Johnson (2009, p. 11).

For some further and technical recommendations on the legal dimension, relevant literature could be reviewed, among which is Johnson (2009). The following recommendations, however, are made on the dimension of students' expectations and motivations.

7. *The U.S. institutions of higher education should provide further assistance with their procedures.*

The requirements of the universities for application (and admission) are specified by the departments on some certain criteria, and they may not be cancelled—anyone sending an e-mail message for application may not be admitted certainly. On the other hand, application procedures may be dauntingly complex for a majority of international students. Universities' academic

criteria, requirements, application procedures and official visa procedures for non-immigrant visitors can sometimes intermix. As mentioned in previous sections of the present dissertation, several pieces of research have been done on the effect of the complexity of the application processes on international students. Some international students seemed to be willing to pay for the expertise of an agent to make sure that their documents met the college requirements (Zhang & Hagedorn, 2011). The main dimension discussed in the present dissertation is the legal dimension. This dimension forms the greatest disincentive. However, it is not the most *difficult*—for the international students, the most difficult part of the whole procedure that requires somebody else's guidance is the application process of the universities (Zhang & Hagedorn, 2011, p. 11). International student recruiting agencies seem to be developing as a distinct industry on its own course; and, there are (hundreds of?) thousands of people worldwide earning their living in this way. The universities should at least consider working in collaboration with (some selected ones) of them to channel the international students to the U.S.

8. *The U.S. institutions of higher education should provide orientation not only on campus life but on the legal consequences of some certain deeds as well.*

Entering a new country is more than encountering a new culture and experiencing a culture shock. Embarrassing social situations could be overcome with an apology; but, legal issues may not always be solved so smoothly and "You need a lawyer" can be extremely panicking. What can be considered a common practice in one country can be unacceptable even a violation of a law in the other. Certainly, it is not much plausible to make an exhaustive list of dos and don'ts, and it will not be meaningful, either—there are more similarities than variations. Thanks to the media, people are getting more informed of the variety of applications in various

countries. However, the point here is whether the U.S. institutions of higher education should consider, as a *policy*, providing such information service to their international students.

It is obvious that international students are important for a country's economic and intellectual growth. It is also obvious that keeping the threat out of the country without discouraging everyone else from coming to the country is extremely difficult and, sometimes, even dichotomic. The effects of the changes in the mobility patterns over the society at large will certainly be among the topics for further research.

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