HOME AWAY FROM HOME? A CASE STUDY OF STUDENT TRANSITIONS TO
AN INTERNATIONAL BRANCH CAMPUS

by

Kaitlin Oyler Cicchetti
A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty
of
George Mason University
in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy
Education

Committee:

_____ Chair

_____

_____

_____ Program Director

_____ Dean, College of Education and Human
Development

Date: _____ Spring Semester 2017
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA

Home Away from Home? A Case Study of Student Transitions to an International Branch Campus

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at George Mason University

by

Kaitlin Oyler Cicchetti
Master of Education
University of South Carolina, 2009
Bachelor of Arts
University of North Carolina Wilmington, 2007

Director: Todd Rose, Professor
College of Education and Human Development

Spring Semester 2017
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband John, whose encouragement, love, and support motivated me every step of the way.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abstract

HOME AWAY FROM HOME? A CASE STUDY OF STUDENT TRANSITIONS TO AN INTERNATIONAL BRANCH CAMPUS

Kaitlin Oyler Cicchetti, Ph.D.

George Mason University, 2017

Dissertation Director: Dr. Todd Rose, Professor

This study explored the transition experience of home-campus students attending an international branch campus. The studied was informed by a diverse range of literature, including the internationalization of higher education and student affairs, development of international branch campuses, students in transition, the development of student affairs in the United States and Korea, as well as theories of students in transition. The literature provides an exploration of the transition of study abroad and international students, however, the perspectives of students studying at international branch campuses from their home institution are not represented in the literature. A single-site phenomenological case study was used as a research design that informed methodological choices. In order to explore the transition experiences of eleven participants in this study, data collection consisted of an open-ended questionnaire, interviews, and observations conducted on the international branch campus. A multi-part

coding process was conducted once data collection was complete, and a thematic network analysis was conducted which resulted in four overarching themes. The findings revealed that participant input variables, peer support, and a connection between the home and international branch campus greatly impacted the transition experience, including a participant's ability to cope with the transition, as well as the institutional support participants felt they received in transition. Findings themselves had both positive and negative interpretations and considerations that institutions establishing or operating a new international branch campus could find particularly useful in their practices. Finally, this study highlights a need for researchers and scholars to add to the small body of literature on this topic by further examining various elements of the international branch campus experience of home-campus students in general, including a focus on the transition experience.

Chapter One

The landscape of higher education has changed drastically over the past decade as institutions have extended their education and research activities across national boundaries (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). Colleges and universities are increasingly focused on becoming global institutions and more times than not, state that global education is a top institutional priority (Stearns, 2009). A progressively popular and extremely vital element to the globalization of higher education has become transnational higher education (TNHE) (Chiang, 2012). TNHE is any type of higher education program and service in which the learner is located in a country other than the one where the awarding institution is based (Chapman & Pyvis, 2013; Chiang, 2012; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). TNHE can range from franchises, joint degrees, offshore institutions, and one of the most increasingly popular set-ups, international branch campuses (Chapman & Pyvis, 2013; Chiang, 2012). The number of international branch campuses worldwide has skyrocketed, with data from the Cross-Border Education Research Team listing 311 international branch campuses as of January 2017 (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017). East and Southeast Asia are the major host regions of international branch campuses, with the Middle East has emerged over the past few years as a popular host region as well (Healey, 2015). It is estimated that by 2025

international branch campuses will account for 44 percent of the total demand for international education (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013).

The knowledge of international branch campuses, their structure, and how they operate is largely anecdotal and based on assumptions rather than empirical investigations (Healey, 2015). When it comes to research on the student experience on an international branch campus, the vast majority of studies assess student motivation to study at branch campuses in order to better understand why students chose an international branch campus over an offshore or local higher education provider (Wilkins, Balakrishnan & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). The focus on student destination choice in the current research attempts to aid institutions in increasing marketing and recruitment strategies, which are essential in attracting necessary student enrollments (Lee, 2013; Healey, 2015; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). Aside from why a student chooses to study at an international branch campus, relatively little is known about other aspects of the student experience including the transition to an international branch campus and how satisfied students are with their experiences and the institutional support they receive once they arrive on campus (Healey, 2015).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the transition experience of students attending an international branch campus, with a focus on exploring student perspectives of the institutional support they received throughout the transition. The literature on student motivation (Lee, 2013; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011), student satisfaction (Miliszewska & Sztendur, 2012), and student culture shock (Pyvis &

Chapman, 2005) all add to the slim body of literature on the student experience at an international branch campus, however, to date research has not adequately addressed the transition experience of students to an international branch campus. Understanding the experiences of students in transition to an international environment such as an international branch campus will help institutions more effectively serve and retain students (Mamiseishvili, 2011; Chapman & Pyvis, 2013). If institutions want to continue establishing international branch campuses as part of their larger goals of internationalization, research must focus on developing a better understanding of the resources and support services that help students overcome obstacles and persist throughout the transition. The focal point of this research was the experiences of students that attended an international branch campus affiliated with their home institution, referred to as home-campus students in this study, as there is a gap in the literature that explores the experiences of this unique group of students. The research questions for this study are:

1. What are the transition experiences of home-campus students at an international branch campus?

2. What are home-campus students' perspectives of the institutional support they receive throughout the transition to an international branch campus?

For this study, a single-site phenomenological case study was used as a research design that informed methodological choices. The unit of analysis was the transition experiences of home-campus students at an international branch campus, while the boundary of the case was one institution within an international branch campus consortia

3

model. The international branch campus selected as the setting in this study is located in

an East Asian country, and is one of four institutions in a consortium that shares facilities

and resources, but offers degrees independently of one another (Schiller & Park, 2014).

By utilizing a single-site for this case study, the phenomenon under investigation was

studied in detail at one particular location. Case studies are best suited for

particularization, and this case focused on the uniqueness of one international branch

campus in a consortia model. Whereas a common misunderstanding of case study

research is that knowledge cannot be transferred on the base of a single case, Flyvbjerg

(2006) posits that a purely descriptive phenomenological case study can be of value in the

collective process of knowledge accumulation within any given field.

Background of the Problem

In order to understand the context in which international branch campuses exist in

the realm of higher education, it is first important to understand the nature of

globalization, how it has influenced the internationalization of higher education, and how

the TNHE trend has emerged in recent years within the higher education landscape.

Globalization and internationalization. The growing interest of the

internationalization of higher education elicits a variety of definitions and perspectives on

what globalization and internationalization truly mean (Osfield, 2008; Oyler, 2007).

Quite often the terms *internationalization* and *globalization* are used interchangeably,

however, both terms have somewhat different advantages and risks (Stearns, 2009).

Globalization is often used as a catchall term to explain a variety of conditions and trends

in the modern world within economic, political, cultural, and technological contexts

(McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). Globalization has also been referred to as the "widening, deepening, and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness" (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 1999, p. 2). Over the past 30 years, higher education has undergone a shift as part of the globalization trend, with the emergence of technology, the need for producing a skilled labor force, the transition to a knowledge-based economy, and the influence of neoliberalism all cited as catalysts to the paradigm shift (Gopal, 2011). Gopal (2011) argues that neoliberalism is the guiding philosophy that supports the entrepreneurial and competition-seeking behavior brought on by globalization, and that education is seen as a commodity to be traded in the global market within neoliberalist practices.

Globalization affects countries in different ways, as a nation's history, culture, traditions, and priorities all play a role in defining how knowledge, people, technology, values, and ideas flow across borders (Knight & de Wit, 1997). In response to forces of globalization, nations have shifted governing powers to allow universities to respond to the demands of creating a boundary-less labor force (Gopal, 2011). In turn, universities have created strategies to internationalize higher education. Whereas globalization describes the interconnectedness of the global community, and more specifically focuses on creating interdependence amongst cultures and societies, internationalization focus on bringing international elements inward and relates more specifically to a plan for institutions to be more internationally oriented (Altbach, 2002; Knight, 2003, 2004). In essence, while the two terms are not interchangeable, they rely heavily on one another. Jane Knight simplifies the relationship by stating that "internationalization is changing

the world of higher education, and globalization is changing the world of internationalization" (2003, p. 3).

A variety of definitions of the term internationalization exist in the literature on international education (Knight, 2004). The term has evolved over the past few decades and was first defined as institutional activity, program, or service that fell within international studies (Arum & van de Water, 1992). In 1994, Knight added the concept of internationalization as a process to the evolving definition to illustrate the need for integration at an institutional level (Knight, 2004), and Van der Wende (1997) suggested expanding the definition even further in acknowledgement of the limitations of the institution-based definition. De Wit (2002) concluded that even though a precise definition may not exist, the use of a working definition of internationalization is relevant and necessary. In 2003, Knight introduced an updated working definition that has become one of the most widely cited definitions of internationalization in the literature today. Knight defines internationalization as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (2003, p. 2). Examples of internationalization include recruitment of foreign students, international research initiatives, collaboration with academic institutions in other countries, as well as establishing study abroad programs (Altbach, 2002; Knight, 2003, 2004). Most relevant to this study, is the idea that branch campuses are becoming an increasingly popular form of internationalization (Gopal, 2011).

International branch campuses. The rapid growth of international branch campuses has been one of the most striking developments in the internationalization of

higher education, as international branch campuses account for the most growth in TNHE since the turn of the century (Healey, 2015; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). International branch campuses are defined as "educational facilities where students receive face-to-face instruction in a country different to that of the parent institution" (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013, p. 143). The two features that distinguish international branch campuses from other forms of TNHE are (a) the branch campus, or host campus, operates under the same name as the home institution, and (b) the students that graduate are granted degrees that bear the name of the home institution (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). If the trend continues as projected, institutions around the world will not be bound by a single location and the globalization of higher education will finally be realized (Wildavsky, 2010).

Although the number of international branch campuses established world-wide continues to grow rapidly, Girdzijauskaite and Radzeviciene (2014) note that international branch campuses are one of the riskiest and unexplored facets of the internationalization of higher education. Institutions are attracted to the creation of international branch campuses for the cultural immersion of students and faculty, the global brand recognition for universities interested in enhancing their reputation, as well as to strengthen academic standards (Harding & Lammey, 2011; Lane & Kinser, 2011b). However, establishing an international branch campus is a complex endeavor that involves much more than operating an academic program in a foreign territory (Harding & Lammey, 2011). Institutions that operate international branch campuses must navigate a unique set of challenges, as standardized procedures and academic processes of the

home institution must be adhered to while policies, practices, and structure must also be adapted to take advantage of local and cultural conditions (Harding & Lammey, 2011; Healey, 2015; Lane & Kinser, 2011). Many home campuses fear that adapting to local conditions will lessen quality and hurt the home campuses' reputation, so many home institutions do not allow international branch campuses much freedom in regards to the adaptation of policies, procedures, and practices (Lane, 2011a). Neglecting the influence of culture and context can be a challenge that often significantly impacts the success of an international branch campus (Harding & Lammey, 2011).

Significance of the Study

To date, very few organizations or agencies have systematically collected data about international branch campuses (Lane, 2011a), and as Healey (2015) notes, the literature that does exist is "grey" in nature as it is atheoretical, mostly focused on practitioners, and lacks empirical data. The rise in popularity of TNHE means that more and more students are enrolling in international branch campuses and are experiencing the unique globalized learning environment that branch campuses provide, although the rise in popularity has not been met with a rise in research on the student experience on these campuses. The richest areas of inquiry in regards to international branch campuses involve literature on faculty experiences, the management of academic quality, and the overall management of the international branch campus itself (Healey, 2015). In discussing educational quality assurance of international branch campuses, Chapman and Pyvis (2013) note that the student experience is a key indicator of the quality of educational provision and that most, if not all, TNHE programs need to be viewed from

the student perspective as they are a crucial, yet often overlooked, perspective. The findings of this study help fill the gap in the literature on international branch campuses by focusing on the home-campus student transition experience and student perspectives of the institutional support they received when transitioning to the branch campus environment.

A study by Miliszewska and Sztendur (2012) adds to the growing interest in the experiences of students studying at international branch campuses by analyzing student satisfaction with aspects of an international branch campus such as instructors, technology, program management, and administration. Results show that determinants of student satisfaction with program effectiveness consists of program structure and flexibility, opportunity to obtain a foreign degree without leaving the country, and opportunity to experience Western teaching methods. While Miliszewska and Sztendur's (2012) quantitative study begins to fill the gap in the literature on the student experience at an international branch campus, the study does not account for participant beliefs, perspectives, or feelings, and only focuses on the perspectives of local students studying in their home country at an international branch campus. A study by Pyvis and Chapman (2006) also focuses on the identity conflict local students experience when studying at an international branch campus, since they are neither international students studying at a foreign institution nor are they domestic students studying at a local university. The study finds that culture shock can be experienced by students studying in their home country in programs operated by universities from other countries. Pyvis and Chapman (2006) acknowledge the increasingly heterogeneous nature of the populations on

international branch campuses and note that additional research is needed beyond their study to explore experiences outside of the local student population. This qualitative study, focused on home-campus student perspectives, helps fill in the gap within the literature on home-campus students studying at international branch campuses not affiliated with the local student population.

Definition of Key Terminology

Terminology in this study such as globalization, internationalization, and transnational higher education, have previously been defined, but it is also important to address key terminology in the research questions to provide clarity of meanings used in this study. Without providing definitions that serve as parameters to guide methodology and analysis, this study on the student transition experience to an international branch campus would have allowed for a broader understanding of experiences but would have lacked depth. Determining the unit of analysis as well as the boundaries of this study are hallmarks of case study research (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995), and defining how the terms *international branch campus*, *home-campus student*, *transition*, and *support* were used in this study will define boundaries designed into this study. Each term will be addressed along with relevant literature to support how and why definitions were chosen. A full list of terminology and definitions from this chapter is also available in Table 1.

Table 1

Definitions of Key Terminology as Defined in this Study

Term	Definition
Transnational higher education	Any type of higher education program and service in which the learner is located in a country other than the one where the awarding institution is based (Chapman & Pyvis, 2013)
Globalization	The widening, deepening, and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 1999)
Internationalization	The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (Knight, 2003)
International branch campus	Educational facilities that provide students the opportunity to receive face-to-face instruction in a country different than that of the host institution (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013)
Home-campus student	An individual that attends an international branch campus affiliated with their home institution
Transition	An event, or non-event, that results in changed relationships, routines, assumptions, and roles (Schlossberg, 1981)
Institutional support	A person, resource, or initiative affiliated with the international branch campus that provides aid or assistance to the student during the transition

International branch campus. International branch campuses are defined as educational facilities that provide students the opportunity to receive face-to-face instruction in a country different than that of the host institution (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). Depending on the host country where the international branch campus is located, the purpose and goal of the international branch campus can differ, making the structure and set-up of the campus unique to every setting (Lane & Kinser, 2011b). Many host countries aspire to become an educational hub, or a region designed to retain local students, attract foreign investments, and provide high-quality education and training to create a knowledge-based economy (Lane & Kinser, 2011b). One implementation strategy that exists that is associated with the development of educational hubs is to locate international branch campuses in close proximity to one another, creating a focused site for the hub (Lane & Kinser, 2011b). This is known as either an acropolis hub or a consortia model (Lane & Kinser, 2011b; Schiller & Park, 2014). Consortia models place several international branch campuses of various institutions in very close proximity, and although degrees offered are independent of one another, campus facilities such as libraries, residence halls, and classrooms are shared (Schiller & Park, 2014). Additionally, some aspects of administrative and student services are shared (Schiller & Park, 2014). The international branch campus that served as the setting for this study is part of a consortia model located in an East Asian country. Since the consortia model of international branch campuses are relatively new and under researched, this site was selected for its unique characteristics and its ability to examine the transition experience of students in this particular setting.

Home-campus student. For the purpose of this study, a home-campus student is defined as an individual that has taken classes and lived at the international branch campus affiliated with their home institution for at least one 16-week semester. The original plan for this research was to study the experiences of home-campus students as they transitioned to the international branch campus setting, however, due to extremely low enrollments of the selected site, the focus had to shift to explore the transition experience of home-campus students that have previously attended the international branch campus. The undergraduate students in this study were full-time, meaning they took at least twelve credit hours, were enrolled for at least one 16-week semester at the international branch campus, and lived in university housing on campus at the international branch campus. The exact semester in which the home-campus students attended the international branch campus varied, but the experience they all had in common is that they attended the international branch campus for at least one semester.

Student enrollment on an international branch campus can range from domestic students born and raised in the country hosting the branch campus, students traveling from outside the country that hosts the branch campus, known as foreigners in this study, or students from local expatriate communities. International branch campuses located in educational hubs or those within consortia models tend to enroll mostly domestic students or expatriates, as the goal of the host country of international branch campuses is to create new demand in the local higher education sector and to keep local students from studying abroad (Lane, 2011a; Wilkins et al., 2012). Goals of the home institution complement those of the host country in terms of increasing access to students from the

country where the branch campus is located, however, an important element of the set-up of a branch campus is the ability for students from the home institution to study at the international branch campus (Lane, 2011a).

Students from a home institution that choose to study at that affiliated international branch campus are a unique population as they do not fully fit into common definitions of international students or study abroad students. International students are defined as students whose normal place of residence is outside of the country where the institution is located (Wilkins et al., 2012). Study abroad students are defined as students that complete part of their degree program through educational activities outside the country where the institution is located. Although the population of students chosen for this study fall into both categories, one important factor that is not accounted for in either definition is that these students are attending a branch of their home institution that is located in another country. Literature exists that explores the experiences of study abroad students and international students, however, students from the home institution studying at international branch campuses are caught in between these two groups are their perspectives are not currently represented in the literature on international branch campuses; this study helped shed light on the experiences of this unique group of students.

Transition. In this study, a transition is defined as an event, or non-event, that results in changed relationships, routines, assumptions, and roles (Schlossberg, 1981). While many definitions of the term transition exist in the literature, Nancy Schlossberg's definition of transition best aligns with this study as it posits that a transition "is not so

much a matter of change as of the individual's perception of change" (Schlossberg, 1981, p. 6). Schlossberg (1981) first coined her definition in her study which analyzed human adaptation to transition. Her definition varies from how other scholars define the term as it is centered around the notion that a transition is defined by an individual, and is based on an individual's perspective of change (Schlossberg, 1981). This study focused on the perspectives of students that have previously transitioned to an international branch campus and explored how students defined the transition for themselves as individuals. Acknowledging how the participants in this study perceived the transition to an international branch campus before the transition was a key factor which framed the analysis of student perspectives of the support they received throughout the transition.

In defining the term transition it is also important to outline the timeframe in which the transition of students to an international branch campus was studied. Schlossberg's definition of transition encompasses both events and non-events, therefore depending on the perspectives of students transitioning to international branch campuses, they could have experienced multiple transitions before, during, and after their arrival to the branch campus. The focus of this study was on the reflections of the participants' semester(s) they spent on the international branch campus, with acknowledgement that participants already transitioned away from the international branch campus and were recalling their experiences during that time frame. Particular focus was given to the participant experience in the first six weeks of the semester on the international branch campus. Levitz and Noel (1998) suggest that a student's most critical transition period occurs during the first two to six weeks of the semester. Pascarella and Terenzini (1992)

emphasize the importance of the first few weeks in the transition experience and note that the initial encounters students have with an institution and its people effect subsequent levels of achievement, involvement, and satisfaction. This study did not focus on the student transition experience from the international branch campus and back to the home institution. Identifying a specific time frame in which the transition was studied will help institutions better understand how best to support students in the initial transition to an international branch campus.

   Institutional support. The main focus of this study is to understand the overall transition experiences of home-campus students at an international branch campus. This study also aimed to uncover home-campus student perspectives of the institutional support they received in transition. Institutional support is defined as a person, resource, or initiative affiliated with the international branch campus that provides aid or assistance to the student during the transition. In this study support can mean that of faculty, staff, administrators, other students, campus resources, or initiatives created by the institution to aid students in transition. Support is being defined within institutional boundaries so the research can be focused on the institution itself and ways in which support is offered to students in transition. Outside support systems such as family members and friends not affiliated with the institution was not the focus of this study, as research by Lee (2013) and Wilkins and Huisman (2011) exists that suggests that one of the most important support systems for students in transition is their families. Research by Miliszewska and Sztendur (2012) also suggests that students on international branch campuses sometimes experience low satisfaction with staff and resources. Findings from

this study add to the body of literature on how institutions can best support students in transition to international branch campuses.

Summary

The heightened institutional awareness of other countries and cultures has caused an influx of efforts to internationalize higher education worldwide, with international branch campuses serving as an increasingly popular form of internationalization (Gopal, 2011; Stearns, 2009). With the rapid increase in the number of international branch campuses established worldwide comes a growing interest in the experiences of students that attend the branch campuses. In an effort to help institutions better understand what they need to do to effectively serve and retain students, this study attempted to understand the transition experience of students that have attended an international branch campus, with a focus on exploring student perspectives of the institutional support they received throughout the transition. This study will continue in chapter two with a review of literature on the internationalization of higher education and students in transition.

Chapter Two

      The literature to support this study will be discussed in five overarching sections: (a) the internationalization of higher education and student affairs, (b) the development of international branch campuses, (c) students in transition, (d) the development of student affairs in the United States and South Korea, and (e) theories of transition. Literature detailing the history of the internationalization of higher education and student affairs will first be presented to provide a background into the context in which international branch campuses were established. In order to provide a better understanding of the environment in which this study took place, literature on the development of international branch campuses will follow. Next, literature on the student transition experience to international branch campuses will be presented. Literature on the development of student affairs in higher education in the United States and South Korea will follow, as this literature will provide context for the theoretical lenses through which the student transition experience will be explored. This section will conclude with literature pertaining to theories of students in transition that will provide a theoretical foundation through which the support students receive in transition will be analyzed.

Internationalization of Higher Education

      The term *internationalization* is often interchanged with the term *globalization*, and there is frequent confusion in the literature as to their relationship (Knight, 2004).

Globalization is widely used in the literature as a catchword that is supposedly all-encompassing (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007), however, it is important to recognize that the internationalization of higher education is closely connected to globalization, however, the two processes are fundamentally different (Knight, 2012). Globalization focuses on the worldwide flow of ideas, people, resources, values, cultures, goods, services, technology, etc. (Knight, 2012). Globalization affects countries and cultures in different ways due to a nation's history and tradition, and is a process that impacts internationalization (Knight, 2004). With definitions of the two terms frequently changing and being used interchangeably, efforts have been made over the past decade to focus solely on the internationalization of higher education and to avoid using the term *globalization of higher education* (Knight, 2003).

Internationalization, also a process, is different than globalization in that it emphasizes a relationship among nations, people, cultures, institutions, and systems (Knight, 2004). The term internationalization is frequently used in the literature in a variety of ways and for a variety of purposes, which is a reflection of the various factor that affect internationalization both within and outside of higher education (Knight, 2004). Even within the higher education sector, it is not uncommon to find varying definitions of internationalization in the literature. The term was first commonly defined in the 1980s as a set of activities on an institutional level (Knight, 2004). Arum and van de Water's (1992) definition of internationalization as "multiples activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational ex-change and technical cooperation" (p. 202) is an example of internationalization as a set of activities.

Jane Knight was the first scholar to define internationalization of higher education as a process (Knight, 2004), and her original definition is frequently cited in the literature on internationalization. Knight (1994) first defined internationalization as the "process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution" (p. 7). In an effort to keep up with constant changes in the landscape of higher education and to ensure the definition current changes and challenges Knight revisited her definition and updated it to a working definition that acknowledges the involvement of internationalization at a national, sector, and institutional level (Knight, 2004).

Additional definitions of internationalization include Osfield's (2008) definition of internationalization as a process in which institutions change to keep up with the increasing demand for direct links to higher education outside the country of origin. In acknowledgement of varying definitions, Osfield (2008) also encourages readers to define the term within the context of his or her own environment. Soderqvist (2002) defines internationalization as change process from a national higher education institution to an international higher education institution, and highlights the need for an institution to include an international dimension in all aspects of management. Regardless of the different interpretations and definitions, de Wit (2002) concludes that although it is unlikely that one definition of the term will be widely adopted, internationalization needs to have parameters that can be assessed and used to advance higher education.

Rationale behind the internationalization of higher education. Higher education has been strongly influenced and challenged by social, political, and economic

developments since the end World War II, and more recently, the end of the Cold War (de Wit, 1995). Worldwide, the increasing pace of the internationalization of higher education was a response to a wide range of conditions, including competitiveness of the global economy and political interdependence between countries (Bartell, 2003; de Wit, 2002; Ninnes & Hellstén, 2005). Additionally, it was not uncommon for countries to have specific objectives for their establishment in the international education movement including: improvements to foreign trade balances through the use of educational services, income generation from full fee-paying foreign students, and global positioning (Marginson, 2006). Traditionally, rationales behind the internationalization of higher education are grouped into four categories: social/cultural, political, academic, and economic (de Wit, 1995; Knight, 2004; Knight & de Wit, 1997), and are often discussed in terms of national-level rationales and institutional-level rationales (Knight, 2004).

On a national level, the history and magnitude of the internationalization of higher education varies by country (Oyler, 2009). In the United States, pressure emerged for higher education to internationalize after World War II because in order for the U.S. to contain communism abroad, the American people had to demonstrate a better understanding of the world around them in order to help developing countries establish democratic governments (Goodwin & Nacht, 1991). At that time, internationalization was fueled by the need for national security, and institutions were pressed to increase international competence and the quality of international education (de Wit, 2002; Holzner & Greenwood, 1995). Other national-level rationales of internationalization include human resource development, or developing and recruiting human capital

through international education initiatives as a way to increase an emphasis on the knowledge economy and mobility of the labor force; strategic alliances, which includes developing relationships as a way to develop closer geopolitical ties and economic relationships to gain a competitive edge worldwide; commercial trade, or exporting education for economic benefit; and, nation building, where instead of exporting education, countries focus on importing education programs an institutions for nation-building purposes (Knight, 2004). Countries also use the internationalization of higher education as a national asset and a valuable instrument in foreign policy, as well as leverage to strengthen political, cultural, and economic ties with countries around the world (Lovett, 2008).

National-level rationales can closely align with institutional-level rationales but alignments do not always occur (Knight, 2004). Depending on if internationalization is a bottom-down or top-up approach in any given country will dictate how closely rationales align on the national and institutional level (Oyler, 2009). Institutions often strive to internationalize to develop students and staff by enhancing their international and intercultural understanding (Knight, 2004). Institutions are faced with the additional responsibility of instilling cultural understanding and international knowledge in graduates to prepare them for an increasingly globalized job market and society (Bartell, 2003; de Wit, 2002; Stearns, 2009). Policy makers and the public expect colleges and universities to deliver graduates who can function within an international environment and who "reflect the international ties that bind people as they bind nations" (Pickert, 1992, p. 2). Although students may never enter the workforce in a country outside their

own they will subsequently experience the effects of working in a globalized society and economy (de Wit, 2002). However, the internationalization of colleges and universities spans wider than increasing students' cultural awareness and value on the job market. Institutions also focus on internationalization as a way to generate alternative sources of incomes in the form of international branch campuses or increasing international student enrollment or establish international institutional linkages in the form of joint curriculums, research initiatives, or seminars and conferences (Knight, 2004).

Internationalization of student affairs. Student affairs is defined as an aspect of higher education that fosters and promotes opportunities to increase student learning and the holistic development of students (ACPA & NASPA, 2010). The internationalization of student affairs is a late-twentieth century response to the opening of higher education to the world, and a realization that student affairs administrators need to embrace internationalization as an expanded educational responsibility (Ping, 1999). While research on the internationalization of student affairs as a profession is extremely minimal, Ping (1999) offers insight into the influence of internationalization on student affairs, and suggests that student affairs administrators must adapt policies and practices to contribute to cross-cultural understanding and empathy and to open individuals and groups to the interaction necessary in an interdependent world. Ping (1999) also suggests that even with a rising focus of institutions on internationalization, the preparation of student affairs professionals to actualize this expanded role is lacking.

Research also exists that focuses on better understanding how student affairs is practiced globally, and suggests that the organizational function and approach to student

affairs varies greatly by country and region of the world (Ludeman, Osfield, Hidalgo,

Oste & Wang, 2009). The concept of *glocalization* is used to describe the influence of

global and local forces on the practices and trends in higher education, and suggests that

student affairs practices within higher education systems around the world vary greatly

because of cultural values and environmental factors specific to local contexts (Mok &

Lee, 2003). With the increased internationalization of higher education comes an

increased interest in understanding how student affairs are provided in various

international jurisdictions as well (Seifert, Perozzi, Bodine Al-Sharif, Li & Wildman,

2014). It is also important to acknowledge and value the similarities and differences in

assumptions, organization, and function of the glocalized field of student affairs and

services worldwide (Roberts, 2012).

     The history of the internationalization of student affairs and student services

providers varies by country. Higher education has been influenced by globalization and

the need for creating an interdependence amongst cultures and societies, similarly,

student affairs has been impacted by the increasing demand to operate with an

international perspective across borders (Knight, 2004; Osfield, 2008). A variety of

factors have been identified that are driving the internationalization movement in student

affairs. Historically speaking in the United States, developments such as the Fulbright

Scholars Program, campus training for Peace Corps programs, and international exchange

programs for students transformed American college campuses and forced student affairs

administrators to expand beyond traditional roles (Ping, 1999).

Global connectedness is a foundational factor as it has demonstrated how increasingly easy it has become for student affairs professionals to communicate and travel across national borders (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008). Additionally, the international focus and global perspective of campus leaders has influenced student affairs professionals to increase their international orientations so they are not marginalized as campus-oriented officials amongst a globalized culture of leadership (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008). A rapid increase in student mobility, both in terms of students going abroad and international students coming from foreign institutions, has required student affairs professionals to become more internationally aware and to develop an international outlook and expertise (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008). The international expertise of student affairs professionals is often developed through organized programs that provide opportunities for professionals to travel abroad and participate in exchange programs (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008). Enhancing awareness and appreciation for diversity has been a hallmark of the student affairs profession for decades. With college campuses becoming more diverse and globally oriented, student affairs professionals will continue to serve at the forefront of creating a climate of dialogue and openness (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008).

A common call to action is the need for student affairs professionals to strengthen their own global understanding so they can help institutions achieve goals for global understanding (Osfield, 2008). Student affairs professionals are expected to become members of a world profession and serve as role models for students and help them understand the impact of globalization on their lives (Osfield, 2008). One of the most

important developments in the student affairs profession in the past few decades is the increasing involvement of professionals in international travel, exchange, professional collaboration, and global communication (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008). Today more than ever, student affairs professionals are active partners in the internationalization efforts of institutions, and often are catalysts to encourage collaboration with institutions and colleagues across borders (Dalton & Sullivan, 2008).

International Branch Campuses

The term *transnational higher education* is frequently used in the literature to describe education delivered by an institution based in one country to students located in another (Levatino, 2016; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). Transnational higher education is one of the most important aspects of the internationalization of higher education, and is an area that has seen the most significant changes over the past decade (Knight, 2011; Levatino, 2016). The importance of transnational higher education is due to its role as one of the most consumer-driven forms of education delivery today, as transnational programs typically pop up when student demand and a capacity to pay exists (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). International branch campuses are an increasingly popular example of a transnational higher education program, as international branch campuses are governed and operated by home campuses that are often located geographically at a great distance from the branch campus (Lemke-Westcott & Johnson, 2013).

While a universal definition of an international branch campus does not exist, common attributes amongst definitions include: a campus owned, at least in part, by a foreign institution; a campus operating under the name of a foreign institution; and

students receive face-to-face instruction and are awarded a degree from the foreign institution (Becker, 2010; Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Lane, 2011b; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). The literature on international branch campuses is limited in scope, and has been referred to as 'grey' in nature as it provides valuable insights but is aimed at practitioners and is atheoretical and descriptive in nature (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Healey, 2015; Lane, 2011b). Lane (2011b) argues that field-based scholarship that focuses on the creation, operation, and regulation of international branch campuses is needed in the literature. The literature about international branch campuses that is available and relevant to this study will be discussed in three sections: history, rationale, and challenges.

History of international branch campuses. Universities began operating campuses in other nations in the mid 1950s as a way to provide study abroad opportunities, offer special graduate programs, and to provide educational opportunities for foreign-based military (Lane, 2011b). The first international branch campus in continuous existence was established in Bologna, Italy in 1955 by Johns Hopkins University (Farrugia & Lane, 2013; Lane, 2011b). Before that time, the first semblance of an international branch campus existed in the form of educational programs provided outside the borders of the U.S. to American military and civilian personnel located in the U.S.-owned Canal Zone (Lane, 2011a). Until this point in the history of higher education worldwide, developing nations would be sent abroad, and in most cases would be supported by the developing country, to study at an institution in a developed country (Lane, 2011). It was not until the consistent creation of international branch campuses

27

that the flow of students reversed, and developed countries started sending resources

abroad in the form of educational opportunities which allowed students to pursue a

degree from a foreign provider without leaving their home country (Lane, 2011b).

In the 1980s that the first concentrated buildup of branch campuses occurred in

Japan, as Japanese leaders aimed to strengthen their relationship with the United States

and sought out partnerships with a variety of American institutions of higher education

(Lane, 2011a). The creation of international branch campuses was sporadic and

exclusively by U.S.-based institutions until the 1990s, when institutions outside of the

U.S. began setting up foreign campuses (Farrugia & Lane, 2013). International branch

campuses started populating the landscape of higher education worldwide in the early

1990s, and the number of branch campuses have steadily increased since that time, with a

particularly rapid rise in the Middle-East and Asia (Byun & Kim, 2010; Lane, 2011a;

Lemke-Westcott & Johnson, 2013). By the end of the 1990s, approximately 50

international branch campuses had been established; by 2011, the number grew to 183

(Lane, 2011a). Also notable in the historical timeline of international branch campuses is

that in the early 2000s governments in Dubai, Qatar, and Malaysia developed policies to

systematically import and support international branch campuses (Farrugia & Lane,

2013). Today, there are over 311 international branch campuses worldwide (Cross-

Border Education Research Team, 2017).

Education hubs. The most recent development of international branch campuses

is the establishment of education hubs. Knight (2011) suggests that education hubs

represent the third generation of cross-border activities emerging in the world of

internationalization and higher education. First generation cross-border activities include the movement of students and scholars around the world, while second generation cross-border activities encompass the movement of programs and providers across borders (Knight, 2011). Lane and Kinser (2011b) suggest that a stated goal of many host countries where international branch campuses are located is the desire to become an educational hub, or a designated region intended to provide access to high-quality education and training for domestic and foreign students. Knight (2011) defines education hubs as "a planned effort to build a critical mass of local and international actors strategically engaged in education, training, knowledge production, and innovation initiatives" (p. 233). What makes an education hub different from that of a single international branch campus is the importance of a critical mass, or a key combination of institutions to ensure the hub is greater than the sum of its parts (Knight, 2011). Education hubs are deliberately planned and are more than just a coincidental interaction or colocation of institutions (Knight, 2011). By Knight's (2016) definition, there are currently six education hubs in the world: Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, and Bahrain. Knight's (2011) analysis of education hubs does not address city-level hubs, therefore areas such as the Incheon Economic Free Zone in South Korea are not included in her study.

Both Knight (2011) and Lane & Kinser (2011b) offer two sets of typologies or classifications that can serve as a framework to better understand education hubs their structures. Lane and Kinser (2011b) identify two classifications: the archipelago hub and acropolis hub. An archipelago hub focuses on developing a nation as an educational hub,

therefore international branch campuses can be spread throughout the country itself and are not concentrated in one area (Lane & Kinser, 2011b). An acropolis hub focuses all international branch campuses in one location in close proximity to one another (Lane & Kinser, 2011b). Countries can implement both classifications, however, the current environment suggests a growing influence of acropolis hubs globally (Lane & Kinser, 2011b). Two examples of acropolis hubs are Education City in Qatar and the Incheon Global Campus in South Korea (Schiller & Park, 2014). In both hubs, a number of institutions are located in close proximity, and although degrees are offered independent of one another, campus facilities such as libraries, residence halls, and classrooms are shared (Schiller & Park, 2014). Additionally, it is common within an acropolis hub that some aspects of administrative and student services are shared (Schiller & Park, 2014).

Knight (2011) offers three classifications that provide more insight into the motivations and missions of international branch campuses: the student hub, skilled workforce hub, and the knowledge/innovation hub. The primary goal of a student hub is to increase access to higher education for local students and to attract foreign students for revenue-generating purposes, with the end goal of foreign students returning to their home country upon degree completion (Knight, 2011). Student hubs also aim to increase competitiveness with the regional higher education sector. A skilled workforce hub differs from a student hub because it's goal is to develop a skilled workforce, meaning foreign students are recruited in hopes they remain in the host country for employment purposes (Knight, 2011). In these hubs, institutions are often collocated in one area or zone to share facilities and promote collaboration within certain industries (Knight,

2011). The knowledge/innovation hub differs from the previous two classifications in that it focuses on attracting foreign institutions by providing business incentives to establish a base in the home country and collaborate with local partners to develop research, knowledge, and innovation (Knight, 2011). A primary objective of this type of hub is to increase regional economic competitiveness and power.

Rationale for establishing international branch campuses. The classifications created by Lane and Kinser (2011b) and Knight (2011) provide insight into the varying reasons behind why countries and institutions establish branch campuses. Establishing international branch campuses is one the of riskiest ventures an institution can embark on today, however, a growing number of institutions choose to invest in this form of transnational higher education (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). It is important to understand why institutions are increasingly interested in establishing international branch campuses and what they hope to achieve in having a presence abroad. Wilkins and Huisman (2012) argue that there is a lack of scholarly literature on this topic which has caused a limited understanding of the motivations for setting up branch campuses, and that most people attribute international branch campuses as nothing more than a revenue-generating activity of entrepreneurial institutions. Despite the lack of a vast amount of scholarly work on the rationale for the establishment of international branch campuses, a small body of literature does exist that explores motivations from an institutional and national perspective.

National motivations. The amount of support, guidance, and involvement of national governments in institutional plans to internationalize varies by country (Oyler,

2009). In countries such as South Korea, Malaysia, and the United Arab Emirates, higher

education institutions are considerably influenced and protected by the government, and

oftentimes the establishment of an international branch campus requires special approval

from both the local and national government (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014;

Lane, 2011a). It is not uncommon for countries that have higher levels of oversight and

management of the higher education sector to have strategies and specific goals around

the establishment of international branch campuses (Lane, 2011a; Shams & Huisman,

2012). Lane (2011b) found that international branch campuses in Dubai and Malaysia

are used to fulfill public policy goals related to economic development and capacity

building of postsecondary education. As an expansion of the private higher education

sector, Dubai and Malaysia also use international branch campuses as part of a supply-

side government strategy, where the branches create a new demand in the local higher

education sector which keeps local students from studying abroad and attracts foreign

students to come study in the host country (Lane, 2011b). Similarly, Lane and Kinser

(2011a) found that in nations where international branch campuses receive a lot of

financial support from the local government, the intended purpose of branch campuses is

to fulfill public goals of providing access to local students and engaging in service to the

local community.

Shams and Huisman (2012) agree that a major benefit host countries receive from

international branch campuses is the reduction of brain drain as students interested in

international degrees stay in their home country, which also supports income generation

and an increase in technology transfer. Host countries also benefit from an enhancement

of the level of national education when a new brand, or a new foreign institution, enters the host country's market and raises local competition which boosts the quality of both education and research in the country itself (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Lane, 2011a). Home countries, or exporters of international branch campuses, experience similar benefits to those of the host countries. Shams and Huisman (2012) cite an increase in international reputation, an extra source of income, the opportunity to exploit foreign markets, and an expansion of research activities as additional benefits for home countries. Wilkins and Huisman (2012) also add that while western countries may have different reasons for establishing international branch campuses abroad, the three most common motives from countries around the world are money, influence, and status.

Institutional motivations. Aside from possible government incentives, institutions have varying motivations for establishing international branch campuses, with Girdzijauskaite and Radzeviciene (2014) and McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) citing three reasons that closely align with national benefits previously discussed: academic, financial, and reputational. Academic rationales in establishing international branch campuses is one of the reasons most frequently cited in the literature (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Lane, 2011a; Shams & Huisman, 2012). Stearns (2009) comments on a common motivation of institutions, which is the hope that international branch campuses will expose students to an internationalized educational experience that helps build a global perspective and ultimately creates globalized citizens to compete in today's increasingly globalized society. Girdzijauskaite and Radzeviciene (2014) agree that internationalizing the overall student body is an important motive for the establishment of

international branch campuses, and adds that attracting possible international students and staff is an important motive as well. Although academic rationales are frequently cited in the literature, it is often financial motivations that are most frequently attributed to the establishment of international branch campuses.

McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) note that economic calculations may make it compelling for institutions to establish overseas operations, however, they also suggest that seriously weighing the risks against the likely financial benefits will unlikely produce a compelling argument in favor of establishing an international branch campus. Stearns (2009) adds that institutions, and particularly those located in the United States, look to foreign operations as a new source of domestic funding, but of the many institutions that have tried establishing international branch campuses and failed. Financial hardship is frequently cited as a primary cause of doors closing (Stearns, 2009). In addition to finances, another common motivation for institutions to establish branch campuses is to enhance institutional image, prestige, and reputation (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014.; Lane, 2011a; Shams & Huisman, 2012; Stearns, 2009). International branch campuses are believed to have a significance positive effect on institutional image, with an added benefit of building capacity worldwide to help strengthen institutional brand (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene3, 2014; Lane, 2011a; Shams & Huisman, 2012). Dunning and Lundan's (2008) eclectic paradigm helps synthesize this rationale, by demonstrating that institutions seek so exploit their ownership advantages, such as reputation and brand name, to better exploit location advantages which are key to the success of a branch campus abroad. Wilkins and Huisman (2012) argue that institutions

should avoid making decisions that are largely based on a single dimension such as reputation or legitimacy, and ensure that a variety of motivations and considerations are explored. Stearns (2009) supports the call for institutions to avoid self-serving motives, which he feels has caused an increase in branding institutional outreach efforts as neo-colonial, or "an attempt to milk foreign enthusiasm for narrow institutional gain" (p. 130).

Challenges in operating IBCs. While branch campuses play a new yet increasingly integral part in an institution's plan to internationalize and achieve global prominence, the complexity of establishing and maintaining an international branch campus uncovers a host of challenges that places barriers to the ultimate success of a branch abroad (Stearns, 2009). International education scholars and researchers cite international branch campuses as one of the riskiest and most controversial internationalization strategies utilized by higher education institutions today (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Levatino, 2016; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). Scholars also argue that campus administrators and leaders often underestimate the risks of international branch campuses (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012), which explains why over forty campuses have closed since the 1980s when international branch campuses emerged in the higher education landscape (Stearns, 2009; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). The two most frequently cited challenges in the literature are adapting to the local environment and balancing institutional standards of quality with local expectations (Lane, 2011a; Stearns, 2009; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011).

Local environment. A study by Franklin and Alzouebi (2014) explores the sustainability of international branch campuses in the United Arab Emirates, and findings suggest that institutions cannot successfully import their campus into a country without adapting to the social, cultural, and educational terrain, yet institutions often do not strategically prioritize these elements when establishing a branch campus. Lane (2011a) also argues that international branch campuses are located in environments that are extremely different than that of the home campus, which means successful practices for the home campus are not necessarily successful for the international branch campus and its local environment. Wang (2008) found that many Western higher education providers have been accused of not respecting local values by trying to impose their cultural values and belief through the establishment of international branch campuses in non-Western countries. Shams and Huisman (2012) refer to this imposition as cultural imperialism, or a way to colonize or exploit a developing country, and also note that a variety of cultural differences among host and home countries makes knowledge transfer across borders a challenge.

Shams and Huisman (2012) also note that the flow of knowledge between the home and host countries is typically unidirectional, or flows from the home campus to the branch campus, causing possible hierarchical conflicts. Gopal (2011) supports the idea that branch campuses are often formed in a hierarchical fashion that favors the power and influence of the government, university, and governing board of the home campus, and believes the reason branch campuses fail is due to their poor policy structures. In an effort to build more sustainable, joint efforts among all stakeholders, Gopal (2011)

suggests that universities need to create culturally sensitive policies that transfer the strength of their programs without also transferring their values and procedures. Shams and Huisman (2012) agree that international branch campuses face the dilemma of standardization versus local adaptation and argue that the choice should not be between the strategic directions, but should be a balance between the two. Lane (2011a) also acknowledges that adapting institutional policies to allow for local conditions is key in establishing international branch campuses, but also cautions that quality standards of the home campus cannot be comprised in the process. The balance between local expectations and quality is the biggest challenge institutions face when establishing international branch campuses (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Stearns, 2009).

Quality. Quality is a challenging issues that all international branch campuses face (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Stearns, 2009). Pressure for institutions to continuously increase student enrollments and hope from stakeholders for a quick return on investment often causes institutions to not focus on important items such as the quality of academics, instructors, and the student experience (Stearns, 2009). Chapman and Pyvis (2013) and McBurnie (2008) also note that efforts in quality assurance of transnational higher education, including the establishment of international branch campuses, does not have a focus on academic quality issues, but instead focuses on consumer protection and ensuring that students are not "defrauded" with substandard educational programs. Some countries issue quality standards or guidelines via the government for institutions to follow when establishing international branch campuses, while some countries rely on institutions to provide a framework (Chapman & Pyvis, 2013; Shams & Huisman, 2012).

Regardless of the quality assurance framework available, international branch campuses are subject to quality-assurance audits from agencies located in both countries where they operate (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2012). To date, accreditation bodies have closed international branch campuses due to a lack of quality education (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2012).

Girdzijauskaite and Radzeviciene (2014) and Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2012) suggest that local students are often attracted to attend an international branch campus because they expect the same quality of academic programs as well as the same standards, and procedures that students receive at the home campus. However, scholars argue that it is a huge challenge for an institution to adapt its curriculum to local norms while still maintaining identical content and quality for students at the home institution and the branch campus (Altbach, 2002; Prowse & Goddard, 2010; Shams & Huisman, 2012). In a study on the implications of organizational structure on academic freedom in teaching, Edwards, Crosling, and Lim (2014) found that the pressure for integration of localized curriculum and local responsiveness are weak, and that knowledge is typically developed at the home campus and transferred overseas to be implemented at the branch campus. Biggs (2003) also supports standardizing curriculum and assessment across borders. Shams and Huisman (2012) found that this structure of imposing a pre-designed curriculum can result in a mismatch between content and the social norms of the host country, as some subject material may clash with the host country's cultural or religious values. Schapper and Mayson (2004) also argue that standardization of curriculum undermines academic values such as intellectual freedom, which in turn significantly

affects quality. Findings from Edwards et al. (2014) suggest that over time, as an international branch campus establishes itself locally, there is pressure for an increase in the academic freedom of faculty, and concludes that good teaching practice on an international branch campus requires contextualized curriculum that is relevant and localized to the local students' setting.

International branch campuses must make strategic decisions regarding the balance between employing faculty and staff from the home institution versus recruiting local faculty and staff, as the experiences and backgrounds of faculty can significantly impact the quality of education (Ziguras, 2008). Shams and Huisman (2014) also argue that the quality of service provided by an institution is highly dependent on the quality of its academic staff, yet staff recruitment is one of biggest challenges faced by international branch campuses. In some cases, international branch campuses are under legal, contractual obligation to recruit a certain percentage of local faculty and staff (Shams & Huisman, 2012). Ziguras (2008) found that securing experienced and qualified local lecturers can be extremely difficult, especially in developing countries. Relying on local faculty also causes tension around academic freedom, as oftentimes faculty are handed an inflexible curriculum, are not consulted in its design, and are expected to teach the material as delivered by the home campus (Edwards et al., 2014; Ennew & Yang, 2009). For international branch campuses that employ faculty from the home campus to teach abroad, the level of experiences, background, and quality of teaching may meet the needs of the branch campus, but challenges exist due to high travel expenses, high wages, and

high turnover as most faculty only want to commit a semester a year to teaching at the branch campus (Ennew & Yang, 2009).

Students in Transition to International Branch Campuses

The rise of transnational higher education has caused a rise in global student mobility, or the migration of students across borders (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011). It is estimated that by 2024 there will be over 3.85 million international higher education students globally (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). While the desire for students to obtain a higher education degree from a foreign institution is not new, what has changed are the drivers of student mobility and the new modes through which student migration occurs (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011). MacReady and Tucker (2011) argue that students are increasingly able to find attractive alternatives to mobility in their home country by attending institutions such as international branch campuses. Jindal-Snape and Rienties (2016) note that several categories of international students exist, and in classifying undergraduate international students, subcategories can include short-term mobility or study abroad students, students coming as a cohort from one institution to another via an institutional agreement, distance-education students, or exchange students. The rise of international branch campuses has caused an additional classification, where students are studying at offshore campuses but in reality may never even visit the home country.

Jindal-Snape and Rienties (2016) note that literature on the internationalization of higher education that discusses international student mobility often lumps all international students together, regardless of their context, and does not account for how the transition experiences of international students can vary greatly. A study by Rientes,

Beausaert, Grohnert, Niemantsverdriet, and Kommers (2012) found substantial differences in academic and social adjustments between varying categories of international students. A follow-up study by Rientes and Tempelaar (2013) indicates how cultural distance can significantly influence transitions, and found that students experiencing low cultural distance had lower transitional problems than students with large cultural distances. Findings from these studies illustrate that one size does not fit all when assessing the international student transition experience. While a vast amount of literature exists on the transition experiences of study abroad and international students, the literature focusing on the transition experience of students to international branch campuses is scarce. However, given the focus of this study and a desire to acknowledge context of this unique group of students, only literature which explores the transition experience of students to international branch campuses will be presented in this section. The literature will be discussed in two sub-sections which include: student motivations to attend international branch campuses and challenges experienced in transition to international branch campuses.

Student motivations. Understanding why students chose to study at an international branch campus is foundational to understanding the student transition experience. It is important to note that literature does not currently exist that assesses motivation of a student from the home institution to study at the affiliated international branch campus. The literature that will be presented in this section focuses mainly on motivations of students from host countries where international branch campuses are present. Wilkins and Huisman (2011, 2015) found in two separate studies that students

are greatly influenced to attend an international branch campus by recommendations and feedback they receive from others. In an exploratory study investigating student attitudes towards international branch campuses, Wilkins and Huisman (2011) found that branch campuses pose a serious threat to home campuses in the competition for recruiting students in the future. In their 2015 study, Wilkins and Huisman explored factors affecting image formation of international branch campuses among prospective students in order to better understand why students enroll in these unique learning environments.

Results showed that greatest influence on image formation was reliance on interpersonal sources, and that prospective students rely heavily on information shared by parents, teachers, and current and past friends (Wilkins & Huisman, 2015). The authors encourage institutions to carefully manage their reputation and communication with all stakeholders, particularly parents and teachers, who have strong influence over how students view their campuses (Wilkins & Huisman, 2015). The influence of interpersonal sources in the selection process of students was reinforced by a study a study by Lee (2013) on motivations and meaning of Chinese students to study in Korea, including at institutions like international branch campuses. Results show that parents and family members heavily influence student decisions, and although the role of parents in the decision-making process may differ from culture to culture, students are often not alone in the decision-making process to attend an international branch campus (Lee, 2013). Other motivating factors from the study include the aspiration of obtaining a foreign degree, the desire to experience Korean culture, and pragmatic factors such as cost.

Wilkins and Huisman (2015) also recommend institutions to focus on maintaining a high level of satisfaction with enrolled students, as dissatisfied students will likely engage in negative word of mouth practices that can damage an institution's reputation. A study by Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2013) hoped to explore determinants of student satisfaction at an international branch campus in the United Arab Emirates and found that the factors most influential in determining satisfaction were quality of lectures, quality and availability of resources, and effective use of technology. Findings also suggest that student satisfaction can be affected by individual personality differences such as locus of control, or how individuals perceive control over future events and environmental influences (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). The study also notes research by Garger, Thomas, and Jacques (2010) as well as Vroom (1964) where the relationship of perspective through expectancy theory was utilized, and suggests that when students perceive they are able to do well they are more likely to put in greater effort, and possibly increase both achievement and satisfaction. In contrast, the study found that a student who perceives a considerable amount of obstacles may be more likely to give up or not persist which contributes to lower achievement, less satisfaction and possibly that the student is not retained from the first year to the second year (Wilkins and Balakrishnan, 2013). Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2013) suggest that the more positive students feel about their choice to attend an international branch campus the more likely they will be receptive to navigating challenges and obstacles that may appear in their transition.

The majority of the literature on international student destination choice is based on the *push-pull model* of student mobility (Bodycott, 2009; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002;

McMahon, 1992; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). McMahon (1992) first studied factors that influence international student decision making and framed the factors into one of two models, push or pull factors. One of the most frequently cited studies in the literature that utilizes the push-pull framework is Mazzarol and Soutar's (2002) study of the motivations of 2,485 international students. Results found that push factors initiate a student's decision to study overseas, while pull factors attract students to a particular country (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Common push factors cited in the literature are: unavailability of certain subjects, courses or majors; insufficient quality of education in the home country; competitive or lower tuition fees; cost of living; lack of post-study employment opportunities in the home country; ease of ability to gain access to institutions; and a desire to gain a better understanding of Western higher education (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Bodycott, 2009; Lee, 2013; Levatino, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; McMahon, 1992; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). Common pull factors cited in the literature include: gaining a degree that is more highly regarded by employers; experience of living in a different country; opportunity to gain English language skills; increased immigration prospects after graduation; scholarship availability; high rankings; recommendations of family or friends; and institutional reputation (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Bodycott, 2009; Levatino, 2016; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; McMahon, 1992; Wilkins et al., 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011).

The push-pull model is most frequently used to understand the decision or motivation of students to study abroad and international student choice of country and institution (Wilkins et al., 2012). Although it is the most frequently cited model of

international student mobility, Li and Bray (2007) note that a significant limitation of the model is that it only accounts for push and pull factors that are external forces that impact student choice, and that it does not account for personal characteristics of preferences of students. Wilkins et al. (2011) support this claim that individual students may react to push and pull factors in very different ways, and also add that a clear limitation of this model is that it does not account for student mobility to international branch campuses. In an effort to provide more empirical research on student motivation to study at an international branch campus, Wilkins et al. (2012) surveyed 320 undergraduate and graduate students studying at branch campuses in the United Arab Emirates. Results show that the main motivations of students studying at a branch campus are different than the theoretical model based on push-pull factors predicts (Wilkins et al., 2012). Wilkins et al. (2012) propose a revised model of international student destination choice, called the $push^2$-$pull^2$ model that incorporates two sets of push and pull factors. While there is overlap in factors, unique factors include a push factor of ineligibility to enter state or public higher education and pull factors like country-specific advantages, convenience, and better reputation of branch campuses (Wilkins et al., 2012).

Challenges of the transition. Challenges both international students and study abroad students face in the transition and adjustment to foreign universities are well-documented in the literature (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011; Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016; Lee, 2009; Mamiseishvili, 2011; Pyvis & Chapman, 2005). Challenges include academic pressures, learning a new language, making new friends, and navigating new environments (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). The two most frequently cited challenges

for international students and study abroad students that have been thoroughly studied in the literature are culture shock and difficulty forming relationships with domestic students (Bethel, Szabo, & Ward, 2016; Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016; Lee, 2009; Pyvis & Chapman, 2005). In a literature review on the subject of culture shock, Pyvis and Chapman (2005) found that most studies focus on a student who has left their country to study at a foreign institution, and that studies frame culture shock as a disorientation for a student who is exposed to a foreign learning environment that encompasses or expresses foreign cultural values. In an attempt to better understand how the phenomenon of culture shock extends to offshore students studying at a foreign institution in their home country, Pyvis and Champan (2005) found that culture shock can be experienced by students studying within their home country. There is currently no study that specifically assesses the role of culture shock and students attending an international branch campus affiliated with their home institution.

The second most frequently cited challenge international and study abroad students face in transition is difficulty with socialization, particularly with domestic students. Many students choose to study at an international branch campus because of the opportunity to make cultural contacts: however, the socialization process can be difficult for students in the first few weeks (Lee, 2013). Bethel, Szabo, and Ward (2016) recently reviewed literature to describe and interpret the acculturative experiences of international students and their findings suggest that typically international students and domestic students lead parallel lives. Research shows trends that international students regularly report not having many, if any, domestic friends, and that international students

46

do not perceive domestic students as support systems (Gareis, 2012; Jindal-Snape &

Rienties, 2016). A study by Summers and Volet (2008) supports the idea that the level of

contact and interaction between international and domestic students is low, but argues

that international students expect and desire contact with domestic students.

While literature does not exist that explores the relationship between students

studying at an international branch campus from the home campus and students from the

host country, a study by Lee (2009) explores challenges of students studying at an

international branch campus in Malaysia. Findings demonstrate that international

students report higher levels of difficulty socializing as compared to the domestic

students attending the branch campus. Findings also suggest that males have more

difficulty making friends than their female counterparts, and encourages branch

campuses to consider increasing staffing to ensure students' concerns with socialization

are adequately addressed (Lee, 2009). Lee (2013) reinforces the idea that socialization is

key for students, particularly first-year students, and often requires the international

branch campus to facilitate opportunities within the first few weeks of the semester for

students to make connections with one another.

Additionally, although academics do not top the list of most frequently cited

challenges students face in transition to international branch campuses, research shows

that students do struggle navigating the academic transition as well (Healey, 2015;

Hussin, 2007). Hussin (2007) conducted a study that reviewed initiatives to support

learning of transnational students in Asia studying offshore at an Australian university.

While the study looked at a specific group of students in one cultural context, findings

show that person-to-person contact in the form of programs and email consultations rated as the most effective type of academic support strategy an international branch campus can offer (Hussin, 2007). Another essential strategy is integrating learning resources into course delivery; however, it is important to note that an integrated approach does require institutions to work closely with faculty and staff to ensure a seamless academic support experience across campus (Hussin, 2007). A study by Lemke-Westcott and Johnson (2013) showed a gap between faculty and students which impacted students' learning and teachers' effectiveness. Findings show that learning styles of students studying at the branch campus were very different from the faculty teaching the courses (Lemke-Westcott & Johnson, 2013). Furthermore, the study found that the learning styles profiles of faculty were exact opposites of the first-year students they were teaching. The study recommends that faculty need to be flexible, recognize the unique context in which they are teaching, and adapt to their environment when working with students, especially first-year students, at an international branch campus (Lemke-Westcott & Johnson, 2013).

Development of Student Affairs in Higher Education

The role of student affairs in higher education has undergone extensive change and transformation over time, and continues to evolve and expand to support the growing needs associated with today's college students (Cabellon & Junco, 2015; Cook, 2009). The evolution of the role of student affairs is largely due to the constantly changing landscape of higher education, which is heavily influenced by religious, political, social, economic, and global forces (ACPA & NASPA, 2010; Cook, 2009; Nuss, 2003; Thelin, 2004). Today, the growth and specialization of student affairs is heavily influenced by

digital and social technology in students' lives (Cabellon & Junco, 2015). In studying the

student transition experience to an international branch campus it is important to

understand the development of student affairs as a functional area of higher education

institutions. Supporting students in transition to the college environment is traditionally a

function of student affairs educators in Western higher education, and reviewing the

literature on the development of student affairs in both the United States and South Korea

will illustrate the context in which students are supported in transition to an international

branch campus in a non-Western location.

Student affairs in the United States. Three guiding philosophies of student

affairs have developed over approximately the last 75 years (Doyle, 2004). Over time,

the field transitioned from a student service approach, to a student development focus,

and finally to an emphasis on student learning or engagement (Nuss, 2003; Roberts,

2012). However, amongst the continual changes in the purpose and function of student

affairs, two concepts remained constant throughout: the commitment of student affairs to

the development of the whole person, as well as the commitment of student affairs to

supporting the diversity of institutional and academic missions over time (Nuss, 2003).

The establishment of what is now known as the field of student affairs in the United

States began in the 1600s with the founding of the colonial colleges (Leonard, 1956;

Nuss, 2003). Dormitories and dining halls were introduced in higher education during

that time, which made it necessary for faculty to exercise supervision and parental

concern over the students (Nuss, 2003; Thelin, 2004). An increased emphasis on

discipline and moral development occurred for decades as the doctrine of in loco parentis

emerged and faculty were free to enforce rules and regulations as if they were parents of students (Doyle, 2004; Dungy & Gordon, 2011; Leonard, 1956; Nuss, 2003; Thelin, 2004). In loco parentis persisted in some form until the 1960s, when the concept of the extracurricular emerged as a response to the desire to develop the whole students, including mind, body, and personality (Dungy & Gordon, 2011; Nuss, 2003).

By the turn of the century, the guiding philosophy of student affairs shifted away from discipline as greater recognition of student responsibility emerged and student governments and honor systems were established (Nuss, 2003). By 1925, distinct student personnel functions such as student health and psychological services had developed and, professional associations such as the American Association of University Women and the National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men were formed which allowed for an articulation of the shared concerns and practices of student affairs professionals (Nuss, 2003). The organization of professionals and the gradual shift to more of a student services approach resulted in student affairs professionals spending significant amounts of time guiding or counseling students with regards to academic and social needs, which caused a realization that student personnel staff had was much more to offer to the profession than that of a service entity (Doyle, 2004). Aiding in the philosophical shift was the emergence of the *Student Personnel Point of View*, which was a landmark report first published in 1937, and revised 1949, that emphasized the importance of offering student services that support students as individuals, as well as that support the unique mission of each college (American Council on Education, 1949/1994; Roberts, 2012). The report also outlined conditions and goals for student growth, fundamental elements

of the student personnel program, and persists today as a guiding assumptions for the profession (Roberts, 2012).

Federal support and involvement in higher education shaped the development of the student affairs profession from 1945–1985 (Nuss, 2003). Increased federal involvement in the form of legislation caused significant shifts in student demographics as a growing number of underrepresented groups gained access to higher education (Nuss, 2003). The passing of Title IV of the 1950 Housing Act also resulted in construction of high-rise residence halls and a recognition that a student's surroundings, particularly housing, greatly impacted academic performance (Nuss, 2003). As the gap between academic and student surroundings started to close, the student affairs profession sought to establish a theoretical base for their work, and an increase in research was conducted that produced theories still foundational to the work of student affairs professionals today (Nuss, 2003). The guiding philosophy of student affairs at that time shifted again, this time towards student development, and in an effort to bridge the divide between academic and student affairs, also incorporates student learning and engagement as hallmarks of the profession today (Doyle, 2004; Nuss, 2003). Student learning allows for authentic performances, in which students actively apply their learning in real situations, while student engagement involves creating connections between students and the campus community to create a more effective learning environment to encourage student success both inside and outside of the classroom (Pomerantz, 2006). As higher education continues to evolve in the 21st century, Kuk (2012) argues that student affairs must continue to evolve as well. As the rise of the digital and social technology continue

to reimagine the student experience, Cabellon and Junco (2015) encourage student affairs professionals to consider how the function of student affairs will shift yet again.

      Student affairs in South Korea. North America is cited as the birthplace of student personnel work, which is a hallmark of North American higher education (Roberts, 2012). An interest exists within the higher education and international education community to understand the history, function, and practice of student affairs and student services in various international jurisdictions (Osfield, 2008; Seifert et al., 2014), however literature is limited and is not inclusive of all countries with prominent systems of higher education. Currently little is known about the history or current practices of student affairs in South Korea as currently no literature exists on this topic. Ludeman et al. (2009) compiled reports from 50 countries to offer an in-depth analysis of how student affairs is practiced around the world and South Korea was not represented furthering illustrating that little is known about student affairs in the Korean context. Within Asian countries such as mainland China, Malaysia, the Philippines, Hong Kong, and Singapore, there is research that acknowledges the development of the student affairs section of higher education (Ludeman et al., 2009; Osfield, 2008). A theme across that literature is there is a lack of understanding of the function and purpose of student affairs in higher education worldwide (Ludeman et al., 2009). The trend among higher education institutions in these select Asian countries has been preferential priority for academic work versus non-academic work, and a lack of understanding of the importance or relevance of outside the classroom skills or experiences (Ludeman et al., 2009).

In countries like China, Hong Kong, and Malaysia where the government is heavily involved in higher education, a lack of government and/or institutional funding for student affairs divisions also poses challenges in the development and advancement of the field, as limited resources means staffing and services available. All of these challenges combined result in an overarching lack of respect from faculty as well as lack of collaboration between academic and student affairs divisions (Ludeman et al., 2009). These barriers significantly impact the ability of student affairs professionals to provide a holistic educational experience for students (Ludeman et al., 2009). While student affairs is practiced differently in each of the aforementioned Asian countries, an important similarity to note is there is a movement from student services and student management towards student development (Ludeman et al., 2009). Depending on socio-political context, as well as economic and other needs of the country, student development is defined differently across countries and contexts. While little is known about the function or role of student affairs in South Korea, literature on the history of higher education in the country can provide insight into the context for which a student affairs field may exist.

History of higher education in South Korea. Education in South Korea is rooted in a centuries-old tradition, where society was centered around formal learning and scholarship, and education was valued as a way of achieving status and power (Seth, 2005). For centuries, only elite families benefitted from the South Korean educational system. Under Japanese colonial rule between 1910 and 1945, the majority of South Koreans were frustrated with the lack of access to higher education (Seth, 2005; "The

other arms race", 2013). After liberation from Japan in 1945, the social demand for higher education in South Korea was the leading contributor to a rapid expansion of higher education (Seth, 2005; Shin, 2012; "The other arms race", 2013). In 1946, South Korea's first comprehensive, modern university was established, and by 1950 the number of institutions grew to 55 (Kim & Lee, 2006). Student enrollment in higher education boomed rapidly as well. The estimated student enrollment in 1945 was 7,819 and by the turn of the century that number skyrocketed to over 3.5 million students (Kim & Lee, 2006; Shin, 2012). Comprehensive education reform policy also contributed to the transformation of Korean higher education, with over fourteen policy reform agendas spanning three presidential administrations (Shin, 2012). Policy reform facilitated a growth in both the quantity and quality of higher education, and was mutually reinforced with a simultaneous growth in the Korean economy as well (Shin, 2012).

Seth (2005) and Sorenson (1994) note that the rapid expansion of higher education, as well as a national obsession for education, is often referred to as *education fever* in South Korea. The country's zest for higher education is recognized as an asset in the development of South Korea into a modern, highly literate society (Kim & Lee, 2006; Seth, 2005). The social demand for education enabled South Korea to transfer the financial burden to students and families, and an aggressive use of the private sector also helped bolster funding at a time when resources were extremely limited (Kim & Lee, 2006; Seth, 2005; Shin, 2012). Shin (2012) attributes the Confucian tradition as a heavy influence on the country's obsession with higher education, while Seth (2005) argues the origins of education fever are much more complex than the nation's Confucian cultural

heritage. Marginson (2011) notes there are four features of Confucianism that contribute to higher education development in East Asia: strong government initiatives, private investment, one change college entrance examinations, and investments in world-class research universities. Shin (2012) agrees that under Confucianism education was seen as an end to itself with the written word viewed as highly esteemed, however, also suggests that the demand for education in South Korea was also influenced by forty years of Japanese rule which limited access to higher education; leaving South Koreans with a strong desire to regain rank and status via educational enrollments. Sorenson (1994) adds that the present-day zeal for education in South Korea can also be attributed to a desire for upward mobility in today's fast-paced society.

With education fever causing South Koreans to view higher education in terms of prestige and power, many families chose to send their students to college so they were eligible for high-status jobs (Sorenson, 1994; "The other arms race", 2013). The desire for prestige and power is also explained by a growing desire for Koreans to obtain a foreign degree, whether from studying abroad or enrolling at an international branch campus in Korea (Kim, 2011). The number of students studying abroad in Korea rose from 45,695 in 2000 to 75,321 in 2010 (Kim, 2011). Many Koreans choose to study at Western universities, particularly those in the United States, for status reasons, and also because of the belief that a United States degree would enhance job opportunities after graduation and guarantee success in Korea (Kim, 2011; Shin, 2012). Seth (2005) notes that the concept of education fever also presents additional challenges for South Korea which include, but are not limited to: an overemphasis on preparation for entrance

examinations, the rising cost of education which is encouraging students to travel overseas to obtain a degree, and a hindrance to reforming the educational system so that it is more flexible with a more creative pedagogy.

Theories of Student Transition

The literature on the internationalization of higher education provided context for the purpose and function of international branch campuses, while the literature on the development of student affairs provided a foundation upon which the concepts of the support students receive in transition will be analyzed. An additional body of literature that is key to this study is theories of students in transition. Gale and Parker (2014) argue that transitions remain a largely under-theorized concept in the higher education literature, due to the fact that contemporary student transition studies are part of a broader research endeavor focused on life transitions. Astin's Input-Environment-Output (1991) model and Scholssberg's Transition Theory (1981) are foundational theories of transition frequently cited in the higher education and student affairs literature. Ward, Bochner, and Furnham's (2001) ABC model of acculturation is a foundational theory in the literature on the transition of international students.

Alexander Astin's Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) (1991) model is widely recognized and a frequently used framework in student affairs for assessing outcomes. Astin's model is a useful tool for "identifying evaluating student experiences outside of the classroom, including students' participation and involvement in student services, programs, or facilities" (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996, p. 219). Nancy Schlossberg's transition theory (1981), a theory heavily used by student affairs professionals, facilitates

a better understanding of adults in transition and the mechanisms needed to cope with the process of living. Ward et al.'s (2001) theory offers a multidimensional understanding of the process involved in the transition of international students, and moves the focus from the heavily studied concept of culture shock to cultural adaptation. Transition is a key factor in an individual's development, especially for college-aged students; Astin, Schlossberg, and Ward et al.'s theories will provide valuable insight into determining the degree of impact the transition may have for students, as well as estimating effects of the support students receive after they transition to an international branch campus.

       Astin's I-E-O model. Astin's (1991) model theorizes that it is impossible to assess any educational project without considering student inputs, student outputs, and the educational environment. In order for institutions to move beyond identifying influences which shape student learning and change, they must also identify influences over which they have programmatic control that can be shaped to maximize educational advantages (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996). If an international branch campus wants to understand how to better support students in transition, knowing how much students learn and change will not be sufficient as there will be no information on why change may have occurred (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996). Astin encourages institutions to answer the *why* question, which is essential to creating programmatic and policy changes that ultimately enhance educational effectiveness.
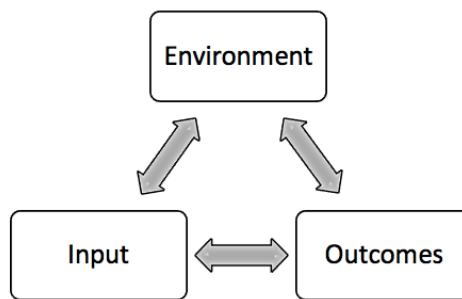
Figure 1. Astin's I-E-O model. This figure provides a visual representation and relationship of the three elements of Astin's model.

Astin (1991) defines inputs as personal qualities students initially bring to the educational program. Students come to college with a variety of personal, background, and educational characteristics, and Astin has identified at least 146 possible input variables ranging from degree aspirations and parental education, to age, gender, and ethnicity. Each of these inputs can influence educational outcomes. The environment in the I-E-O model refers to a student's actual experience in the educational program, which Astin argues can influence what and how much students learn or change. Astin (1991) identified seven classifications of environment variables which amount to 192 different environmental measures. Measures include institutional characteristics such as type and size, as well as faculty characteristics such as teaching, morale, and values. Environmental information is key in this model as it includes aspects that an institution can directly control itself (Astin & Antonio, 2012). Astin (1991) encourages institutions to learn as much as possible about how to structure the educational environment to maximize student outcomes.

The third component of the I-E-O model is outcomes. Outcomes assess the

results, talents, or what is trying to be developed in an educational program (Astin &

Antonio, 2012). The most frequently measured outcomes in higher education are grades

and retention, however, more difficult outcomes such as cognitive skills, intellectual

growth, and attitudes can also be measured as well (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996). Astin

identified seven classifications of outcomes with 82 individual variables that include

items such as satisfaction with collegiate environment, career development, and patterns

of behavior (Astin, 1991). In order to fully understand the impact of outcomes,

information must be collected on both inputs and environments. There are variations of

Astin's I-E-O model that are identified as outcomes assessments but only focus on one or

two of the aspects of the model and therefore do not accurately represent change

(Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996). For example, an outcome-only assessment is most

frequently used by institutions as program assessments that attempt to determine if an

outcome is being achieved (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996). When inputs and the

environment are ignored, it is impossible to understand what results mean and how they

were achieved (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996).

Schlossberg's transition theory. Schlossberg defines transitions as an event, or

non-event, that results in changed relationships, routines, assumptions, and roles

(Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995; Schlossberg, 1981). Perspective plays a key role in

transitions as an event or non-event given that a transition only exists if it is defined by

the individual experiencing it. For example, if a change occurs and an individual does

not attach much significance to it, the change would not be considered a transition. The

type, context, and impact of the transition are also important to consider when attempting to understand the meaning a transition has for a particular individual. Three types of transitions explored by Schlossberg are anticipated transitions, unanticipated transitions, and non-events (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The context of a transition refers to one's relationship with the transition and to the setting in which the transition takes place. The impact of a transition is determined by the degree to which a transition alters one's daily life. The most salient aspect of Schlossberg's transition theory in relation to the transition of students to international branch campuses is the *4 S* concept. The 4 S's are major sets of factors that influence a person's ability to cope with a transition (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The four factors are situation, self, support, and strategies. An individual's ability to cope with the transition depends on the resources available in each of the four areas and how an individual chooses to use or not use the resources.
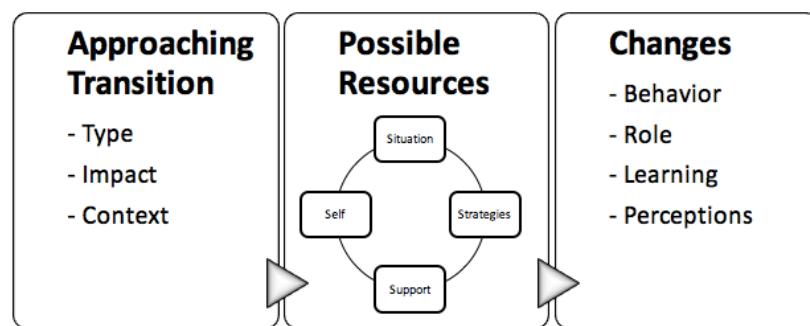
Figure 2. Schlossberg's transition theory. This figure provides a visual representation of the elements of Schlossberg's theory.

In examining an individual's situation surrounding a transition, Schlossberg identifies eight factors to consider. The factors are trigger, timing, control, role change, duration, previous experience with similar transition, concurrent stress, and assessment (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Each factor aims to dig deeper into understanding how an individual perceives a transition. In the context of exploring the student transition to an international branch campus, two of the factors are particularly relevant. The first factor, control, uncovers what aspect of the transition the student perceives as being within his or her control (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The second factor, assessment, looks at who or what is seen as responsible for the transition and how the individual's behavior is affected by the perspective (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Regardless of why a student makes the decision to study at an international branch campus, Schlossberg's theory suggests that the more a student is in control of his or her own decision the more the transition is met with positivity and a willingness to overcome obstacles that may present themselves along the way (Schlossberg, 1981). Students that perceive themselves in control of their transition to an international branch campus may hope to compensate for failure or lack of opportunity in their home country by obtaining a foreign degree from what they consider a prestigious university.

Schlossberg identifies two categories of factors that are important in relation to the self. The categories are personal and demographic characteristics and psychological resources (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Personal and demographic characteristics include age, gender, socioeconomic status, stage of life, state of health, and ethnicity. Psychological resources include ego development, optimism, self-efficacy, and

commitment to values (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). As Schlossberg suggests, personal and demographic characteristics can have a significant impact on how a student perceives a transition, which means that self and situation, factors within the transition theory, are intertwined. Schlossberg referred to the support factor in terms of social support, with types of support being cited as family, friends, and intimate relationships (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Providing social support for students in transition involves everyone on a campus, including faculty, staff, administrators, and peers. It is also important for students to feel they have a strong social support network of their peers, which can help students find coping with a transition more manageable. Student satisfaction affects student perspectives, and as Schlossberg's theory suggests, a student's perspectvie of a transition is key in influencing a student's ability to cope with the transition (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

In discussing the fourth set of factors in the transition theory, Schlossberg divided strategies, also called coping responses, into three categories: those that modify the situation, those that control the meaning of the problem, and those that aid in managing the stress in the aftermath (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). There are also four coping modes that individuals can utilize, which include information seeking, direct action, inhibition of action, and intrapsychic behavior (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Schlossberg also noted that individuals with effective coping skills demonstrate flexibility and use multiple methods (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). When considering a student's transition to an international branch campus, it is important to focus on the efforts a student may take to manage the stress of the aftermath of the

transition. For many students that may mean utilizing the coping mode of information seeking to search for campus resources or support systems to help overcome challenges such as homesickness, culture shock, or academic struggles (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

Ward et al.'s ABC model of acculturation. Ward, Bochner, and Furnham's (2001) affective-behavioral-cognitive (ABC) model is an acculturation theory which expanded on Berry's (1992) stress and coping models of acculturation that populated the literature in the early stages of international student transition theory (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). Research on the transition of international students is rooted in social and psychological problems students experience, and many studies only focused on mental health and the negative aspects of acculturation, or the exposure to a new culture (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016; Zhou, Jindal-Snape, Topping, & Todman, 2008). Ward et al.'s (2001) ABC model of acculturation provides a contemporary perspective on intercultural contact that considers acculturation as an active process that occurs over time. Additionally, the ABC model addresses culture shock in the education and learning field as opposed to the medical/clinical field by focusing on characteristics of the student and the situation and not just characteristics within the student (Zhou et al., 2008). Zhou et al. (2008) argues that the ABC model of acculturation is the most pragmatic, comprehensive, longitudinal, and systematic of both traditional and contemporary models of acculturation.
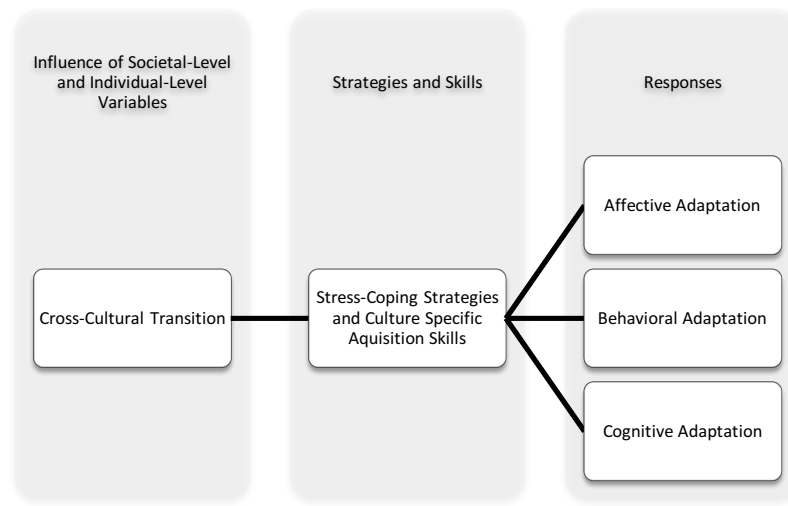
Figure 3. Ward, Bochner, and Furnham's ABC model of acculturation. This figure provides a visual representation of the elements of the ABC model.

The ABC model views a cultural transition as a significant event that involves students adapting to a transition by developing coping strategies and culturally relevant social skills (Ward et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2008). The theory considers different components of responses including affect, behavior, and cognition, when students are exposed to a new culture (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). Also important to this model are the influence of individual level variables, or characteristics of the person and the situation, as well as societal level variables which include social, political, and economic factors (Ward et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2008). Within the ABC model, affect is based upon the notion that life changes are inherently stressful, and students must develop coping strategies to deal with stress (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016; Ward et al., 2001). Adjustment outcomes of affective adaptation are largely defined by situational aspects such as social support, which enhances students psychological well-being and helps

alleviate homesickness (Zhou et al., 2008). Zhou et al. (2008) argues that a limitation of this section of the ABC model is that the relationship between psychological adjustment and academic adaptation is not clear and warrants further research.

The behavioral adaptation component of the ABC model is based in cultural learning theories that suggest social interaction is key in helping students develop culturally relevant skills needed to thrive in a new country (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016; Ward et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2008). Zhou et al. (2008) cite a collection of studies that indicate that overseas students benefit socially, psychologically, and academically when they interact with host nationals who aid in the overall acculturation process to life overseas. However, the literature also indicates that the extent to which overseas students interact with host national students is limited, as overseas students are more likely to report their close friends are from the same culture (Zhou et al, 2008). The cognitive adaptation component of the ABC model also focuses on the relationship between overseas and host-national students and is based on social identification theories that assume cross-cultural transitions involve changes in a student's cultural identity (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016; Ward et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2008). Zhou et al. (2008) found studies that illustrate increased contact between groups can result in both positive and negative intergroup perspectives, which proves that contact theory, or the notion that increased contact between groups improves inter-group relations, has been proven to not work in all circumstances. Jindal-Snape and Rienties (2016) add that cognitive adjustment hinges upon mutual attitudes of hosts and overseas students, as well as cultural similarity, cultural identity, and knowledge of the host culture.

Jindal-Snape and Rienties (2016) and Zhou et al. (2008) note that Ward et al.'s (2001) ABC model of acculturation capitalizes on the concept of cultural synergy and is one of the most comprehensive, robust frameworks in the literature today. The model also has experienced critiques that it is too complex, difficult to research, and Zhou et al. (2008) add that most studies using this model fail to explore the interaction between components by focusing on only one aspect of the ABC model. Critiques of the ABC model have caused other researchers to expand upon it's framework to include a variety of other acculturation models that focus more on how an environment can be changed to suit the needs of an individual, as opposed to an individual's ability to adapt to its environment (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016).

Chapter Three

To better understand how the transition experience of home-campus students at an international branch campus was explored in this study, the methodology will be presented in five sections. The first section discusses the researcher's philosophical approach, including ontological and epistemological perspectives, which served as a foundation of this study's methodology. Next, a discussion of the case study research design will be presented. The chapter will continue with the presentation of the methods of this study, followed by the data analysis techniques that were used. This chapter will conclude with a discussion of the quality of this study.

Philosophical Approach

Research paradigms set the intent, motivation, and expectations for research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Within research paradigms exist common beliefs and agreements between researchers about how problems should be understood and addressed (Kuhn, 1962). Understanding the main assumptions of a research paradigm also informs ontological and epistemological perspectives. Ontologies are theories about the nature of existence or reality (Creswell, 2003; Merriam, 2009; Pascale, 2011). Epistemologies convey philosophical assumptions and describe the nature of knowledge, what counts as knowledge, and how knowledge claims are justified (Creswell, 32003; Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2014; Merriam, 2009). In order to understand the researcher's philosophical

approach and how the researcher studied the transition experience of students to international branch campuses, it is important to first discuss how the researcher approached or viewed the research problem. Acknowledging both the researcher's ontological and epistemological perspective is key in achieving methodological congruence, where research goals, theoretical perspectives, and methods are all connected and support one another (Koro-Ljungberg, Yendol-Hoppey, Smith, & Hayes, 2009).

In this study, interpretivism anchored the researcher's ontological perspectives while constructivism guided the researcher's epistemological perspective. Interpretivism as an ontology and constructivism as an epistemology closely align, and often times the border between the two is blurred and the conventional distinction disappears (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lee, 2012). Taking a constructivist's approach to interpretivism means understanding that a researchers' interpretation is not the single truth, which speaks to why the researcher chose interpretivism as an ontology and constructivism as an epistemology in this study. Within constructivism, realities and knowledge are multiple and relative, and constructions are varied based on the interpretation, lens, and assumptions of the researcher (Lee, 2012). In this study, a key feature of using constructivism as an epistemology brings forth the idea that reality is socially constructed by and between the persons who are experiencing it (Jha, 2012). Epistemology also influences the implementation of method through the researcher's form, voice, representation, and the way the researcher communicates with its audience (Carter & Little, 2007). The researcher considers the audience active interpreters of the data and

represents both the data collected via interviews, observations, and researcher memos that described involvement and reflections throughout the data collection process.

Ontological perspective. Qualitative research can be influenced by a variety of research paradigms (Lin, 1998). The researcher anchored this study in the interpretivist tradition, which is an ontological perspective where the main goal is to understand lived experiences, make meaning, and tell a story that enriches human dialogue around a particular topic or phenomenon (Jones et al., 2014; Luttrell, 2010). An interpretivist relies heavily on the participants' view of the situation being studied in a specific setting, and aims to recreate those meanings through stories of a particular time, culture, or place (Creswell, 2003; Lin, 1998). Additionally, in interpretivist studies, research questions include signifiers related to meaning, experiences, and understanding participant perspectives (Koro-Ljungberg et al., 2009). The research questions for this study aimed to uncover the transition experience of home-campus students to an international branch campus, as well their perspectives of the support they received in transition.

The difference between various research paradigms surrounds the questions one asks and the types of conclusion one wishes to draw (Lin, 1998). The work of an interpretivist involves showing how general patterns look in practice, therefore an interpretivist research paradigm most closely aligned with the research questions and goals of this research study. A vast amount of literature exists on the support students need in transition to the collegiate setting, however, what makes this study unique is that there is a gap in the literature, particularly the qualitative literature, on what types of support home-campus students need in transition to an international branch campus.

Applying an interpretivist research paradigm allowed the researcher to relate what is known about transitions to tell the unique story of home-campus students studying in an international branch campus environment. Transferability is a concept within interpretivism that requires the researcher to provide a sufficient description of the context studied so potential users or future researchers can judge the applicability of the findings to their own context (Luttrell, 2010). A detailed description of the context of this study will be presented later on in this chapter in the methods section.

       Epistemological perspective. Epistemology is the theory of knowledge which conveys philosophical assumptions and what constitutes knowledge (Jones et al., 2014; Merriam, 2009). The researcher's epistemological perspective reflects the notion that knowledge is constructed, and together with the participants the researcher constructed a better understanding of the transition experience of home-campus students attending an international branch campus. The research design for this study was based on a constructivist paradigm where truth is relative and is based on one's perspective (Baxter & Jack, 2008). As an inquiry paradigm, constructivism is not limited to, but can include, a social constructivist lens (Lee, 2012). In this study, constructivism is focused on the collective generation of meaning, which aligns with the epistemological stance that reality constructed by the researcher is shaped by culture, environment, and the individual realities of each participant in this study (Jha, 2012). An advantage of a constructivist research design is that it involves a close collaboration between the researcher and participant and allows participants to share their stories (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The reality constructed by the researcher was shaped by culture and environment, which are

important to understand as this study aims to make meaning of the transition experience of home-campus students in the unique globalized setting of an international branch campus (Jha, 2012; Luttrell, 2010). In this study, each individual reality, although it may have differed between participants, is both true and independent of the person who experienced it (Jha, 2012).

Research Design

A research design is a logical blueprint that links a study's research questions, the data to be collected, and the strategies for analyzing the data, so that a study's findings address the intended research questions (Yin, 2011). To better understand the experience of home-campus students in transition to an international branch campus, the researcher used a qualitative methodology. Qualitative research aims to understand how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, and what meaning they attribute to their experiences (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research designs are also flexible and inductive, allowing for interaction among different design components (Maxwell, 2013). The research questions for this study provided a framework for the researcher to better understand the transition experience of home-campus students studying at an international branch campus. The researcher also utilized a phenomenological case study research design which allowed for a detailed, in-depth study about this topic. The ability to approach the research setting without the constraints of predetermined categories of analysis allowed for an in-depth level of openness and detail that a quantitative methodology would not afford (Patton, 2015). Additionally, a qualitative phenomenological case study research methodology represents the views and

perspectives of the participants, which is key to understanding the transition experiences of home-campus students to an international branch campus.

Phenomenological case study. A qualitative case study focuses on the "particularity and complexity of a single case" with a goal of understanding "its activity within important circumstances" (Stake, 1995, p. xi). A case study can be considered in a variety of formats in qualitative research (Merriam, 2009). For this research, a phenomenological case study was used as a research design that informed methodological choices. Case studies are often selected as a research design because of what they can reveal about a phenomenon in a bounded context (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995). Determining the case, also known as the unit of analysis, as well as the boundaries of the study are also hallmarks of case study research (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995). It is important to properly define which components lie within and outside the boundaries of the case and which experiences within the case will be studied, as case study research involves generating a picture of the case and then portraying the case for other to see and understand (Stake, 1995). In this study, the unit of analysis was the transition of home-campus students to an international branch campus, while the boundary of the case was one institution within an international branch campus consortium.

Case study was the primary research design, however, a phenomenological research philosophy also informed the researcher's approach (Merriam, 2009; Moustakas, 1994). Although phenomenology and case study are often two separate categories within qualitative research, this study viewed the various approaches "as orientations, rather

than distinct, separate categories, in that each approach primarily seeks to understand and describe social phenomena from the perspectives of participants" (Glesne, 2011, p. 17). A phenomenological case study requires thoroughly describing how people experience a phenomenon, or in this case, the experiences of home-campus students transitioning to an international branch campus which is a unique, globalized learning environment. The goal of a phenomenological philosophy is to understand the meaning the shared experience has to people in a particular situation (Luttrell, 2010; Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2015). In phenomenological case studies, the researcher refrains from making assumptions, focuses on a specific topic naively through the use of research questions as guides, and produces findings that will serve as a basis for further research and reflection (Moustakas, 1994). Additionally, a case study exploration rooted in phenomenological research focuses on thoroughly describing how people experience a phenomenon (Patton, 2015), or in this case, the transition to an international branch campus which is a unique, globalized learning environment. The focus on describing participant experiences and how it is they experience what they experience is what defines this study as a phenomenological case study as opposed to solely being a constructivist case study (Patton, 2015).

In considering the essence of a shared experience, the researcher focused on the shared experience of the participants and not of the shared experiences of the researcher with the participants because the researcher has not lived the same experience as the participants in the study. However, the researcher used a phenomenological perspective to elucidate the importance of using methods that captured the participants' experiences

of the transition to an international branch campus (Patton, 2015). Although each

participant had an individual reality that differed between participants, theories related to

student transitions such as Schlossberg (1981), Astin (1991), and Jindal-Snape and

Rienties (2016) helped situate participant experiences and create an understanding of the

essence of the shared experiences amongst all participants in this study. The meaning of

shared experiences also contributed to the social construction of reality (Luttrell, 2010),

which aligned with not only the constructivist research design of this study, but also with

the theoretical perspectives of interpretivism and constructivism.

Setting. A phenomenological case study design is used when a study focuses on

answering "why" or "how" questions, or when the boundaries are not clear between the

phenomenon and context (Moustakas, 1994; Yin, 2014). This case study was descriptive

in nature because it explained the phenomenon and the context in which it occurred

(Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2014). It would be impossible to understand the bigger

picture of the transition experiences of home-campus students without considering the

context in which the case occurred, a young and developing international branch campus.

This phenomenological case study provided a thick description of the phenomenon under

study (Merriam, 2009). By utilizing a single-site for this case study the phenomenon

under investigation was studied in detail at a particular location that is a critical case, or a

case that has "strategic importance in relation to a problem" (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 229). It

was difficult to use a representative sample of international branch campuses for this

study due to the fact that campus age and structure vary greatly, campuses are limited in

number. Additionally, because the context and environment of campuses are so unique,

one international branch campus does not exist that accurately represents all branch campuses. With over 311 international branch campuses across the world (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017), the setting for this study was unique as compared to the hundreds of thousands of institutions worldwide, and is considered a critical case to study because it is that it is less than four years old and with an enrollment under 300 students.

The setting for this study was one international branch campus that is part of a larger global campus in South Korea, and is affiliated with a large, public research institution in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States of America. Utilizing purposeful selection, this site was selected to provide information that was relevant to answering the research questions outlined for this study (Maxwell, 2013). Also important to the selection of this case is the researcher's personal interest in the setting as well as the researcher's accessibility to the site itself. The institution in this study was the second institution to open in the consortia model on the international branch campus, and formally opened in 2014 for operation. In spring 2014, forty students enrolled in the campus, and the enrollment has continued to grow with over 285 students attending as of fall 2016 (Office of Institutional Research and Reporting, 2016). The small number of students and staff members and the model of shared resources and facilities made this campus a critical case in comparison to other well-established international branch campuses around the world (Patton, 2015).

Flyvbjerg (2006) notes that a common misunderstanding of case study research is that transferability is not possible on the basis of an individual case. However, a

75

strategically chosen, critical case can be of great value to research in the social sciences as just as many discoveries arise from intense observation as from statistics applied to large groups. The international branch campus chosen for this study provided the opportunity to explore and illuminate the support home-campus students receive in transition. Additionally, choosing only one of the four institutions as the setting in this study allowed the researcher to focus solely on the student transition experience and support offered by one institution, as support offered across institutions differed in resources, scope, and impact. This purely descriptive, phenomenological case study does not attempt to generalize findings to the other institutions that are part of the consortia, yet findings are valuable in shaping a path towards overall knowledge creation of the student transition experience to international branch campuses (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

Consortia profile. Currently, four foreign universities, three from the United States and one from Belgium, are operating at this global university. Degree programs from up to ten foreign universities will be offered on the international branch campus in future years. The international branch campus is based on a consortia model, which means that although degrees offered are independent of one another, campus facilities such as libraries, residence halls, and classrooms are shared (Schiller & Park, 2014). Additionally, some aspects of administrative and student services are shared (Schiller & Park, 2014). This multi-partner approach has caused an increased interest in how international branch campuses are operated, with particular interest in how student affairs is being practiced in international jurisdictions (Seifert, Perozzi, Bodine Al-Sharif, Li & Wildman, 2014). Since the consortia model of international branch campuses are

relatively new and under researched, this site was selected for its unique characteristics and its ability to examine the viewpoints of home-campus students transitioning in this particular setting.

Although four universities are part of the consortia on the international branch campus, this study only focused on the transition experiences of home-campus students attending one of the four institutions. The consortia, of which the institution in this study is part of, formally opened its doors in 2012, and was established by the Korean government to innovate the education system of Korea and to nurture the next generation of global leaders (Schiller & Park, 2014). The consortium is located in one of Korea's six free economic zones, and is the largest, private real estate development in Korea's history (Schiller & Park, 2014). The consortium was designed to supplement Korea's plan to establish a regional hub inclusive of knowledge-based industries, research centers, and educational institutions (Schiller & Park, 2014). The Korean government envisioned a truly international university that is comprehensive, academically competitive, and non-duplicative by design where certain academic programs only exist within certain institutions (Schiller & Park, 2014). Although programs of study may differ, institutions share campus resources including libraries, classrooms, cafeterias, dormitories, fitness facilities, as well as some administrative and student services such as student health services and counseling services.

The campus itself is managed by the consortium's Foundation, which is comprised of business leaders, civic officials, and university representatives (Schiller & Park, 2014). The Foundation manages various aspects of the consortium while

institutions independently manage certain aspects as well. The Foundation is responsible for all academic and residential facilities including student and faculty housing, the health clinic, a guesthouse, central library, book store, parking structures, auditoriums, and recreational facilities (Schiller & Park, 2014). The Foundation also supports individual institutions in the consortium on student activities and support programs and runs activities that involve all of the individual institutions such as orientation to housing and campus life (Schiller & Park, 2014). Institutions also have leadership structures unique to each institution that include roles such as a president, deans, faculty, staff, etc. An important item to note about leadership in this study is that the international branch campus has undergone a change president three times in less than four years, with one of the president's intentionally serving in an interim role. Another important item to note about the staffing structure is that student affairs managers from each campus work closely with the Foundation to enrich the overall student experience on the global campus. While the institutions work closely together on many operational aspects of the consortia, each university has also taken voluntary leadership for management of initiatives including classroom technologies, information technologies, language programs, and library management (Schiller & Park, 2014).

Method

Case study research does not claim any particular methods for data collection or data analysis (Merriam, 2000). The researcher used methods in this study that best fit the research design because they were participant-centered and subjective, which supported the researcher's epistemological and ontological perspectives (Koro-Ljungberg et al.,

2009). Additionally, the researcher used methodologies that contributed to a coherence and compatibility with the research questions and conceptual framework that provided a foundation for this research (Maxwell, 2013). The methods section will first discuss participant selection, and will be followed by data collection procedures which consisted of an open-ended questionnaire, interviews, and observations.

      Participants. Purposeful selection was used to identify home-campus students that have attended the international branch campus to participate in the study. The power of purposeful selection lies in the selection of information-rich cases for study in depth, which is not available when utilizing random sampling (Patton, 2015; Reybold, Lammert, & Stribling, 2012). Purposeful selection is a strategy used to access appropriate data that fits the purpose of the study, the questions being asked, and the constraints being faced (Reybold et al., 2012). It is also important to note that purposeful selection is more than just a technique to access data; it also serves to frame who and what matters as data (Freeman, 2000; Reybold et al., 2012). In this study, the case study methodology was informed by phenomenology, which required involving participants who had directly experienced the phenomenon of interest, a transition to an international branch campus. Purposefully selecting participants for this study meant finding participants that have lived the experience first-hand in order for the researcher to understand how they described and made sense of the experience (Patton, 2015; Reybold et al., 2012). In order to purposefully select information-rich participants, the strategy of criterion selection was used.

Selecting participants is not an isolated decision, yet a decision that is intricately connected to the purpose of exploring the issue and the knowledge one hopes to gain about it (Reybold et al., 2012). Utilizing a criterion selection strategy allowed the researcher to identify participants that met a predetermined criterion of importance (Patton, 2015). Participants in this study either were either enrolled as full-time, undergraduate students at the home institution affiliated with the international branch campus selected as the site for this study, or, they were recent graduates of the home institution as of May 2016. The criterion of importance was that participants must have been previously enrolled in a minimum of twelve-credit hours during at least one 16-week semester at the international branch campus in Korea. Originally, the proposed criterion of importance was that students must also be enrolled as a full-time undergraduate student at the home campus in order to participate in an interview, however, in order to maximize the number of participants in the study students that graduated in May 2016 were included as well. Furthermore, only students that were enrolled for at least one 16-week semester and have transitioned back to the home campus where they are currently enrolled as a full-time student or a current graduate were considered. Experts in student transition theory agree that if a student successfully completes a transition, they will probably be successful at adapting to another transition of a similar nature in the future (Schlossberg, 1981). Only focusing on home-campus students who when they transitioned to the international branch campus were transitioning to that environment for the first time allowed the researcher to analyze or compare experiences across participants. Student demographics such as degree program

(i.e. major), gender, birth place, age, and semester of attendance at the international branch campus varied by participant and were not be controlled for in this study.

Access to the home-campus students that previously attended and transitioned back from the international branch campus prior to the fall of 2016 was sought via a contact at the home institution that organizes the home-campus students that attend the international branch campus. The researcher was given permission by a representative from the coordinating office to obtain the name and email address for all home-campus students that met the criteria of importance. In terms of sample size, the goal of this study was to seek depth by studying multiple facets of the experiences of a small number of people (Patton, 2015). The size of this sample was initially limited as there were only 20 students that attended the international branch campus from the home institution and have returned to study at the home campus or recently graduated as of May 2016. The goal was to secure as many of the 20 home-campus students as participants in this study, with an understanding that not all students would be interested or willing to participate.

Upon the researcher receiving IRB approval (Appendix A) in August 2016, all home-campus students that met the criterion of importance were individually contacted via email from the researcher and were invited to participate in this study. The researcher kept a detailed record of all correspondence with each home-campus student and consistently pursued all students via email that initially agreed to participate in the study. Once a student agreed to participate in the study they were emailed the IRB approved informed consent form (Appendix B) and were asked to return the signed form to the researcher via email before participation in data collection procedures commenced.

Thirteen of the 20 home-campus students agreed to participate in the study, however, only 11 completed the online questionnaire and participated in an interview with the researcher. The researcher made every attempt to consistently communicate with home-campus students via email to encourage participation in the study. From August to November 2016 emails were sent every two weeks to each of the 20 home-campus students that were personalized based upon if they agreed to participate in the study, filled out the online questionnaire, or had never responded to the initial invitation to participate in the study. After two months of attempting to communicate with participants via email, the researcher used a Facebook messaging service to contact six of the thirteen participants that agreed to participate in the study but were non-responsive via email. Only six students could be located via the Facebook messaging service, which is why it was not used to reach out to all non-responsive home-campus students. Using the Facebook messaging service was fruitful, as all six home-campus students contacted via the site eventually became participants of the study. Communication with the nine home-campus students that never responded to an email ceased in November 2016 after saturation was reached with data collection procedures.

Data collection. In order to better understand how participants described, felt, and made sense of their transition experiences to an international branch campus, data collection for this study included an open-ended questionnaire, interviews, and observations. Using various data collection procedures allowed for different angles of the student transition experience to be explored (Maxwell, 2013). The data collection for this study also contributed to a coherence and compatibility with the research questions and

conceptual framework that provided a foundation for this research (Maxwell, 2013). In designing this qualitative study, a combination approach of both unstructured and structured data collection took place (Maxwell, 2009). The study was structured in the sense that the data collection was designed to take place at three different points utilizing three different collection methods; a questionnaire, interviews, and observations. A structured approach provided the researcher a framework and timeline in which data collection was focused. With qualitative research, it is likely that emergent insights may require new sampling plans or different kinds of data (Maxwell, 2009). The flexibility that an unstructured approach to data collection afforded was useful in allowing the researcher to change the order of data collection methods throughout the research process in order to remain focused on the particular phenomenon being studied (Maxwell 2009). The one change that occurred in the data collection timeline due to participant availability was that ten of the 11 interviews that were conducted before observations took place.

Data collection for this study spanned a four-month time period from August 2016 to November 2016, as shown in Table 2. The data collection process was designed to reflect the framework of Astin's I-E-O model (1991), with the questionnaire being used to gather input variables, observations used to gather environmental variables, and interviews being used to gather outcome variables. Data collection began in August with the administration of an online, open-ended questionnaire which participants were asked to complete before they could participate in an interview. The questionnaire was completed at various points during August to November 2016 as it depended upon when the participant responded to the researcher and agreed to participate in the study. The

researcher conducted interviews at various points from August through November, with

timing of the interview dependent on when the participant completed the online

questionnaire. The researcher traveled to the international branch campus in South Korea

to conduct observations of the campus environment from October 29 – November 2,

2016. Each component of the data collection process will be further discussed in the

order in which the data was collected for this study.

Table 2

Data Collection and Analysis Timeline

Data Collection Procedure	Anticipated Collection Timeline	Analysis Technique
Open-ended questionnaire	Administered via online form August 2016	Responses to questions was used to tailor individual interview questions for participants; Responses were coded using conventional content analysis (Heish & Shannon, 2005); themes were incorporated into thematic network (Attride-Stirling, 2001) which was used for analysis purposes
Interviews	Conducted on the home campus September through November 2016	Interview transcriptions were coded using conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005); themes from all eleven interviews were incorporated into thematic network (Attride-Stirling, 2001) which was used for analysis purposes

Observations	Five-day period on the international branch campus from late October/early November 2016	Field notes from observations were coded using conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005); themes were incorporated into thematic network analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001); Once thematic networks were complete, the researcher returned to the questionnaire responses, interview transcriptions, and field notes to interpret the data with the four networks

Open-ended questionnaire. In case study research, documents play an explicit role due to their ability to corroborate evidence from other sources and complement information obtained from interviews and observations (Yin, 2014). Documents, including researcher-generated documents such as a questionnaire, can also yield invaluable data about things not directly observable (Yin, 2014). The specific purpose of researcher-generated documents is to learn more about situations, people, or events relevant to the research (Merriam, 2009). In this study, a researcher-generated questionnaire was used to gather information about the participants that aided the researcher in understanding personal characteristics and reflections of the initial perspectives of the transition to an international branch campus. The questionnaire was generated by the researcher, with guidance from the conceptual framework from Schlossberg's (1981) transition theory and Astin's (1991) I-E-O model. This researcher-generated object reduced the challenges of reflexivity since the document was created for this study and was not influenced by the researcher's inquiry (Yin, 2014).

According to Schlossberg's (1981) transition theory and Astin's (1991) I-E-O model, a key element in assessing the impact of a transition is first understanding personal qualities or characteristics of an individual, as well as initial perspectives of the particular transition. Schlossberg (1981) suggests a major determinant adaptation to a transition is the individual him/herself. Astin (1991) agrees that the personal qualities an individual brings to transition experience greatly affects the outcomes, or how the student copes with the transition. In this study, in order to fully comprehend the challenges home-campus students experience, the impact of the challenges, and the types of support home-campus students find in transition, a baseline understanding of each individual was established; the open-ended questionnaire facilitated the establishment of the baseline knowledge of each participant. A total of thirteen input variables, or questions relating to personal characteristics and background were included in the open-ended questionnaire (Appendix C). Seven items relating to the reflection of participants' transition were included in the questionnaire as well. Not only did the questionnaire provide foundational knowledge of each participant, the questionnaire also provided the researcher context for the individual interviews, which helped guide interview questions, and supported data gathered in the interview process (Glesne, 2011).

The open-ended questionnaire was created using an online form, which is an tool used to collect customizable information from a variety of people. The online form was created by the researcher, and the responses were only accessible by the researcher via an account that was password protected. Each student that agreed to participate in the study and completed the IRB approved informed consent form received an email containing a

hyperlink through which the questionnaire could be accessed and completed. The

questionnaire was administered at various points from August to November 2016 as

students responded to the researcher's emails and agreed to participate in the study. The

researcher sent follow-up emails every two weeks to each student encouraging their

participation. Upon submitting the questionnaire, the researcher emailed the participant to

confirm responses were received and to set up an interview date and time.

   Interviews. In qualitative research, interviews are necessary forms of data

collection when behavior, feelings, or an individual's interpretation of the world around

them cannot be observed (Merriam, 2009). The goal of this study was to understand the

transition experiences of home-campus students at an international branch campus, and

interviews were key in uncovering participant's feelings and thoughts, and allowed the

researcher to better understand participant perspectives (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2015).

Due to the fact this study was guided by a constructivist research design paradigm,

interviews best served the goal of this particular kind of knowledge production as they

are participant-centered and subjective (Koro-Ljungberg et al., 2009). Additionally,

interviewing served as more than just a time to ask questions to elicit a participant's truth.

Interviewing was a data collection method where the goal was for knowledge to be

constructed by and between the people experiencing it (Jha, 2012). It is important to note

that constructing knowledge with a participant in one interview setting can be slightly

difficult for the researcher to achieve, as the interview space is inherently unequal with

the researcher ultimately controlling the topics and the direction of the interview itself

(Gubrium & Koro-Ljungberg, 2005). The researcher appropriately reflected on the

interview space via researcher memos throughout the data collection process and did not

feel any issues of control or inequality during the interview process were present. In

reviewing interview transcriptions, the researcher felt the interview process produced

desirable data collection that represented participant perspectives (Gubrium & Koro-

Ljungberg, 2005).

The timing of the interviews was an intentional part of the research design, as

Astin's (1991) I-E-O model was used as a framework to guide the data collection

process. Interviews in this study explored the reflections of participants experiences

transitioning to an international branch campus, which contributed to a better

understanding of both input and outcome variables. The researcher must fully understand

input variables, which were collected via the questionnaire, and environmental variables,

which were collected during observations in order to analyze the interview data. In an

effort to account for the length of time it took to set-up and conduct interviews with

participants, the researcher conducted interviews any point from August through

November 2016. Ten of the 11 interviews took place before the observations occurred,

and one interview took place after the observation period. Regardless, interviews did not

take place until participants completed and submitted the questionnaire, which allowed

the researcher to adjust interview questions for participants as necessary based on

information gleaned from the questionnaire. It is a key element of this study that home-

campus students fully experienced at least one semester on the international branch

campus before they were asked to reflect on their transition experiences. Reflection is a

key learning tool for a researcher conducting phenomenological research whose goal is to

understand the meaning and essence of lived experiences, and the use of reflection in this study allowed participants the opportunity to attach meaning, or the consciousness of experience, to the transition to an international branch campus (Lien, Pauleen, Kuo, & Wang, 2014).

There are various forms of interviews that researchers can use depending on the purpose of the study, the kind of knowledge sought, and the interview participants (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). With a goal of exploring the experiences of home-campus students that transitioned to an international branch campus, a narrative technique helped the researcher center the interview on eliciting stories that demonstrated key elements of the transition experience (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). An interview guide (Appendix D) was be used during each interview which provided the researcher questions or issues to be explored. Interview questions were organized to reflect the chronological timeline of a transition, with initial questions asking the participant to reflect on early parts of the transition, and later questions asking the participant to reflect back on the entire transition experience on the international branch campus as a whole. Interviews were semi-structured to allow for a flexible, conversational interview that was responsive to the emerging views of the participant (Merriam, 2009). Semi-structured interviewing also allowed for a focus on the particular phenomenon being studied, which differed between participants and required individually tailored questions throughout the interview (Maxwell, 2013).

In an effort to establish a rapport with each participant, interviews began with the researcher sharing the goal of the research and the rationale behind why the study is

important and meaningful to the researcher. The order in which remaining questions were asked and the exact wording of questions was flexible and dependent on the flow and tone of the interview (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2015). Answers to each participant's open-ended questionnaire were also reviewed during the interview, and follow-up questions were asked which allowed for clarification and expansion on participant responses and also allowed the researcher to fully explore the evolution of the transition process. Each interview ended with an open-ended question which gave the participant a chance to share any final information about their transition experience and the support they received in transition that they had not yet shared in the interview.

Seven of the 11 interviews were conducted in person on the home branch campus affiliated with the international branch campus. Four of the 11 interviews were conducted via Skype, as participants were unable to physically come to campus due to scheduling or location, as two participants were in other countries during the data collection period. The researcher emailed participants to schedule interviews, which took place at any point from August through November 2016. The researcher worked with participants to choose a mutually agreeable date and time for the interview, and for the seven interviews that took place on the home campus, the researcher secured a private, quiet space where interviews were conducted. Before each in-person or Skype interview began the researcher asked participants for permission to audio record the interview via SuperNote, an application on an iPad. The duration of interviews ranged from 50 minutes to 88 minutes, with eight of the 11 interviews lasting more than 60 minutes. The researcher did not observe any differences in duration or depth of the interviews that took

place in person versus via Skype. Once the interview was complete, the audio file was downloaded to a password-protected computer only accessible by the researcher. Five of the interviews were transcribed by the researcher, and six of the interviews were sent by the researcher to a transcriptionist due to time constraints and the inability for the researcher to complete the transcriptions in a timely manner. Each transcription, whether performed by the researcher or a transcriptionist, was checked for accuracy with the interview recording by the researcher.

Observations. The third form of data collection that took place in this study was observations. Observational data represents a firsthand encounter with the phenomenon of interest, and enables the researcher to draw inferences about perspectives that could not be obtained by only relying on interview data (Merriam, 2009; Maxwell, 2013). Observations can also be useful in understanding aspects of perspectives that participants may be reluctant to directly state in an interview, or, in noticing things that have becomes routine to the participants themselves that will help the researcher lead to better understanding context (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2015). In this study, observations were used in conjunction with interviewing to substantiate findings to better understand the environment in which home-campus students transitioned to on the international branch campus. A theoretical framework was useful in determining what to observe (Merriam, 2009), and Schlossberg's (1981) *4 S* concept provided a framework to guide the researcher's focus. Two of the four "S's" in Schlossberg's (1981) theory, strategies and support, provided a foundation for what was observed both formally and informally at the international branch campus.

The theoretical framework and research questions in this study added structure to the observation process in that they provided a starting point of where to begin to look, however, the focus of observations was also flexible and emergent (Merriam, 2009). Observations in this study were semi-structured, and the overall time spent on the site and number of observations evolved when the researcher visited the international branch campus, as these items could not be precisely determined ahead of time (Merriam, 2009). Each observation experience, whether formal or informal, planned or unplanned, resulted in the researcher compiling field notes. Field notes were descriptive, contained direct quotations, included insights and interpretations, and captured the researcher's own feelings and reactions to the experiences (Patton, 2015). Field notes were documented electronically on the researcher's laptop.

The researcher visited the international branch campus October 29 – November 5, 2016, with the observation period lasting from October 29 – November 2, 2016. Since the participants in the study were not enrolled at the international branch campus when the researcher visited, no formal interviews were conducted at that time. The researcher spent five days total conducting observations on the international branch campus. The researcher had pre-existing relationships with four staff members on the international branch campus, and the researcher utilized the pre-existing relationships to gain access and permission to conduct observations. Before traveling to the international branch campus, the researcher reached out to the contacts on the international branch campus to explain the goals of the study, share IRB approval from the home institution, describe the proposed observation process, and request permission to conduct observations.

Permission to conduct observations was granted via email correspondence with an administrator affiliated with the home institution that was located on the international branch campus. The researcher was given full permission by the administrator to conduct observations in any manner once on the branch campus, and assigned a staff member to serve as a point of contact to help the researcher set-up necessary meetings and tours, as well as answer any questions about traveling to the international branch campus or Korea. The researcher was accompanied by her spouse, also a qualitative researcher in higher education, who served as a peer reviewer for the researcher during the data analysis process, and who also served as a sounding board for the researcher during the observation period.

With an understanding that it is impossible for one researcher to observe everything in a particular environment, certain elements guided the observation process (Yin, 2011). Due to the important role context played in this study and in understanding the home-campus student transition experience, the main goal of the researcher in conducting observations was to gain an understanding of the physical setting of the international branch campus. In the five days the researcher spent conducting observations on the campus, the researcher individually toured every building and facility on the campus. The researcher also participated in a guided tour of the campus which was conducted by two current students enrolled at the international branch campus in this study. The guided tour allowed the researcher to learn more about student perspectives of the campus environment, and was an opportunity for the researcher to ask questions to better understand how students used different spaces and resources on the branch

campus. During the tour the researcher was also shown the physical space that the

institution used to occupy on campus before their new academic building was open. It

was important for the researcher to see this space and ask questions about student usage

in the space as this was the environment experienced by the participants in this study. In

terms of space, the researcher also spent hours conducting observations at various days

during various times in buildings such as the dining hall, outdoor courtyards, gymnasium,

and lobby of the institution's building. During these observation periods the researcher

was most interested in watching interactions between students, staff, and faculty to better

understand the concept of institutional and peer support that home-campus students have

available to them. The duration of observations in each space on campus varied based on

the context and environment of the observation (Patton, 2015).

In addition to observing the physical setting which allowed the researcher to

gather a context for what the environment on the international branch campus was like,

the researcher also had a list of items which emerged from the ten participant interviews

conducted before the researcher traveled to the international branch campus. Items on the

list were areas of interest for the researcher during the observation period because they

represented initial themes that emerged during interviews, and provided the researcher

the opportunity to substantiate findings by witnessing and experiencing them first-hand.

Areas of particular importance for the researcher to observe were: the level of interaction

between domestic and foreign students, as well as between students and faculty or staff;

prominence of school spirit or institutional pride amongst students; level of energy and

activity on campus; and, student usage of shared spaces on campus such as dining halls

and lounges. Spending time in student spaces such as lounges and the dining hall as well as attending four campus activities and events that took place allowed the researcher to focus on areas of interest. An initial worry of the researcher in preparing for the trip abroad to conduct observations was that time spent on the branch campus would pass quickly and that the researcher would leave with regrets, feeling like observational data collected was not fully representative of the international branch campus experience. Having a list of preliminary themes to guide initial observations provided both structure and focus that helped the researcher maximize time spent during observation period.

An important element of conducting observations is acknowledging the relationship between the researcher, or the observer, and the students being observed. Since the researcher was not interviewing students currently enrolled on the branch campus, it is possible that the researcher's activities were not clear to the students on the international branch campus. The researcher assumed the stance of a complete observer, where the researcher was in a public setting, or in this case on a college campus, and was unknown to those being observed (Merriam, 2009). The researcher informally spoke with students attending the international branch campus about the usage of campus facilities and resources, with particular attention to institutional support, which is defined in this study as a person, resource, or initiative affiliated with the international branch campus that provides aid or assistance to the student during the transition. Conversations with students were documented in the form of field notes. Although students that were enrolled at the international branch campus during the researcher's visit were not formal

participants in the study, relevant information was gleaned about student satisfaction and usage of support services on the international branch campus.

Although the researcher was not able to interact with the participants in the study on the international branch campus as they were not currently enrolled there, it is important that the researcher was exposed to the research setting in person. Descriptive case studies are rooted in thick description of the phenomenon under study, and without first-hand exposure to the research setting the researcher would not have depth of understanding. Additionally, with this study grounded in constructivism and interpretivism, if the researcher had not experienced the international branch campus environment first-hand it would be difficult for the researcher to be able to provide a sufficient description of the context studied which is key in the transferability of case study findings (Luttrell, 2010).

Data Analysis

At the core, data analysis in case study research means taking something apart and giving new meaning to the parts that are important to the case itself (Stake, 1995). Researchers can make new meanings about cases through direct interpretation of individual instances and through aggregation of instances until themes emerge (Stake, 1995). While qualitative research can be analyzed through a variety of techniques, this study utilized elements of conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) as a coding framework, and thematic network analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001) as a tool to analyze the data in a methodical manner. Both forms of coding and analysis that were used in this study fall on the qualitative analysis continuum as a combination of etic and

emic approaches (Reybold, 2015). Combining both emic and etic approaches provided a

robust data analysis process that when woven together, capitalized on the strengths of

each end of the continuum when analyzing this case. Procedures utilized in this study will

be discussed in two sections: reduction of text and exploration of text.

Reduction of text. Qualitative content analysis is defined as a research method

"for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic

classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon,

2005, p. 1278). While there are multiple approaches to qualitative content analysis, the

researcher used elements of the conventional approach to code the data as this process is

generally used with a study whose aim is to describe a phenomenon, such as this case

study aims to accomplish (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The benefit of the conventional

approach was gaining direct information from study participants without imposing

preconceived categories. While the researcher followed the conventional approach to

coding as outlined by Hsieh & Shannon (2005) closely, the researcher also overlaid the

research questions in the coding process to ensure themes were relevant and in line with

the initial goals of the study, which was to understand the transition experiences of home-

campus students to an international branch campus.

Coding. Before the coding process took place, both the interview transcriptions

and field notes from observations were prepared, with document margins adjusted,

documents printed, and interview transcripts organized chronologically to reflect the

order in which participants attended the international branch campus. Once the

documents were prepared, the first step in the coding process was to read the interview

transcripts and field notes to obtain a sense of the whole. Participants were also assigned a pseudonym by the researcher during this stage as well. In advance of the second read of transcriptions and field notes, the researcher decided to break down each interview transcription into three sections, pre-transition, during the transition, and post-transition, and to read and code each section. Separating interview transcriptions into three parts allowed the researcher to more clearly compare emergent codes across participants, since interview transcriptions were long in length and it was hard to compare all elements and codes across all 11 interview transcriptions.

The researcher read the first section of each interview and underlined any word or phrase with a pen that the researcher thought represented key thoughts or ideas. The researcher completed that process with the second and third sections of the transcriptions as well. While preconceived categories are typically avoided in conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005), during the second read of interview transcriptions and field notes the researcher assigned preliminary codes to underlined words or phrases in the margin of each document. Research questions served as a guide for identifying preliminary codes. Using the research questions as a guide when initially coding meant that this part of the analysis process was more etic in nature, as concepts identified were grounded in the research (Reybold, 2015). During the second read, the researcher typed all preliminary codes assigned into an Excel spreadsheet, and when possible, the researcher used the same codes in order to begin establishing consistency in codes across interview participants. Notes of initial impressions, thoughts, and questions posed for reflection were also be written in the margins of transcriptions upon second review.

There were no areas where the researcher identified a desire for clarification or more information in certain areas from participants, therefore follow-up interviews with participants were not conducted.

The transcripts and field notes were read a third time, during which the preliminary list of codes the researcher created were edited to include codes that were not originally identified, and the codes were applied to previously underlined words, phrases, and concepts. This process allowed the researcher to reframe the reading of the transcripts and to confirm that underlying patterns that emerged were representative of the data as a whole (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The next step in the coding process was to refine the list of codes and eliminate duplicates. The researcher typed each preliminary code list from each of the interview sections into three different columns in an Excel spreadsheet. Initially there were 38 codes in the pre-transition section, 46 codes in the during the transition section, and 27 in the post-transition section (Appendix E). The researcher combined all codes, 111 in total, and sorted them to remove 37 duplicates that existed. In the end, there were 73 unique codes across all three interview sections and field note documents as well (Appendix F).

Identifying themes. While conventional content analysis served as the coding framework in this study, the researcher used Attride-Stirling's (2001) thematic networks thereafter as a tool to organize the thematic analysis of the interview and observation data. Before themes could be identified and thematic networks constructed, the researcher refined the 73 codes into groups that were broad enough to encapsulate ideas from multiple text segments, but specific enough to not be repetitive (Attride-Stirling,

2001). Grouping the codes and reviewing the transcripts to see if codes were present that

were not originally accounted for also allowed the researcher to utilize a more emic

approach to coding the data, as the initial etic approach of using research questions as a

guide can sometimes limit codes from emerging (Reybold, 2015). Codes that were

originally identified in the first, second, and third read but did not fit into groups as codes

were refined were marked as outliers and were removed from subsequent analysis. The

researcher produced seven groups of codes that were labeled: social support; institutional

support; situation, self, and input; peer advisor; campus environment; strategies; and

output. The researcher consulted the literature on theories of student transition to help

provide structure and makes sense of the groupings. With the exception of the group of

codes relating to peer advisors, the other six labels of codes were all derived from Astin

(1991) and Schlossberg's (1981) transition theories. The last organizational step before

identifying themes was to assign each group of codes a color on an Excel spreadsheet,

and then to re-read the transcriptions and field notes for a fourth time, highlighting all

codes according to their color from the groupings so that the researcher could visually

reference groups of codes during the analysis process.

The first step in converting codes into themes was for the researcher to re-read

each code's text segments, extract the common and significant themes, document

emerging themes, and reference specific quotations within each theme (Attride-Sitrling,

2001). The list of 73 codes resulted in 75 themes. The researcher focused on analyzing

themes that were common across all participants, as opposed to only focusing on

individual narratives. In order to further reduce the 75 themes to a number that was more

workable, and to ensure that all themes aligned with the research questions that guided this study, the researcher streamlined the initial themes where possible by merging or eliminating themes so all that was left were the most relevant themes to the home-campus student transition experience. After the initial themes were refined, 45 themes remained.

Constructing a thematic network. Once themes were extracted and refined, a network was constructed that represented how themes were connected and related to one another. The 45 themes there were identified during the initial coding stages were relabeled as basic themes, and were then arranged further into 15 organizing themes, or clusters centered on larger, shared concepts (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The researcher also relied on student transition theory literature as a basis for identifying conceptual correspondence. The researcher analyzed the underlying assumptions of each organizing theme until one core, principal metaphor, also known as a global theme, emerged that encapsulated the main points of the text (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Four global themes emerged that not only summarized and made sense of the lower-order themes, but also illustrated aspects of the transition experience as a whole (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Each global theme encompasses its own network. The last step in the coding process was to verify and refine the four networks by reviewing text segments related to each basic, organizing, and global theme to ensure they reflected the data (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The researcher chose to arrange all of the themes in list form using Excel, as opposed to arranging the networks graphically as a web-like net. A list of basic, organizing, and global themes associated organized by each of the four networks can be found in Appendices G, H, I, and J.

Exploration of text. Thematic networks are a tool in analysis but not the analysis itself, therefore additional steps were taken to reach a further level of abstraction in the analytic process (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Once the thematic network was constructed, the researcher returned to the transcriptions and field notes to interpret the data with the aid of the four networks themselves. This process of exploring the interview transcriptions and field notes through the basic, organizing, and global themes allowed the researcher to bring together the overarching theme of the transition experiences of home-campus students with the data to facilitate a deeper level of analysis. After exploring the thematic networks in more detail, the researcher summarized the principal themes that emerged from the description of each network and identified and interpreted patterns. This step in the analysis process facilitated a return to the original research questions for this study, which the researcher will address in the following chapter with arguments grounded in patterns that emerged from the exploration of the texts (Attride-Stirling, 2001). These steps explain the analytical process the researcher employed to analyze data from this study.

Quality

The philosophical approach of a qualitative inquiry leads researchers to better understand key quality concerns within a study (Glesne, 2011; Patton, 2015). Constructivist perspectives have generated a new language to discuss quality in qualitative research (Glesne, 2011), with Lincoln and Guba (1986) proposing the use of terms such as credibility, transferability, and dependability, as opposed to more traditional terms such as validity, reliability, and objectivity. A poignant reason that the

term validity does not align well with interpretivism or constructivism is that validity seeks to uncover the objective truth, and the researcher cannot ensure that findings are "true" or "accurate", because meaning and findings were interpreted and constructed within this study (Glesne, 2011; Stake, 1995). In addressing issues of quality in this research, criteria will be used to demonstrate ways in which the researcher can claim that this work is credible (Glesne, 2011). It is also important to note the difference between boundaries and limitations as related to the quality of this study. Boundaries are factors designed into the study, while limitations are flaws in the design of the study that were not accounted for in the method. In order to better understand the ways in which the researcher attempted to minimize misrepresentations in this study, quality will be discussed in three sections: credibility, transferability, and reflexivity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Boundaries designed into the study will be addressed throughout as well.

Credibility. Credibility in constructivist research depends on the researcher's careful attention to establishing trustworthiness, and addresses the fit between the participant's views and meaning and the researcher's representation of the same (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In essence, credibility assesses how congruent the researcher's findings are with reality (Merriam, 2009). A possible limitation of qualitative research grounded in constructivism and interpretivism is the possibility that the researcher may not accurately represent the perspectives of participants, and may misrepresent meaning of what participants say or do (Maxwell, 2009). In an effort to reduce misrepresentations, the researcher utilized respondent validation, or member checking, by soliciting feedback from participants on the researcher's data and conclusions (Glesne, 2011; Maxwell,

2009). Member checking is the single most important way of minimizing the possibility of misinterpretations, and is also important in identifying imposed researcher bias and misunderstandings of observations (Maxwell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). Member checks took place during the interview process, as the researcher summarized key points made by participants and asked if the summation accurately represented their thoughts and feelings. During interviews the researcher also let participants know that they would have the opportunity to review the researcher's analysis and they will be able to make suggestions to the researcher on how their experiences can be better represented through the analysis and findings. During the data analysis process, the researcher emailed participants a draft of preliminary analysis, including the four global themes that emerged, to ensure the researcher was representing ideas accurately (Glesne, 2011). Only two participants responded to the researcher's email, and approved that the global themes accurately represented their thoughts. It is a boundary, not a limitation, that participants were being asked to reflect back on experiences which occurred months or even years ago. The amount of time between the actual transition and the participant's reflection of the transition was mentioned by two participants during the interview, as they indicated it was difficult remember every detail of every step of the transition process. The other nine participants did not comment that they found it difficult to accurately represent the thoughts and feelings they were having at the time of the transition (Maxwell, 2009).

Triangulation is another procedure frequently used in qualitative research to contribute to the credibility of a study, and is often a principal strategy to increase credibility in interpretivist and constructivist research (Glesne, 2011; Lincoln & Guba,

1985; Merriam, 2009). Triangulation seeks to report multiple perspectives, rather than uncover a singular truth, however, simply incorporating triangulation into a study does not mean all reported perspectives are true and accurate, as no procedure can control for complete accuracy in qualitative research. Denzin (1978) provides the most frequently cited discussion of triangulation, and proposes four types of triangulation which include: the use of multiple methods, multiple sources of data, multiple investigators, or multiple theories. This study used multiple methods, multiple sources of data, and multiple investigators in the form of peer review as types of triangulation. In terms of the triangulation of methods, the goal is not to yield the same results from different sources; however, it is to test for consistency by understanding inconsistencies in findings across different kinds of data (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2015).

The researcher checked participant responses in the questionnaire with follow-up questions in an interview to see how participant responses compared. Only one instance arose where a participant disagreed with their initial response on the questionnaire, and admitted their first response was a mistake and did not accurately reflect their true feelings on that particular topic. All other participants confirmed or agreed with their questionnaire responses in the interview. The researcher also checked what participants stated in interviews against what the researcher viewed through on-site observations. As previously mentioned, the researcher compiled a list of emergent themes from the questionnaire and interview stages of data collection and used the list to frame initial observations on the international branch campus. The researcher documented in every field note if an observation contributed to or challenged a confirming a preliminary

theme. There were no instances when the researcher felt that an observation challenged a preliminary theme, however, it is important to note that the researcher documented a few items that supplemented preliminary themes in a way the researcher was not expecting. For example, participants commented on a lack of support services in the form of health-related areas, but the researcher saw a student health services office, which was a new service, as well as was told by a staff member that a mental health counselor was being hired and would be available to students in a few months. These observations reminded the researcher of the growth and development of the campus due to its young age, and added additional context to the environment which was accounted for in the analysis stage.

As for triangulation through multiple sources of data, the researcher included more than one participant as a source of data, but also included time and space considerations in this form of triangulation based on the assumption that understanding a student's transition to an international branch campus requires an examination under a variety of conditions (Denzin, 1978). To study the transition experience, and more specifically the institutional support home-campus students receive in transition, the researcher conducted observations at different points during the day and in different locations on campus. A boundary to this form of triangulation is that the researcher was only physically present on the international branch campus for a limited amount of time, however, efforts were made by the researcher to diversify time and space considerations when observations were conducted. An additional boundary related to the triangulation of multiple sources of data is that the transition experience of participants spanned

multiple semesters, and not all participants experienced the transition at the same time. The researcher was initially concerned that themes would emerge that did not span multiple semesters and transition experiences, but was surprised to find that all emergent themes were supported by participants across every semester. The researcher also made a point to interview at least two participants from every semester that the campus was in operation in hopes that having multiple perspectives from the same transition environment could help illuminate significant differences or similarities that may have occurred due to the changing and growing environment. The researcher was also initially concerned that because different forms of institutional support would have been offered during different semesters, not all participants would have received the same baseline experiences in their transition. Again, the researcher was surprised to find in the analysis stage that although the branch campus was growing, the number and quality of institutional support services was not significantly different between semesters. The researcher believes a reason why this is the case is because all participants in this study did not attend the campus when the new institution-specific building opened, therefore the campus environment was similar across semesters.

The final form of triangulation that the researcher utilized is multiple investigators in the form of a peer review. Although there was only one researcher that collected and analyzed data, a fellow qualitative researcher in the field of higher education and student affairs was asked to offer external reflection and input on the analysis and findings (Glesne, 2011; Merriam, 2009). The peer researcher was provided interview transcripts, observation notes, and the thematic network analysis that was be created by the

researcher and was asked to offer feedback on how accurate the researcher's findings are to the data that was collected. The peer researcher challenged the researcher's wording and representation of thoughts in a few areas during the review process, and the researcher edited the study to address the feedback. Receiving input from another qualitative researcher who is familiar with the study and the area of research helped ensure the researcher accurately represented the collected data, and also helped check that researcher bias or assumptions did not appear in the data analysis process.

Transferability. Transferability is a term parallel to external validity, which means the researcher is able to provide sufficient detail about a case so that readers can establish the degree of similarity and decide on how findings may be transferred (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the burden of proof in terms of transferability lies more with the reader than the researcher, as it is difficult for the researcher "to know all sites to which transferability might be sought, but the readers can and do" (p. 298). The question of the transferability of findings in qualitative research, and specifically case study research, has been contested by researchers for decades (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Merriam, 2009). Constructivist researchers aim to deeply understand a specific phenomenon and case, rather than aiming to hypothesize or simplify findings across time and space (Patton, 2015). Although transferability is not typically a goal of constructivism, it is possible to apply findings of a constructivist case study to other cases, which is a common misconception of case study research (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Flyvbjerg (2006) posits that a purely descriptive phenomenological case study can be of value in the collective process of knowledge accumulation within any given field.

The use of thick description is a procedure often used in qualitative research to contribute to quality. The term thick description was originally applied to ethnographic research, but has come to refer to a description of the setting, participants, and findings of a study (Merriam, 2009). This case focused on the uniqueness of one international branch campus in a consortia model, and the goal of the researcher was to provide a thick description of the transition experience of home-campus students and the institutional support these students received in transition to allow the reader to enter the research context (Glesne, 2011). In this study, the thick description of data will allow readers to be able to determine whether the research context matches their situation and if so, the findings can help provide a more refined understanding of the student transition experience to an international branch campus or provide a new lens through which transitions can be viewed (Merriam, 2009). The researcher used thick description as a strategy to enable transferability by providing a robust, detailed description of the research setting and the participants. The researcher also utilized adequate evidence such as participant quotes and field notes when providing a detailed description of the findings.

Another strategy used in qualitative research to enhance the transferability of a study is maximum variation (Merriam, 2009). Maximum variation means selecting participants or sites for a study that allow for the possibility of a greater range of application by readers (Merriam, 2009). A decision was made to utilize a single-site case study methodology in this study, which may seem to be an elimination of the researcher employing maximum variation: however, in reality it means the researcher made a

strategic choice to choose one site which Flyvbjerg (2006) suggests can greatly add to the transferability of this phenomenological case study. When discussing transferability, it is also important to once again note the difference between boundaries and limitations as these concepts impact the understanding of strategies used to assess the transferability and quality of the conclusions of this study. Boundaries are factors designed into the study, while limitations are flaws in the design of the study that were not accounted for in the method. In this study, it is a boundary, not a limitation, that the sample size was small, as the researcher accounted for that in the design of the study. It is also a boundary and not a limitation that the setting of this study only consists of a single site, as the researcher intentionally chose to study the transition experience of home-campus students to an international branch campus in detail at one particular location. While it is not possible to apply every strategy that exists in strengthening the transferability in qualitative research, noting what is a boundary versus a limitation allowed the researcher to delineate what specific threats to transferability and quality were present in this study (Maxwell, 2013).

Reflexivity. In qualitative studies the researcher is the instrument, therefore it is important to acknowledge one of the biggest threats to quality is researcher reactivity (Glesne, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Luttrell, 2010; Patton, 2015). It is impossible to address this threat to the quality of this study by eliminating the researcher's lens, values, or beliefs, however, in addressing this aspect of quality it is possible to understand how a researcher's values and expectations affect the design and analysis of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Luttrell, 2010; Patton, 2015). The researcher's background and

110

experiences informed the ontological and epistemological perspectives in this study, and directly influenced the design, analysis, and interpretation of the findings. The researcher's approach to studying the transition experiences of home-campus students at an international branch campus was inevitably reflected by the researcher's own values and assumptions, even as the researcher objectively tried to make meaning of the data collected (Luttrell, 2010). The researcher acknowledges that personal experiences as an international student in Ecuador and Australia served as both advantages and disadvantages in the research process, as the researcher assumes that one cannot separate themselves from what they believe they already know (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher has built assumptions surrounding the lack of support international students are given in their transition and these assumptions are directly related to the researcher's own experiences and what was perceived as helpful during the researcher's own transition to institutions abroad.

Additionally, the lens in which the researcher looks through in assessing their own transition experiences is that of a student affairs practitioner, which the researcher currently identifies as being part of that professional community. Student affairs professionals work with students primarily outside the classroom, and help students to have a well-rounded, healthy college experience. The researcher's assumptions related to the transition of students to an international branch campus are also tied to the researcher's own belief that student affairs practitioners provide support, care, and concern for students. The researcher believes that without student affairs practitioners and the work that is done assisting students in achieving their personal and professional

goals, that students would flounder. It is important for the researcher to address these perspectives, as the role of student affairs showed up in the findings of this study, and likely because of the researcher's familiarity with the role of student affairs in higher education. The researcher acknowledges that these ontological and epistemological assumptions were part of this study, and that the assumptions serve as a lens through which the researcher viewed the research problem and the data that was collected.

The researcher also understands that the knowledge that was generated as a researcher, as well as the data generated by the participants in this study, was shaped by lived experiences. The researcher constructed knowledge through personal lived experiences and through interactions with the home-campus students who transitioned to the international branch campus setting. As a researcher grounded in constructivism, the researcher participated in the research process to ensure the knowledge being produced was reflective of the reality home-campus students were experiencing. The researcher's ability to travel to the international branch campus and experience first-hand the environment and aspects of the transition contributed significantly to the researcher's understanding of participant experiences. The ontological and epistemological perspective of the researcher served as the foundation and guide for the methodological choices, as data collection and analysis were heavily intertwined within theoretical perspectives, and provided a framework for how this study was conducted and how the findings were analyzed (Koro-Ljungberg et al., 2009).

.

Chapter Four

The study explored the transition experience of home-campus students that
attended an international branch campus affiliated with their home institution. Utilizing a
phenomenological case study approach, this study sought to better understand the
transition experience of students with a focus on student perspectives of the institutional
support they received throughout the transition. This chapter presents data from the
research in order to answer the following questions:

1. What are the transition experiences of home-campus students at an
   international branch campus?

2. What are home-campus students' perspectives of the institutional support they
   receive throughout the transition to an international branch campus?

This chapter presents the findings of this study, that as a whole, address these research
questions. Before the findings are presented, the chapter will first discuss the
researcher's reflections on the observation process as it is important to understand the
role observational data played in the data collection process. The chapter will continue
with a brief overview of participant demographics and key characteristics as they relate to
the study. The chapter will conclude with a presentation of the four overarching themes
related to the student transition experience that emerged as four thematic networks
throughout the data analysis process.

The first theme links the role of a participant's previous experiences with transition, motivation to attend the branch campus, and personality traits to their ability to cope with the transition and overcome obstacles during the transition. The second theme suggests that both the age of the campus and the size of the student body created both opportunities and challenges that participants felt impacted the institutional support they received in transition to the international branch campus. The third theme emphasizes the role of peer support in transition, and posits that although cliques existed within the student body that caused segregation both within the institution and between all institutions on the global campus, participants most relied on peer support to cope with the transition. The fourth and final theme suggests the lack of connection between the home and branch campuses negatively impacted the institutional support students received in transition. Each of the four thematic networks will be presented in separate sections within the chapter and will include data points that demonstrate concepts within each theme. A listing of the basic, organizing, and global themes within each of the four thematic networks can be found in appendices G, H, I, and J.

Role of Observational Data in Findings

In this study, observations were used in conjunction with interviewing to substantiate findings to better understand how home-campus students were being supported at an international branch campus. The researcher spent five days conducting observations on the international branch campus. Experiencing the environment firsthand contributed to the researcher more thoroughly understanding the unique context of this study, and also enabled the researcher to draw inferences about perspectives that

could not be obtained by only relying on the interview data collected in this study

(Merriam, 2009; Maxwell, 2013). Similarly, with a focus on the transition experience of

students to the international branch campus, the researcher experienced the transition

firsthand and went through the same steps and processes students do when they arrive to

the branch campus. For example, the researcher experienced firsthand what it was like to

travel from the airport to the campus without guidance from the university, check in to

on-campus housing during non-business hours, and become acclimated to the campus and

the surrounding area. While the researcher's experiences were not identical to those of

the participants in this study, the researcher benefitted from the opportunity to travel to

the international branch campus and experience a similar transition environment.

The ability for the researcher to take part in a transition experience that closely

aligned to the transition of participants was extremely valuable to the researcher's

understanding of the student experience. The researcher documented the observation

period in both memos and field notes. Field notes served as an outlet to record

observational data, interpretations of observations, further questions to explore, and

theme confirmations that arose through observations. Memos served as the researcher's

reflections on the entire travel and observational experience, and provided the researcher

an outlet to write personal thoughts and concerns about the role of the researcher in the

data collection process. Throughout this chapter, observational data from field notes will

be interwoven into the presentation of each theme and will be used to substantiate

findings from participant interviews.

Participant Overview

In this study, understanding who the participants are, their previous experiences, and their motivation to attend the international branch campus is key in understanding their transition experience. The online questionnaire that participants completed before they were interviewed was used to gather information about the participants' personal characteristics and initial reflections on the transition. The questionnaire asked thirteen questions about input variables relating to personal characteristics and background of each participant. Thirteen variables (Appendix C) were initially chosen based on the characteristics and demographics outlined in the literature as important variables to consider when studying students in transition. By taking an emic approach to coding the data and allowing themes to emerge from the text as opposed to using preconceived guidelines to code, not all input variables ultimately impacted the findings of this study. To create an understanding of who the participants were in this study it is important to include an overview of all input variables, regardless of level of impact to findings. Four of the thirteen input variables did have a significant impact on the findings, and they will be presented in the first theme in both a table and narrative format.

Of the eleven participants, nine identified as female while two identified as male. The literature pointed to possible differences in the transition experience for males versus females (Lee, 2009), but sex and/or gender did not impact the findings of this study as there were no notable differences between the transition experience between male and female participants. Majors or programs of study varied amongst participants, with six participants identifying as global affairs majors, two as government and international

116

politics majors, one student as an anthropology major, one as a conflict analysis and resolution major, and one as a film and video studies major. The findings did not show any correlations between program of study and transition experience, as participants shared that they were mostly enrolled in courses to satisfy general education requirements while they were studying on the branch campus. In terms of living arrangements, all eleven students chose to live in housing that was owned and operated by the international branch campus. Only one of the 11 students chose to live with a roommate from Korea, while the majority lived by themselves in a single room. The one participant with a Korean roommate did feel her living situation helped her more easily connect with other Korean students on the campus. Living arrangements did not emerge as relevant to the findings in a meaningful way for other participants.

Language proficiency was another input variable collected. Nine of the participants identify English as their primary language with French and Cantonese being primary languages for two other participants. When asked about proficiency in Korean, one participant identified as fluent, three participants identified as intermediate, and one as a beginner. The role of language in the transition experience had a significant impact on participants' ability to build relationships with peers and navigate institutional resources. Findings related to language will be explored in further detail during the presentation of the peer support and institutional support themes. In terms of citizenship, ten of the eleven participants were born in the United States of America, with one participant being born in Senegal. All 11 participants consider their permanent residence in the United States of America, with one participant identifying as a dual citizen of

Senegal as well. Citizenship did not emerge as a contributing factor to any of the four major themes from this study.

Input Variables Impact Ability to Cope with Transition

The first theme that emerged links the role of a participant's previous experiences with transition, motivation to attend the branch campus, and personality traits to their ability to cope with the transition and overcome obstacles during the transition. As noted, during the analysis process not all input variables ended up having an impact on the findings of this study, but four input variables were found to be particularly relevant to the first theme of this study. Those four input variables are participants' previous experiences with transition, motivation to attend, number of semesters attended at the branch campus, and classification as a student. An overview of the four input variables for each participant can be found in Table 3. It is important to note that due to participant confidentiality, the researcher purposefully did not include the semester and year each participant attended the international branch campus in Table 3. Identifiable factors within the four input variables provided in Table 3 were also omitted to keep particpants' identities confidential. Due to the fact that there is a small number of home-campus students that have studied at the international branch campus it would have been easy for someone who is familiar with the campus and its students to identify who the student is based upon certain pieces of information.

Table 3

Select Participant Demographics and Characteristics

Name	Classification At IBC	Number of Semesters At IBC	Previous Experience With Transition	Motivation to Attend IBC
Jackson	Second semester junior year	One	Traveled abroad once on vacation	Interest in Asian countries; Peer Advisor role
Sophia	Second semester freshman year and first semester sophomore year	Two	Lived abroad as a child and moved to the United States	General interest in studying abroad
Emma	Second semester of sophomore year	One	Attended college as an out-of-state student; moved around a lot growing up	General interest in studying abroad; Peer Advisor role
Olivia	Second semester sophomore year	One	Spent a semester studying in Korea in high school	Prior interest in Korea and interest in Korean language; Peer Advisor role
Ava	Second semester junior year	One	Has lived abroad; Extensive travel experiences	Interest in Asian countries
Mia	First and second semester freshman year	Two	Spent two summers studying in Korea in high school	Interest in Korean culture and language

Isabella	Fall of sophomore year	One	None identified	Interest in Korean culture and language; Peer Advisor role
Riley	Second semester freshman year	One	Spent a summer in Korea in high school; Attended college as an out-of-state student	Interest in Korean culture and language
Aria	First and second semester junior year	Two	Born abroad and moved to the United States	General interest in studying abroad; Peer Advisor role
Zoe	Second semester sophomore year	One	Spent a gap year abroad after high school	General interest in studying abroad
Aiden	First semester of senior year	One	Moved across the United States in high school	General interest in Korean culture and stepping out of comfort zone; Peer Advisor role

In terms of previous experiences with transition, the theme suggests that participants with a previous life transition they felt was signifcant, internationally or within the United States, had an easier time coping with the transition to the international branch campus and overcoming the challenges they faced in transition. Motivation to attend the international branch campus also impacted a participant's ability to cope with the transition, as participants that had a specific interest in Korean language and culture were more resilient to challenges faced in the transition. In terms of personality traits, while participants all presented unique personality traits that were different from one another, personality and disposition played a role in participants' ability to cope with the transition. The two traits participants self-identified that they felt attributed to their ability to cope with the transition were flexibility and initiative. A detailed discussion of each of the three input variables and their impact on the student transition experience to an international branch campus will follow.

Previous experience with transition. Perspective plays a key role in transitions as an event or non-event given that a transition only exists if it is defined by the individual experiencing it. If a change occurs and an individual does not attach much significance to it, the change would not be considered a transition (Schlossberg, 1981). Ten of the 11 participants identified at least one previous transition experience in their life that they felt was significant. Each of the 10 participants also identified their previous experience with a transition as an important factor in how they viewed their transition and their ability to cope with the transition. Isabella was the only participant that identified that she had no previous travel experiences outside of going to Canada, but

she did not feel that was a valuable transition experience that prepared her to transition to the international branch campus. Of the 10 participants that had experienced a significant transition, eight identified the previous transition had taken place internationally due to travel for an extended period of time, and two participants identified transitions domestically within the United States as significant experiences that impacted their preparation to transition.

As high school students, Olivia, Mia, and Riley all spent a summer semester studying the Korean language in South Korea through a government-sponsored scholarship or opportunity, with Mia spending a second summer semester studying in South Korea as well. Olivia noted that her interest emerged from the government scholarship she received to study in South Korea in high school, and that she chose to attend the home institution because it was one of the few schools in her state that had a Korean language program. Mia also commented that her interest in South Korea began in high school when she studied the language and spent two summers in South Korea. Learning about the international branch campus motivated her to attend the home campus so that she could take advantage of the opportunity to study in South Korea once again. All three participants remarked that their previous experience in South Korea impacted their perspective of the transition to the international branch campus to the extent that they did not perceive the transition with the same nerves or anxiety as another student might. Mia said, "I had been to Korea twice before, so I was kind of like, ok, I know how to get around, use transportation, and the living situation. I was not nervous." Olivia

agreed that her previous experience in South Korea made her a lot more comfortable traveling abroad to the international branch campus.

Aria, Zoe, Ava, and Jackson also identified an international transition experience that they felt played a role in their perspective of the transition to the international branch campus. Aria was born in another country and moved to the United States when she was thirteen years old. She commented that she knew what it was like to live in the unknown and that living in the unknown for the second time when she transitioned to the international branch campus was not that scary. Zoe spent a gap year in Belgium after she graduated high school, which was an experienced she attributed to helping her feel prepared for the transition to the international branch campus. Ava traveled extensively in her personal life before transitioning to the international branch campus and also lived abroad. She said that living in other countries prepared her well because she was used to living in a country where she was not familiar with the language but was able to still navigate and find her way around. Sophia was also born outside of the United States but lived in Hong Kong for a few years as a child, but when asked about what one experience best prepared her to transition to the international branch campus, she mentioned the pre-departure orientation she attended prior to leaving and did not mention her experience living abroad. Jackson also mentioned a personal trip to Japan as previous international travel experience, but did not attribute that experience as impactful on his ability to cope with the transition to the international branch campus.

Aiden and Emma did not have previous international travel experience, but did mention significant transition experience within the United States that they felt helped

prepare them for the transition to the international branch campus. Growing up, Aiden moved across the country from the Northwest to the Mid-Atlantic region in the United States and felt that the move was the best experience in helping him prepare to go to South Korea. He said that his experience moving was where he "managed to learn how to adapt…how to survive, how to be able to tell emotions, and how to just basically navigate my way around a new environment." Emma also agreed that her experiences moving around the Eastern part of the United States a lot as a kid helped prepare her for the transition to the international branch campus. She felt that although she had never been out of the country before, her previous experiences with moving and the fact that she was enrolled as an out-of-state student at the home campus prepared her to travel, be out of her comfort zone, and get settled in in a new environment.

Motivation to attend. Understanding each participant's motivation to attend the international branch campus is an important factor to consider when analyzing the transition experience and the support students felt they received in transition. Each participant was asked on the questionnaire their reasons for attending the international branch campus, and while responses varied due to differences in individual interests, the three main reasons participants stated were an interest in South Korea or Asian countries, general interest in studying abroad, and the opportunity to serve as a Peer Advisor, which is a student leadership position on the international branch campus. Seven participants listed their reason for attending as prior interest in Korea, Korean culture, Korean language, while two of the seven indicated a broader interest in studying in an Asian country, but did not have a particular interest in South Korea. Four participants indicated

their interest in the international branch campus stemmed from a general interest in studying abroad, and six participants stated that the opportunity to serve as a Peer Advisor, with a focus on the financial incentives of the student leadership position, was their main interest in attending. Six of the 11 participants stated two of these three reasons as their interest for attending the international branch campus.

Of the seven participants that indicated an interest in South Korea, Riley and Ava learned about the branch campus from online searches and specifically applied to the home campus in hopes of taking advantage of the international opportunity while enrolled as a student. Ava was a transfer student to the home campus and contemplated directly applying to attend the international branch campus as opposed to the home campus, but had difficulty communicating with the international branch camps during the admission process and applied to the home campus instead. Riley said the branch campus was a big reason why she applied to the home campus because once she heard about the opportunity she knew she wanted to do it based on her previous interest in Korean culture and language. The other five participants in this category all came to the home campus with a prior interest in Korea or Asian countries based off of previously being exposed to the culture, language, or customs in high school. For example, Olivia was ending her freshman year on the home campus when she learned about the establishment of the international branch campus. Her interest in the new campus was immediately sparked due to her previous experience studying in South Korea for a summer in high school. Isabella also had a previous interest in Korean culture and language and knew she wanted to study abroad in college, but was not initially aware of

125

the international branch campus when she applied to the home campus. All four of the participants that were interested in studying abroad in college were not aware of the international branch campus when they applied to the home campus.

The other main motivating factor for participants in deciding to study at the international branch campus was the opportunity to serve as a Peer Advisor. All six of the participants that indicated the Peer Advisor role as the main motivation to attend mentioned the financial incentive as being the number one reason why they chose to study at the branch campus. Participants who were Peer Advisors indicated that the position covered the cost of the flight to South Korea, housing on campus, majority of meals, as well as a stipend. Olivia said that her main motivation to attend was the financial incentives of the Peer Advisor role, because without them she said that she would not be able to fund the trip otherwise. Jackson agreed that the financial incentive of the Peer Advisor position made the experience feasible for him and his family. Aiden was a student leader on the home campus and served as a Resident Advisor for two years, and when he was unable to return to the position for a third year he learned about the Peer Advisor role on the branch campus and was attracted to the free housing and the financial incentive of the position. Aiden also noted his desire in his senior year to step outside of his comfort zone and try something new as an incentive of traveling to the branch campus. Besides Aiden, Isabella was the only other participant that mentioned motivations beyond finances as reasons why they were interested in serving as a Peer Advisor. Isabella was attracted to the opportunity to help others in the role, and said that

she "really likes to help students, volunteer, and be involved…and the position was a great combination of all of that."

Besides previous experiences, personal interests and financial incentives, another key factor that played in to all of the participants' motivation to attend was the support and guidance of one staff member on the home campus. Every single participant mentioned the important role a single staff member on the home campus played in their decision to travel to the international branch campus. When asked how they first learned about the branch campus, seven participants learned about the opportunity directly from the staff member coming to speak to a class, student club meeting or training they were part of on the home campus; two participants learned about it from online searches; one participant learned about it from a friend who had gone the semester before; and one participant learned about it from the campus television station running an ad. Regardless of how participants first learned about the campus, every participant listed one staff member on the home campus by name, and indicated that the support and guidance from that member was the reason why they actually went abroad. Sophia, Olivia, and Mia all noted what a great resource the staff member was in terms of answering questions, troubleshooting, and providing general support to them as they prepared to transition to South Korea. Aiden spoke about the important role the staff member played in helping him decide to attend the branch campus because at the time he was undecided and having trouble making a decision. Aiden said that the staff member "did not pressure me or anything…he was super transparent, talked to me about his perspective, and was very,

very personal." He went on to say that without the guidance and support of the staff member he never would have attended the branch campus.

Personality traits. All participants discussed unique personality traits that they felt they embodied. When participants were asked to reflect on these traits, they attributed these aspects of their personality to their ability to cope with the transition and challenges they faced in transition. Participants felt personality traits mattered in terms of a student's ability to be successful on the international branch campus, and as Zoe said, the experience "was not for everyone…not every student could be successful there." Participants spoke of personality traits such as open-mindedness, positivity, and self-motivation. Mia felt her positivity in particular was a personality trait that helped her overcome challenges she faced on the international branch campus, and said that she always "tries to think positively, so when something bad happens I just throw it out the window." Mia and Aiden also commented on the need for students at the international branch campus to remain open-minded during the transition experience as well. Aiden felt his transition experience was positively impacted by his ability to make friends with Korean students, which he attributed to his personality and open-mindedness. He said he insisted on "being open-minded to their culture and not trying to make my culture the best," and felt that he "made so many great relationships because I had an open mind and was able to immerse myself into their culture and be accepted". While a variety of personality traits were mentioned by participants, the two traits that were most frequently discussed by participants were initiative and flexibility.

The most commonly cited personality trait participants mentioned when reflecting on themselves in relation to their transition experience is the ability to take initiative and be proactive. Seven participants directly used the word "initiative" in describing themselves and their successes and challenges in transition, or used a story or example that demonstrated their level of initiative during various aspects of their transition. Sophia and Riley both indicated they felt they were "on their own" and that is was truly up to them to prepare themselves for the transition. Sophia commented that she felt she was not completely prepared by the home or international branch campus to transition, so early on in her preparation process she knew how important it was going to be for her to get involved in the process and seek information from staff on the home campus and the international branch campus. In terms of a student's experience on the branch campus, Olivia directly stated that initiative is an important personality trait that students should have, and advised that future students should understand "there are going to be a lot of opportunities, or like places where you can make an opportunity, but you are going to have to be responsible for making it happen yourself." Aria, Jackson, and Emma all commented on the importance of taking initiative when it comes to building relationships with other students on the branch campus. Jackson commented that it is up to home-campus students to "be active to meet new people because it's not guaranteed that the Korean students will come to you."

Given the fact that the international branch campus was newly established and constantly evolving, participants felt the ability to remain flexible to changing policies and procedures was an important personality trait as well. Sophia, Olivia, Zoe, and

Isabella all directly stated the importance of flexibility when transitioning, while other participants shared stories or instances where the researcher concluded that flexibility was being demonstrated. Sophia and Olivia both discussed flexibility in relation to their preparation for their transition to the international branch campus. Sophia remarked that she had a feeling inside her that she did not know what was going to happen, yet she felt prepared because she knew she could not anticipate all of the problems or challenges she was going to encounter. Olivia felt she did not have enough information before she departed, but was not worried about having too many questions because she "knew there were a lot of open-ended items that staff probably could not have answered until we got into the first semester." She continued on to indicate that a certain amount of flexibility was needed in the transition because it was the first semester the campus was in operation. Isabella agreed that her easy going, flexible personality lent itself well to the transition experience, especially since she had never traveled outside of North America before. In relation to her thoughts around her feelings leading in to the transition, Isabella commented, "there is no use in wasting time worrying before something happens," and that she "would rather go, take the challenges as they come and deal with them."

Age and Size of Campus Impacts Institutional Support during Transition

The second theme that emerged surrounds the institutional support participants felt they received in transition from both the home and host campuses. The theme suggests that both the age of the campus and the size of the student body created both opportunities and challenges that participants felt impacted the institutional support they

received in transition to the international branch campus. As mentioned in the first theme in this chapter, participants were very aware that the campus was less than four years old, and demonstrated an understanding of how age impacted the size of the student body, number of staff members and faculty, and the amount of resources available to students on the international branch campus. In sharing a challenge she faced in her initial days on the international branch campus, Sophia summed up this point best by saying, "…if you think more about it it's understandable, because the campus is new and maybe they just didn't think about these things yet." Participants felt the campus' age, meaning the age of the international branch campus itself and not the age of campus buildings, afforded them the opportunity to have a personalized experience where they could make an impact in the campus community. Participants also discussed how the campus' age and size presented a variety of challenges related to a lack of energy and activity on campus, and generally felt there was a lack of institutional support in the form of staff and resources from the international branch campus as they transitioned. A detailed discussion of how the size of the campus created both opportunities and challenges related to institutional support participants received in transition will follow.

Opportunities. Attending an international branch campus that is newly established and has an enrollment between 30 to 150 students provided a high level of accessibility to faculty and staff, and allowed participants to feel they could use their voice to make an impact on the growing campus. Eight of the 11 participants directly commented that they felt more of a connection to the international branch campus than they did the home campus, and the most frequent reason cited for this connection was the

small size of the campus community and they opportunities it presented to make a lasting impact. Sophia, Olivia, and Mia commented that they felt more attached to the branch campus than the home campus because they felt they were directly impacting the growth and development of the campus. Sophia commented that she could see how a little of her effort or participation helped the campus grow. Olivia agreed that the most rewarding part of her experience on the branch campus was that the community was small but tight-knit, and that she could see the direct results of her work as a Peer Advisor and a student on the campus. Mia called herself a pioneer of the branch campus and felt that because there were not thousands of students at the institution that student voices could be heard more clearly, and that even a few students could really make a difference on the branch campus.

Participants that attended the international branch campus in the first one to two semesters felt that the small size of the campus also forced students to interact with one another. When describing the reason for the closeness of the first cohort of home-campus students on the branch campus, Sophia said, "if you see them like five times a day for five days a week I'm pretty sure you're going to be pretty close to them by like a month or so." Olivia agreed that in the first semester when campus activities and student organizations were almost non-existent, that the lack of campus life created an opportunity for students to bond with one another in a way they would not have been possible if the campus community was larger and more established.
It is important to note that this finding did not hold true for participants that attended the branch campus in the third semester and beyond as the student population grew and

segregation between student groups existed. In particular, participants mentioned two opportunities created by the small campus size that positively impacted the level of institutional support they felt they received in transition; the personalized level of interaction with staff and faculty, and the opportunity to create student organizations and activities.

The number of faculty and staff affiliated with the international branch campus has slowly increased as the campus has grown in student enrollment and has become more established in its first four years of existence, ranging in size from 15 faculty and staff members specifically designated as employees of the branch campus in the early stages to 50 faculty and staff members currently. Compared to the thousands of faculty and staff employed by the home campus, the small size of the faculty and staff population afforded participants the opportunity to experience a high level of access and personal interaction that participants felt provided them support throughout the transition that they would not have received if the campus was larger. Aiden compared the staff from the home and host campuses and felt they two were very different as a whole based on their level of interaction with students. He noted that he was amazed at the level of interaction staff and faculty had with students and that he felt more personal engagement, a willingness to speak with students, and a general feeling of "love all around" faculty and staff had for students on the branch campus. Olivia and Jackson also commented on the individual attention faculty and staff gave students on the branch campus, with Olivia commenting that she does not think on the home campus she would have the opportunity to interact with university leadership in a way she was able to on the branch campus.

Emma and Riley also specifically mentioned appreciating the accessibility of staff members ranging from faculty all the way up to Deans on the branch campus. Emma shared multiple stories where she felt personally supported by a Dean when she encountered challenges in her adjustment to the campus. Nine participants mentioned a time when they felt supported by a faculty or staff member on the branch campus in a way that was more personal or meaningful due to the individualized level of attention a small campus community can afford. Mia summed up the community as small, welcoming, and "one big family."

Another benefit of the small size of the international branch campus community that participants identified as a positive impact to their transition experience was the ability to create student organizations and activities. Since the campus was young, participants had the opportunity to establish new student organizations and plan campus events that helped add activity to the campus that participants felt often lacked energy. Participants commented that these opportunities helped them to feel more connected to the campus, which they felt ultimately helped them cope with transition when challenges arose as they felt a loyalty to the branch campus community of which they were part. Jackson felt that joining a student organization specifically helped him cope with the transition. He was part of the student group that created a campus newspaper, and felt the experience gave students a purpose and helped them feel a connection to the branch campus. Zoe also mentioned that her involvement in planning a social event for the campus was her biggest achievement during her semester on the branch campus. Zoe's involvement in planning campus activities made her feel proud that she could be part of

something larger than herself, which she felt was a meaningful part of her transition experience. Riley and Isabella felt that establishing student organizations also helped them interact with their peers on a more personal, significant level, which was hard to achieve on the campus due to cliques and segregation amongst various student groups. Isabella also added that her involvement in student organizations positively impacted her transition experience as it helped her feel part of the campus culture rather than isolating herself from getting involved.

Challenges. Participants also felt the small size of the campus community and the age of the international branch campus as an organization created challenges that negatively impacted the institutional support provided as participants navigated the transition to the international branch campus. Although participants demonstrated an understanding of the campus' age and situation in terms of underdeveloped institutional resources and staffing, participants voiced an overall displeasure of the institutional support they received in transition. In terms of institutional support in the form of campus resources, participants expected certain resources such as counseling, a bookstore, mail room, and nurse, and were frustrated to find such resources were unavailable to them on the branch campus. Zoe specifically mentioned how surprised she was that key resources were missing because she expected the branch campus to be like her home campus but abroad. Six participants specifically expressed disappointment in the availability of resources on the branch campus that could have helped them cope with the transition. Jackson, Zoe, Riley, and Aiden felt counseling resources would have been extremely helpful for all students studying on the branch campus as there is a lot of stress

and pressure involved in transitioning to a higher education environment that students need access to professional counselors that can help them process topics and overcome obstacles. During the observation period on the branch campus the researcher did note the lack of campus resources as compared to those present on the home campus, but also noticed that a campus nurse was a resource that was available to the global campus community that was previously not available. In conversation with a current staff member of the international branch campus during the observation period, the researcher also learned that a shared counselor amongst all four universities on the global campus was being added in the spring 2017 semester.

     Lack of staff support. The two most prominent challenges caused by the branch campus' age and size were the lack of staff members to support students in transition as well as the lack of energy and activity on campus. While the small size of the branch campus staff provided participants personal interaction and access, participants also felt the small size of the staff resulted in a lack of support as everyone relied on one or two staff members who ultimately did not have the time or ability to focus on student needs and concerns. Excluding instructional faculty, the staff on the international branch campus were primarily organized into university leadership which consisted of deans and the president, as well as separate offices for academic and student affairs, accounting, information technology, and enrollment. Participants most frequently spoke of their interactions with staff in the offices of academic and student affairs and enrollment. When asked about how the international branch campus staff, excluding instructional faculty, provided support in the transition to the campus, nine participants commented on

feeling a lack of support, and participants observed it was because a small number of

people were doing the work of many. Jackson reflected on his interactions with the staff

and said that it seemed they were running the campus themselves because they were in

charge of everything from academics, registering students for classes, and helping

students with personal issues. Aiden's reflections on the support he felt from staff in his

role as a Peer Advisor resulted in him saying that the staff was "taking on at least a six-

man job and they were only doing it the three of them, so they didn't really have a lot of

time to interact with us or give us much direction."

Participants felt that the staff were accessible in terms of availability, but not all

participants felt they could to go to staff members if they were having a challenge. Six

participants mentioned that they gravitated to faculty, both Korean and foreign, because

they did not feel supported or understood by the staff. Zoe and Riley both mentioned that

faculty listened to students concerns more frequently than the staff. Zoe felt that faculty,

particularly non-Korean faculty, were the most supportive of her because they could

relate to what home campus students were going through with their transition, while the

staff who were Korean did not understand the challenges she was having. Emma also felt

that the foreigner faculty and staff were more supportive to home campus students, who

were also considered foreigners on the branch campus. Although Emma mentioned that

she did not want to come across as prejudiced, she felt "if you are a foreigner you are

going to understand the foreigners struggles a bit better than a Korean." Emma suggested

the branch campus increase the diversity of the staff in order to improve the institutions

ability to support all students.

Although as a whole participants expressed that they did not feel a high level of support from staff, every participant was able to describe at least one situation where they felt a staff member was helpful to them in their transition to the branch campus. The common theme amongst those instances was that almost all participants mentioned one staff member by name, and commented that this staff member was the one who everyone went to when they had questions or needed help. When asked why this staff member was the person students most relied on, Sophia said it was because the staff was so small and this staff member knew everything and was the most visible so students felt they knew this person the best. Sophia also said that even when they asked other staff members questions, they would end of asking this one staff member anyway, so students just went to the staff member directly. As previously mentioned in the first theme, participants also mentioned the important role one staff member on the home campus played in their pre-departure transition. It was clear from participant interviews that these two staff members were the most prominent sources of support during the transition to the international branch campus as all participants commented on them multiple times during the interview process. Because the size of the staff was small, participants expressed gratitude that for the two staff members who supported them throughout the transition, however, the challenge that arose regarding these two staff members was that they left their roles, one temporarily and one permanently, which caused participants to feel an enormous loss of institutional support. Emma commented that when one of the staff members she most relied on left she felt she did not have anybody else for support. She continued on to say that she wished there was more than one point of contact for students,

so if staff members leave students would still feel they have a connection to either the home or branch campuses.

Lack of energy and activity. The second most prominent challenge caused by the branch campus' age and size was the lack of energy and activity on campus. Student enrollment has continued to increase over the four years the branch campus has been in existence, with 285 students enrolled at the branch campus in this study as of the fall 2016 semester. In terms of the global campus and all four participating institutions, approximately 1,000 students are enrolled. The global campus was designed to accommodate 10,000 students total, therefore the current enrollment is only a small fraction of the intended enrollment, which serves as a challenge in terms of the level of energy and activity in the campus environment. Mia, Aria, Riley, and Zoe all commented at how surprised they were at the small size of the student body, with Mia, Riley, and Zoe both comparing their experience on the branch campus to high school in terms of the number of students and the drama and cliques that form in groups that size. Of the ten interviews the researcher completed before traveling to the branch campus to conduct observations, all 10 participants commented on the lack of activity and energy on the campus, with numerous participants referring to the campus as a ghost town that was isolated and extremely quiet. The researcher experienced first-hand what participants described in terms of a lack of energy and activity on campus. The researcher conducted observations in different buildings during various times over a five-day period, and rarely witnessed students, faculty, or staff congregating on campus both inside and outside of buildings. There were various times when the researcher would spend an hour walking

around the campus and visiting various buildings, and the only people encountered were two to three security guards. When the researcher asked current students enrolled in the branch campus if the desolate nature of the campus was common, the students agreed.

Two participants that attended the international branch campus during the first semester it was open mentioned how quiet the campus was, and much the campus lacked activities for students. Although every semester more students enroll on the branch campus, energy and activity are not present on campus, which was exemplified by comments made by participants that attended the campus in the third and fourth year the campus was in operation. Two participants that attended in the later years, compared the home and branch campuses and noted that while weekends on both campuses were pretty low energy, the branch campus was very deserted on weekends in addition to week days. Emma also agreed that although the campus had around 1,000 students enrolled, the campus felt very small, with little interaction between students and little activities to keep students busy. Olivia also described the campus as small, and said she wished there were more students and a better turnout for campus activities. Participants that served as Peer Advisors took part in planning events for students as part of their role, and expressed frustration at the low turnout in terms of student participation in events. Isabella noted that it was the same twenty students that would show up at events, and wished there were other events planned by Peer Advisors or others where she could meet other students. The researcher also had the opportunity to observe campus events. There were two workshops offered exclusively for students at the institution in this study that the researcher attended: one workshop had zero students attend, while the other was attended

by approximately 30 students due to the fact it was a course requirement. The researcher

also attended two campus events where all students on the global campus were invited.

Both events had between 50 to 75 students in attendance.

Peer Support Impacts Ability to Cope with Transition

The third theme that emerged emphasizes the role of peer support in transition.

Although cliques existed within the student body that caused segregation both within the

institution and between all institutions on the global campus, participants most relied on

peer support to cope with the transition. Peer support came from Korean students,

international students, as well as from other home campus students studying at the

international branch campus. Participant dissatisfaction with the amount of institutional

support they received in transition from the international branch campus was one reason

why peer support became so prominent in the transition, and particularly in the initial

days participants arrived on the branch campus. Conversely, participants who were not

Peer Advisors did not seek out support from students who served in those roles, and

participants who were Peer Advisors did not feel they could appropriately support other

students in transition when they were transitioning themselves. Language also emerged

as an important part of this theme, as language served as both a barrier and a bridge to

students connecting with one another on the campus. This theme of the importance of

peer support in the initial transition to the international branch campus will first be

explored, with an exploration of the role of language as a barrier and a bridge to follow.

Peer support during initial transition. Participants were asked a series of

interview questions about their first few days on the international branch campus in order

to better understand their transition experience and the institutional support they initially received. Participants expressed disappointment that the international branch campus did not provide more guidance and assistance for students the first few days they were on the campus, and in particular on the first day they arrived to the campus. Riley described her first day on the international branch campus as "rough and very discombobulated", and said she wished there could have been a staff member there to help her navigate the campus and the area when she arrived as she felt she had no guidance from the institution. Isabella attended the branch campus a different semester than Riley, and described a similar situation as she also described the first day as rough, and felt that initially she had no direction or guidance from the staff. Isabella continued to say she is "still a little bitter about the fact that I had fend for myself for the first couple of days…and that there was no one there to meet us." Olivia and Mia were the only participants that did not express frustration or dissatisfaction with the support they received from staff in transition. A few participants spoke of a university orientation that they attended in the initial days on the international branch campus, and there was a mixed reaction to how helpful participants found the orientation to be in navigating the transition. Sophia directly said that the orientation did not help with the transition at all, while Zoe and Riley found the orientation to be helpful and exciting since they got to meet all of the other students, both foreign and domestic, attending the international branch campus. Aiden and Isabella did not remember attending an orientation on the campus, and both participants said they remembered feeling frustrated that there was not an orientation where they could learn about the culture and the campus.

Participants expressed gratitude for the support their peers provided in the first few days on the international branch campus. Participants commented that support came from both home-campus students that traveled to the branch campus with them, as well as domestic students from Korea. Participants described multiple situations where they relied on their peers on the international branch campus and helped each other adjust to the transition to both the campus and the surrounding area in Korea. Zoe told a story about her first night on the international branch campus and how she would have been lost without the help of another home-campus student that had studied at the campus the previous semester. Riley and Aria, who attended different semesters, also shared stories about how other students were the ones that helped them and their peers get settled into the residence hall and buy necessities they needed when they arrived. Isabella, Aiden, and Sophia also commented that they relied on another home-campus student that they traveled with to figure out how to navigate campus and find the resources they needed to get settled. Traveling to the international branch campus to conduct observations allowed the researcher to experience pieces of what participants did when they transitioned. The researcher arrived to Korea on a weekend evening and had to find the campus, navigate the housing check-in process, and traverse the city in order to buy necessities that were expected to be provided in the campus housing but were not. The researcher was able to reflect on the challenges and frustrations of her own transition experience to establish a better understanding of the experience participants described.

An element of peer support that participants did not describe as being particularly helpful was the Peer Advisors. When participants that served as Peer Advisors were

asked to describe their role on the campus a variety of answers were shared that included helping students adjust to the international branch campus, planning campus events, and educating the Korean students about the home campus experience. Participants that were Peer Advisors said the most frequent reason students sought them out was to help them with their essays or papers as they were in English and that was not all students' first language. It was unclear what the role of the Peer Advisor actually was on the campus, which Isabella postulated was a reason why she felt they were not a resource that was well utilized by students. Participants that were not Peer Advisors also commented that they did not find the Peer Advisors in their roles to be helpful because they were viewed more as friends and less as an authority or expert since they too were new to the campus just like they were.

Participants did not feel the student leadership position was particularly helpful because the students serving in the roles were just as new to the campus as the students not serving in the roles, so it was difficult for them to be supportive when they were transitioning themselves. Aria was challenged in her role as a Peer Advisor because she felt she was the one who was confused and needed guidance, and that she was not equipped to help others. Ava was not a Peer Advisor, but did not feel comfortable going to her Peer Advisors because she felt they were "just as lost as everybody else." Sophia was the only participant that spoke highly of the Peer Advisors she had the semester she attended the branch campus. She said that if she had any problems or questions she would go to the Peer Advisors for support and they would be helpful, but Sophia also felt

that all of the home campus students, regardless of if they were actually a Peer Advisor or not, served as each other's advisor and support system.

Language as a barrier and a bridge to connection. An element of the peer support theme that was prominent in both participant interviews and researcher observations is the role language played in connecting domestic and foreign students. The international branch campus is an English-speaking campus where courses are taught in English and all students are encouraged to speak English not only inside the classroom but outside of the classroom as well. Regardless of the policies of the campus surrounding English language use, participants noted and the researcher observed that students most frequently spoke in their native language in between classes and in social settings such as the cafeteria and student lounges. Participants felt the use of different languages, particularly Korean and English, caused an additional level of segregation within the institution when segregation amongst institutions on the global campus was already very prominent. Participants noted that the varying levels of segregation, first starting with a distinct separation between students attending the four institutions on the global campus. Within the institution in this study, another level of separation existed, and that was between Korean students and foreign students, of which the home campus students were part. The different levels of segregation within the student population made it difficult for participants to acculturate as a new student on a campus where cliques previously existed and language served as a barrier to connection.

The segregation between institutions is important to understand when discussing the role language played in creating peer support networks for participants, because it

limited the number of students participants would interact with to only those enrolled in their own institution. Six participants directly spoke to the lack of interaction between students at the four institutions on the global campus. Mia suggested that the first institution to establish itself on the campus felt they were superior to the other institutions that later joined, which was part of the reason as to why there was a rivalry of sorts among institutions. Aiden also noted a tension he felt on campus between both students from each institution but also between staff and administration. Ava did not attribute the segregation to a rivalry, but instead to institutional pride. She commented on the important role letterman jackets played on the global campus, as it was extremely popular in Korean higher education for students to wear a letterman jacket representing their school. The researcher observed a prominence of letterman jackets on the campus, which were helpful for the researcher to decipher which students belonged to which university. It was because of the letterman jackets that the researcher could clearly see a segregation between institutions in social spaces and at campus events. Emma wished she would have known how segregated the students from all of the campuses were before she attended, and felt that part of the reason why a separation existed was due to the fact that each university was separated by floor in a large building and in the residence halls. By the time the researcher visited the international branch campus, each institution had its own academic building where classrooms and administrative offices were located.

The next level of segregation existed between domestic and foreign students within the institution, with language being cited by participants as the main reason why a separation existed. It was not a requirement of participants to learn Korean or take

Korean courses while they were studying on the international branch campus, but one of the most frequently cited concerns of participants before traveling abroad was the language barrier. Participants initial concerns with the Korean language were focused on the role it would play in their interactions with other students, as well as their ability to navigate the surrounding campus community and the country itself. Jackson recognized that a language barrier would be part of his transition experience, but also assumed that all students on the branch campus would be fluent in English, which he felt was not the case. He said "it was a rough transition interacting with the Korean students...some were engaged in getting to know American students...but there was a struggle in the beginning having students talk to us because of the language barrier." Sophia noted that if home-campus students did not try to speak to speak to Korean students in Korean, then no attempt was made from the Korean students to interact with the home-campus students. Riley also noted that Korean students would stick to their friend groups and would only speak in Korean, which she felt was a huge problem in terms of making friends outside of the home-campus student population.

Zoe felt the language barrier made her and other home-campus students feel really left out, and told a story of confrontation she had with some Korean students about how their use of the Korean language was isolating the foreign students. She requested that her peers speak English in a group text messaging system that included all students enrolled at the institution, but said her request was brushed off and ignored, and that Korean students kept communicating in Korean. Although she understood the natural desire for people to primarily speak a language they are most comfortable with, Zoe said

she felt very closed off and frustrated by the reoccurring situation. Riley and Emma, who

attended the branch campus in different semesters, also mentioned the same text

messaging scenario as Zoe, and felt Korean students were purposefully excluding the

foreign students by not speaking in English. Aiden also commented on the role of

language as a barrier to connection, and felt one of the biggest things he noticed about

Korean students is that Koreans are shy and are not comfortable speaking in English

because they feel their language skills are not good enough. Aiden also commented that

he understood that segregation between student groups based on language was common,

"because when you are comfortable speaking your own language, you all stick together."

Participants did note instances where both English and Korean languages served

as a bridge to connect student groups that were otherwise segregated. Riley used her

desire to learn the Korean language as a way to approach Korean students so she could

practice her skills, but also attributed her positive outlook of the situation to her outgoing,

open personality. When reflecting on her time on the branch campus she felt her ability

to connect with all students, not just other foreign or home-campus students, really

helped her transition more smoothly. She attributed her ability to connect to her desire to

speak Korean, and said that Korean students "tended to come to me more and talk to me

more because they felt I could speak some Korean and that I kind of get them."

Participants also noted that Korean students would interact with home-campus students

because of a desire to improve their English language skills. Emma felt that if students

would want to practice their English skills they would seek her out. In reflecting on life

experiences that best prepared her to transition to the branch campus, Ava felt it was her

experience branching out and speaking to other people that want to improve their English that helped her form many friendships with Korean students. Even when Ava would try and practice her Korean skills, she felt students would automatically switch to English because they would "see me and think yes I can use it – a free tutor!" Sophia and Aiden also felt they bonded with Korean students over a mutual desire to learn each other's language. They attributed their ability to connect well with Korean students to their comfortability approaching them and asking for help in learning the language. They both expressed that their desire to branch out beyond English-speaking friends in an effort to learn the Korean language also was key in their formation of friendships and a connection with Korean students.

Lack of Connection Between Campuses Impacts Institutional Support

The fourth and final theme that emerged from the data analysis process is the lack of connection between the home and branch campuses. Participants felt the two campuses did not communicate properly, which caused disorganization where policies constantly changed and questions were often left unanswered. Participants also noted a general feeling of unpreparedness, as they felt both campuses did not work together effectively to prepare them for the transition. Expectations were not managed appropriately by the home and host campus and participants did not feel they were given the full picture of what the experience was like on the international branch campus. Participants tried to research various items about Korea and the international branch campus on their own, particularly surrounding Korean culture and customs, an area participants did not feel well educated. Ultimately, the lack of communication and

connection between the two campuses negatively impacted the transition experience of participants and caused challenges that participants felt would not have been present in an international branch campus that was more established. This theme will be explored in two sections which both highlight the lack of connection between home and host campuses: lack of preparation and lack of communication.

Lack of preparation. As previously discussed in an earlier theme, participants expressed an understanding that the international branch campus was relatively new and that certain elements of the experience would be solidified as students enrolled on the branch campus. However, even with that understanding, participants felt both campuses did not adequately prepare them or provide enough institutional support to ensure a seamless, cohesive transition experience. Riley described the pre-departure preparation as disorganized which made her nervous and apprehensive about what her experience would be like on the branch campus. She also said she knew students that did not end up going to the international branch campus because the whole pre-departure process was too messy and "too much". Jackson and Zoe felt the pre-departure preparation was rushed and both expressed frustration that the semester they went they were initially told a departure date, and then weeks later were informed of a new departure date that was six weeks earlier than they had planned. Zoe said, "I remember just crying because I was like, you're telling me I have to leave six weeks earlier and be gone for a month and a half longer? I was just like no, and I didn't want to go." Participants noted that policies and rules were constantly changing which would cause significant confusion among the students that had applied to attend the branch campus. The length and content of the pre-

departure orientation did change based on which semester the participant attended, and some participants were able to highlight those changes by noting what they attended or had to participate in and how they knew it was different from what later cohorts attended.

When asked about how the institution helped them prepare for the transition to the international branch campus, all participants mentioned a pre-departure orientation they attended on the home campus in the weeks leading up to the transition. Participants had varying opinions on the quality and thoroughness of the pre-departure orientation. Overall, participants felt the pre-departure orientation was sufficient in covering the basic logistics of the transition, but that it lacked depth in Korean culture and customs, as well as did not address key items such as housing, campus activities, and campus location. Riley felt the institution could have done a better job preparing students for how drastically different the home and host campuses were from one another, and felt that having an accurate mindset would have greatly impacted her transition experience. Sophia felt that she was very unprepared to transition and that the pre-departure orientation was not helpful at all because it only covered the basic, common sense items. Two participants did express that they were satisfied with the pre-departure orientation and the information they received from the home and host campuses before they transitioned. It is important to note that both of these participants were Peer Advisors, so they were required to attend additional training sessions which one participant commented felt was the reason why she felt more prepared than her peers. However, also important is the fact that five participants that served as Peer Advisors noted that they did

not feel the additional training they received helped prepare to better navigate the transition to the international branch campus.

One area that participants specifically felt misinformed about was the location of the campus and how it was not as close to Seoul as they felt they were told it was. Olivia, Mia, Aria, and Emma wished they would have known how isolated the campus was, and Sophia felt she did not know where the campus was, which caused her to feel very scared about the transition. Isabella felt she was misled as to the location of the campus, and expressed frustration about being misinformed, saying that the fact that the campus was a lot more isolated than the home campus led us to believe really bothered her. Participants also identified a gap in information relating to on-campus housing accommodations, and felt that the campuses did not work together well to provide an accurate picture as to what the accommodations were like and what items students needed to bring with them. Sophia felt that they were not informed where they were going to stay, what the rooms looked like, or if they needed to bring certain materials like sheets, towels, etc. Aiden suggested that the home and host campuses purposefully withheld information about housing from students because they do not want students to know anything negative about the campus, and he felt the size of the rooms and the fact that Mason does not own the housing facilities were negative aspects the branch campus wanted to keep hidden.

Another area where participants felt underprepared in the transition was in their knowledge and understanding of Korean culture and customs. Participants most frequently cited culture shock as an area they were most concerned about before the transition to the branch campus. Six participants expressed disappointment that the pre-

departure orientation lacked information that would expose them to Korean culture. Participants noted that the pre-departure orientation warned them of culture shock, but did not teach them any skills to help them cope with culture shock or explain how the culture would be different from American culture. Aiden said that staff members on the home campus "basically told us you have to go find out for yourself." Emma said that in hindsight she wished the pre-departure orientation covered more about the culture, as she felt she encountered some challenges that could have been avoided if she would have been better prepared to anticipate Korean customs. Isabella understood that living in another country could mean a rocky transition, but also felt that because she was transitioning to a branch of her own institution, that the big transition was the culture and that she was not adequately prepared. Participants that previously traveled to Korea and stayed for an extended period of time did not express the same concerns over culture shock. Riley shared that the idea of culture shock was a little less intimidating for her, although she did anticipate experiencing it to a certain extent.

In discussing the institutional support received as they transitioned to the international branch campus, participants were asked to reflect on their initial days and weeks on the campus, and comment on anything in particular that most helped them adjust to the transition. As previously discussed in the theme relating to peer support, participants recalled that they were disappointed with the support and guidance they received from the institution during their initial days on campus, and heavily relied on their peers to adjust to the new environment. When asked if the branch campus provided any orientation or transition program for them when they arrived, some participants

shared that they could not recall attending one, while others that could recall said it was not helpful to them in the transition experience. Aiden recalled him and his peers complaining about the lack of an orientation experience on the campus and said that they hoped there would be an orientation that covered the culture or the campus. Sophia vividly recalled her experience attending the on-site orientation, and told a story about how unwelcomed she felt by the global campus at that time. She said there was confusion as to whether the home campus students needed to attend the orientation or not, and when they attended, everything was in Korean, and they were asked to sign a pledge of sorts that was in Korean, and that no one was there to translate the document for them into English. Sophia said that in her opinion "it is an international campus…so wouldn't it be a normal for them to use English so we could understand?" Zoe and Riley did recall enjoying the social aspect of the orientation they attended, because they were able to meet the other students that were attending the branch campus with them. Ava was the only participant that felt the on-site orientation was extremely helpful and taught her everything she needed to know to feel prepared to transition and adjust to the campus.

Lack of communication. On multiple occasions participants told stories of frustrations or challenges that they attributed to a lack of communication between the home campus and the international branch campus. Challenges revolved around being misinformed about dates, deadlines, policies, and procedures were most frequently cited by participants during the interview process. Ava told a story about how she incurred a huge fee from her bank to transfer funds before she left because she was instructed by the home campus to do so, when in reality she learned on the international branch campus

154

that she could have paid fees on her credit card and avoided any additional charges. When Ava spoke to a staff member on the home campus about the situation afterwards, she was told that the home campus could never get answers from the international branch campus either, so the staff member was not surprised that a policy was different than what they had thought. Ava said that was one of the many miscommunications she experienced where she felt the home campus and the branch campus were not on the same page. Emma also shared multiple stories relating to travel and transportation where she felt there was a lack of communication between the home and host campus. She initially received guidance from the home campus about what date to schedule her return flight to the United States, but staff members on the branch campus told her she could not stay that long and that she had to leave earlier or else she had to pay additional money to stay extra days. Riley felt that the administration on the international branch campus was very disorganized, which caused a lot of miscommunications, and Sophia told a story that illustrated the disorganization of the branch campus, which resulted in her being locked up for hours in the immigration office due to misinformation she received from staff members about her alien registration card.

Two participants noted challenges related to misinformation they received relating to academics. Mia noted what she called a "dysfunctional relationship" between the two campuses that caused her challenges registering for courses appropriate to her degree plan, which she says was ultimately resolved when the home campus got involved. Sophia suggested that even though both campuses were affiliated with the same institution, that she did not feel a strong connection between them related to the

academic experience. She felt that her academic advisors on the home campus did not understand the international branch campus system and were unhelpful to her when she was trying to map out her coursework while abroad. Sophia felt that both campuses were "working on their own" and that a staff member that could connect the two campuses would have been very helpful to her in the transition. Olivia was the only participant that felt a strong connection between the home campus and the international branch campus.

The lack of communication participants felt existed between the home and branch campuses impacted the connection participants felt between the campuses as well. When asked how it felt to attend a branch of their institution abroad, nine participants said they felt it was an entirely different institution, with little to no links to the home campus, and a lack of school spirit and pride. Sophia felt because both campuses had their own systems and did not communicate well, that it felt like a whole new place with no ties to the home campus. Zoe attributed the disconnect to a struggle in ideals between the home campus and the branch campus as to how the branch campus should operate and what identity it should assume. Zoe felt the branch campus is trying to be a mini version of the home campus but that staff on the branch campus are trying to do things the "Korean way." She told a story of a situation as a Peer Advisor where she felt frustrated because staff on the home campus wanted her to promote activities, events, and traditions of the home campus, where the staff on the branch campus would tell her it was a Korean campus and they needed to do things the Korean way. Isabella also noticed a tension in identity of the branch campus, and felt like the two experiences on the home and branch campus were not connected at all. She observed that the institution "wants to have this

156

American school in Korean, but wanted it the Korean way" and urged the institution to make up their mind and decide if they want to be international or if they want to be Korean.

The conflicting identity of the international branch campus also impacted school spirit and pride participants felt in attending the branch campus. Participants felt that although elements of the home campus were present in the form of school colors and institutional emblems, both school spirit and the feeling of attending the home campus abroad was lacking. Five participants noted that developing school spirit and pride takes time, and attributed a lack of both to the fact that the international branch campus was so young. Emma and Mia noted that the spirit and atmosphere from the home campus has to come from the home campus, and felt that the more home campus students that attended the branch campus the more spirited the campus would become. Aria agreed that it was the people that would make the branch campus feel like the home campus, not buildings or facilities. Aiden felt that school spirit was low on both the home and branch campuses, so in fact the branch campus did feel similar to the home campus. Ava also felt the branch campus felt exactly like home campus, but acknowledged that she only spent one semester on the home campus before attending the branch campus so that may impact her feelings on the campus environment.

A few participants noted the hope they had for an increase in school spirit and pride once the institution's new building opened on the branch campus that would solely house resources for that institution, as opposed a shared building model that participants in this study experienced when they were on the campus. None of the participants

interviewed attended the branch campus when the new building was operational, although two participants have visited the branch campus since the new building opened and noted they felt an immediate increase in school spirit and pride. The researcher visited the floor of the building the institution previously occupied before the new building opened, as well as spent time in the new building that opened a few months before the researcher arrived. Both spaces were adorned in the institution's colors and had logos and images of the home and branch campus plastered all over the walls. In speaking informally with students who were enrolled on the international branch campus and have spent time in both institutional spaces, the researcher learned that the new building has increased institutional pride students feel now that they have a space to call their own that is personal to them and unique to the institution itself.

Summary

The themes presented in this chapter illustrate both successes and challenges of the transition experience of home-campus students at an international branch campus. Participants felt the small size and young age of the international branch campus provided opportunities to make their mark and form a connection in a way they were unable to on the home campus. This connection positively impacted the student transition experience as participants' attachment to the branch campus helped them be more resilient when obstacles arose. A participant's ability to cope with the transition also correlated to their previous experiences, level of motivation, and embodiment of personality traits such as initiative and flexibility. Findings also showed that student perspectives of the constant growth and development of the international branch campus

also negatively impacted the participant transition experience as institutional resources were lacking, policies and rules were constantly changing, and the staff was small and at times disorganized and misinformed.   Lastly, findings addressed the perspectives of home-campus students about the institutional support they received in transition, and demonstrated that although participants appreciated the accessibility of staff on both the home and host campus, ultimately participants expressed a lack of institutional support they received in transition. The lack of institutional support highlighted the important role participants' peers played in providing support in a way the international branch campus could not. The implications of these findings will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Five

This study explored the student transition experience to an international branch campus, with a focus on student perspectives of the institutional support they received throughout the transition. Based upon the findings presented in chapter four, this chapter contains an analysis of emergent themes from the data collection and demonstrates how previous research on the student transition experience and international branch campuses relates to ideas and concepts found in the study. An analysis was conducted both within and across each thematic network, with analysis based within each of the four thematic networks presented in the discussion section, and analysis across all four networks presented in the implications section. The chapter will conclude recommendations for future study.

Discussion

This study utilized a phenomenological case study research design to better understand how participants experienced a phenomenon, the transition to an international branch campus which is a unique, globalized learning environment. This topic is not well represented in the literature, therefore the researcher focused on an open-ended exploration that used research questions for guidance, but did not apply predetermined categories during analysis which allowed for an in-depth level of openness and detail. Themes that emerged during the data collection and analysis processes represent different

elements of participant experiences, and when woven together, provide greater insight into the transition to an international branch campus and how institutions can better support students in transition. It is no surprise to the researcher that there are components of each theme that affirm or challenge the literature previously presented in chapter two. More surprising is the relevance the theories of student transition played in the analysis of each theme and the researcher's attempts to make sense of how themes fit together. The findings themselves have both positive and negative interpretations and considerations, which will be explored further in this chapter. An analysis of each theme will be presented, with literature and relevant components of theories of student transition incorporated as applicable.

Input variables impact ability to cope with transition. Astin (1991), Schlossberg (1981), and Ward et al. (2001) indicate that input variables are important to consider when analyzing a transition because they can significantly impact how a student both perceives and copes with a transition. The researcher anticipated that input variables could be important to the outcome of the study based on findings in the literature. The researcher chose thirteen variables (Appendix C) to include on the questionnaire that were selected from Astin (1991) and Schlossberg's (1981) theories of transition that also were outlined in the literature as important variables to consider when studying students in transition. With various input variables collected and individual differences and uniqueness taken into account, the researcher was not certain what, if any, input variables would show up in a significant way in the data analysis process. One input variable the researcher initially anticipated to be significant was sex and/or gender, as the literature

(Astin, 1991; Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995; Lee, 2009) suggested this input variable could show significant differences in transition experiences between groups. Only two participants that identified as males elected to participate in the study. Although there were no significant differences in the transition experiences between the two males and nine females in the study, it is possible that having more males participate in the study could highlight differences between sex and/or gender that were not present in this study.

An unanticipated input variable that emerged in this study is that seven of the 11 participants in this study served as Peer Advisors on the international branch campus. Once this pattern in input variables was realized, the researcher anticipated that involvement in this role would significantly impact the findings related to the transition experience of participants. Peer Advisors are required to attend different trainings and are exposed to different experiences than their peers that do not serve in the role, which the researcher feared would influence their preparation and ability to cope with the transition. However, the researcher was surprised that the only time the Peer Advisor role showed up in a significant way in the findings was related to motivation to attend the branch campus. Six of the seven Peer Advisors indicated that the main reason they decided to attend the international branch campus was due to the financial benefits of serving in the role. Two participants even went as far as saying that they would not have been interested in attending the international branch campus if it were not for the financial benefits. The role of Peer Advisor did not significantly influence findings on other elements of the transition experience including participant perspectives of institutional support received in transition.

A participant's previous experience with transition proved to be an important factor in understanding their ability to cope with the transition. More importantly, it was not just participants with previous travel experiences abroad that could be linked to this finding, but also participants that identified significant life transitions within the United States. Schlossberg (Chickering & Schlossberg,1995) suggests that perspective plays a key role in analyzing transitions, because if a change occurs and an individual does not attach much significance to it, then the change would not be considered a transition. Initially the researcher thought the theme of previous experiences with transition would only relate to previous international travel experience, as eight participants identified significant transition experiences that involved international travel to or from the United States that they felt best prepared them for the transition to the international branch campus. However, further analysis revealed that it was not just previous international travel experience that mattered to participants in terms of preparedness. This finding both reflects the role of previous transition experience as outlined Schlossberg's (1981) theory of student transition, and also extends its application to complement the literature on the student transition to an international branch campus.

Motivation to attend the branch campus and personality traits were also key to understanding participants' ability to cope with the transition. This finding confirmed what Schlossberg (Chickering & Schlossberg,1995) proposed, which is self and situation, factors within the transition theory, are intertwined. Responses related to motivation to attend the branch campus varied due to differences in individual interests, the most influential motivating factor for participants to attend was due to advice and guidance

163

from one staff member on the home campus. This finding aligns with two studies by Wilkins and Huisman (2011, 2015) that show recommendations and feedback from others are two of the greatest influences of students attending an international branch campus. The influence of one staff member on the home campus was clear, as every single participant mentioned the important role that staff member on the home campus played in their decision to travel to the international branch campus. This finding demonstrates that staff members can play an influential role in a student's motivation to attend, and also highlights how problematic it can be for students to rely on and feel supported by only one staff member throughout the transition. Participants that were attending the international branch campus when the staff member left the home campus to pursue a job elsewhere shared that they felt a significant loss of support when the staff member departed, and even participants that had previously attended the branch campus commented on how sad they were when they learned that that staff member was not working on the home campus anymore.

The most unexpected finding of this theme was the emergence of specific personality traits that participants identified as key for a student to have when transitioning to an international branch campus environment, particularly one that was new and developing. Literature on student transition theory and student motivation to attend international branch campuses suggest that personality traits such as positivity and flexibility are important in assessing a student's willingness to overcome obstacles and cope with challenges in transition to a new environment (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995; Schlossberg, 1981; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). The findings of this study

164

support the literature by confirming the importance of personality traits to a student's ability to be successful on the international branch campus in this study. Participants spoke of personality traits such as open-mindedness, positivity, and self-motivation, with the ability to take initiative and be proactive emerging as the two most commonly cited personality traits mentioned when participants reflected on themselves in relation to their transition experience. In thinking about the context of the transition, and particularly the environment in which the transition took place, a new, developing branch campus, it makes sense to the researcher that traits such as positivity, flexibility, and initiative would be important.

Participants shared a number of challenges they experienced in the transition to the branch campus which the researcher thought would have negatively impacted participants' overall experience. The researcher was continually surprised at how positively participants spoke of their experiences, even when countless obstacles and challenges were expressed. The most remarkable example of this can be found in Sophia's experiences. She shared many challenges she felt she encountered in her time on the branch campus, and one story in particular stood out: she was locked up in the immigration office for a few hours because she was misinformed by the international branch campus as to whether or not she needed an alien registration card. Sophia expressed how scared and frustrated she was in that situation, but yet expressed a sincere attachment to the international branch campus. In summing up her sentiments Sophia said "We had a lot of trouble, so it was not always the best experience. But then you kind of feel like, ok, I've been through so much in this place and you get attached to it." The

researcher did not anticipate participants sharing feelings of attachment to the international branch campus given the number of challenges students experienced. Schlossberg (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995) noted that individuals with effective coping skills demonstrate flexibility and use multiple coping modes such as information seeking or direct action to overcome obstacles, and the findings from this study support the idea that input variables can impact one's ability to cope with a transition.

Age and size of campus impacts institutional support during transition. This theme suggests that both the age of the campus and the size of the student body created both opportunities and challenges that participants felt impacted the institutional support they received in transition to the international branch campus. Astin's (1991) I-E-O model theorizes that it is impossible to assess student inputs without also considering the educational environment, therefore it is understandable that environmental factors such as campus age and student body size could impact student outcomes or in this case, the institutional support students felt their received during their transition to the international branch campus. Additionally, as a phenomenological case study, it would be impossible to understand the bigger picture of the transition experience without consider the context, or the environment, in which the case occurred (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2014). Astin's (1991) model identified seven classifications of environment variables which amounted to 192 different environmental measures. The researcher did not intend to focus on any of Astin's variables in particular as this study was exploratory in nature, however, the size of the student body and age of the campus emerged as two

environmental factors that were most impactful to the institutional support participants felt they received in transition.

In understanding the transition experience of participants in this study, it is important to remember that the campus opened in spring 2014, and at that time only 40 students were enrolled. Over the past three years, the enrollment has continued to grow, with over 285 students enrolled as of the fall 2016 semester. Two participants that attended the international branch campus every semester up until fall 2016 are included in this study, with one semester having three participants represented. The researcher aimed to include at least two participants from every cohort of home-campus students that transitioned to the international branch campus as to represent a variety of perspectives during different points in the development and growth of the branch campus. The researcher expected the transition experience of participants that attended the international branch campus in its first semester of operation to be very different from the transition experience of participants in the most recent cohort. In anticipation of understanding the growth and development of the international branch campus over time, the researcher read and coded interview transcripts in chronological order, with participants that attended the initial semester the campus coded first. While participants did note changes in the international branch campus as it grew, such as increased student enrollment or the establishment of student organizations, what was most remarkable was that the transition experience amongst students that attended the first semester did not differ drastically from the transition experience of students that attended the fifth semester. The themes presented in the previous chapter are themes that extend across all

five semesters, and while an occasional outlier or dissenting opinion or experience existed, themes are reflective of the experience of all 11 participants, regardless of the semester in which they attended the branch campus.

One major campus development that could have caused an impact on the researcher's analysis of the participant transition experience was the opening of three new institution-specific buildings on the campus. Prior to the establishment of these buildings, three of the four institutions on the branch campus shared one building, each with their own floor that housed classrooms, student lounge space, institutional resources, and administrative offices. The new building for the institution in this study opened in the summer of 2016, allowing students, faculty, and staff of the institution a more personalized, private space that was solely for that institution. None of the participants in this study attended the branch campus when the new building opened, therefore all participants experienced the shared-building model, which allowed the researcher to draw comparisons across semesters in terms of environmental factors. When the researcher visited the international branch campus to conduct observations, the new building was fully operational, but the resources and staff that occupied the old building was the exact same that occupied the new building. The researcher does not feel the inability to conduct all observations in the same physical space occupied by participants impacted the data collection or analysis of findings of this study. The researcher was able to visit the floor of the building the institution used to occupy, however observations of the campus were not conducted entirely in the same location in which participants experienced the campus.

Opportunities and challenges. The age of the campus and the size of the student body created both opportunities and challenges participants identified related to the support the institution provided to students in transition. The fact that participants were transitioning from a home campus with a student enrollment of 34,000 to a new international branch campus with an enrollment between 30 and 150 students, it was expected that participants would express challenges transitioning to a vastly different campus environment. What was not expected was the opportunities participants expressed that the campus age and size afforded them. With the literature full of negative undertones and a plethora of challenges about the riskiness of ventures like international branch campuses, the researcher was pleasantly surprised that a variety of positive aspects of the participant experience emerged in the findings. Participants expressed a genuine attachment to the international branch campus that some did not even feel towards the home campus. A large part of that connection stemmed from participants feeling they were able to make an impact by establishing student organizations, and that their voices could be heard more clearly since there were not thousands of students at the institution. The findings related to participant attachment and connection to the international branch campus have tremendous significance because they reflect a side of the student experience that is not frequently explored, highlighted, or discussed in the literature on international branch campuses.

With opportunities also come challenges, and findings from this study indicated that in general, participants were unsatisfied with the institutional support they received on the international branch campus due to a lack of resources available to them as they

transitioned. Counseling services was one resource that participants noted could have been extremely helpful to them as they navigated the transition and the emotions and stress that often come from being part of a new culture and environment. When trying to reason as to why a resource so prominent on the home campus was not present on the international branch campus, a few participants suggested it was because the Korean culture frowns upon discussing mental health issues. Three participants also felt disability services was a much-needed resource. Participants did not identify a personal need for this resource, but two of the three participants did note that they felt there were students who could have benefitted from access to disability services. Participants also acknowledged disabilities were not a topic Koreans were open to discussing, therefore it was not a prominent resource that the branch campus would have in its initial years. The literature suggests that one of the determinants of student satisfaction at an international branch campus is the quality and availability of resources (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). Students expressed an understanding that not every resource on the home campus would be available to them virtually or in person on the international branch campus initially as it was new and developing. However, this finding highlights the importance for this branch campus, now in its fourth year of operation, to increase its emphasis on the development of a more robust set of student support resources.

Participants expressed that the two most prominent challenges caused by the branch campus' age and size were the lack of staff members to support students in transition as well as the lack of energy and activity on campus. In further reflection of the finding related to a lack of staff support, the researcher was surprised that participants

observed that the staff was overworked in a sense, doing the work of many, and as one

participant said "running the campus themselves." Typically, on a college campus

students are not as in tune with the staffing structure or roles of staff members, but in a

campus so small with so few staff members perhaps it was easier for participants to spot

this weakness in the staffing structure. Also interesting to this finding was the idea that

participants felt staff were accessible, but did not feel they were approachable. The issue

of foreign versus domestic staff and faculty emerged in this finding as well, with

participants gravitating towards foreign faculty because they felt this group better

understood their struggles, and foreign staff members did not exist every semester. The

literature also speaks to the challenge international branch campuses have in balancing

employment of faculty and staff from the home institution versus recruiting local faculty

and staff, as the experiences and backgrounds of faculty and staff can significantly impact

the quality of the educational experience (Ziguras, 2008).

Further analysis of the challenges participants shared within this finding suggest

to the researcher that the international branch campus could benefit from a more

prominent focus and integration of student affairs-type roles and functions. Examples of

more formal or traditional student affairs functions can include, but are not limited to,

housing and residence life, orientation, disability services, counseling and psychological

services, and student involvement. The literature confirms the notion that while student

affairs is a hallmark of American higher education, it is almost nonexistent in Asian

higher education (Ludeman et al., 2009). And the literature on the development of higher

education in South Korea specifically extends the thought that higher education revolves

171

around formal learning and scholarship, and education is valued as a way of achieving

status and power (Seth, 2005). With an understanding of the literature on this topic, the

researcher anticipated observing a lack of student affairs positions and functions on the

international branch campus, but did not anticipate that participant interviews would

provide data that supports this notion. Participants expressed a disappointment with

elements of their transition and overall experience such as a lack of resources, lack of

staff such as counselors, lack of on-site support during the initial days of the transition,

and a lack of activity on campus. In American higher education, all of these elements

would traditionally fall under the purview of student affairs professionals. Participants

did not directly state the need for student affairs professionals, but that is not odd

considering many college students do not know the terminology within the student affairs

profession. However, participants did express a dissatisfaction with the institutional

support they received in transition, and the researcher feels the branch campus could

benefit greatly from the focus of student affairs roles and responsibilities. The researcher

acknowledges that having an educational and professional background in student affairs

impacted the analysis of this finding by providing the researcher with a lens and possible

bias that a researcher not trained in student affairs may not have.

Peer support impacts ability to cope with transition. Findings related to the

role peer support played in the transition both complement and extend the literature and

transition theories related to this topic. One of the most frequently cited challenges the

literature states that international and study abroad students face in transition is the

difficulty with socialization, particularly with domestic students, even though

172

international students expect and desire contact with domestic students (Lee, 2013; Summers & Volet, 2008). This trend was reflected in the findings of this study, as participants indicated, and the researcher observed, a lack of integration and interaction between student groups on many levels. While the researcher anticipated there may be a lack of integration between home-campus and international students based on the literature, what was not anticipated was the varying levels of segregation that existed between institutions on the branch campus as well. The researcher was also surprised to learn that participants were not bothered by institutional rivalries even though they oftentimes prevented relationships from forming, because on a positive note, rivalries also increased pride and spirit within the student body, as well as helped bonding occur between students within an institution.

An unintentional outcome of the lack of institutional support participants received in the initial days on the international branch campus was the reliance on peer support in the transition, both from other home-campus students as well as domestic students from Korea. Participants expressed disappointment that the institution did not provide more support in the form of orientations or designated staff members to help them adjust in the first few days on the campus, but also expressed gratitude that peers took on that role for one another. This finding suggests that peers can be extremely valuable resources to one another when transitioning to a new environment, and international branch campuses should capitalize on the student experience and perspective to help students adjust and learn about to navigate the campus. Connecting peers to one another in transition also reinforces a study by Lee (2013) which suggests that socialization is key for students,

particularly first-year students, and often requires the international branch campus to facilitate opportunities within the first few weeks of the semester for students to make connections with one another. This finding also supports a collection of studies cited by Zhou et al. (2008) which indicates that overseas students benefit socially, psychologically, and academically when they interact with host nationals who aid in the overall acculturation process to life overseas.

The role of language also emerged as an influential factor in both connecting home-campus and domestic students as well as preventing them from connecting. Participants expected a language barrier to exist since they were traveling to a country where English was not the primary language. However, participants did not expect so many language challenges on the international branch campus, which was an English-speaking environment. The researcher observed a significant amount of Korean spoken on the international branch campus in common areas such as lounges, the gym, and the cafeteria, which was not surprising because it is common for people to resort to their native language when in the company of other native speakers. However, what did surprise the researcher was the lack of effort Korean students made in trying to communicate with foreigners who were engaging them in English. Considering the global campus as a whole is supposed to be English speaking and classes, meetings, etc. are conducted in English, the researcher could see first-hand what participants expressed as frustration in terms of a language barrier. It is important to note that participants also shared instances where they felt language served as a bridge and not a barrier to connection, but this finding heavily relies on the personalities of participants.

Participants attributed the connection they made with Korean students to their outgoing, inquisitive personalities, which may not be a natural tendency or a guaranteed outcome for any home-campus student.

Lack of connection between campuses impacts institional support. One of the more significant findings of the study stems from the disconnect participants felt between the home and branch campuses. Participants expressed that the two campuses did not communicate or work together effectively, which left participants feeling unprepared, misinformed, and the transition experience disorganized. It is within this theme that the topic of culture shock also emerged. Participants felt underprepared in their transition in regards to their knowledge and understanding of Korean culture and customs. Culture shock is widely covered in the literature on international students and study abroad, so it is no surprise that culture shock also emerged as an element of this finding. The researcher was shocked at the number of stories participants shared that illustrated the lack of preparation and connection, ranging from instances where the home and branch campuses gave participants conflicting information, to policies that constantly changed which caused students to feel lost and confused. Even as the international branch campus entered into its second and third year, participants still shared stories that demonstrated a lack of connection still existed between the two campuses.

Another interesting layer to this theme is that neither the home or host campus appeared to be in ultimate control over situations where information was in question or policies were misguiding. Participants shared stories where both the home and host campus, in essence, placed blame on the other campus or insisted it was at the fault of the

175

other campus that there was not an answer to an outstanding question. This lack of

dominant power assertion by either campus challenges earlier research that suggests the

hierarchical fashion of international branch campuses favors the power and influence of

the home campus (Gopal, 2011; Shams & Huisman, 2012). The flow of information on

this particular international branch campus does not appear to be unidirectional, but

instead seems to be non-existent with little to no information being shared at all.

Additionally, power was asserted from both the home and international branch campus,

causing a lack of dominant power assertion as opposed to a lack of power being asserted

from either the home or international branch campus.

Participants picked up on the disconnect between campuses and identified that

they at times felt like they were "caught in the middle" or that there was "awkward

tension" between the home and branch campuses. One participant attributed the

disconnect to a struggle in ideals between the home campus and the branch campus as to

how the branch campus should operate and what identity it should assume. The

participant continued on to say the branch campus is trying to be a mini version of the

home campus but that staff on the branch campus are trying to do things the "Korean

way." The dilemma of standardization versus local adaptation in establishing

international branch campuses is well supported in the literature. Shams and Huisman

(2012) argue that the choice should not be between the strategic directions, but should be

a balance between the two in order for an international branch campus to be successful.

The researcher feels that this finding demonstrates the institution has not effectively

intertwined the strategic directions of both the home and branch campuses, which ultimately has negatively impacted the student experience.

The essence of an international branch campus is that it is an extension of the home campus experience in a country other than that of the home campus. Researchers caution institutions from assuming that a successful practice on the home campus will be a successful practice on the international branch campus due to the influence of the local environment (Lane, 2011a), however, participants in this study did not feel the experience on the international branch campus reflected in any way what it was like to be a student on the home campus. Participants expressed an understanding of the age and developing nature of the international branch campus, but yet they also expected an experience that more closely aligned to that of the home campus, or at the very least an experience where they felt they were in fact attending their home campus abroad. This finding demonstrates the importance of institutions striking an appropriate balance between the local environment and institutional standards of quality and experience of the home campus.

Implications

The study explored the transition experience of home-campus students that attended an international branch campus affiliated with their home institution, with a focus on how students perceived the institutional support they received throughout the transition. One of the most important contributions of this study is its ability to add to a small body of literature that explores the student experience at an international branch campus. Furthermore, with an absence of literature on the home-campus student

experience at an international branch campus this study also adds to the literature in a way that was not previously represented. The findings of this study have consequence for institutions that currently operate an international branch campus, particularly one that is young and developing. Institutions that are interested in establishing an international branch campus in the future may also discover meaning and guidance in the findings of this study. Implications for institutions will be presented and arranged thematically by finding. Additionally, the implication of this study's findings also extends to scholars and researchers within the fields of higher education, student affairs, and international education. Implications for these audiences will be presented in the following section on recommendations for future study.

Input variables impact ability to cope with transition. The findings from this study highlight the important role input variables play in a student's ability to successfully navigate the transition to an international branch campus, and one in particular that is new and developing. Astin (1991) and Schlossberg's (1981) theories of transition stress the influence of input variables, or factors related to personal and demographic characteristics, on educational outcomes, and suggest that these factors also influence how a student perceives and copes with a transition. If institutions want home campus students enrolled on the international branch campus that will be successful, enjoy their time, and speak positively about their experiences to perspective students, institutions must identify a process or a way to first understand who students are and the input variables they possess. The more an institution knows about the previous experiences, motivation, and personality traits of a home-campus student the more

178

informed an institution will be about the possible challenges the student may face or how to best support the student in transition. The implication of this finding is not meant to suggest that institutions should turn students away from studying on an international branch campus if they do not have previous experience with a transition or do not exude flexibility or initiative, however, institutions should view input variables as an opportunity to work individually with students to manage their expectations and provide support and resources unique to individuals and their personal situations.

While it may be difficult for institutions to assess input variables of home-campus students interested in studying at an international branch campus, the findings from this study demonstrate that they should not be ignored. Institutions that offer home-campus students the opportunity to study at their international branch campus should consider using an approach similar to that of the researcher, a questionnaire and an interview, to learn more about students interested in the opportunity. A more formal, organized approach will allow home campuses the opportunity to get to know the students' personal and demographic characteristics better in an attempt to ensure student input variables align with the environment the international branch campus provides. The home campus would also be able to share this information with the branch campus in hopes that it could be used to better support students once they transition to the international branch campus. The institution in this study did not utilize any means for assessing input variables of home-campus students before sending them to study at the international branch campus, and somehow chose, at least as indicated by the 11 participants in this study, students that

were able to navigate the transition and in some cases, flourish in the international branch campus environment: not all institutions may be so fortunate to have this happen.

Lastly, it is important to remember the role environmental factors play into the student transition experience when discussing the importance of input variables. This implication may not be as impactful an international branch campus that is well-established and has been operational for an extended amount of time. However, for an institution that is in the process of establishing, or has recently established, an international branch campus, this finding will be of substantial importance. A study by Wilkins and Huisman (2015) recommends institutions to focus on maintaining a high level of satisfaction with enrolled students at an international branch campus, as dissatisfied students will likely engage in negative word of mouth practices that can damage an institution's reputation and enrollment. An international branch campus that is new and in need of increasing student enrollment cannot afford negative word of mouth practices. The more institutions can assess input variables of home campus students the better chance they have at identifying students they feel can be successful given the context of the developing branch campus environment, which hopefully would result in successful and satisfied students that speak positively of their experiences.

Age and size of campus impacts institutional support during transition. As Astin (1991) states, institutions should learn as much as possible about how to structure the educational environment to maximize student experience and outcomes. Moreover, as this study's findings show, international branch campuses that are young in age and small in size can capitalize on the opportunities their situation provides them in order to

best support students in transition. Participants in this study identified a host of challenges they faced in transition related to institutional support, that they attributed to the age and size of the campus. An international branch campus that is newly established cannot avoid the growing pains it will experience in its first few years of operation, however, institutions can identify influences over which they have programmatic control that can be shaped to maximize advantages of a particular situation (Terenzini & Upcraft, 1996). Participants expressed an attachment and connection to the international branch campus because they felt they were able to leave a lasting impact on the campus in a way that they were unable to on the home campus where they felt they were one of thousands of students. International branch campuses in development can capitalize on the small size of the student body by seeking out opinions and perspectives of students and using their feedback to make positive changes to the student transition experience and institutional support systems provided.

The implications of this finding serve as a reminder that no matter the age of an international branch campus or the size of the staff, providing institutional support to students must not be an element of the transition experience that is overlooked. Stearns (2009) reminds us that the complexity of establishing and maintaining an international branch campus uncovers a host of challenges that places barriers to the ultimate success of a branch abroad. Institutional leaders are faced with countless decisions and budgetary constraints that prevent a branch campus from operating at full capacity within the first few years of operation. However, as this finding demonstrates, the lack of staff members that can solely focus on supporting students in transition can be detrimental to a

successful student transition experience. Participants in this study expressed concern that staff on the international branch campus were overworked and inundated with so many different tasks and responsibilities that they could not provide the support students felt they needed in transition. International branch campuses must realize that it is a worthwhile to invest in staff members that can specifically focus on supporting students in their transition experience, and their experience overall. It is also important that institutions not only rely on one staff member to serve in an institutional support role, because if and when that staff member leaves students may feel a significant loss of support, as demonstrated by the findings in this study.

One of the most important implications of this study's finding around institutional support is the need for the integration of student affairs-type roles and functions that can support student learning, growth, and development outside the classroom. Examples of more formal or traditional student affairs functions can include, but are not limited to, housing and residence life, orientation, disability services, counseling and psychological services, and student involvement. The literature confirms that while student affairs is a hallmark of American higher education, it is almost nonexistent in Asian higher education (Ludeman et al., 2009). Regardless, it cannot be ignored that the challenges participants voiced in relation to the lack of institutional support they felt in transition could be decreased with the implementation of student affairs staff. Participants expressed a disappointment with elements of their transition and overall experience such as a lack of resources, lack of staff such as counselors, lack of on-site support during the initial days of the transition, and a lack of activity on campus. In American higher

education, all of these elements would traditionally fall under the purview of student affairs professionals. If institutions want to see positive change in the educational outcomes and experiences of students, then they must commit to providing staff who are formally trained in areas of weakness in order for positive change to take place.

Peer support impacts ability to cope with transition. The findings of this study around the role peer support played in the transition experience of home-campus students illuminate how valuable of a resource students can be to one another. Participants suggested that the emergence of peer support stemmed from the lack of institutional support they received in transition, as home-campus students gravitated towards other home-campus students as well as domestic Korean students for support and guidance. Existing research on social interaction of international and domestic students affirms that overseas students benefit socially, psychologically, and academically when they interact with host nationals who aid in the overall acculturation process to life overseas (Zhou et al., 2008). However, Jindal-Snape and Rienties (2016) add that mutual attitudes of hosts and overseas students, as well as cultural similarity, cultural identity, and knowledge of the host culture are also important to consider when improving inter-group relations. This concept reinforces the significance of input variables, as understanding a home-campus student's interest in connecting with domestic students, as well as their prior knowledge of the host culture can impact their willingness and ability to form connections with their peers.

Additionally, the findings around peer support imply that international branch campuses should focus on facilitating opportunities for students to connect with one

another, particularly during the initial weeks of every semester when home-campus

students arrive and become part of the campus community. Lee (2013) reinforces the

idea that socialization is key for students, particularly first-year students, and often

requires the international branch campus to facilitate opportunities within the first few

weeks of the semester for students to make connections with one another. Participants in

the study expressed a desire for the institution to host more formal events or opportunities

where students could meet one another. The few times where participants commented on

on-site orientation-type of events the highlight for them was the chance to meet their

peers. The research on domestic and international student interaction align with the

findings from this study which demonstrate a need for international branch campuses to

take a more active role in facilitating student interaction.

A unique element of the staffing structure of the international branch campus in

this study that adds to the implication of this theme is the role of Peer Advisors.

Although the role of a Peer Advisor was only significant to this study as it related to its

impact on the transition experience of participants that served in the role, upon further

reflection of the implication of the finding on peer support it is important to address the

potential impact Peer Advisors could have on supporting students in transition. This

finding could have implications for both a well-established branch campus that is

interested in creating more student leadership opportunities, as well as a developing

international branch campus that perhaps may need to rely more on student leaders

during times where limited staff exists.   Participants that served in the Peer Advisor role

expressed concern that it was difficult to help their peers adjust to the international

branch campus when they themselves were adjusting to the campus as well. Capitalizing on the experience and knowledge of domestic students on the international branch campus would perhaps be a more purposeful and impactful use of the student leadership role. Not only would it provide a more formal, organized opportunity for domestic and international students to connect with one another, it would also provide home-campus students an immediate support system upon arrival to the international branch campus which proved to be an area where participants felt the institution lacked in this study.

Lack of connection between campuses impacts institional support. The implication of the finding regarding connection between the home and branch campuses has substantial importance for international branch campuses, regardless of their age or stage of development. The implication also has particular relevance for institutional leaders that set policy and have the ability to control the flow of information from one campus to another. This study's findings demonstrated a clear lack of connection and communication between the home and branch campuses, which students felt negatively impacted their transition experience and the institutional support they received in transition. Students that attend the home-campus and are familiar with institutional policies, procedures, and the overall environment, and are much more attuned to deviations from and complications with these elements on the international branch campus when they occur.

Although participants expressed an understanding of the age and developing nature of the international branch campus, frustrations most frequently arose when participants felt they were misinformed or their questions were overlooked because

answers were not easy to find. It is imperative that campuses regularly communicate

with one another, especially in the initial years of operation as problems and questions

will regularly arise that may take the advice and guidance of the both campuses to solve.

It is anticipated that the experience on each campus will not be identical as both

campuses are located in different environments with different cultural context and

restraints. As findings from this study show, students expect an experience and

environment on the international branch campus that is comparable to that of the home

campus, so both campuses must work together to ensure at some level a more seamless

experience can exist.

The other element of this finding that has significant implications is the need for

institutions to find a balance between standardization versus location adaptation in the

establishment of an international branch campus. Studies suggest that international

branch campuses that strike a balance between the two tend to find more success than

institutions that assume successful practices for the home campus will be successful on

the international branch campus without taking into account the local environment (Lane,

2011a; Shams & Huisman, 2012). When institutions do not take time to strategically

prioritize how to balance standardization and local adaptation, the student experience can

be significantly impacted, as the findings in this study demonstrate. Participants noted

the tension that existed between the two campuses and oftentimes felt caught in the

middle of situations where the two campuses were unable to be on the same page about

policies or procedures. In an ideal world, institutions would iron out as many of these

details prior to opening an international branch campus in hopes that it would save

students from possible frustration. However, it is not until the campus is operational that certain issues related to the student experience arise, which makes the need for clear communication between the two campuses vital in order to best support students as they transition to the international branch campus.

Recommendations for Future Study

As illustrated in the literature, little research exists on the student transition experience to an international branch campus, and almost none examining the transition or experience of home-campus students. Additionally, much of the literature on international branch campuses that does exist is based on assumptions rather than empirical investigations (Healey, 2015). The findings of this study highlight the need for scholars and researchers to further develop a body of knowledge that examines the international branch campus experience of home-campus students in general, including a focus on the transition experience. As this study showed, there is a lot to be learned about the transition experience of home-campus students including how institutions can best support students in transition. Given the scope and focus of this research, a full exploration of every facet of the transition experience could not be achieved. Additional studies are needed to further explore the home-campus student transition by exploring different facets of the experience. Recommendations for future study are as follows.

The findings of this study demonstrate the important role input variables play in understanding the student transition experience. Further exploration of the ways in which specific input variables impact the transition is needed, particularly around the role of previous experiences, motivation, and personal demographics. Qualitative studies would

allow for an in-depth exploration, while quantitative studies would provide the opportunity to assess the role of input variables on a larger scale. Literature that addresses a home-campus student's motivation to attend an international branch campus would complement the literature that currently exists around the motivation of a domestic student to attend an international branch campus in their home country, and would allow for a more in-depth exploration of different factors that influence a student's decision-making process. Another input variable to explore further is a student's previous experiences with transition, and how that impacts a student's ability to cope with the transition to an international branch campus. In particular, a comparative analysis of students with and without a previous transition experience would illuminate differences and similarities in experiences that would be helpful in creating a more robust understanding of how students cope with a transition. Lastly, a deeper exploration of personal and demographic characteristics would help shed light on ways in which identities such as race, class, or gender, and different personal characteristics influence the transition experience and a student's ability to cope with a transition. Literature that addresses the role of input variables on the transition would allow institutions to provide more robust support systems and resources that complement the needs of students in transition.

Given the role the age and continual development of the international branch campus in this study played in understanding the transition experience of participants, it is important that further qualitative research is conducted that highlights how environment impacts the transition experience. The importance of additional research on

this topic is especially true if the number of international branch campuses established continues to rapidly increase as it has done in the past decade. As findings from this study indicate, international branch campuses that are newly established have a unique set of challenges and opportunities related to their size and growth trajectory that may impact the transition experience of their students. Conducting a similar qualitative study at another newly established international branch campus would extend the findings of this in-depth, phenomenological case study to see what similarities or differences exist in comparing the home-campus student transition experience. Comparing the student transition experience of a newly established international branch campus to a well-established campus that has been operational for years would also provide interesting insight into the role of the environment in the transition experience.

Future research on the student transition to international branch campuses would also benefit from focusing on student perspectives of the connection between home campus and international branch campus. Furthermore, if students feel a strong connection between a home campus and international branch campus, a study that focuses on the strategies and successes of the relationship would be an excellent addition to the literature on this topic. The findings of this study highlight how a lack of connection between campuses can negatively impact the student transition experience. It is important that researchers conduct studies that can convey best practices to help institutions, especially ones in the process of establishing international branch campuses, learn how to create a cohesive experience that is reflective of home campuses practices that also respects the local environment and context. A quantitative study that assess

189

student perspectives of connection would help establish a broader understanding of this topic amongst the larger field of international branch campuses. While the connection between home and branch campuses hinges heavily upon a unique set of institutional factors, the literature on the student transition experience of home-campus students could also benefit greatly from additional qualitative case studies that shed light on the successes and failures of other institutions.

Additionally, because this study was a phenomenological case study it intentionally focused on the transition experience of home-campus students at one institution on a global campus where three other institutions were present. Conducting this qualitative study at the other three institutions on the global campus would help to extend the findings of this study in a way that would showcase similarities of the transition experience of home-campus students, as the environment and context of the campus would be comparable, but also differences as institutional factors would be varied. A quantitative analysis of the student transition experience to a global campus would also supplement the study of this topic by testing out the themes that emerged from this study was a larger audience. Together the qualitative and quantitative studies would paint a more robust picture of the overall transition experience of home-campus students to the global campus or education hub model of an international branch campus, which the literature does not currently represent.

Summary

This chapter presented an analysis of emergent themes related to the student transition experience to an international branch campus, and also discussed how previous

research on the topic related to ideas and concepts found in the study. Emergent themes represent different elements of participant experiences, and when woven together, provide greater insight into the transition to an international branch campus and how institutions can better support students in transition. The findings revealed that input variables, peer support, and a connection between the home and international branch campus can greatly impact the transition experience, including a student's ability to cope with the transition, as well as the institutional support students felt they received in transition. Findings themselves have both positive and negative interpretations and considerations that institutions establishing or operating a new international branch campus could find particularly useful in their practices. Finally, this study highlights a need for researchers and scholars to add to the small body of literature on this topic by further examining various elements of the international branch campus experience of home-campus students in general, including a focus on the transition experience.

Appendix A

IRB Approval Letter

Office of Research Integrity and Assurance

Research Hall, 4400 University Drive, MS 6D5, Fairfax, Virginia 22030
Phone: 703-993-5445; Fax: 703-993-9590

DATE: August 4, 2016

TO: Todd Rose
FROM: George Mason University IRB

Project Title: [938466-1] Home Away from Home? A Phenomenological Case Study of
Student Transitions to an International Branch Campus

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE: August 4, 2016

REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category #2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Office of Research Integrity
& Assurance (ORIA) has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB REVIEW according to federal
regulations.

Please remember that all research must be conducted as described in the submitted materials.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be submitted to the ORIA prior to
initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

If you have any questions, please contact Karen Motsinger at 703-993-4208 or kmotsing@gmu.edu.
Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within George Mason
University IRB's records.

Appendix B

Informed Consent Form

**HOME AWAY FROM HOME? A CASE STUDY OF STUDENT TRANSITIONS
TO AN INTERNATIONAL BRANCH CAMPUS**

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH PROCEDURES
This research is being conducted to better understand the transition experiences of
students to the Mason Korea campus. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to
complete a brief online survey which will take you 15-20 minutes to complete. By
agreeing to participate in this study you will also take part in a one-hour interview that
will be conducted on the Fairfax campus and audio-recorded by the researcher. After
your interview is complete you will receive a copy of the transcript of the interview to
verify its accuracy.

RISKS
There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

BENEFITS
There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further the field of research
with regard to student transitions to an international branch campus.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The data in this study will be confidential. Although you will be asked to provide your
name in the online questionnaire, your name will not be used in any report, articles,
presentation, etc. Transcriptions will include a pseudonym and any and all references in
subsequent papers or articles published will also use this pseudonym.   The answers to the
online survey will be password protected and will only be accessible by the researcher.
The audio-recorded interview and transcripts will be kept on a password-protected
computer that only the researcher will have access to. After five years the transcriptions
and audio files will be deleted and destroyed.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

CONTACT
This research is being conducted by Kaitlin Cicchetti, PhD student in the College of Education and Human Development at George Mason University as part of her dissertation research. She may be reached at 717-979-5950 or you may contact her committee chair, Dr. Todd Rose, at 703-993-2150 for questions or to report a research-related problem.   You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Integrity & Assurance at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

CONSENT
I have read this form, all of my questions have been answered by the research staff, and I agree to participate in this study.

_____
Name   Date of Signature

Appendix C

Open-Ended Questionnaire

1. Name (first and last name)
2. What is your major?
3. During which semester(s) did you study at the international branch campus (IBC)? (i.e. fall 2015, spring 2016, etc.)?
4. Where did you live when you studied at the IBC (i.e. on-campus in the dormitories, off-campus, etc.)?
5. Before attending the IBC, did you ever study at a college or university in a country other than the United States of America (i.e. study abroad)? If so, where and for how long?
6. What is your classification as of fall 2016 (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior)?
7. What is your anticipated graduation term (i.e. spring 2017, fall 2017, etc.)?
8. How do you identify your sex and/or gender?
9. What is your primary language?
10. Do you have proficiency at any level in any additional languages?
11. Where were you born?
12. Where do you consider your permanent residence (i.e. home town and home state)?
13. In what country/countries are you a citizen?
14. Why did you choose to study at the IBC?
15. What did you hope to gain from studying at the IBC?
16. In thinking about traveling to study at the IBC, what excited you the most?
17. In thinking about traveling to study at the IBC, what concerned you the most?
18. Before you arrived to campus, what institutional resources, if any, did you anticipate using at the IBC to help you through your transition? (select all that apply)
    a. I did not plan on using an institutional resource
    b. Meeting with faculty
    c. Meeting with staff
    d. Meeting with the Peer Advisors
    e. Attending campus events
    f. Joining a registered student organization
    g. Counseling services
    h. Other (please list)

19. Did you anticipate any challenges in your transition to the IBC? If so, what were they and how did you plan to overcome those challenges?
20. Is there anything else important for the researcher to know at this time about your transition to the IBC (i.e. the weeks leading up to traveling to the IBC through the first few weeks you were on campus)?

Appendix D

Interview Questions

Pre-Transition
1. On the questionnaire you answered that you attended the international branch campus (IBC) because you (insert their answer from questionnaire here). Tell me more about your motivation to study at the IBC?
2. What semester did you attend the IBC? Did you complete more than one semester at the IBC? Why or why not?
3. How did you feel about your transition to the IBC?
4. How did you prepare for your transition to the IBC?
    a. Did you have to take a class in the weeks leading up to your departure?
    b. Was there something in particular that most prepared you to go? (i.e. a person at home campus, etc.)
5. What is something you wish you knew about the IBC before you attended that you did not know?
6. In thinking about your life before the IBC, where there any experiences you had that you feel helped you be prepared for the transition?

During the Transition
1. Describe a typical day on campus for you.
2. Describe your interactions with other students on the campus.
    a. Other students at your university (both foreign and domestic)
    b. Students at other universities
    c. Peer advisors
3. Describe your interactions with the staff on the campus.
    a. Who or what provided the most support for you while you were there?
4. Describe an achievement you experienced.
5. Describe a challenge you encountered. How did you work through that challenge?
    a. (Insert challenge they mentioned on questionnaire here)
6. In your questionnaire you indicated that you planned to use the following institutional resources to help you transition (list their responses from questionnaire here). Which of those resources, if any, did you use to help you transition to the IBC?
7. Talk to me about how you feel the IBC staff tried to support students in the initial weeks you all were on campus.

8. What resources do you wish were available to you on the campus that were not that would've been helpful to you has you transitioned?
9. Did you utilize any virtual resources from the home campus while you were there? If so, which ones and why. If not, why not?

Post-Transition
1. Looking back, what do you believe you were most prepared for during your time on the IBC?
2. Looking back, what do you believe you were most unprepared for during your time at the IBC?
3. In thinking about your unique role as a home-campus student going abroad to your campus in another country; what did that feel like? Did you feel like a home-campus student when you were there?
4. How did your transition to the IBC compare to your transition to the home institution? What was similar? What was different?
5. What is the most important thing you think students should know about studying at the IBC?
6. Would you recommend other students attend the IBC? Why or why not?
7. Is there anything else you'd like to share with me about your transition experience to the IBC?

Appendix E

Preliminary Codes Sorted by Interview Section

Pre-Transition Preliminary Codes	During Transition Preliminary Codes	Post-Transition Preliminary Codes
Feelings before the transition	Feelings before the transition	Lack of preparation and information
Preparation before (university)	Meaning of transition	Proactivity
Preparation before (personal)	Support in transition (peer)	Culture shock
Preparation before (Peer Advisor training)	Support in transition (staff)	Lack of information on culture
Previous experiences with transition	Support in transition (Peer Advisor)	Lack of communication between campuses
Lack of information on culture	Support in transition (family)	Home campus feeling and spirit
Domestic/foreign student interaction	Support in transition (involvement)	Campus feel and environment
Understanding of campus age and situation	Understanding of campus age and situation	Campus activities and events
Personality	Peer Advisor role	Culture and customs
Attachment to IBC	Cafeteria and food	Attachment to IBC
Application timeline	Drinking culture	Personal interaction and access to staff
Challenge	Campus location	Lack of support on-site
Staff lacking knowledge	Domestic/foreign student interaction	Academic schedule and offerings
Disorganization of process	Language	Previous experiences with transition
Concerns prior	Friendships	Small campus size
Culture shock	Culture and customs	Benefit of IBC
Language	Segregation between students at universities	Inability to process feelings

Campus feel and environment	Staff transition	Balancing Peer Advisor role and need for support
Academic schedule and offerings	Interaction with staff	Campus location
Interest and motivation	Interaction with faculty	Domestic and foreign student interaction
Duration of transition	Small campus size	Demographic of student body
Previous knowledge of IBC	Challenges	Classroom experience
Timing of transition	Small staff	Expectations
Peer Advisor role	Campus activities and events	Global campus model
Support in transition (peer)	Lack of resources	Race
Support in transition (staff)	Culture shock	Processing the transition
Support in transition (university)	Convenience store	Family and friends
Loss of support (university)	On-site orientation	
Campus activities and events	Disorganization of process	
Understanding of Korean culture	Global campus model	
Parents	Attachment to IBC	
Understanding of IBC structure and policies	Lessons learned	
Global campus model	IBC staff as a bridge to global campus	
Interaction with faculty	Making a difference	
Lack of support on-site	One staff member/person	
Classroom experience	Lack of support on-site	
Lack of communication between campuses	Lack of communication between campuses	
Segregation between students at universities	Personal interaction and access to staff	
	Accomplishment	
	Pioneer	
	Relationships	
	Race	
	Conflict in interactions	
	Classroom experience	

Appendix F

Unique Codes with Duplicates Removed

Academic schedule and offerings	Feelings before the transition	Pioneer
Accomplishment	Global campus model	Preparation before (Peer Advisor training
Application timeline	Home campus resources	Preparation before (personal)
Attachment to IBC	Home campus feeling and spirit	Preparation before (university)
Balancing Peer Advisor role and need for support	Home campus staff as bridge to IBC	Previous experiences with transition
Benefit of IBC	Immediate feelings during the transition	Previous knowledge of IBC
Cafeteria and food	Interactions with faculty	Proactivity
Campus activities and events	Interactions with staff	Processing the transition
Campus feel and environment	Interest and motivation	Race
Campus location	Lack of communication between campuses	Relationships
Challenges	Inability to process feelings	Segregation between students at universities
Classroom experience	Lack of preparation and information on culture	Small campus size
Concerns prior	Lack of resources	Small staff
Conflict in interactions	Lack of on-site support	Staff lacking knowledge
Convenience store	Language	Staff transition
Culture shock	Lessons learned	Support in transition (family)
Culture and customs	Loss of university support	Support in transition (friend)

Demographic of student body	Making a difference	Support in transition (involvement)
Disorganization of process	Meaning of transition	Support in transition (Peer Advisor)
Domestic and foreign student interaction	One staff member/person	Support in transition (peer)
Drinking culture	Orientation on-site	Support in transition (staff)
Duration of transition	Peer Advisor role	Support in transition (university)
Expectations	Personal interaction and access to staff	Timing of transition
Family and friends	Personality	Understanding of campus age and situation
		Understanding of global campus structure and policies

Appendix G

Thematic Network One

Global Theme	Organizing Themes	Basic Themes
A participant's ability to cope with the transition and make meaning of the transition correlated to their previous experiences with transition, motivation to attend, and personality traits	A student's previous experience with transition correlated to their ability to cope with the transition	Previous experience outside of the country correlated to satisfaction with pre-departure orientation
		Previous experience transitioning to a new environment correlated with resilience during the transition and ability to cope with disorganization of the transition
	Flexibility and level of initiative are two personality traits that played a key role in students ability to be resilient throughout the transition	Being open-minded is biggest piece of advice
		Personality traits of flexibility, self-motivation, positivity, initiative all helped with resilience in the transition
		Successfully bridging the gap between Korean and foreign students was due to goals participant set before they went
		Taking initiative to do their own research was important because participants did not feel university provided enough information before they went

	Participant motivation to attend the host campus factored into their ability to overcome obstacles in the transition	Main motivation to attend was one staff member on the home campus
		Financial benefits of being a Peer Advisor were also main motivation of attending
		Academic offerings and class schedules impacted motivation
	Participants were able to positively reflect on the outcome of their transition after their experience ended	Participants felt a newfound independence and personal growth after attending
		Participants felt their experience was truly global and not just about learning about Korea
		Participants had a hard time making meaning of their transition in the first few weeks
		Participants would recommend other students to study on the branch campus

Appendix H

Thematic Network Two

Global Theme	Organizing Themes	Basic Themes
Both the age of the campus and the size of the student body created opportunities and challenges that impacted the institutional support participants received in transition	Participants were understanding of the campus' age and how that affects how it operates	Participants were aware of campus' young age and its situation as a growing, developing campus
		Policies or rules frequently changed which caused frustration for participants
		Participants bonded over shared dissatisfaction of elements of the campus environment
	Challenges existed in relation to participants creating a connection with the campus were caused by the developing nature of the campus	Campus size in terms of student enrollment provided limitations in the form of lack of energy and activity
		Creating opportunities for involvement on campus was challenging due to small enrollment and rules from global campus
	Opportunities emerged for participants to create a connection to campus due to the developing nature of the campus	Opportunities for participants to create clubs and activities helped them feel more connected to the global campus
		Small size of the staff meant both personal interactions and high accessibility
		Participants felt their voices made an impact and

		that they were had an attachment to the branch campus
		Campus size in terms of enrollment forced interaction between groups
	The host campus lacked basic resources that participants were expecting but did not have access to	Resources were missing from the global campus
	Small size of staff affiliated with both home and host campus caused participants to feel a lack of institutional support	Participants felt staff was overworked
		Participants most frequently relied on one person on the home campus and one person on the branch campus
		Participants relied on support from foreigner staff more frequently as opposed to Korean staff

Appendix I

Thematic Network Three

Global Theme	Organizing Themes	Basic Themes
Although cliques caused segregation within the student body, participants most relied on peer support throughout the transition	Language served as both a barrier and a bridge to student interaction	Lack of student interaction existed between universities
		Segregation or cliques existed within student groups of institution
		Language impacted student interaction
	Peer Advisors were not a system of support for participants	Peer Advisor role was unclear, and subsequently they were an underutilized resource by students
		It was difficult for Peer Advisors to support other students when they were transitioning themselves
	Participants most relied on peer support, as opposed to institutional support, to manage the transition	Participants felt most supported by peers

Appendix J

Thematic Network Four

Global Theme	Organizing Themes	Basic Themes
A lack of connection and communication between the home and host campuses impacted the participant transition experience and level of preparation	Participants lacked preparation in Korean culture and customs which caused them to research on their own and try and make sense of why things were the way they were	Participants did a lot of research on their own about the culture before traveling to the branch campus
		Pre-departure orientation lacked depth in Korean culture
		Language and culture were the main concerns of participants traveling to the branch campus
	Participants did not feel their expectations were managed appropriately by the home or host campus before they went, which resulted in them feeling unprepared to transition	Participants did not feel they were given enough information about the branch campus before they left
		Peer Advisor training was different every semester and was not always topically relevant or helpful to what was needed
		On-site orientation was not memorable for many, and for those that did remember it was not helpful for the most part
		Pre-departure orientation was helpful to understand the basic logistics, but could've managed participant expectations better

		Timing of the transition was between 1-2 months for many participants which caused stress
	The transition was disorganized due to a lack of communication between campuses	A lack of communication between campuses caused the transition to be disorganized and participants to feel misinformed
		Transition experience for Peer Advisors was not significantly different in terms of disorganization than that of non-Peer Advisors
		Disorganization caused students to feel apprehensive and insecure about their decision when they arrived

References

ACPA & NASPA (2010, February). *Envisioning the future of student affairs*. Retrieved from https://www.naspa.org/images/uploads/main/Task_Force_Student_Affairs_2010_Report.pdf

Altbach, P. (2002). Perspectives on internationalizing higher education. *International Higher Education, 27,* 6-8. doi: 10.6017/ihe.2002.27.6975

American Council on Education. (1994). The student personnel point of view. In A.L. Rentz (Ed.), *Student affairs: A profession's heritage* (American College Personnel Association Media Publication No. 40, 2nd ed., p. 108-123). Lanham, MD: University Press of America. (Original work published 1949).

Arum, S., & van de Water, J. (1992). The need for a definition of international education in U.S. universities. In C. Klasek (Ed.), *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education* (pp. 191-203). Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.

Astin, A. W. (1991). *Assessment for excellence*. New York, NY: MacMillian.

Astin, A. W., & Antonio, A. L. (2012). *Assessment for excellence: The philosophy and Practice of assessment and evaluation in higher education* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Rowman and Littlefield.

Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: An analytic tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 1,* 385-405. doi: 10.1177/1468/79410100100307

Bartell, M. (2003). Internationalization of universities: A university culture-based framework. *Higher Education*, *45*(1), 43-70.

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and Implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report, 13*, 544-559. Retrieved from: https://nsuworks/nova.edu/tqr/vol13/iss4/2

Becker, R. (2010). International branch campuses: Trends and directions. *International Higher Education, 58,* 3-5. doi: 10.6017/ihe.2010.58.8464

Berry, J.W. (1992). Acculturation and adaptation in a new society. *International Migration, 30,* 69-85. doi: 10.111/j.1468-2435.1992.tb00776.x

Bethel, A., Szabo, A., & Ward, C. (2016). Parallel lives? Predicting and enhancing connectedness between international and domestic students. In D. Jindal-Snape & B. Rientes (Eds.), *Multi-dimensional transitions of international students to higher education* (pp. 21-36). New York, NY: Routledge.

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

Biggs, J. (2003). *Teaching for quality learning at university: What the student does* (2nd ed.). Maidenhead, Bershire: Open University Press.

Bodycott, P. (2009). Choosing a higher education study abroad destination. *Journal of Research in International Education, 8,* 349-373. doi: 10.1177/147524090934 5818

Byun, K., & Kim, M. (2010). Shifting patterns of the government's policies for the internationalization of Korean higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 15*, 467-486. doi: 10.1177/1028315310375307

Cabellon, E.T., & Junco, R. (2015). The digital age of student affairs. *New Directions for Student Services, 151,* 49-61. doi: 10.1002/ss.20137

Carter, S. M., & Little, M. (2007). Justifying knowledge, justifying method, taking action: Epistemologies, methodologies, and methods in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research, 17,* 1316-1328. doi: 10.1177/1049732307306927

Chapman, A., & Pyvis, D. (2013). *Enhancing quality in transnational higher education: Experiences of teaching and learning in Australian offshore programs.* Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.

Chiang, L. (2012). Trading on the west's strength: The dilemmas of transnational higher education in east Asia. *Higher Education Policy, 25,* 171-189. doi: 10.1057/hep. 2012.7

Chickering, A. W. & Schlossberg, N. K. (1995). *Getting the most out of college.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Cook, S. (2009). Important events in the development in of academic advising in the United States. *NACDA Journal, 29*(2), 18-40. doi: 10.12930/0271-9517-29.2.18

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Cross-Border Education Research Team. (2017, January 21). *C-BERT branch campus listing.* [Data file]. Retrieved from http://globalhighered.org/branchcampuses.php

Dalton, J. C., & Sullivan, M. H. (2008). Expanding global horizons. In K. J. Osfield (Ed.), *Internationalization of student affairs and services* (pp. 7-12). Washington, DC: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Denzin, N.K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

de Wit, H. (Ed.). (1995). *Strategies for internationalization of higher education: A comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America.* Amsterdam: European Association for International Education.

de Wit, H. (2002). *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe: A historical, comparative and conceptual analysis.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Doyle, J. (2004). Student affairs division's integration of student learning principles. *NASPA Journal. 41*(2), 375-394. doi: 10.2202/0027-6014.1339

Dungy, G., & Gordon, S.A. (2011). The development of student affairs. In J.H. Schuh, S.R. Jones, & S.R. Harper (Eds.), *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (5th ed., pp. 61-80). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dunning, J.H., & Lundan, S.M. (2008). *Multinational Enterprises and the Global Economy* (2nd. ed.). Chelteham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Edwards, R., Crosling, G., & Lim, N.C. (2013). Organizational structures for international universities: Implications for campus autonomy, academic freedom, collegiality, and conflict. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18,* 180-194. doi: 10.1177/1028315313493182

Ennew, C.T., & Yang, F. (2009). Foreign universities in China: A case study. *European Journal of Education, 44,* 21-36. doi: 10.1111/j.1465-3435.2008.01368.x

Farrugia, C.A., & Lane, J.E. (2013). Legitimacy in cross-border higher education: Identifying stakeholders of international branch campuses. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 17,* 414-432. doi: 10.1177/1028315312464379

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 12,* 219-245. doi: 10.1177/1077800405284363

Franklin, A., & Alzouebi, K. (2014). Sustainability of international branch campuses in the United Arab Emirates: A vision for the future. *The Journal of General Education, 63,* 121-137. doi: 10.1353/jge.2014.0019

Freeman, M. (2000). Knocking on doors: On constructing culture. *Qualitative Inquiry, 6*, 59-369. doi: 10.1177/1468794112465634

Gale, T., & Parker, S. (2014). Navigating change: A typology of student transition in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 39,* 734-753. doi: 10.1080/030750 79.2012.721351

Gareis, E. (2012). Intercultural friendship: Effects of home and host region. *Journal of International and Intercultural Communication, 5,* 309-328. doi: 10.1080/175130 57.2012.691525

Garger, J., Thomas, M., & Jacques, P.H. (2010). Early antecedents to students' expected performance. *International Journal of Educational Management, 24*, 129-138. doi: 10.1108/09513541011020945

Girdzijauskaite, E., & Radzeviciene, A. (2014). International branch campus: Framework And strategy. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *110*, 301–308. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.874

Glesne, C. (2011). *Becoming Qualitative Researchers: An Introduction* (4th ed.) Boston, MA: Pearson.

Goodwin, C., & Nacht, M. (1991). *Missing the boat: The failure to internationalize American higher education.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Gopal, A. (2011). Open borders, closed minds: Current neoliberalist policies in the internationalization of higher education. *The International Journal of Learning, 18*(2), 235-246.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). London: Sage.

Gubrium, E., & Koro-Ljungberg, M. (2005). Contending with border making in the social constructionist interview. *Qualitative Inquiry, 11,* 689-715. doi: 10.1177/107780 0405278776

Harding, L.M., & Lammey, R.W. (2011). Operational considerations for opening a branch campus abroad. *New Directions for Higher Education, 155*, 65-78. doi:10.1002/he.445

Healey, N. (2015). Managing international branch campuses: What do we know? *Higher Education Quarterly, 69,* 386-409. doi: 10.1111/hequ.12082

Held, D., McGrew, A., Goldblatt, D., & Perraton, J. (1999). *Global transformations: Politics, economics and culture*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Holzner, B., & Greenwood, D. (1995). The institutional policy contexts for international Higher education in the United States of America. In H. de Wit (Ed.), *Strategies For internationalisation of higher education: a comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America* (pp.33-65) Amsterdam: European Association for International Education.

Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research, 15*, 1277-1288. doi: 10.1177/1049732305276687

Hussin, V. (2007). Supporting off-shore students: A preliminary study. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 44,* 363-376. doi: 10.1080/14703290701 602763

Jha, A. K. (2012). Epistemological and pedagogical concerns of constructionism: Relating to the educational practices. *Creative Education, 3,* 171-178. doi: 10.4236/ce.2012.32027

Jindal-Snape, D., & Rienties, B. (Eds.). (2016). *Multi-dimensional transitions of international students to higher education.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Jones, S.R., Torres, V., & Arminio, J. (2014). *Negotiating the complexities of qualitative research in higher education.* New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Kehm, B.M., & Teichler, U. (2007). Research on internationalisation in higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11,* 260-273. doi: 10.1177/1028315 307303534

Kim, S., & Lee, J. H. (2006). Changing facets of Korean higher education: Market Competition and the role of the state. *Higher Education, 52*, 557-587. doi: 10.1007/s10734-005-1044-0

Kim, H. (2011). Korean students in the United States. *International Higher Education, 64*, 8-9. doi: 10.6017/ihe.2011.64.8557

Knight, J. (1994). Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints (Research Monograph, No. 7). Ottawa, Canada: Canadian Bureau for International Education.

Knight, J. (2003). Updated definition of internationalization. *International Higher Education, 33,* 2-3. doi: 10.6017/ihe.2003.33.7391

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 8*(5), 5-31. doi: 10.1177/10283153 03260832

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

Knight, J. (2012). Five truths about internationalization. *International Higher Education, 69,* 4-5. doi: 10.6107/ihe.2012.69.8644

Knight, J., & de Wit, H. (Eds.). (1997). *Internationalization of higher education in Asia Pacific countries.* Amsterdam: European Association for International Education.

Koro-Ljungberg, M., Yendol-Hoppey, D., Smith, J.J., & Hayes, S.B. (2009). (E)pistemological awareness, instantiation of methods, and uninformed methodological ambiguity in qualitative research projects. *Educational Researcher, 38*, 687-699. doi: 10.3102/0013189X09351980

Kuhn, T. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions.* (3rd ed.) Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). InterViews: *Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing.* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kuk, L. (2012). The changing nature of student affairs. In A. Tull & L. Kuk (Eds.), *New realities in the management of student affairs* (pp. 3-12). Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Lane, J. E. (2011a). Global expansion of international branch campuses: Managerial and leadership challenges. *New Directions for Higher Education, 155*, 5-17. doi: 10.1002/he.440

Lane, J.E. (2011b). Importing private higher education: International branch campuses. *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis: Research and Practice, 13*, 367-381. doi: 10.1080/13876988.2011.583106

Lane, J.E., & Kinser, K. (2011a). Reconsidering privatization in cross-border engagements: The sometimes public nature of private activity. *Higher Education Policy, 24,* 255-273. doi: 10.1057/hep.2011.2

215

Lane, J. E., & Kinser, K. (2011b). The cross-border education policy context: Educational hubs, trade liberalization, and national sovereignty. *New Directions for Higher Education, 155,* 79-85. doi: 10.1002/he.446

Lee, Y. H. (2009). Problems and stress among students in an international campus. *The International Journal of Learning, 16,* 361-379. doi: 10.18848/1447-9494/CGP/v16i04/46238

Lee, C. G. (2012). Reconsidering constructivism in qualitative research. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 44,* 403-412. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2010.00720.x

Lee M. K. (2013). Why Chinese students choose Korea as their study destination in the global hierarchy of higher education. *Journal of Educational Policy, 10*(2), 315-338.

Lemke-Westcott, T., & Johnson, B. (2013). When culture and learning style matters: A Canadian university with Middle-Eastern students. *Journal of Research in International Education, 12,* 66-84. doi: 10.1177/1475240913480105

Leonard, E.A. (1956). *Origins of personnel services in American higher education.* Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

Levatino, A. (2016). Transnational higher education and international student mobility: Determinants and linkage. *Higher Education.* Retreived from SpringerLink. doi: 10.1007/s10734-016-9985-z

Levitz, R. & Noel, L. (1989). Connecting students to institutions: Keys to retention and success. In M.L. Upcraft, J.N. Gardner, and Associates (Eds.), The Freshman Year Experience (pp. 65-81). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

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

Lien B.Y.H., Pauleen, D.J., Kuo, Y.M., & Wang, T.L. (2014). The rationality and objectivity of reflection in phenomenological research. *Quality & Quantity, 48*, 189-196. doi: 10.1007/s11135-012-9759-3

Lin, A. C. (1998). Bridging positivist and interpretivist approaches to qualitative methods. *Policy Studies Journal, 26,* 162-180. doi: 10.1111/j.1541-0072.1998.tb01931.x

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1986). But is it too rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. In D.D. William (Ed.), *Naturalistic evaluation* (*New Directors for Evaluation*, No. 30, pp. 73-84). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lovett, C. M. (2008, April 11). We need a new model of global education. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retreived from http://chronicle.com

Ludeman, R. B., Osfield, K. J., Hidalgo, E. I., Oste, D., & Wang, H.S. (2009). *Student Affairs and services in higher education: Global foundations, issues and best practices.* Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001832/183221e.pdf

Luttrell, W. (Ed.). (2010). *Qualitative educational research: Readings in reflexive methodology and transformative practice*. New York: Routledge.

Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, *16*(2), 193-205. Retrieved from http://www.iier.org.au/iier16/mackenzie.html

MacReady, C., & Tucker, C. (2011). *Who goes where and why: An overview and analysis of global educational mobility*. New York, NY: Institute of International Education.

Mamiseishvili, K. (2011). International student persistence in U.S. postsecondary institutions. *Springer Science + Business Media, 64*, 1–17. doi: 10.1007/s10734-011-9477-0

Marginson, S. (2006, July). Notes on globalization and higher education. Symposium Conducted at the meeting of the York University and Ontario Confederation of University Faculty Associations, Toronto, Canada.

Marginson, S. (2011). Higher education in East Asia and Singapore: Rise of the Confucian model. *Higher Education, 61,* 587-611. doi: 10.1007/s10734-010-9384-9

Maxwell, J. (2009). Designing a qualitative study. In L. Bickman & D.K. Rog (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods* (pp. 214-253). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Maxwell, J. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483348858

Mazzarol, T., & Soutar, G.N. (2002). 'Push-pull' factors of influencing international student destination choice. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 16*, 82-90. doi: 10.1108/09513540210418403

McBurnie, G. (2008). Quality assurance for transnational education: International, national and institutional approaches. In L. Dunn & M. Wallace (Eds.), *Teaching in transnational higher education: Enhancing learning for offshore international students* (pp. 193-203)*. New York, NY: Routledge.

McBurnie, G., & Ziguras, C. (2007). *Transnational education: Issues and trends in offshore higher education.* New York, NY: Routledge.

McMahon, M.E. (1992). Higher education in a world market: A historical look at the global context of international study. *Higher Education, 24,* 465-482. doi: 10. 1007/BF00137243

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miliszewska, I., & Sztendur, E. (2012). Australian transnational education programmes in South East Asia: Student satisfaction with the learning environment. *Australian Universities' Review, 54*(2), 12-21. Retrieved from http://www.aur.org.au/search/view/id/2920

Mok, J. K. H., & Lee, M. H. H. (2003). Globalization or glocalization? Higher education reforms in Singapore. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education 23,* 15-42. doi: 10.1080/0218879030230103

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ninnes, P. & Hellstén, M. (Eds.). (2005). *Internationalizing higher education: Critical explorations of pedagogy and policy.* Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

Nuss, E. M. (2003). The development of student affairs. In S. R. Komives & D.B. Voodard Jr. (Eds.), *Student Services: A Handbook for the Profession* (4th ed., pp. 45-62). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Office of Institutional Research and Reporting. (2016). *Official enrollment* [Data file]. Retrieved from https://irr2.gmu.edu/index.cfm?activePage=enroll&subLink=EnrollOff)

Osfield, K. J. (2008). *Internationalization of student affairs and services.* Washington, DC: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Oyler, K. L. (2009). *Higher education goes global: A comparative study of Internationalization at an American and Australian university*. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global. (AAT 304994203)

Pascale, C. (2011). *Cartographies of knowledge: Exploring qualitative epistemologies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pascarella, E.T., & Terenzini, P.T. (1992). Designing colleges for greater learning. *Planning for Higher Education, 20,* 1-6.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pickert, S. M. (1992). *Preparing for a global community: Achieving an international perspective in higher education*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 2. Washington, DC: The George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.

Ping, C. J. (1999). An expanded international role for student affairs. *New Directions for Student Services, 86,* 13-21. doi: 10.1002/ss.8602

Pomerantz, N. K. (2006). Student engagement: A new paradigm for student affairs. *The College Student Affairs Journal, 25*(2), 176-185.

Prowse, J., & Goddard, J.T. (2010). Teaching across cultures: Canada and Qatar. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 40,* 31-52. Retrieved from http://journals.sfu.ca/cjhe/index.php/cjhe/article/view/1568

Pyvis, D., & Chapman, A. (2005). Culture shock and the international student 'offshore'. *Journal of Research in International Education, 4,* 23-42. doi: 10.1177/1475240 905050289

Reybold, L. E., Lammert, J. D., & Stribling, S. M. (2012). Participant selection as a conscious research method: Thinking forward and the deliberation of "Emergent" findings. *Qualitative Research, 13,* 699-716. doi: 10.1177/1468794112465634

Reybold, L. E. (2015). Iterative and theorizing analysis techniques in (QR) case study [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from https://mymasonportal.gmu.edu/webapps/ blackboard/content/listContent.jsp?course_id=_275376_1&content_id=_50742 29_1

Rienties, B., Beausaert, S., Grohnert, T., Niemantsverdriet, S., & Kommers, P. (2012). Understanding academic performance of international students: The role of ethnicity, academic and social integration. *Higher Education, 3,* 685-700. doi: 10.1007/s10734-011-9468-1

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

Roberts, D. (2012). The Student Personnel Point of View as a catalyst for dialogue: 75 years and beyond. *Journal of College Student Development, 53*(1), 2-18. doi: 10. 1353/csd.2012.0006

Schapper, J., & Mayson, S. (2004). Internationalisation of curricula: An alternative to the Taylorisation of academic work. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, *26,* 189-205. doi: 10.1080/1360080042000218258

Schiller, A., & Park, M. (2014). The international campus as prototype for international collaboration: South Korea's Songdo global campus. *Global Partners in Education Journal*, *4*(1), 33-40. Retreived from www.gpejournal.org

Schlossberg, N. K. (1981). A model for analyzing human adaptation to transition. *The Counseling Psychologist, 9*(2), 2-18. doi: 10.1177/001100008100900202

Seifert, T., Perozzi, B., Bodine Al-Sharif, M. A., Li, W., & Wildman, K. (2014). *Student Affairs and Services in Global Perspective: A Preliminary Exploration of Practitioners' Background, Roles and Professional Development*. Toronto: International Association of Student Affairs and Services.

Seth, M. J. (2005). *Popular demand and education in South Korea: An historical overview.* Paper presented at meeting of the Korean Argentia Study Center, Buenos Aires, Argentina. Retrieved from http://www.uba.ar/ceca/download/ popular-demand.pdf

Shams, F., & Huisman, J. (2012). Managing offshore branch campuses: An analytical Framework for institutional strategies. *Journal of International Education, 16,* 106-127. doi: 10.1177/1028315311413470

Shams, F., & Huisman, J. (2014). The role of institutional dual embeddedness in the strategic local adaptation of international branch campuses: Evidence from Malaysia and Singapore. *Studies in Higher Education, 41*, 955-970. doi: 10.1080/03075079. 2014.966669

Shin, J.C. (2012). Higher education development in Korea: Western university ideas, Confucian tradition, and economic development. *Higher Education, 64,* 59-72. doi: 10.1007/s10734-011-9480-5

Soderqvist, M. (2002). *Internationalization and its management at higher-education institutions: Applying conceptual, content and discourse analysis*. Retreived from https://aaltodoc.aalto.fi/handle/123456789/11206

Sorenson, C.W. (1994). Success and education in South Korea. *Comparative Education Review, 38,* 10-35. Retrieved from http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/abs.10. 1086/447223

Stake, R.E. (1995). *The art of case study research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stearns, P. N. (2009). *Educating global citizens in colleges and universities: Challenges and opportunities.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Summers, M., & Volet, D. (2008). Students' attributes towards culturally mixed groups on international campuses: Impact of participation in diverse and non-diverse groups. *Studies in Higher Education, 33,* 357-370. doi: 10.1080/030750708022 11430

Terenzini, P. T., & Upcraft, M. L. (1996). Assessing program and service outcomes. In M. L. Upcraft & J. H. Schuh (Eds.), *Assessment in student affairs: A guide for practitioners* (pp. 217-239). San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Thelin, J.R. (2004). *A history of American higher education.* Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

The other arms race. (2013, October 26). *The Economist*. Retrieved from http://www. economist.com/news/special-report/21588204-south-koreas-education-fever-needs-cooling-other-arms-race

van der Wende, M. (1997). Missing links: The relationship between national policies for internationalisation and those for higher education in general. In T. Kalvermark & M. van der Wende (Eds.), *National policies for the itnernationalisation of higher education in Europe* (pp. 10-31). Stockholm: Hogskoleverket Studies, National Agency for Higher Education.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Wang, T. (2008). Intercultural dialogue and understanding: Implications for teachers. In L. Dunn & M. Wallace (Eds.), *Teaching in transnational higher education:*

Enhancing learning for offshore international students (pp. 57-66). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). *The Psychology of Culture Shock* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Wildavsky, B. (2010). *The great brain race: How global universities are reshaping the world.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Wilkins, S. & Balakrishnan, M. S. (2012). How well are international branch campuses serving students? *International Higher Education, 66*, 3-5. doi: 10.6017/ihe. 2012.66.8584

Wilkins, S. & Balakrishnan, M. S. (2013). Assessing student satisfaction in transnational higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 27,* 143-156. doi: 10.1108/09513541311297568

Wilkins, S., Balakrishnan, M. S., & Huisman, J. (2012). Student choice in higher education: Motivations for choosing to study at an international branch campus. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16,* 413-433. doi: 10.1177/1028315 5311429002

Wilkins, S. & Huisman, J. (2011). International student destination choice: The influence of home campus experience on the decision to consider branch campuses. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 21,* 61-83. doi:10.1080/0884121.2011.573592

Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2012). The international branch campus as transnational strategy in higher education. *Higher Education, 64*, 627-645. doi: 10.1007/s10734 -012-9516-5

Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2015). Factors affecting university image formation among prospective higher education students: The case of international branch campuses. *Studies in Higher Education, 40,* 1256-1272. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2014.881 347

Yin, R. K. (2011). *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Yin, R.K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Zhou, Y., Jindal-Snape, D., Topping, K., & Todman, J. (2008). Theoretical models of culture shock and adaptation in international students in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 33*(1), 63-75. doi: 10.1080/03075070701794833

Ziguras, C. (2008). The cultural politics of transnational education: Idiological and pedagogical issues for teaching staff. In L. Dunn & M. Wallace (Eds.), *Teaching in transnational higher education: Enhancing learning for offshore international students* (pp. 57-66). New York, NY: Routledge.

Biography

Kaitlin Oyler Cicchetti graduated from Mechanicsburg High School in Mechanicsburg, Pennsylvania in 2003. She received her Bachelor of Arts in Film Studies and Spanish from the University of North Carolina Wilmington in 2007. Kaitlin received her Master of Education in Higher Education and Student Affairs from the University of South Carolina in 2009. Kaitlin has worked in student affairs, and in particular orientation and family programs, at the University of West Florida and George Mason University.