



All Theses and Dissertations

2017-03-01

Challenges and Achievements: Student Educational Experiences in the Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs at the CCU Business School, China

Huili Tang
Brigham Young University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd>



Part of the [Educational Leadership Commons](#)

BYU ScholarsArchive Citation

Tang, Huili, "Challenges and Achievements: Student Educational Experiences in the Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs at the CCU Business School, China" (2017). *All Theses and Dissertations*. 6700.
<https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd/6700>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by BYU ScholarsArchive. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of BYU ScholarsArchive. For more information, please contact scholarsarchive@byu.edu, ellen_amatangelo@byu.edu.

Challenges and Achievements: Student Educational Experiences
in the Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs
at the CCU Business School, China

Huili Tang

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

Steven J. Hite, Chair
Julie M. Hite
David Boren
E. Vance Randall
Scott Ferrin

Department of Educational Leadership & Foundations
Brigham Young University

Copyright © 2017 Huili Tang

All Rights Reserved

ABSTRACT

Challenges and Achievements: Student Educational Experiences in the Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs at the CCU Business School, China

Huili Tang

Department of Educational Leadership & Foundations, BYU
Doctor of Education

This ontologically qualitative research study was conducted at Central China University (CCU, pseudonym). The purpose of this research was to (a) explore student narratives regarding their educational experiences in the CCU Business School's *at-home* internationalization programs; (b) provide an in-depth narrative analysis of student learning challenges and achievements; and (c) add valuable research-based knowledge of student-described experiences at CCU for use by program administrators.

The findings focused on student-identified links between the challenges they encounter and their achievements. Additionally, student performance level and sex were closely associated with the challenges and achievements that students reported. In understanding the results, the concepts of student learning found in the approaches of learned optimism, growth mindset, and grit provide potentially fruitful insights. The findings of this research have powerful, instructive implications for administrators at CCU for determining how student challenges should be strategically chosen and shaped to generate specific, positive student achievements.

Keywords: internationalization, higher education, challenges, achievements, growth mindset, grit, China

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I treasure the opportunity of being accepted to BYU's Ed.D. Educational Leadership program, and I have tried my utmost to be an engaged and productive student. Just like a fledgling bird, I was terrified to leave the nest, and had no confidence when I first enrolled in the program. This academic journey ended up being fulfilling and full of achievements. Now, I hope to become a valued, scholarly alumna of BYU and the Department of Educational Leadership & Foundations. The tremendous support and love of my family, professors, and friends made this fruitful completion of my studies possible.

I express my sincere and deep gratitude to my committee chair, Dr. Steven Hite, who has been a wise person and great mentor. His encouragement, support, and meticulous mentoring mechanisms helped me become confident and hopeful in learning, which transformed me from an inexperienced student into an independent researcher. His dedication influenced me positively, both academically and personally. Dr. Steven Hite's passion and ethics in his profession have inspired me in so many ways. I acknowledge great gratitude for Dr. Julie Hite, who contributed extra time, effort, and insights throughout my dissertation journey. Her efforts, particularly in data analysis and interpretation, were far beyond a typical committee member, and I appreciate her deeply. I am thankful for the rest of my committee, Dr. David Boren, Dr. E. Vance Randall, and Dr. Scott Ferrin, for their insightful feedback and contributions to my study. Dr. E. Vance Randall's, Dr. Pamela Hallam's, and Dr. LeGrand Richards' positive attitude and trust of my ability encouraged me to move forward with faith. I am very thankful for the encouragement of Patrick Dooley, Shellee Dooley, Dr. Margaret Whalley, Dr. Anthony Whalley, and Angela Garner and their assistance in my academic pursuits.

The love and care of many family-like friends, in China and the USA, has been a constant source of help and comfort. I am truly grateful for the mentoring of Prof. Xueru Li and her everlasting trust and support for so many years. I also extend my gratitude to Dr. Xia Yang and other dear colleagues in China for their support. My Ed.D. cohort has been united and closely bounded together. In particular, the support and facilitation of Samuel Brown and Joseph Jenson was invaluable.

Finally, and most importantly, I owe a deep debt of gratitude to my father, mother, and siblings. Without their endless and unconditional love, as well as their generous financial and spiritual assistance, this journey would not have been possible. My family has been always there for me. My parents taught me to be an independent, optimistic, and grateful human being, which teaching helps me maintain good values and principles in life, and increases my desire to be a better person in service of others.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
DESCRIPTION OF DISSERTATION CONTENT AND STRUCTURE	ix
TEXT OF ARTICLE.....	1
Background.....	1
Globalization and Higher Education.....	1
Theoretical Frameworks	3
Evolution of internationalization.	3
Internationalization rationales and strategies.....	4
Internationalization of business curricula.	5
Higher Education Internationalization in China	6
CCU Business School.....	7
Methodology.....	8
Selection of Participants	8
Data Collection	9
Data Analysis	11
Findings.....	12
Challenges and Achievements	12

Challenges by Academic Performance and Sex.....	15
Achievements by Academic Performance and Sex	17
Discussion.....	21
Challenges Lead to Achievements	21
Performance, Sex, Challenges, and Achievements.....	23
Implications.....	26
Conclusion	29
Article References.....	30
APPENDIX A: EXTENDED LITERATURE REVIEW	41
APPENDIX B: DETAILED METHODS	94
APPENDIX C: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	116
APPENDIX D: IRB APPROVAL.....	126
APPENDIX E: OPEN CODING STRUCTURE AND THEMES	131
APPENDIX F: AXIAL CODING THEMES	135
APPENDIX G: TABLES OF SELECTIVE CODING.....	138
DISSERTATION REFERENCES.....	141

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Page
1. Participants.....	9
2. Patterns of Achievements by Challenges (n=29).....	13
3. Challenges by Academic Performance and Sex (n=29).....	16
4. Achievements by Academic Performance and Sex (n=29).....	18

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	Page
1. The process of data collection and processing.....	10

DESCRIPTION OF DISSERTATION CONTENT AND STRUCTURE

This manuscript is presented in the format of the hybrid dissertation. The hybrid format focuses on producing a journal-ready manuscript which is considered by the dissertation committee to be ready for submission for publication. Therefore, this dissertation does not have chapters in the traditional dissertation format. The manuscript focuses on the presentation of the scholarly article. This hybrid dissertation also includes appended materials. Appendix A includes an expanded literature review, and Appendix B includes an expanded methods section. Appendix C includes research instruments, and Appendix D includes evidence of Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. Appendix E includes open coding structure and themes, and Appendix F includes axial coding themes. Appendix G includes tables of selective coding.

This hybrid dissertation format contains two reference lists. The first reference list contains references for citations included in the journal-ready article. The second reference list contains references for all citations used in the journal article and appendices.

The targeted journal for this dissertation article is *The Journal of Studies in International Education (JSIE)*, a SAGE publication (Tier 1; 2016 Impact Factor: 1.066). As clarified in the first paragraph of its description and submission guidelines online, *JSIE* is:

the premiere forum for higher education leaders, administrators, educators, researchers and policy makers interested in all facets of the internationalization of higher education. Articles discuss theoretical, conceptual and practical aspects of internationalization including regional, national and institutional policies and strategies, internationalization of the curriculum, issues surrounding international students and cross-border delivery of education (Journal of Studies in International Education, 2017).

According to the first paragraph of submission guidelines on the journal's website, the target audience for this journal is composed of "international audience of researchers, students and practitioners and requires that authors reference a range of relevant international literature" (Journal of Studies in International Education, 2017). *JSIE* publishes articles exploring concepts, strategies, approaches and issues of relevance to the internationalization of higher education which make a significant and original contribution to theory and practice.

JSIE requires the authors to include a word count with their manuscript (see page 1). The online submission guidelines indicate that a "typical manuscript will be between 4000–6000 words, including tables, references, captions and endnotes" (Journal of Studies in International Education, 2017). An abstract of no more than 150 words and a few keywords are also required. Prior to writing this dissertation article, the author analyzed the length of five sampled articles reporting original, empirical research from the 2014-16 *JSIE* publication years (mean: 8,660 words (all-inclusive), s.d. 1,528, range 7,567 to 11,251, median 9,409). These qualitative research articles focus on some aspects of internationalization of higher education and are similar to this article. The all-inclusive word count of the article manuscript in this hybrid dissertation article is 9368 (above the sample's mean, but within ± 1 s.d., and 0.4% shorter than the median length). As such, the department approved the length of this dissertation article.

TEXT OF ARTICLE

(Total Word Count: 9368)

Background

Internationalization has become a worldwide phenomenon and a leading, high-impact global direction in contemporary higher education (HE) (Altbach, 2002). A large number of the exploratory studies of HE internationalization have focused mostly on a highly aggregated macro-level of inquiry (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Braskamp, 2009; Chan & Lo, 2008; Davies, 1995; Dolby, 2011; Green, 2002; Huang, 2003, 2007; Knight, 2007, 2008, 2012; Mok & Yu, 2013). Further, most focus on Western, developed contexts (Ayoubi & Massoud, 2007; Caruana & Spurling, 2007; De Wit, 1995, 2009; Edwards, 2007; Van der Wende, 2007). As a result, few studies focus on the micro-level at individual institutions or on specific internationalization programs. Of those that examine specific internationalization business programs, very few explore the perspective of students and none deal with the student experience in HE internationalization programs in China.

This ontologically qualitative research study investigates female and male student educational experiences in four HE internationalization pilot business programs as a one-university case study in China. The study explores the student narrative of these programs at Central China University (pseudonym, hereafter CCU) to add valuable research-based knowledge of student-described experiences in the HE internationalization business programs at CCU for use by program administrators.

Globalization and Higher Education

Globalization, a term commonly used in economics, political science, and the social sciences, has been adopted in the contemporary context of HE internationalization programs to

describe a central aspect of their evolution in the last 20 years (Knight, 2012). Educationalists regard globalization as concurrently an economic, social, political, and cultural force that pushes higher education in the direction of embracing more international participation (Altbach & Knight, 2007). The fact that HE institutions and the world academic system are aware of, and react to, the reality of globalization is largely due to the role HE plays in helping students gain knowledge to meet demands in the emerging global marketplace and generate new knowledge and skills that propel national economies in the context of globalization (Altbach, 2004).

Global economic forces and free trade stimulate the academic mobility of HE. For example, “The World Trade Organization (WTO) provides a regulatory framework to encourage international trade in education and service-related industries as part of negotiating the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)” (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 291). GATS was the first international legal trade agreement that clearly confirmed the normalization of international trade in higher education and led toward HE internationalization (Knight, 2003a).

The tremendous impact of globalization on HE worldwide has escalated the international dimensions of HE programming, internships, and employment opportunities. The consequences of HE globalization include “the integration of research, the use of English as the lingua franca for scientific communication, [and] the growing international labor market for scholars and scientists...” (Altbach, 2007, p. 291). Academic activities in HE institutions in both developed and developing countries are shaped dramatically by globalization. HE institutions are encouraged by their local and national governments to adjust their mission and develop innovative strategies for improving delivery systems (Gacel-Ávila, 2005) to better provide students with knowledge as well as the cultivation of talents and abilities to successfully participate as qualified global citizens. Graduates of HE institutions must both maintain a

competitive edge in the global arena and embrace the globalized world by both understanding their own culture and accommodating better to local contexts with respect for other societies and cultures (Gacel-Ávila, 2005). Globalization has affected much and will continue to inevitably and extensively further impact HE adaptations (Altbach, 2004).

Theoretical Frameworks

The most dominant contemporary framework of HE internationalization derives from the works of Arum & Van de Water (1992), Knight (1993, 1994, 1997), De Wit (1995), Altbach (2002, 2007), Altbach and Knight (2007), and Knight (2004, 2012). These works combine to establish a comprehensive definition, approach, and rationale, as well as the most commonly used strategies of HE internationalization.

Evolution of internationalization. The concept of *internationalization* first appeared in the field of political science and government relations (Bauer, 1968; Wilson, 1964).

Internationalization emerged as a construct in HE in the 1970s and expanded in the 1980s (Harari, 1972; Klasek, 1992; Knight, 1994, 2007, 2012, 2016). The early notion of internationalization focused on education programs, teaching and curricula to prepare students to function internationally (Arum & Van de Water, 1992; Knight, 1993; Van der Wende, 1997b).

Altbach then redefined the construct as “the specific policies and initiatives of individual academic institutions, systems, or countries that deal with global trends” (2002, p. 29).

The most current and broadly accepted definition of HE internationalization at the national/sector/institutional levels as framed by Knight (2003) has undergone only slight modification until taking its current form as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2015, p. 2). Knight’s definition generates an approach that can “apply to

many different countries, cultures and education systems” (Knight, 2012, p. 29) and has been widely cited and well accepted as the principal conceptualization of HE internationalization.

Internationalization rationales and strategies. The emergence and development of HE internationalization is rooted in the reciprocal relationship between higher education and globalization. “Internationalization [of HE] is both a response to globalization as well as an agent of globalization” (Knight, 2003b, p. 3) which drives the development of HE significantly (Altbach, 2007). The driving forces of HE internationalization are typically identified as economic (fiscal), political, social/cultural, human resources development, and the domestic and global knowledge economy. Thus, major national and institutional strategies and approaches are formulated and carefully implemented within closely coordinated organizational and academic dimensions.

Rationales. The rationales for internationalization of HE in individual countries is mainly driven by their unique culture, national politics and pressures due to changes in the economic and political environment domestically and internationally (Scott, 1994). Current HE internationalization is “strongly driven by economic factors in a more competitive environment at a global level” (Huang, 2007, p. 51).

Human capital and knowledge economy development, along with academic, economic, political, and social/cultural rationales, drive the internationalization processes at all levels (Knight, 2012). These rationales provide the impetus for countries and HE to change policies and programs to facilitate the implementation of internationalization (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Strategies. No one strategy fits all HE internationalization contexts or efforts to accommodate national, regional and institutional traditions. Program and organization strategies draw differentially upon approaches toward activities, competencies, ethos and processes

(Knight, 1997; Qiang, 2003). Throughout the emergence and development of HE internationalization, the main goal is “achieving a successful and sustainable integration of the international dimension” (Knight, 1997, p. 13) while also accommodating crucial national, regional and institutional traditions. The result is both internationalized curricula and programs which help students and faculty maintain competence in the global marketplace and also an institutional ethos that creates sustainable cultures and values that support and integrate international and intercultural dimensions into learning, teaching, and research (Qiang, 2003).

Knight’s division of two separate, but closely interdependent, pillars of “internationalization at home” and “cross-border education” (2012, p. 35) further clarifies common strategies adopted in HE internationalization. HE internationalization *at home* refers to localized strategies of individual HE institutions to cope with impacts due to the globalized economy, society, culture, and marketplace. The *at-home* strategy “integrate[s] international, intercultural and comparative perspective into the student experience through campus-based and virtual activities” (Knight, 2012, p. 35) and into the mission and delivery of HE campus-based internationalization academic programs (Knight, 2004). *Cross-border* strategies embrace the more historically common approaches of sending students and faculty to other countries and establishing programs, services and projects across nations for educational experiences.

Internationalization of business curricula. Scholars have provided rationales and specific strategies for internationalizing business education and curricula since the 1990s, when the need for internationalizing business programs’ curricula to meet emerging, urgent global demands (Black, 2004; Cavusgil, 1991; Webb, Mayer, Pioche, & Allen, 1999). Business leaders believed that business schools should take a mission-based strategy to incorporate international business into their programs and curricula to prepare graduates competitive in the global

marketplace with a global business mindset and globalized professional skills and perspectives (Bennett & Kane, 2011; Cort, Das, & Synn, 2011; Kedia & Englis, 2011; Kedia, Harveston, & Bhagat, 2001).

Internationalization of business curricula continues to be a critically important issue (Absalom & Vadura, 2006; Adhikari, Flanigan, & Tondkar, 1999; Bettencourt, 2011; Clifford, 2005; Cort et al., 2011; Huang, 2006; LeBlanc, 2007; Van der Wende, 1997a; Zimitat, 2008). The need for internationalizing curricula is crucial due to “the rising levels of students demand for internationalized courses, the growing influence of international and multinational business, and the large numbers of cross-border mergers, strategic alliances [which have] stimulated employers’ needs for staff with international knowledge and perspectives” (Bennett & Kane, 2011, p. 354). Internationalizing curricula is one of the key strategies for both *at-home* and *cross-border* HE internationalization.

Higher Education Internationalization in China

In response to pressures created by globalization and internationalization, the Ministry of Education (MOE) of China has urged, and financially incentivized, Chinese universities to make substantial adjustments in their programs to catch up and keep pace with HE internationalization worldwide (Chan & Lo, 2008). HE internationalization provides China the opportunity to restructure its tertiary educational system and carry out needed educational reforms related to HE internationalization during the shift from a Soviet-style higher education system to the globally-competitive system of today. *The Outline of the National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development - 2010-2020* (MOE, 2010) is the most important policy document regarding the current HE internationalization movement in China. This policy clearly elaborates the nation’s goals and expectations for HE and how to further open Chinese HE to the

world to help China embrace and create world-class universities. To compete internationally, MOE launched the *211 Project*, *985 Project*, and *World Class University Project* to develop selective top Chinese universities into Ivy League-like, world-class universities (Mok, 2007).

The most notable characteristic of the Chinese HE internationalization strategy is its “vigorous engagement with the outside world, especially with Western societies” (Yang, 2014, p. 154). This approach moved from the strategy of “taking in” and “going out” (Huang, 2003, p. 225) to “developing international collaborations with overseas institutions...” (Mok, 2007, p. 445). Chinese universities have been vigorously embracing the opportunity, presented by the dynamic developments of the global economy, to better prepare Chinese students to meet the challenges and demands of the international marketplace (Wang, 2014; Yang, 2014; Yuan, 2011).

CCU Business School

CCU is one of the earliest major universities of international studies established in China. CCU has become a leader in aligning with China’s economic development trajectory, producing competitive graduates who can meet the demands of the fierce marketplace, both domestically and globally. CCU focuses on internationalization *at-home* strategies by using its inherently advantageous language-based resources to penetrate into non-language disciplinary fields.

CCU Business School was established in 2002 for the purpose of leading the university to develop as a comprehensive university. In addition to establishing traditional business programs, CCU Business School designed four internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs in accordance with the professional requirements of ACCA and CIMA.¹ The pilot programs are

¹ The acronym ACCA refers to the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants and CIMA refers to the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants. ACCA is the global body for professional accountants, while CIMA is the world’s largest and most prestigious professional body of management accountants. The ACCA and CIMA Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs have ACCA and CIMA certificate-qualifying exam courses embedded in the regular baccalaureate programs (also called instructional reform programs/classes).

typical of *at-home* internationalization program efforts in China and designed to contribute to the larger Chinese national imperative regarding economic development and to meet the CCU institutional goal of cultivating students to be highly innovative, capable, interculturally competent, and globalized citizens (CCU, 2016). The CCU Business School's *at-home* internationalization strategy has, by all appearances, been very successful in cultivating global citizens as well as enhancing the school's global academic reputation and building partnerships with international business organizations in China and abroad (CCU Business School, 2016).

Methodology

This ontologically qualitative study (Straus & Corbin, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Woods, Gapp, & King, 2016) was conducted in China at CCU. The lead author had access to the campus and students for interviews and a deep understanding of the four pilot programs (see note in Table 1). Student learning experiences in the four pilot programs were gathered through personal interviews to generate grounded insights into the challenges and achievements of participation in these Chinese internationalization programs.

Selection of Participants

The entire population of undergraduate students in the four ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School (n=670) were included in the four-stage process to select participants. First, the 670 students were clustered based on the four programs in which they were enrolled. Next, they were categorized within each group according to their sex (Stage 2) and then placed in a high, medium or low academic performance group according to their program-specific GPA (Stage 3). Finally, students were clustered according to the cohort year of enrollment as freshman, sophomores, juniors, or seniors (Stage 4). This procedure is a form of four-stage, non-proportional, stratified sampling (Flick,

Table 1

Participants

Demographics		Academic Performance Level			
		High (n=12)	Average (n=9)	Low (n=8)	Total (n=29)
Sex	Male (n=15)	6	5	4	29
	Female (n=14)	6	4	4	
Cohort	Senior (n=11)	5	3	3	29
	Junior (n=9)	3	4	2	
	Sophomore (n=9)	4	2	3	
Program Type	BA-CIMA (n=8)	3	3	2	29
	BE-CIMA (n=7)	3	2	2	
	BE-ACCA (n=7)	3	2	2	
	ACCT-ACCA (n=7)	3	2	2	

Note. BA-CIMA refers to Business Administration – CIMA program, BE-CIMA refers to Business English – CIMA program, BE-ACCA refers to Business English – ACCA program, and ACCT- ACCA refers to Accounting – ACCA program.

2009; Merriam, 1998; Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2013; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). However, the sampling used no random selection and was designed with the purpose of creating a maximally variant spectrum of participants rather than for setting up inferential statistical analyses.

Twenty-nine students were ultimately selected and interviewed (see Table 1). The 2015 freshman cohort was excluded because of their delayed enrollment caused by mandatory freshman military training in late September and early October 2015 and, therefore, lack of availability during the interview period.

Data Collection

In this study, we used two instruments: (a) a basic demographic questionnaire; and (b) an interview protocol. The demographics collected, typical for research including student participants, included sex, cohort, program type, and academic performance level. The creation of the interview protocol followed the guidelines for episodic interviews (Flick, 1997). As

contrasted with typical open-ended interview protocols, which ask various questions on multiple topics, episodic interviews focus on very few question topics and seek to explore how participants construct both episodic and semantic knowledge. Flick (1997) clarifies that “episodic knowledge comprises knowledge which is linked to concrete circumstances (time, space, persons, events, situations), whereas semantic knowledge is more abstract, generalised and decontextualised from specific situations and events” (p. 7).

The core of the interview protocol focused on the learning challenges and achievements the participating students described in their specific internationalization program. The six questions exploring challenges and achievements were designed to explore “episodes” which illustrated responses pointing a concrete example, “reisodes” describing additional examples, and “subjective definitions and argumentative-theoretical statements” which constituted reflections on the examples provided by the participants (Flick, 1997, pp. 20-21). Figure 1 illustrates the process of data collection and processing. Prior to the interviews being carried out, consent was obtained from the CCU Provost, the academic officer, and potential student participants.

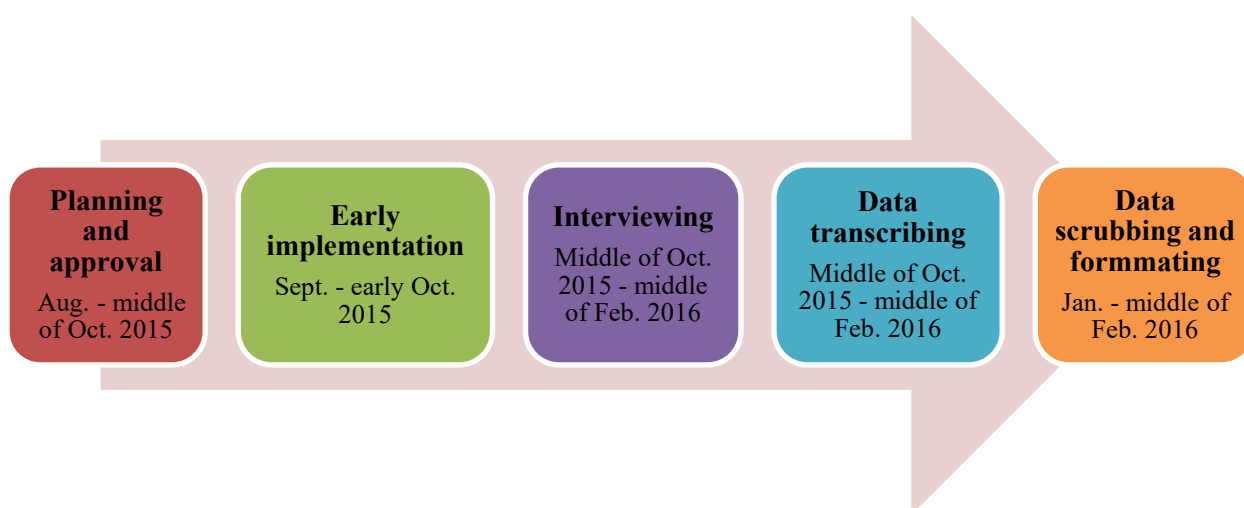


Figure 1. The process of data collection and processing.

The interviews were transcribed in Mandarin and were kept in that language throughout the coding and analysis process. Participant demographics were coded in an Excel worksheet and then imported as case classifications in QSR NVivo (Version 10, 2012). NVivo 10 was used as the analytical tool for all of the data coding, exploration and analysis.

Data Analysis

The narrative accounts of the participating students, along with their demographic data, formed the basis for the data analysis. The analyses proceeded under the rubric of grounded theory methodology as initially proposed by Strauss and Corbin in 1990, in contrast to the earlier form of grounded theory created by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The distinction between the two is important (Woods, Gapp & King, 2016), and this distinction guided the flow of analysis in this project. The “comprehensive narrative and thematic analysis” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 1) comprised a “systematic, step-by-step, and iterative and reflexive process” (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006, p. 83).

The analysis consisted of the three stages of open, axial, and selective coding (Amsteus, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The coding structure was subjected to review by two external teams. First, two native Chinese doctoral students reviewed the coding of the interviews to the NVivo node structure to verify both the accuracy of the coding from the Chinese transcripts and to affirm the reasonable fit of the node structure to the data. Second, two American English-speaking doctoral students who were trained in NVivo analysis reviewed the node structure to explore and verify the logic of the structure and relationship between the constructs implied by the nodes. Both teams made valuable suggestions for changes and improvements and concurred with the final coding construction. During open coding, the threshold for a theme was set at 66% of respondents mentioning the theme.

During the axial coding stage, analyses sought for cross-theme patterns. The threshold for inclusion of cross-theme patterns was increased to 80% due to the low number of respondents involved in cross-theme pattern groups. Using the more conservative axial-coding threshold of 80% resulted in the identified patterns being more defensible and robust. The patterns discovered in axial coding were verified, matrix and display analyses were performed, and the results were reviewed by the researchers. The selective coding stage led to the identification of the final grounded results discussed in this paper.

Findings

The findings identify the biggest challenges and greatest achievements that students described in their experiences with their internationalization pilot programs. We also present meaningful associative patterns between student demographics and their reported experiences. At the outset, we note that a key issue that we had expected to find was not borne out in the final selective coding. That is, the number of the students reporting faculty quality issues (e.g., faculty members have unequal cross-border experience and demonstrate uneven competencies in non-Chinese contexts and languages) did not exceed the threshold for inclusion. Consequently, while this major issue was anticipated at the outset, it was not supported by the data; while those themes found to be most often mentioned by participants were largely unanticipated at the outset of the research.

Challenges and Achievements

Challenges and achievements demonstrated very different findings. Themes regarding students' challenges mainly focused on academic program issues, while achievements were found in academic development, personal development and relationship factors. Table 2 shows an interesting pattern between student reports regarding the intersection of challenges and

Table 2

Patterns of Achievements by Challenges (n=29)

Achievements	Challenges				
	Learning Business Content in English (n=23)	Learning English from Business Content (n=23)	High Intensity of Curriculum and Schedule (n=25)	Heavy Study Load (n=21)	Difficulty in Time Allocation (n=19)
Academic Development					
Acquisition of Business Knowledge (n=26)	21 (72%)	20 (69%)	22 (76%)	18 (62%)	17 (59%)
Shift of Paradigm (n=22)	18 (62%)	19 (66%)	20 (69%)	15 (52%)	13 (45%)
Personal Development					
Transform to Positive Attitude (n=27)	23 (79%)	22 (76%)	23 (79%)	19 (66%)	19 (66%)
Confidence and Fulfillment (n=27)	21 (72%)	21 (72%)	23 (79%)	20 (69%)	18 (62%)
Acquiring Competitive Edge (n=25)	21 (72%)	20 (69%)	21 (72%)	20 (69%)	18 (62%)
Increased Personal Management Ability (n=22)	19 (66%)	18 (62%)	18 (62%)	15 (52%)	17 (59%)
Acquiring Skills (n=28)	23 (79%)	23 (79%)	24 (83%)	19 (66%)	18 (62%)
Relationship Factors					
Influenced Positively	16 (55%)	16 (55%)	16 (55%)	15 (52%)	14 (48%)

Note. Not everyone reported each achievement or challenge theme individually or in combination with other themes in this table. Consequently, none of the reported themes or patterns equal the total sample size of 29. Patterns that met the 66% threshold for intersection of themes are indicated in bold font, indicating the percentage of all 29 participants that could have responded in each cell.

achievements in their learning experiences. With very few exceptions, while students reported that learning business content in English, learning English from business content, and the high intensity of the curriculum and schedule were great challenges, they also declared that these same elements were also the source of great achievements. Having a heavy study load also intersected with over half of the achievements. The following comments illustrate how these students describe the intersection between challenges and achievements.

Attending National level English and CIMA contests improved my English language and business presentation skills, which, meanwhile, helped me to develop the skill to act freely to changing circumstances... Working on business case analysis in classes and competitions with other team members greatly enhanced my problem-solving and communication skills. These skills are “hard-skills”. Together with the “soft-skills” [positive attitude, personal management ability, paradigm shift] I have gained, I am very competitive. (FH4BE-CIMA²)

BE-ACCA’s curriculum and schedule is so intense that it occupied most of our time. We had no time to participate in any [non-academic] activities ... I believe that learning knowledge in the program is secondary; developing a very positive attitude towards perseverance and challenges in learning is the most valuable thing I have accomplished ... Acquiring knowledge of a certain field is needed in a certain time in my life, but having good attitude and spirit determines everything, which will have a great impact in my whole life. (FA3BE-ACCA)

² Each participant’s name was replaced with a code: F = female, M = male; H = high, A = average, and L = low academic performance; 1, 2, 3, or 4 refers to cohort/year enrolled; BA-CIMA, BE-CIMA, BE-ACCA, and AC-ACCA refer to the internationalization pilot program. Consequently, FH4BA-CIMA refers to a female, high performing senior in the BA-CIMA program.

Challenges by Academic Performance and Sex

When considering the biggest challenges reported by participants, an apparent association existed between participant academic performance and sex. Patterns in Table 3 indicate that, in general, challenges reported by high and low-performing students more often passed the threshold than those mentioned by average-performing students. This pattern is especially apparent for high and low-performing female students, where *all* of the challenges were reported as big by most or all of the participants. Examples of how even high-performing students report learning business content in English language context and learning English in the business context as challenges are seen in the following quotes.

English language learning was really a big problem at the very beginning because I had never exposed myself to such technical subject in English. They are the courses on accounting, finance and management in English. It was so hard to understand and cope with. It took me a while to adjust myself by checking English words in a dictionary to learn accounting, but the whole process was very painful. (MH4BE-ACCA)

I encountered problems when I learned English in the business context. I don't understand the business concepts [when] explained in English. I had thought globalization and internationalized business would have made comprehension of business in English language easier, but the British mindset and English used was too hard for me to understand. (FH2BA-CIMA)

The only challenge reported as problematic in all three performance groups was the high intensity of curriculum and schedule. This challenge was uniformly seen by the female participants, with only one female student (from the high-performing group) not reporting it as a

Table 3

Challenges by Academic Performance and Sex (n=29)

Challenges	Academic Performance								
	High (n=12)			Average (n=9)			Low (n=8)		
	Sex			Sex			Sex		
	All (n=12)	M (n=6)	F (n=6)	All (n=9)	M (n=5)	F (n=4)	All (n=8)	M (n=4)	F (n=4)
Learning Business Content in English (n=23)	11 (92%)	6 (100%)	5 (83%)	5 (56%)	2 (40%)	3 (75%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Learning English from Business Content (n=23)	11 (92%)	6 (100%)	5 (83%)	6 (67%)	3 (60%)	3 (75%)	6 (75%)	2 (50%)	4 (100%)
High Intensity of Curriculum and Schedule (n=25)	9 (75%)	4 (67%)	5 (83%)	9 (100%)	5 (100%)	4 (100%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Heavy Study Load (n=21)	9 (75%)	3 (50%)	6 (100%)	5 (56%)	2 (40%)	3 (75%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)

Note. The threshold for a pattern (indicated in bold font) was set at 80% of students reporting the above four categories as biggest challenges by academic performance and sex, since fewer participants could have been found in each cell than in themes alone.

challenge. Interestingly, all average-performing students of both sexes reported the high intensity of curriculum and schedule as a big challenge. Three female students, representing each of the three performance levels, reported this challenge in the following ways.

I think our class schedule was very tight and the curriculum is very intense. I needed quite big chunk of time to study, but the time available was too little. [There was] no time to digest the knowledge... (FH3AC-ACCA)

We have never learned accounting in high school. The business school offered high intensity accounting classes in English immediately, and many of us got lost and couldn't bear [it]. (FA2BE-CIMA)

Our schedule was so full from Monday to Friday. A few weeks before the global certificate tests, other students had gone home to take summer holiday, but we were still kept on campus to take intensive training classes all day. We felt like our life went back to nightmare-like senior year in high school! (FL3BA-CIMA)

Achievements by Academic Performance and Sex

Not only did the students report encountering challenges, but they also discussed areas in which they felt they had achieved. In fact, a majority of the students in the pilot programs reported achievements and did so to a greater degree than their reporting of challenges. As seen with challenges, interesting patterns were evident when both academic performance and sex were included in the analysis. Table 4 reflects the distributions of achievements when considered by academic performance and sex.

Table 4

Achievements by Academic Performance and Sex (n=29)

Achievements	Academic Performance								
	High (n=12)			Average (n=9)			Low (n=8)		
	Sex			Sex			Sex		
	All (n=12)	M (n=6)	F (n=6)	All (n=9)	M (n=5)	F (n=4)	All (n=8)	M (n=4)	F (n=4)
Academic Development									
Acquisition of Business Knowledge (n=26)	10 (83%)	6 (100%)	4 (67%)	8 (89%)	4 (80%)	4 (100%)	8 (100%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)
Shift of Paradigm (n=22)	9 (75%)	5 (83%)	4 (67%)	8 (89%)	4 (80%)	4 (100%)	5 (63%)	3 (75%)	2 (50%)
Personal Development									
Transform to Positive Attitude (n=27)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	8 (89%)	4 (80%)	4 (100%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Confidence and Fulfillment (n=27)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	8 (89%)	5 (100%)	3 (75%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Acquiring Competitive Edge (n=25)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (67%)	2 (40%)	4 (100%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Increased Personal Management Ability (n=22)	11 (92%)	6 (100%)	5 (83%)	6 (67%)	3 (60%)	3 (75%)	5 (63%)	2 (50%)	3 (75%)
Acquiring Skills (n=28)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	8 (89%)	5 (100%)	3 (75%)	8 (100%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)
Relationship Factors									
Influenced Positively by Others (n=19)	7 (58%)	3 (50%)	4 (67%)	6 (67%)	2 (40%)	4 (100%)	6 (75%)	2 (50%)	4 (100%)

Note. The threshold for a pattern (indicated in bold font) was set at 80% of students reporting the eight achievements by academic performance and sex, since fewer participants could have been found in each cell than in themes alone.

Academic development demonstrated an interesting performance-by-sex pattern. While male participants in each performance level reported acquisition of business knowledge as an achievement, not all female participants did. Even though *all* (100%) average and low-performing females followed the same pattern as males, high-performing females were the only group who failed to report the same achievement. Following is how a low-performing female describes her achievement in the acquisition of business knowledge.

Comparing with other traditional accounting programs, ACCA program is provided more internationalized business and accounting courses. We learned a lot of general principles of international accounting, international business, marketing and management. (FL2 ACCT-ACCA)

In all five domains of personal development all students at the high-performance level, regardless of sex, reported patterns of achievement. At the same time, females in the low-performing group reported 100% achievement in four of the five domains. Three high-performing students emphasized their achievement in personal development in the following ways.

The way of thinking we have been exposed to is very hard to find in traditional Chinese education. Through CIMA courses, we [students] realized that it is necessary to look at problem from two aspects and find a more effective way to solve it. I believe learning in the pilot program helped me to develop different angles to see things. (MH4BE-CIMA)

I mentioned earlier that if I can master one skill and make the best use of it in my future job, I will have a brighter future. If I can grasp multiple skills and learning different subjects to broaden my horizon, the probability of being competitive among many excellent people is enhanced. [The] pilot program provided me this platform, which can be proved by all of the prizes and awards I have won, [and] all kinds of English and business contests I have participated in. The competitive edge I have gained will help me to have a bright future. (FH4BA-CIMA)

I think that most students' self-directed learning ability/skill is very strong in our program. My language (English), communication, presentation, teamwork skills are significantly improved. Comparing with students of many other programs in the Business school, our language skill is obviously much stronger. (MH3BA-CIMA)

Finally, achievement by academic performance and sex relative to relationship factors demonstrates a pattern similar to that seen in achievements in academic development. Specifically, while high-performing female students did not indicate that being influenced positively by other people as an achievement they experienced in their pilot program participation, *all* (100%) of the average and low-performing females did report this achievement. One academically low-performing female student voiced her appreciation of others' positive influence in the following way.

Quite a few students in my class are working diligently, and they are outstanding in many aspects. I am motivated by these students and work hard. I found that

everyone has a very clear goal and work hard to commit themselves to the goals. I hope that I can become as excellent as them in future. (FL2ACCT-ACCA)

Additionally, none of the male student response patterns in any of the performance groups indicated achievement in the relationship factor of being influenced positively by others.

Discussion

The student participants described an academic journey full of both the frustrations of challenges and the satisfaction of achievements. During initial analyses, the dominant themes appeared to be heavy study load, high intensity of the curriculum, and the difficulty of learning business concepts and business English. However, with further analysis, the dominant patterns emerged that the students' consistent efforts and tenacity rewarded them with a strong sense of achievement associated directly with the very challenges they discussed. The students discussed breaking through the English language barrier to make a successful paradigm shift, which broadened their personal and future employment horizons and perspectives. The internationalization *at-home* programs are designed to embrace the contemporary multi-disciplinary approach commonly adopted in HE, and enable students to acquire critical knowledge, improve their intercultural business communication skills, and enhance their personal sense of confidence and fulfillment.

Challenges Lead to Achievements

The participants clearly believed that the challenges they experienced actually led to powerful achievements in the acquisition of knowledge, and in a shift of paradigm. Learning challenges, to a large degree, can create a unique way to stimulate students' interest and needs in

learning, leading to a sense of achievement and growth. In understanding the association of challenges to achievements we can draw on concepts found in the literature on learned optimism (Seligman, 1991), growth mindset (Dweck, 2006), and grit (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, 2007). One student's comment demonstrates this point.

Although the intense curriculum and heavy study load stressed me out, it actually helped me to become a REAL student with perseverance. I never had resistance toward it no matter how hard it is. The fulfillment I gained is much grander than the sufferings I have gone through. We [students] learned beyond what traditional Business English program provides. We are quite capable and competitive. (MA3BE-ACCA)

Aligned with learned optimism, a sense of positive emotion, engagement, relationship, meaning, and accomplishment grew among students who encountered challenges in the pilot programs (Seligman, 2010). Focusing on the implication that, from this approach, optimism is *learned*, it is reasonable to anticipate that while students initially see only the challenges they encounter, they can (and the data demonstrate that most do) eventually learn to be optimistic about the outcomes of those challenges.

From the perspective of a growth mindset, students who are challenged learn to see “talents and abilities as things they can develop – as potentials that come to fruition through effort, practice, and instruction” (Dweck, 2009, p. 1). Students in this study came to understand the value of effort and devotion, and they were aware that even highly intelligent people need to work hard (Dweck, 2010). As many students reported, they learned to confront the serious

challenges in their academic programs and did not quit easily, which demonstrated the positive outcomes of developing a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006).

Students' determination for completing assignments and school work in difficult conditions also demonstrated the essence of grit (Duckworth & Gross, 2014). Having grit, in this sense, "entails working strenuously toward challenges, maintaining effort and interest over [semesters and] years despite failure, adversity, and plateaus in progress" (Duckworth et al., 2007, pp. 1087-1088).

The constructs entailed in learned optimism, growth mindset, and grit, each make a crucial contribution in understanding the meaning of our findings regarding academic challenges that are associated with student academic achievement and success. Together, these perspectives create a powerful framework in which the students' challenges and achievements at CCU can be understood as contributing to the positive possibilities of *at-home* internationalization programs. The Buddhist aphorism that *what doesn't kill us, makes us stronger* illustrates the idea that "great suffering or trauma can actually lead to great positive change across a wide range of experiences" (Achor, 2011, p. 104). Adversity can lead to positive changes in personal strength and create positive outcomes (Forgeard, 2013). As one student described it:

The burden I am carrying at present will become the gift in my life. All the hardship I am experiencing will light my way in future. (FA2BE-CIMA)

Performance, Sex, Challenges, and Achievements

In an earlier study, Kaenzig, Hyatt and Anderson (2007) pointed out that significant sex differences can be seen in how business school students perceive their educational experiences. A

similar associative pattern was also found in this study between the challenges students encountered and their sex.

However, an unanticipated pattern was found in the challenges and achievements reported by students of high and low-performing groups. It was not particularly surprising to find that high-performing students described sensing a feeling of high achievement, even though they felt challenged by many aspects of their program. What was unexpected was that the same challenges and achievements were also reported by the low-performing students, with a particularly strong trend for low-performing female students. In six out of eight achievement categories, all female respondents (100%) reported the same areas of achievement as the highest performing males and females.

Nothing in the literature prepared us for this finding. No indication exists in previous research as to why low-performing females should exhibit an identical pattern as the highest performing males and females, and we have no particular explanation for the pattern. Of all of our findings, this finding presents the area for future research which we find most intriguing and which, perhaps, has the greatest potential for a future emphasis of CCU's internationalization program. If, for females, the relationship between lower performance and great achievement is possible, similar to the pattern with higher performing males and females, then what curricular and staff support can be designed to facilitate future female students who struggle to perform? Also, if lower performing female students sense great achievement, what might this mean in future job performance and attitude? Does the development of learned optimism, a growth mindset, and grit in lower performing female students contribute to greater future job success in

ways similar – or perhaps even exceeding – higher academic performance? These are some questions we feel need to be explored and considered in future work.

In moving forward in future research, one finding is striking that contrasts the previous performance- and sex-based patterns. Achievement in increased personal management ability was not associated with average and low performance (for either sex) while it was associated with high performance for both sexes. This finding suggests that a certain lack of self-directed learning and stress management may be one of the reasons why the academic performance of some male and female students is relatively low. This finding also indicates an area where average and low performing students could potentially reap the greatest improvement. Helping students of both sexes to improve their personal management abilities could be crucially instrumental in increasing students' achievement in their academic performance.

Finally, a fascinating finding is that average and low-performing female students reported being positively influenced by others, while high performing students (both sexes) and average and lower performing males did not demonstrate this pattern. As with the previous finding of lower performing females and their sense of achievement, we find no particular support in the literature as to why only low performing female students would be positively influenced positively by their classmates. Had female students across all performance groups felt positively influenced, while no male students felt the same, perhaps the finding could have been based on sex with potential relevant literature-based explanations, or it could be closely related to the fact that the sex distribution of CCU Business School faculty is majority female (76%). However, the current finding leaves us to consider, and future research to explore, what might have influenced

average and lower performing female students to stand in stark contrast to all male students and higher performing female students in this achievement domain.

Implications

As with all ontologically qualitative research, the findings and implications of this study are directly applicable only to the specific case under study – the CCU Business School.

However, at the election of the reader, transference of these findings and implications could also be made to other *at-home* internationalization programs in China and perhaps elsewhere (Ma & Trigo, 2011; Yang, 2005).

First, CCU Business School administrators should thoughtfully consider the findings of the relationship between challenges and achievements. It is fairly common for students to report, in course evaluations and/or in discussions with each other and staff, struggles and challenges encountered in their academic programs. These reports sometimes lead professors and staff to move toward program changes that would reduce or ameliorate those challenges. However, we recommend that CCU should not reduce these real or perceived challenges without carefully considering the potential associations to positive student achievements. While CCU should not shy away from making changes to the pilot program relative to challenges, the Business School should be certain the challenges students are experiencing are purposeful and that the programs are designed specifically to create certain kinds of challenges meant to enhance the attainment of specific achievements. CCU needs to find the sweet spot in the relationship between challenges and achievements, creating a “zone of proximal development” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 38) where

students are appropriately challenged, but not overwhelmed to the point of discouragement or dysfunction.

Challenges generated in *at-home* internationalization programs should be seen as student growth opportunities, structured curricular opportunities to enhance a student growth mindset (Dweck, 2006) and learned optimism (Seligman, 1991), and chances to build grit (Duckworth, et al., 2007) in students' lives from a more motivational perspective. CCU should not see these findings as a reason to make it harder on students with the simplistic expectation that *harder is better*, in terms of bigger challenges leading to bigger achievements. Rather, CCU should selectively retain program elements that strategically challenge students in specific areas that are carefully chosen to increase growth in particular domains of student learning. The level of intensity of the existing curriculum should be retained but tactically adjusted and specifically designed, to fit the growth experiences of not only the higher performing students but also for the average and low-performing students, to better create specific achievement outcomes for the future success of students across all performance levels.

Second, CCU needs to pay close attention to the learning and outcomes experiences of the full range of *at-home* internationalization students – both male and female students in all performance conditions. The differences between students in various performance levels, and between male and female students, found in this study reflect significant issues in both challenges and achievements. Challenges exist in every student's experience, but the specific impact of those challenges on students is diverse. CCU should keep in mind that high-performing students of both sexes feel achievement in all areas, except being influenced by

others. Does this finding indicate that high performing students feel isolated, or that they are sufficiently confident that they can succeed on their own? Does CCU want graduates who do not feel influenced by others, or do they want all students to feel that a significant sense of *learning community* is a valuable asset in future business success?

CCU should ponder the fascinating challenges and achievements reported by low-performing female students. A tendency may exist, at times, to consider lower performance from some students as simply inevitable. Lower performance can also be overgeneralized to all aspects of the student experience as being lower than preferred. However, CCU administrators ought to understand that 100% of the interviewed, lower performing female students feel a great sense of achievement and, consequently, aimed as high as the high performing students for their future. Understanding that high performance is not a pre-requisite to a high sense of achievement should lead administrators and staff to focus on positive outcomes beyond simply academic performance. We recommend that CCU administrators consider rewarding all aspects of achievement as significant, not just high academic performance.

Finally, CCU needs to better leverage positive female student experiences and feedback. The unique sex ratio of CCU's Business School, in which a majority of students are female (80%), should lead administrators and staff to establish much better communication mechanisms and response systems for female students. CCU's *at-home* internationalization pilot programs' curriculum and design should focus much more on learning about and responding to female students' experiences and outcomes. A better accounting of female students' feedback and experiences should help administrators improve and tailor the pilot programs to a majority group

of students with passion, perseverance, and a high sense of the potential for personal achievement in the face of great challenges.

Conclusion

This study was conducted at a prominent Chinese university and provides an in-depth analysis of student educational experiences in the CCU Business School's *at-home* internationalization programs. The findings mainly focus on the fact that students link the challenges they encounter to achievements. Other striking findings are that student performance level and sex are closely associated with the challenges and achievements that students reported. In understanding the results, the student-learning concepts found in learned optimism, growth mindset, and grit, provide potentially fruitful insights. The findings of this research have powerful, instructive implications for administrators at CCU in determining how student challenges should be strategically chosen and shaped to generate specific, positive student achievements. Administrators at similar types of institutions may also choose to consider these applications relative to their internationalization programs.

Article References

- Absalom, M., & Vadura, K. (2006). Student perceptions of internationalization of the curriculum an Australian case study. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 5*(3), 317-334.
- Achor, S. (2011). *The happiness advantage: The seven principles of positive psychology that fuel success and performance at work*. New York, NY: Random House, Inc.
- Adhikari, A., Flanigan, M. A., & Tondkar, R. H. (1999). A survey of international accounting education in the US and some other countries. *Journal of Accounting Education, 17*(2), 175-189.
- Altbach, P. G. (2002). Perspectives on international higher education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 34*(3), 29-31.
- Altbach, P. G. (2004). Globalisation and the university: Myths and realities in an unequal world. *Tertiary Education & Management, 10*(1), 3-25.
- Altbach, P. G. (2007). Chinese higher education in an Open-door Era. *International Educator, 16*(4), 15-19.
- Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3-4), 290-305.
- Altbach, P. G., & Teichler, U. (2001). Internationalization and exchanges in a globalized university. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 5*(1), 5-25.
- Amsteus, M. N. (2014). The validity of divergent grounded theory method. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 13*(1), 71-87.

- Arum, S., & Van de Water, J. (1992). The need for a definition of international education in US universities. In C. B. Klasek (Ed.), *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education* (pp. 191-203). Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.
- Ayoubi, R. M., & Massoud, H. K. (2007). The strategy of internationalization in universities: A quantitative evaluation of the intent and implementation in UK universities. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(4), 329-349.
- Bauer, P. T. (1968). International development policy: Two recent studies. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 82(3), 474-497.
- Bennett, R., & Kane, S. (2011). Internationalization of U.K. university business schools: A survey of current practice. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 15(4), 351-373.
- Bettencourt, M. (2011). Languages across the curriculum: A response to internationalization in foreign language education. *Multicultural Education*, 19(1), 55-58.
- Black, K. (2004). A review of factors which contribute to the internationalisation of a programme of study. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 3(1), 5-18.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development* (1st ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Braskamp, L. A. (2009). Internationalization in higher education: Four issues to consider. *Journal of College and Character*, 10(6), 1-8.

- Caruana, V., & Spurling, N. (2007). *The internationalisation of UK higher education: A review of selected material: Project report*. York, UK: Higher Education Academy.
- Cavusgil, S. T. (1991). Internationalization of business and economics programs: Issues and perspectives. *Business Horizons*, 34(6), 92-100.
- CCU. About CCU (pseudonym). Retrieved from <http://www.CCU.edu.cn/xxgk1/xxjj.htm>. 2016, May.
- CCU Business School. Introduction to CCU (pseudonym) Business School. Retrieved from <http://bschool.CCU.edu.cn/xygk.htm>. 2016, May.
- Chan, D., & Lo, W. (2008). University restructuring in East Asia: Trends, challenges and prospects. *Policy Futures in Education*, 6(5), 641-652.
- Clifford, V. (2005). Embracing and resisting border pedagogies: Student views of internationalising the curriculum in higher education. *Higher Education in a Changing World: Research and Development in Higher Education*, 28, 116-123.
- Cort, K. T., Das, J., & Synn, W. J. (2011). Internationalizing a business school program: A descriptive study of a strategic implementation process of internationalization. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 1(5), 29-40.
- Davies, J. L. (1995). University strategies for internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings. In P. Bok (Ed.), *Policy and policy implementation in internationalization of higher education* (pp. 3-18). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education (EAIE).

- De Wit, H. (1995). Education and Globalization in Europe: Current Trends and Future Developments. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 1, 28-53.
- De Wit, H. (2009). *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of America and Europe: A historical, comparative, and conceptual analysis*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Dolby, N. (2011). Internationalizing higher education in South Africa and the United States: Policy and practice in global, national, and local perspective. Online Submission. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED523150.pdf>.
- Duckworth, A. L., & Gross, J. J. (2014). Self-control and grit related but separable determinants of success. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 23(5), 319-325.
- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92(6), 1087-1101.
- Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. New York, NY: Random House, Inc.
- Dweck, C. S. (2009). Who will the 21st-century learners be? *Knowledge Quest*, 38(2), 8-10.
- Dweck, C. S. (2010). Even geniuses work hard. *Educational Leadership*, 68(1), 16-20.
- Edwards, J. (2007). Challenges and opportunities for the internationalization of higher education in the coming decade: Planned and opportunistic initiatives in American institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 373-381.

- Fereday, J., & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). Demonstrating rigor using thematic analysis: A hybrid approach of inductive and deductive coding and theme development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 80-92.
- Flick, U. (1997). The episodic interview: Small scale narratives as approach to relevant experiences. Discussion Papers - Qualitative Series. London: London School of Economics Methodology Institute.
- Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Forgeard, M. J. (2013). Perceiving benefits after adversity: The relationship between self-reported posttraumatic growth and creativity. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, 7(3), 245-264.
- Gacel-Ávila, J. (2005). The internationalisation of higher education: A paradigm for global citizenry. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 9(2), 121-136.
- Glaser B. G, & Strauss A. L. (1967) *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research Chicago*. New York, NY: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Green, M. F. (2002). Joining the world: The challenge of internationalizing undergraduate education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 34(3), 12-21.
- Harari, M. (1972). *Global dimensions in U.S. education: The university* [Pamphlet]. New York, NY: Center for War/Peace Studies.

Huang, F. (2003). Policy and practice of the internationalization of higher education in China.

Journal of Studies in International Education, 7(3), 225-240.

Huang, F. (2006). Internationalization of Curricula in Higher Education Institutions in

Comparative Perspectives: Case Studies of China, Japan and The Netherlands. *Higher*

Education: The International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning,

51(4), 521-539.

Huang, F. (2007). Internationalisation of higher education in the era of globalisation. *Higher*

Education Management and Policy, 19(1), 1-15.

Kaenzig, R., Hyatt, E., & Anderson, S. (2007). Gender differences in college of business

educational experiences. *Journal of Education for Business*, 83(2), 95-100.

Kedia, B. L., & Englis, P. D. (2011). Internationalizing business education for globally

competent managers. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 22(1), 13-28.

Kedia, B. L., Harveston, P. D., & Bhagat, R. S. (2001). Orienting curricula and teaching to

produce international managers for global competition. *Journal of Teaching in*

International Business, 13(1), 1-22.

Klasek, C. B. (Ed.). (1992). *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher*

education. Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.

Knight, J. (1993). Internationalization: management strategies and issues. *International*

Education Magazine, 9(1), 21-22.

Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints* (Vol. 7). Ottawa, Canada: Canadian Bureau for International Education Research.

Knight, J. (1997). Internationalization of higher education: A conceptual framework. In J. Knight & De Wit, H. (Eds.), *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries* (pp. 5-19). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education.

Knight, J. (2003a). *GATS, trade and higher education: Perspective 2003 – where are we?* London: The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education.

Knight, J. (2003b). Updated internationalization definition. *International Higher Education*, 33(International Issue), 2-3.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 5-31.

Knight, J. (2007). Internationalization: Concepts, complexities and challenges. In J. J. F. Forest & P. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 207-227). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Knight, J. (2008). *Higher education in turmoil: The changing world of internationalization*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education. In D. Deardoff, H. De Wit, J. Heyl & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 27-42). London: SAGE Publications.

- Knight, J. (2015). Updated definition of internationalization. *International Higher Education*, 33, 2-3.
- Knight, J. (2016). Transnational education remodeled: Toward a common TNE framework and definitions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20(1), 34-47.
- LeBlanc, E. (2007). Internationalizing the curriculum: A discussion of challenges and first steps within business schools. *Higher Education Perspectives*, 3(1), 28-44.
- Ma, S., & Trigo, V. (2011). Internationalization of China's MBA education: Failing to walk the talk? *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 22(3), 149-167.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education: Revised and expanded from case study research in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- MOE. (2010). *Outline of the national plan for medium and long-term education reform and development (2010-2020)*. Beijing, China: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/China/China_National_Long_Term_Educational_Reform_Development_2010-2020_eng.pdf.
- Mok, K. H. (2007). Questing for internationalization of universities in Asia: Critical reflections. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 433-454.

Mok, K. H., & Yu, K. M. (Eds.). (2013). *Internationalization of higher education in East Asia: trends of student mobility and impact on education governance*. New York, NY:

Routledge.

NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis Software (Version 10) [Computer software]. (2012).

Melbourne, Australia: QSR International Pty Ltd.

Qiang, Z. (2003). Internationalization of higher education: Towards a conceptual framework.

Policy Futures in Education, 1(2), 248-270.

Scott, R. A. (1994). Campus developments in response to the challenges of internationalization:

The case of Ramapo College of New Jersey (USA). *Higher Education Management*,

6(1), 71-89.

Seligman, M. E. (1991). *Learned optimism*. New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopf.

Seligman, M. E. (2010). Flourish: Positive psychology and positive interventions. In M.

Matheson (Ed.), *The Tanner lectures on human values* (pp. 231-243). Ann Arbor, MI: The

University of Michigan.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and*

techniques (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for*

developing grounded theory. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling a typology with examples. *Journal of*

Mixed Methods Research, 1(1), 77-100.

- Van der Wende, M. (1997a). Internationalising the curriculum in Dutch higher education: An international comparative perspective. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 1(2), 53-72.
- Van der Wende, M. (1997b). 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 internationalisation of higher education in Europe* (pp. 10-31). Stockholm, Sweden: National Agency for Higher Education.
- Van der Wende, M. (2007). Internationalization of higher education in the OECD countries: Challenges and opportunities for the coming decade. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 274-289.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. In M. Gauvain & M. Cole (Eds.) *Readings on the development of children* (pp. 34-41). New York, NY: Scientific American Books.
- Wang, L. (2014). Internationalization with Chinese characteristics: The changing discourse of internationalization in China. *Chinese Education & Society*, 47(1), 7-26.
- Webb, M. S., Mayer, K. R., Pioche, V., & Allen, L. C. (1999). Internationalization of American business education. *Management International Review*, 39(4), 379-397.
- Wilson, G. K. (1964). Thirty years of business and politics. *Politics*, 16, 677-715.

- Woods, P., Gapp, R., & King, M. A. (2016). Generating or developing grounded theory: Methods to understand health and illness. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy*, 38(3), 663-670.
- Yang, R. (2005). Internationalizing Chinese higher education: A case study of a major comprehensive university. In P. Ninnes & M. Hellsten (Eds.), *Internationalizing higher education* (pp. 97-118). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Yang, R. (2014). China's strategy for the internationalization of higher education: An overview. *Frontiers of Education in China*, 9(2), 151-162.
- Yuan, B. (2011). Internationalization at home: The path to internationalization in Chinese research universities. *Chinese Education and Society*, 44(5), 84-96.
- Zimitat, C. (2008). 13 student perceptions of the internationalisation of the undergraduate curriculum. In L. Dunn & M. Wallace (Eds.), *Teaching in transnational higher education: Enhancing learning for offshore international students* (pp. 135-147). New York, NY: Routledge.

APPENDIX A: EXTENDED LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Internationalization has become a worldwide phenomenon, as well as a leading and high-impact global direction in contemporary higher education (Altbach, 2002). Five major components have to be dealt with when considering internationalization of higher education (hereafter, HE internationalization) in China. First, the idea and impact of globalization, both generally and in higher education, needs to be explored. Second, the literature, both in terms of theoretical constructs and research central in the development of HE internationalization, needs to be reviewed. Third, how HE internationalization has played out in China, and at specific institutions, needs to be considered. Fourth, a limited set of theoretical lenses through which the impact of growth mindset, grit and sex differences on student learning can be understood will be explored. Finally, the gap in preliminary HE internationalization studies is identified and how to mind the gap in this research will be briefly discussed.

Globalization

Globalization is a contemporary construct that has been adopted in the context of education to describe the evolution of HE internationalization in the last 20 years (Knight, 2012). It has also become a synonym in the context of HE internationalization for other generic education terms such as internationalization, borderless education, cross-border education, and transnational education. Prior to its use in the educational context, globalization was a “leading social science mantra” and has been used to encapsulate the transitions seen in “changes in economy, developments in technology, culture and value, politics and governance, and political

unification of the world” (Mok, 2005, p. 57) since the early 1980s. Globalization is considered as expressing “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (Yang, 2000, p. 320).

Defining Globalization

The term *globalization* became used extensively during the second half of the 1980s (Robertson, 1992). Globalization is used frequently in economics, political science, and the social sciences in the modern era. The concept of globalization has been explored extensively, it is understood variously in different academic disciplines, and has been used differently among governmental and private organizations. Due to the vast possibilities of contextual definitions, only a few such contexts will be explored here.

Globalization is perceived in economics as a process closely intertwined with growing economic openness, accelerating economic interdependence and deepening economic integration in a global economy (Nayyar, 2006). Economists Steger and Porter defined globalization as a phenomenon that has provoked great changes in the world and extended the process of the development of the modern world economically, politically, culturally, and ideologically (Porter & Vidovich, 2000; Steger, 2003).

Economic globalization points to “the integration of economies and systems of communication” (Porter & Vidovich, 2000, p. 450) in which markets, capital, labor, production, and distribution of products and services flow relatively freely across national borders. Many companies invest globally and have expanded their business(es) beyond their countries of origin.

Cultural globalization represents the “the perceived increase in cultural connections” (Porter & Vidovich, 2000, p. 451), which means that cultural values and views become increasingly shared among different nations, and push peoples of various histories and backgrounds forward to become more similar and homogeneous. However, the idea and movement toward cultural globalization is contested from quite different mentalities and perspectives, including particular resistance from the context of political perspectives.

In the political context, globalization focuses on “the intensification of political interrelations across the world, the gradual demise of the nation state, and the development of global cities and global governance structures” (Steger, 2003, p. 56). The ideological dimension of political globalization deals with a range of “shared ideas, guiding norms and values, patterned beliefs, and ideals” (Steger, Battersby, & Siracusa, 2014, p. 24) across different parts of the world.

The social change associated with the process of globalization” and theorizing the notion of globalization are usually “either-neutral or gender-blind, ignoring how globalization shapes gender relationships and people’s lives materially, politically, socially and culturally at all levels and treating its differential effects on women and men as similar. (Chow, 2003, p. 444).

Apart from education, occupation, income, and marital status, in the context of globalization, age is often thought to be related to the likelihood of voting as an indication of being either for or against globalizing social and political alliances (Goodwin & Heath, 2016; Wolfinger & Rosenstone, 1980). For example, it appears that the movement toward viewing

globalization as positive and desirable is supported more by young people than old. In the recent BREXIT referendum, people under age of 45 voted to remain in the EU to a much larger degree than more senior voters. The turnout to remain in the EU was higher in areas where the majority population was young people living in university towns. However, by contrast, the vote to leave the EU (seen as being against globalizing political unions) was much higher in areas with a large number of pensioners (Goodwin & Heath, 2016). This pattern illustrated that the more aged, the larger the likelihood to vote to leave the EU. By extension, experts have determined that those above the age of 45 demonstrate more resistance toward globalization, preferring traditional national interests, even at the risk of potentially negative financial and political repercussions (Burn-Murdoch, 2016).

Based on early research in the social sciences, it appears that the concept of globalization spread quickly and extensively in the domain of education. Similarly, with constructs in economics and political science, educationists Knight and De Wit (1997) defined globalization as “the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, and ideas across national borders” (p. 6). Knight and De Wit assert that “[t]he globalization of economy and society has had its impact on and has been influenced by research and education” (Knight & De Wit, 1995, p. 5). Altbach (2002), another prominent educationist, defines globalization as the movement in higher education that contains cross-national implications, such as creating mass demand for higher education, establishing an international job marketplace for college graduates, increasing the numbers of highly educated faculty and personnel, and incentivizing the invention and adoption of new technologies. In the context of the internationalization of higher education, the age of

globalization has affected much, and will continue to impact higher education extensively and inevitably (Altbach, 2004a).

Globalization and Higher Education

There is no doubt that higher education institutions and the world academic system are aware of and react to the reality of globalization. A full range of educational reforms have been affected by the processes of globalization (Stromquist, 2007).

Higher education has achieved extraordinary importance, and achieved high levels of priority not seen historically, in many countries in the context of globalization. This is largely due to the role higher education plays in helping people gain knowledge to meet the demands of the emerging global marketplace, and in generating new knowledge and skills that propel the national economy in the context of globalization (Altbach, 2004a).

In the context of institutions of higher education, globalization is regarded as concurrently an economic, social, political, and cultural force which accelerates higher education in the direction of embracing more international participation (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Higher learning institutions face an increasingly larger demand for quality and innovative education. They are forced to adjust their mission and responsibilities to develop new and innovative strategies to improve their delivery systems (Gacel-Ávila, 2005). The function of the knowledge they impart has to meet the goal of cultivating talents and abilities in their students to successfully participate as qualified global citizens (Gacel-Ávila, 2005).

While academic activities in developed and developing countries are shaped dramatically by globalization, higher education strategies must be designed to not only maintain a competitive

edge in the global arena, but must also accommodate the local context as well. Consequently, higher education institutions should foster a student mindset of global consciousness, and help them embrace the globalized world by understanding their own culture and context better, with respect for other societies and cultures (Gacel-Ávila, 2005).

In many respects, globalization is regarded as a double-edged sword. It brings opportunities as well as potential harms and risks. Altbach (2004a) indicates that the impact of a globalized higher education system is extremely unequal. Well-established and prestigious universities in developed countries have always had the absolute power of leading in producing and distributing knowledge, while the relatively weaker universities with far fewer resources and lower academic ranking in developing and less-developed contexts become the followers. In this way, “globalization has added a new dimension to existing disparities in higher education” (Altbach, 2004a, p. 7). In the context of globalization, higher education has become considered more as a commercial product to be sold and exchanged in the global marketplace, rather than the traditional space and place of teaching and learning (Altbach, 2015).

The World Trade Organization and the General Agreement on Trade in Services

Globalization has caused a tremendous impact on higher education worldwide, which has escalated the international dimension of higher education programming, internships, and employment opportunities. Global economic and commercial forces have specifically played a dominant role in increasing higher education’s vision towards operating in the larger international domain. Free trade, among other economic forces, stimulates the academic mobility of higher education programs and students. The consequences of globalization in higher

education consist of elements such as “the integration of research, the use of English as the lingua franca for scientific communication, [and] the growing international labor market for scholars and scientists...” (Altbach, 2007, p. 291).

International higher education players have come to treat their various services as a daily commodity to be traded without barrier, and market higher education as a private consumption good, rather than as a public good or responsibility (Altbach & Knight, 2007). At the center of this transition is “The World Trade Organization (WTO) [which provides] a regulatory framework to encourage international trade in education and service-related industries as part of negotiating the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)” (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 291). Chan and Chang add that “the regulation and framework provided by the WTO [has] substantially increased the activities of cross-border education in the form of independent investment or joint business ventures around the world, particularly in developing countries” (Chan & Chang, 2013, p. 113).

The several WTO initiatives impacting the cross-border delivery of higher education services have fostered a number of serious threats to the historical nature and value of more traditional notions of higher education. Developing countries appear to suffer the most negative impact from WTO influences in higher education (Altbach, 2015). Consequently, it is highly likely that the nation-specific, historical mission of higher education in these countries will not be fulfilled in terms of their traditional goal of “contribut[ing] to national development and strengthening of civil society” (Altbach, 2015, p. 4).

Among impactful WTO programs in this domain, GATS was the very first international legal trade agreement that specifically focuses on trade *services* (Knight, 2002). The purpose of GATS is to liberate trade, lower or eliminate restrictions and barriers in trade services, and ensure and improve the transparency of trade rules (Knight, 2002). It is also meant to promote further trade, including the liberation of trade in higher education services (Knight, 2003a). GATS has clearly confirmed that education, and higher education specifically, is a trade service (2003a). As such, GATS facilitates academic mobility in four modes of trade in services, including cross-border supply, consumption abroad, commercial presence and presence of natural persons (GATS, 1995).

Three educational terms have subsequently emerged to further manifest the international features of education—“internationalization, cross-border education and more recently, trade in education” (Knight, 2003a, p. 3). According to Knight, “GATS has served as an important wake-up call” (Knight, 2007a, p. 2), which encourages educators to reconsider their impact on traditional higher education within a country, as well as education across borders. While GATS brought significant positive impact to the mobility of education, many other controversial issues still remain. Sauvé (2002) emphasizes that the effects of GATS on developing countries are different than on developed countries and that impact is profound globally.

Theoretical Frameworks

A number of theoretical frameworks are at play regarding HE internationalization. Historically, and presented here in chronological order of development, the framework derived from the works of Aigner, Nelson & Stimpfl (1992), Arum & Van de Water (1992), Davies

(1992), Knight (1993, 1994, 1997), De Wit (1995), Altbach and Peterson (1998), Altbach (2002, 2004b, 2007), Altbach and Knight (2007), and Knight (2004, 2012) dominate in this domain.

These works are the most prominent studies on HE internationalization for establishing a comprehensive definition, approach, and rationale, as well as the most commonly used strategies of HE internationalization.

One competing framework to this approach to HE internationalization is Human Capital Theory, which views education as the primary mechanism of national economic policy, irrespective of non-economic social policy concerns. This is the main framework promoted by the World Bank, which proposes that the “economic view of education [is] based squarely on human capital theory” (Yang, 2002, p. 63). Human Capital Theory was first proposed by Theodore W. Schultz in 1961. Becker (1975) and Mincer (1984) further develop this framework and point out the importance of human capital theory as applied to education. Human Capital Theory research emphasizes the importance of investing in education and training as an approach to increase human capital and focuses on the close relationship between individual and national economic growth and investment in human capital (Becker, 1992; Goldin, 2003).

For this review, the framework most recently promoted by Knight (2012) will be presented in greatest detail. The earlier work of Knight (1993, 1997, 2004, 2007b) will also be briefly explored to better understand how the key contemporary constructs of HE internationalization have emerged.

Evolution of Internationalization

There has been much discussion on the term *internationalization of higher education* in the past three decades. The concept of *internationalization* first appeared in the field of political science and government relations. The proposition of internationalization in HE emerged in the 1970s, when Harari first formally proposed that internationalization in education was embracing a global dimension (Harari, 1972; Knight, 1994). Three major elements are combined including “international content of the curriculum, international movement of scholars and students concerned with training and research, and international technical assistance and cooperation programs” (Knight, 1994). Internationalization first soared at the institutional level in higher education in the 1980s, initially for the purpose of promoting international studies and exchanges (Klasek, 1992; Knight, 2007b, 2012, 2016).

Stephen Arum and Jack Van de Water (1992) later built on Harari’s “perspective and developed their own tripartite definition” (Knight, 1994, p. 3) of international education that refers to “the multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation” (Arum & Van de Water, 1992, p. 202). The early notion of internationalization focused on education programs and curricula to prepare students to function internationally (Arum & Van de Water, 1992).

Knight (1993) developed and redefined this concept as the “process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service function of the [higher education] institution” (p. 21). The concept of internationalization was restructured and upgraded by Marijk Van der Wende in 1997. She proposed the definition of internationalization

as “any systematic, sustained efforts aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of society, economy, and labor markets” (Van der Wende, 1997b, p. 18). Following this, Knight and Altbach’s research on internationalization began studying and emphasizing university/campus internationalization (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Bartell, 2003; Hser, 2005) and internationalization of curriculum (Gacel-Ávila, 2005; Knight, 1997; Van Damme, 2001). The global emergence, rapid development, and popularity of the internet have led to many more fields in higher education proceeding in the direction of program internationalization, with tremendous expansion seen in the early 2000s. Altbach (2002) defines internationalization as “the specific policies and initiatives of individual academic institutions, systems, or countries that deal with global trends” (p. 29). Altbach’s definition indicates that the variety and complexity of strategies of HE internationalization are tied to a particular country’s needs and future vision in terms of how a government and its institutions have chosen to engage in an increasingly worldwide (global) context.

The most current and common form of the definition of HE internationalization at the national/sector/institutional levels was first framed by Knight in 2003 and underwent slight occasional modification until taking its current form as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2015, p. 2). Comparing the transitions in the definitions that Knight proposed in 1993, 2003 and 2012, the current definition moves to a strong emphasis infusing international and intercultural dimensions into the various on and off campus activities

of higher education. The 2003 definition addresses the reality and context of internationalization at three levels—international, intercultural, and global (Knight, 2003b, 2004). In addition, the 2003 definition focuses on the constructs of purpose, function, and delivery, replacing the previously more specific concrete functions of teaching, research, and service (Knight, 2003b, 2004).

One of the strengths of Knight’s evolution in defining the HE internationalization has been to generate an approach which can “apply to many different countries, cultures and education systems” (Knight, 2012, p. 29). Knight’s definition has been widely cited, and has become well accepted as the principal conceptualization of HE internationalization.

In summarizing Knight’s conceptualization of HE internationalization, particular terms and concepts emerge as essential elements to be understood. The term *process* is used to convey that “internationalization is an ongoing effort and to note that there is an evolutionary quality to the concept” (Knight, 2012, p. 30). *Integration* is adopted to indicate “the process of embedding the international and intercultural dimension into policies and programs in order to ensure sustainability and centrality to the mission and values of the institution or system” (p. 30). *International, intercultural and global* are collectively used as “a triad, as together to reflect the breach of internationalization” (p. 31). *Purpose, function, and delivery* denote the mission, tasks, and methods of a specific higher education institution. Of these three concepts, *delivery* has a particularly important function in these types of programs at Central China University (CCU). *Delivery* clearly indicates certain ways that CCU Business School has adopted to operate internationalization pilot programs. Specifically, *delivery* refers to the way education courses and

programs are carried out domestically, or abroad, by either higher education institutions themselves or business organizations that are interested in promoting and infusing their programs into university programs (Knight, 2012).

Internationalization Emergence, Rationales and Strategies

The driving forces of HE internationalization are typically identified as economic (fiscal), political, social/cultural, human resources development, and the domestic and global knowledge economy. Major national and institutional strategies and approaches are formulated and carefully implemented in closely coordinated organizational and academic dimensions.

Globalization and internationalization. Internationalization is one of the key factors driving the development of higher education significantly in the past three decades (Altbach, 2007). Many discussions and influences have directed how internationalization has become one of the most important focuses of higher education worldwide. Among the most influential are those that a nation-state chooses in responding to the impact of globalization on their economy, and the subsequent decision that their higher education institutions must undertake the task of promoting global perspectives, cultivating global citizenship, and transitioning to globally-adequate curricula and pedagogy (Braskamp, 2009; Brigham, 2011).

Globalization and internationalization are used as interchangeable terms in many contexts. However, Knight (2003b) distinguishes globalization and internationalization in the HE sector, and asserts that,

[G]lobalization affects each country in a different way due to a nation's individual history, tradition, culture and priorities. Globalization is positioned as a multifaceted

phenomenon and an important environmental factor that has multiple effects on education. Globalization is presented as a process impacting internationalization...

Internationalization of higher education is both a response to globalization as well as an agent of globalization... Internationalization is changing the world of higher education and globalization is changing the world and [process] of internationalization. (p. 3)

Based on this definition from Knight, Huang (2007a) further distinguishes globalization and internationalization in three different ways, based on how each occurs based on the chronological order of emergence, aims/emphasis, and preconditions of appearance.

Internationalization has been discussed widely since the 1960s, while globalization became the dominant theme nearly two decades later. Internationalization lays stress on exchange, collaboration and communication between countries and cultures, whereas globalization targets at the establishment a single model beyond nations and cultures (Huang, 2007a).

“Internationalization occurs with the precondition that different countries and cultures exist, whereas globalization proceeds on the assumption that countries and cultures of decreasing significance” (Huang, 2007a, p. 3).

Emergence and rationales. HE internationalization in individual countries is mainly driven by their unique culture, national politics, as well as the pressure from the change of environments both domestically and internationally (Scott, 1994). Current HE internationalization is “strongly driven by economic factors in a more competitive environment at a global level” (Huang, 2007a, p. 51).

Knight (2012) explores the diversity of rationales driving the process of internationalization at the national and institutional levels. She categorizes rationales into four groups and two different levels: “academic, economic, political, and social/cultural” at both the “institutional level and national level” (pp. 33-34). These rationales also explain why a specific university would want to embrace internationalization as reflected in changes in policies and programs in facilitating the implementation of internationalization (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Table A-1 summarizes the four categories of rationales driving internationalization defined in the mid-1990’s and rationales at two different levels in the late 2000’s.

In Knight’s 2005 and 2009 surveys, she discovered that “human resource/capital” and “knowledge economy” development were the top rationales for internationalization (Knight, 2012, p. 34). According to these rationales, students need to be prepared to be “inter-culturally competent and more knowledgeable about the international issues in a more globalized world” (Knight, 2012, p. 34).

Knowledge generated in a globalized economy sets the platform for HE internationalization. In order for a nation to have a competitive edge in global markets, knowledge rests at the base of an internationalized national HE system. Jiang (2008) claimed that knowledge can be regarded as an industry, and HE is the carrier or agent of that knowledge. At the same time, human resource development, focused on helping students to gain knowledge in order to fulfill their personal duties and develop their nation, “contributes to the empowerment and development of all sectors of society” (Jiang, 2008, p. 348).

Table A-1

Rationales Driving HE Internationalization

Four Categories of Rationales			
Academic	Economic	Political	Social
International Dimension to Research and Teaching	Revenue Generation	Foreign Policy	National cultural identity
Extension of Academic Horizon	Competitiveness	National Security	Intercultural understanding
Institution Building	Labor Market	Technical Assistance	Citizenship development
Enhancement of Quality	Financial Incentives	Peace and Mutual Understanding	Social and community development
International Academic Standards		National & Regional Identity	
Two Levels of Rationales			
Institutional Level		National level	
International branding and profile		Human Resources Development	
Income generation		Strategic Alliances	
Strategic Alliances		Commercial Trade	
Knowledge production		Nation Building	
		Social Cultural Development	

Adapted from Knight (2012)

Beside the driving force which human resource and knowledge economy development provides, Huang (2007a) argues that in the circumstance of the world economic surge, HE internationalization in developed countries is more likely driven by a profit-making business spirit, while in developing countries it is likely more influenced by academic factors. As a result, the strategies of implementing internationalization vary greatly from nation to nation, based to a significant extent on the national economic development context.

Approaches and strategies. No one approach or strategy fits all HE internationalization contexts or efforts, although an “[i]nternational perspective [has become] integrated into almost every dimension of higher education” (Huang, 2007a, p. 53) to fit national, regional and institutional traditions and cultures. Four major approaches and two key strategies are implemented throughout the development of HE internationalization.

Both Knight (1997) and Qiang (2003) list the four approaches to HE internationalization as the activity approach, the competence approach, the ethos approach, and the process approach (Knight, 1997; Qiang, 2003). Each approach stresses institutional priorities differently. While not necessarily implemented in isolation from each other, each nation or institution may emphasize one approach more than the others. However, in the end, any or all of these approaches not only develop internationalized curricula and programs to help the students and faculty to maintain competence to meet the needs of the job marketplace but also create the climate, culture and values to better support and integrate and infuse international and intercultural dimension into learning, teaching, and research (Qiang, 2003).

Hanvey (1982) proposes two HE internationalization strategies—promoting global perspective and cultivating global citizenship. These approaches and strategies can be seen applied in various combinations and with various intensities in most HE internationalization efforts. Knight (1997) indicates that “strategies which focus on both academic activities as well as organizational factors are central to achieving a successful and sustainable integration of the international dimension” (p. 13). Knight’s two strategies are program strategies and organization strategies:

Program strategies refer to those initiatives which are academic in nature or are related to the teaching, learning, training, research, advising, or supporting activities both at home and offshore. The organization strategies include policies, procedures, systems and supporting infrastructure which facilitate and sustain the international dimension of the university or college. (1997, p. 14)

Tables A-2 and A-3 provide the categories and examples of program and organization strategies toward HE internationalization, both domestically and internationally (Knight, 1997).

Internationalization at Home

Knight divides the conceptualization of HE internationalization into the two separate, but closely related and interdependent, pillars of “internationalization at home and “cross-border education” (2012, p. 35). Figure 1 illustrates Knight’s two pillars and their interaction (or overlap). The scope of HE internationalization for this study mainly focuses on the pillar of HE internationalization *at home* (that which is campus based). HE internationalization *at home* refers

Table A-2

Summary of Program Strategies

Academic Program	Research and Scholarly Collaboration	Extra-curricular Activities	External Relations & Services (Domestic & Offshore)
Student exchange programs; Work/study abroad; Joint and double degree programs	Joint research projects; Publish articles and papers	Student clubs and associations	Community-based partnerships and projects with NGOs or private sector companies
Foreign language study	Area and theme centers; Exchange programs	International and intercultural campus events	International development assistance projects
Internationalized curricula	International conferences and seminars	Liaison with community-based cultural groups	Customized/contract training programs offshore
Link between academic programs and research, training assistance	Link between research, curriculum and teaching	Peer groups and programs	Link between development projects and training activities with teaching and research
Cross-cultural training; teaching/learning process	International research agreements	Alumni development programs	Community service and intercultural project work

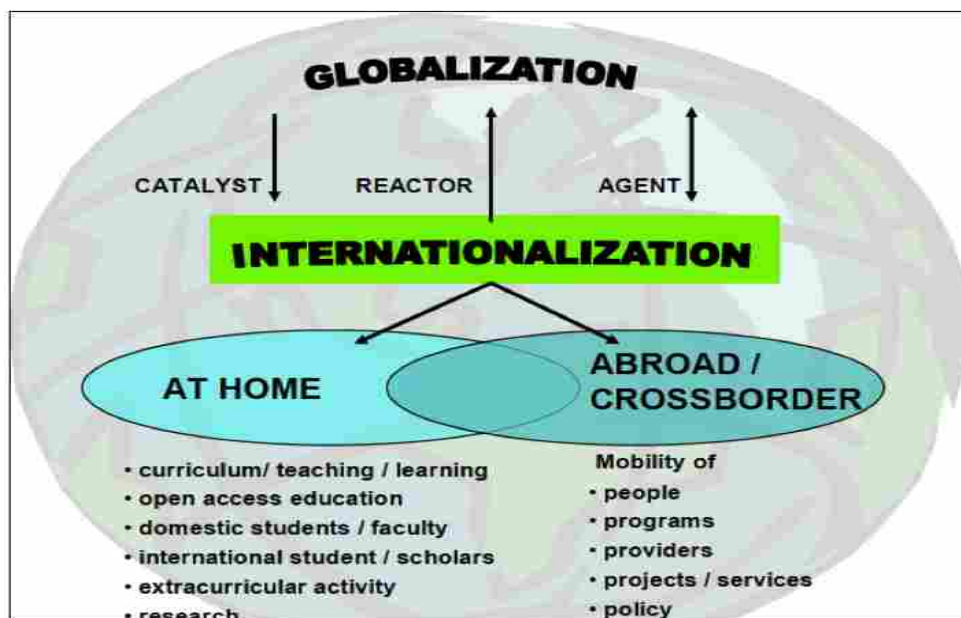
Adapted from Knight (1997)

Table A-3

Summary of Organization Strategies

Governance	Operations	Support Services	Human Resource Development
Expressed commitment by senior leaders	Integrated into institution-wide and departmental planning, budgeting and quality review systems	Support from institution-wide services units, i.e., student housing, registrariat, counseling, fundraising, etc.	Recruitment and selection procedures which recognize international and intercultural expertise
Active involvement of faculty and staff	Appropriate organizational structures		Faculty and staff professional development activities and support for international assignments and sabbaticals
Articulated rationale and goals for internationalization	Communication systems (formal & informal) for liaison and coordination		
Recognition of international dimension in mission statements and other policy documents	Balance between centralized and decentralized promotion and management of internationalization		

Adapted from Knight (1997)



Adapted from Knight 2012

Figure A-1. Two pillars of internationalization: At home and cross-border.

to the localized strategies of individual higher education institutions to cope with impacts related to the globalized economy, society, culture, and marketplace. The *at-home* process integrates international, intercultural and global dimensions into the mission and delivery of university campus-based internationalization academic programs (Knight, 2004).

Universities have the responsibility and challenge to infuse international, intercultural and global (sometimes referred to as comparative) perspectives and into student educational experiences and campus life (Knight, 2012). The categories of strategies for doing so are listed in Table A-4.

Internationalization of Business Education

Research has long explored the issue of internationalization of business education. Many scholars have provided rationales, perspectives, and specific strategies and approaches based on

Table A-4

Categories for Internationalization at Home

Curriculum and programs	Teaching/learning process	Research and Scholarly Activity
new programs with international theme infused international, cultural, global or comparative dimension into existing courses	virtual student mobility for joint courses and research projects use of international scholars and teachers and local international/intercultural experts	joint research projects and publications international conferences and seminars
foreign language study	integration of international, intercultural teaching and learning process	international research agreements
joint or double degrees	integration of global learning outcomes and assessment	research exchange programs; integration of international visiting researchers and scholars
Co-curricular activities	Extra-curricular activities	Liaison with local community based cultural/ethnic groups
international/global leadership development programs	student clubs and associations; peer support groups and programs; language partners, friendship programs, student speaker programs	involvement of students in local cultural and ethnic organizations through internships, volunteering, placements and applied research
interdisciplinary and distinguished speaker seminars	international and intercultural campus events	involvement of representatives from local cultural and ethnic groups in teaching/ learning activities, research initiatives and extra-curricular projects

Adapted from Knight (2012)

the study of current practice. Beginning in the early 1990s, Cavusgil (1991) emphasized the need to internationalize business and economic programs. Cavusgil's early work was followed in the late 1990s by Howe and Martin (1998) who offered rationales and practices of internationalizing business education in the UK. Webb, Mayer, Pioche, and Allen (1999) soon presents research on the internationalization of American business education, and asserted the importance of internationalizing business programs' curricula to meet contemporary global demands. Kathryn Black (2004) then built on Alan Hale and Sybren Tijmstra's (1990) model to explain the internationalization of management education from the aspects of faculty qualifications and experience, as well as curricula.

Business leaders firmly believed that business schools should assume the responsibility to prepare college graduates to compete for opportunities in the global market (Cort, Das, & Synn, 2011). They also believed that business schools play a unique role in fostering within students a global business mindset, educating them to acquire global knowledge and multiple professional skills in management, accounting and marketing (Kedia, Harveston, & Bhagat, 2001).

Contemporary business school graduates are required and expected to "think globally and respect international diversity" (Bennett & Kane, 2011, p. 355). As such, they should acquire intercultural communication and foreign language skills, be familiar with the foreign business regulations and policies, and be capable of handling issues that occur in different regions with diverse cultures. In order to achieve this, many business schools have taken a mission-based approach to incorporate international business into their programs and curricula by proposing

three levels of global perspectives, including international awareness, understanding, and competence (Bennett & Kane, 2011; Cort et al., 2011).

Kedia and Englis (2011) further explore “the mission-based approaches to increasing the internationalization of business school education to change mindsets and increase student’s ability to address ... challenges” (p. 13). They discuss in detail how to develop in students a global perspective and mindset, something they proposition in their previous work. Most recent research indicates that the internationalization of business education needs to catch up with the pace of the globalization of business, and prepare graduates to address new challenges in the context of a truly globalized marketplace (Kedia & Englis, 2011).

Internationalization of Curricula

Internationalizing curricula is one of the major strategies taken in the process of HE internationalization *at home*. Reforms of curricula infusing international, intercultural, and global dimensions into the existing courses, or the creation of new curricula for new programs, both play a very important role in HE internationalization *at home*. How to develop better internationalization curricula at universities that cultivates qualified future global citizens (business persons, in this specific case) to work in a globally-integrated business economy has become a critically important issue (Clifford, 2005).

A large number of studies indicate the necessity and urgent need for internationalizing curricula in different regions, institutions and programs/majors (Absalom & Vadura, 2006; Adhikari, Flanigan, & Tondkar, 1999; Bettencourt, 2011; Clifford, 2005; Cort et al., 2011; LeBlanc, 2007; Van der Wende, 1997a; Zimitat, 2008). This rising need is due to “the rising

levels of student demand for internationalized courses, the growing influence of international and multinational business, and the large numbers of cross-border mergers, strategic alliances [which have] stimulated employers' needs for staff with international knowledge and perspectives” (Bennett & Kane, 2011, p. 354). These studies also explore how internationalizing curricula serves the process of globalization, meets the needs of the global market place, and builds students' competence, competitive edge, cultural awareness, and intercultural communication skills.

In the early 1990s, one driving force for HE internationalization came from the accreditation requirements of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) which required business curricula to include a focus on international and global issues. At the same time, the report of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (1996), citing both Absalom & Vadura (2006) and Rizvi & Walsh (1998), asserted that internationalized curricula has “an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, and designed for domestic students, and/or for foreign students” (p. 9). As a result of the AACSB requirements, and in accordance with the OECD assertion (among many others), business schools both within and outside the US became involved in internationalizing their accounting curricula (Adhikari et al., 1999).

Internationalization of curricula at universities has played a crucial role in educational reforms of higher education in many countries (Huang, 2006). Internationalized curricula offer students access to intercultural and interdisciplinary knowledge and understanding, give them

opportunities to share different perspectives, facilitate a vision to see things beyond their own culture and the discipline they are learning, improve foreign language proficiency, and strengthen their intercultural competence (Clifford, 2005; Van der Wende, 1997a). Internationalizing the curricula is “the process of curriculum development or curriculum change which is aimed at integrating an international dimension into the content of the curriculum and, if relevant, also into the method of instruction” (Van der Wende, 1997a, p. 54). Some universities take a “pragmatic approach” (LeBlanc, 2007, p. 107) by providing curricula to allow students to gain competence and perform successfully in a competitive international environment. Other universities adopt an ideological approach to prepare graduates with lifelong learning skills for an unpredictable, but closely related future world of diverse nations (LeBlanc, 2007).

International perspectives, international content, interdisciplinary studies, comparative studies, and intercultural studies and activities are now commonly integrated into university curricula (Harari, 1992; Huang, 2006; Van der Wende, 1997a). English serves an integral function to bridge the gap of different disciplines in non-English-speaking countries, and in foreign languages departments of HE institutions (Bettencourt, 2011; Harari, 1992).

Higher Education Internationalization in China

In response to various pressures created by globalization and internationalization, the central government has urged, and financially incentivized, Chinese universities to make substantial adjustments in their programs to catch up and keep pace with HE internationalization worldwide (Chan & Lo, 2008). HE internationalization provides China the opportunity to restructure its tertiary educational system, carry out needed educational reforms, and offer new

innovative programs with globally competitive academic curricula. China also has a chance to share its contemporized educational practices with other countries and contribute substantially to research in higher education.

Chinese Higher Education in the Era of Globalization

The high level of development in Chinese higher education prior to globalization laid a good foundation for internationalization reform. Fundamental, system-wide changes took place after the Chinese open-door and reform policy was enacted in the late 1970s. Contemporary Chinese higher education was molded by the open-door policy, economic reforms, proactive responses to the challenges from globalization, and worldwide competition for talented students and faculty. Since the late 1990's, the Chinese government has been devoted to realizing the massification of higher education, transforming China's higher education system from a small number of elite groups to a larger number of mass and general population (Mok & Jiang, 2017).

As the new millennium dawned, China officially opened to the world which stimulated the development of its economy and accelerated the pace of Chinese modernization. In December of 2001, China officially became one of the members of the WTO. After China's entry into the WTO, "the Chinese government started revising its legislation to allow overseas institutions to offer programs on the mainland in line with the WTO regulations" (Mok & Xu, 2008, p. 395). "China has once again sought Western models and made various attempts to internationalize its higher education" system (Huang, 2003, p. 225). Open-door and reform policies created the opportunity for China and Chinese higher education to engage with the

world. Official entry into the WTO marked China's engagement with and marriage to the world, spurring an ongoing intimate global relationship ever since.

Leading up to the post-millennial opening of China, the Ministry of Education (MOE) carried out a series of policy reforms related to HE internationalization. First, the *Zhonggong ZhongYang Guanyu Jiaoyu Tizhi Gaige de Jueding* (the Decisions of CPC Central Committee on the Reform of the Educational System) was carried out in 1985. The *Zhongguo Jiaoyu Gaige yu Fazhan Gangyao* (the Outline of Chinese Educational Reform and Development) followed in 1993. *Guanyu Shenhua Jiaoyu Gaige Quanmian Tuijin Suzhijiaoyu de Guiding* (the Regulations of Intensifying Educational Reform and Promoting Comprehensive *Suzhi* Education) was then carried out in 1999. This policy process culminated in the post-millennial *Guojia Zhongchangqi Jiaoyu Gaige he Fazhan Guihua Gangyao* (2010-2020) (the Outline of the National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)), hereinafter referred to as *Outline 2010* (MOE, 2010)). While elaborating the details of the 1985, 1993, and 1999 reform policies would occupy too much focus and space in this review, it should simply be noted that they were fundamental to the shift from a Soviet-style higher education system to the globally-competitive system of today. Interested readers can turn to several seminal descriptions of these reform efforts, particularly the works by He (2016), Yang (2014), Wang (2014), He (2012), Chen (2011), Huang (2003), and Min (1999).

Outline 2010 is the most important policy document regarding the current HE internationalization movement in China. It clearly elaborates the nation's goals and expectations

for higher education and how to further open Chinese higher education to the world to help embrace and create world-class universities. In this regard, *Outline 2010* states:

By 2020, the structure of higher education shall become more balanced and distinctive, and it shall also go up a notch in talent or professional cultivation, scientific research and social service as a whole. Quite a few world-famous universities with original features shall come to the fore; some of them shall have reached or approached the level of world-class universities. China's higher education shall have vastly sharpened its global competitive edge ... Higher educational institutions shall be urged to open their best faculties to the world, and to participate in or set up collaborative international academic organizations or global science plans; they shall also be encouraged to join top-notch education and research institutes abroad in establishing united research and development centers. The building of world-class and high-level universities shall pick up speed, so as to cultivate top-notch innovators and world-class disciplines, achieve original results at advanced level in the world, and contribute to the effort to raise the nation's comprehensive strength. (MOE, 2010, pp. 19-21)

In terms of the goal of HE internationalization, *Outline 2010* promotes international exchanges and cooperation:

It is essential to reform and develop education by opening it to the outside world, carrying out education exchanges and collaboration at multiple levels and in a broad scope, and raising education's internationalization level. Advanced concepts and experience in education in the world shall be assimilated to boost education reform and

development *at home* and to enhance the nation's global position, influence and competitiveness in the field of education. To meet the requirement of opening up the Chinese economy and society to the world, large numbers of talents shall be cultivated that are imbued with global vision, well versed in international rules, and capable of participating in international affairs and competition. (MOE, 2010, p. 34)

The globalization of China's higher education system is a strategy intended to improve the nation's comprehensive power, and HE internationalization as a strategic approach is the key to realizing this goal. *Outline 2010* categorizes and expands the scale and scope of HE internationalization. It emphasizes that "education aimed at enhancing international understanding shall be stepped up to promote [a higher] level of cross-cultural communication and to help students better understand different countries and cultures" (MOE, 2010, p. 34).

Economic globalization created a significant challenge for Chinese higher education, as seen in many aspects of *Outline 2010* (MOE, 2010). China's higher education system, considered the *leading head* of all Chinese education, is now "clearly driven by international forces, and [has been newly] designed to conform with the trends in international higher education development" (Yang, 2000, p. 327). Chinese universities have been vigorously embracing the opportunity presented by the dynamic developments of the global economy to better prepare Chinese students to meet the challenges and demand of the international marketplace (Wang, 2014; Yang, 2014; Yuan, 2011).

Reviews of Chinese HE Internationalization

A large number of studies have been conducted to broadly study Chinese HE internationalization from many different perspectives (Altbach, 2004a, 2007, 2009; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Ross & Lou, 2005). It is important to mention three leading Chinese scholars who study internationalization in the context of Chinese higher education: Huang (2003, 2005, 2007a), Mok (2007), and Yang (2005, 2014). Their research in studying HE internationalization is considered the most important to Chinese scholars and policy makers, and their work is summarized in the following section.

The Chinese HE internationalization transition is advancing vigorously in different forms and practices across many, if not most, mainland institutions. “The internationalization of higher education in China has experienced a change from activities concerning traditional outflows of international scholars, faculty members, and students before 1992 to those relating to trans-national higher education and internationalization of curricula” (Huang, 2003, p. 225). Developed countries from different parts of the world have significantly influenced Chinese higher education in critical aspects of teaching methodologies, curricula, and instructional ethos. Chinese HE internationalization moved from the strategy of “taking in” and “going out,” to developing “mutual communication or exchange” models and the cultivation of joint-diploma collaborations with foreign universities (Huang, 2003, p. 225). All HE internationalization programs are closely monitored and regulated by the MOE under the leadership of the Chinese central government.

Huang clarified that HE internationalization in China has never been a “one-way process; rather it comprises attempts to realize mutual communication or exchange” (2003, p. 238).

Further, he notes that the national development agenda and policy pushes all higher educational reforms, particularly those efforts pertaining to HE internationalization (Huang, 2005).

Yang (2005), on the other hand, shows how Chinese HE internationalization developed from the local context, within an international context, to respond to powerful external economic and cultural forces. The most notable characteristic of the strategies of Chinese HE internationalization, given historical Chinese tendencies toward political and geographical isolationism, is its “vigorous engagement with the outside world, especially with Western societies... China’s embrace of English language serves as a telling example” (Yang, 2014).

Huang (2005) focuses on the internationalization of curriculum in Chinese higher education and studies the changes and trends of China’s higher education from both a quantitative growth and qualitative enhancement perspective. He explains that the drivers of curricular changes are the more market-oriented and internationalized setting of the contemporary, post-2000 Chinese economy. In 2007, Huang introduced the concept of “transnational higher education (TNHE)” (2007b, p. 421) in East and Southeast Asian countries and contexts, as well as the characteristics and concerns of Chinese transnational higher education.

Finally, Mok (2007) studied the strategies of internationalization in different Asian countries, including China. He pointed out that many different kinds of actions have taken place to make universities in China more competitive internationally, such as the *211 Project, 985*

Project, and *World Class University Project*, which were launched by the Chinese central government to develop selective top universities in China into Ivy League-like world-class universities (MOE, 2008, 2011). To achieve this goal, “a growing number of Chinese universities have engaged in developing international collaborations with overseas institutions not only in terms of research but also in launching join programs” (Mok, 2007, p. 445).

Internationalization at Central China University

Knight’s (2012) two pillars of internationalization have been mentioned in the previous part of the literature review. Internationalization *at home* (campus-based HE internationalization) is extensively practiced by Chinese higher education institutions. Central China University (a pseudonym) (CCU) has chosen to focus on *at-home* (campus based) strategies to provide innovative HE internationalization pilot programs. Since CCU has historically specialized in foreign languages, its inherent language-based resource advantages allow it to easily penetrate into other non-language disciplinary fields.

The context of CCU. It is essential to note the context of CCU and the operationalized application of HE internationalization. At the outset of this contextualization, it needs to be pointed out that in order to protect the anonymity of the student participants and host institution, the name and identifying specifics of the university where the research was conducted have been purposefully obscured. This means that specific references, either to published documents or websites, have been omitted. Where features of the university or programs are widely adopted in tertiary institutions in China, which provides sufficient generality to protect the identification of the university, specific references and citations are provided.

CCU is located in the central region of China and is one of the earliest four major universities of international studies established in China. It independently offers nearly 50 undergraduate degree programs and almost 60 Master of Arts programs. Over a dozen doctoral degree programs are offered, either independently or jointly with eight overseas institutions in Europe. These programs cover various areas in social science, business, literature, economics, management, tourism, international relations, mass communication, education, etc., and are offered in about two dozen departments and colleges and just over two dozen academic centers.

CCU has become one of the major universities to align with China's economic development, producing competitive graduates who can meet the demands of the fierce marketplace, both domestically and globally. This fact is largely due to CCU's unique background as a high-profile international studies university, its rich resources in foreign languages studies and international communication, and its exchange agreements with nearly 200 universities overseas.

Besides foreign languages studies, the CCU Business School was established in 2002 for the purpose of leading the university to develop comprehensively, facilitating the later establishment of other schools in the university. The CCU Business School's HE internationalization approach has been very successful which has helped the Business School cultivate global citizens, as well as enhancing its global academic reputation, and building partnerships with international business organizations in China and abroad (CCU Business School, 2016).

Internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School.

The CCU Business School operates four ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot business programs. Each of the pilot programs admits one new cohort each year. Accounting (ACCA) was the first program constituted in 2007. Business English (CIMA) began in 2009, followed by Business English (ACCA) and Business Administration (CIMA) in 2012. The acronym ACCA refers to the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants and CIMA refers to the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants. ACCA is the global body for professional accountants, while CIMA is the world's largest and most prestigious professional body of management accountants. The ACCA and CIMA Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs have ACCA and CIMA certificate-qualifying exam courses embedded in the regular baccalaureate programs (also called instructional reform programs/classes).

All four internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs are based on the professional requirements of the ACCA and the CIMA in concert with the regular business programs at CCU Business School. The students in the pilot programs are provided the standard curricula of the non-pilot programs, but their curriculum is additionally infused with English, business, and the previously mentioned ACCA and CIMA qualification exams.

The pilot programs are designed to meet the CCU goal of developing internationalization programs by “integrating international, intercultural and comparative perspective into the student experience through campus-based and virtual activities in addition to international academic mobility experiences” (Knight, 2012, p. 35). These programs are aligned with the larger Chinese national imperative to enhance the development of the human resource, human capital and

knowledge economy of the country. They are also driven by the CCU institutional goals of cultivating students to be interculturally competent, highly innovative, capable, and internationalized graduates (CCU, 2016).

The CCU Business School provides the ACCA and CIMA students many opportunities for employment, interaction with domestic and international business organizations, and participation in cross-border study programs. Over 70% of CCU's Chinese faculty members involved in the ACCA and CIMA programs have cross-border study experience.

Growth Mindset, Grit, and Sex Differences

An emerging trend in Chinese internationalization programs is a focus on satisfying students' expectations of being not only competitive and competent to enter the global marketplace, but also to become emotionally and intellectually capable and successful (MOE, 2010). In becoming emotionally and intellectually healthy, students in internationalization programs, such as CCU's, should exhibit high levels of personal well-being, as could be expressed in various contemporary models, such as the PERMA-V model of the six pillars of positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment, and vitality (Kern, Waters, Adler, & White, 2015; Seligman, 2012). Students enrolled in internationalization programs are expected to not only perform well academically at the university and in the work place, but also contribute to the future overall well-being of the nation. This means that students who are achieving academically should not be required to sacrifice their personal well-being along the way, which would not put them in a position to sustain their own professional success, nor contribute significantly to the national good.

While many theories and conceptual approaches could be reviewed in considering the curricular and pedagogical aspects of HE internationalization, particularly at CCU, the rationale for determining which should be included in this review is based on two issues. First, this research findings indicate that significant elements of the frameworks of the six pillars (Kern, et al., 2015; Seligman, 2012) are significantly reflected in the student's reported learning experiences. Second, a critical goal of this research is to provide the pilot program administrators and CCU senior leaders with some theory-grounded insights and suggestions to improve student learning and the programs. Therefore, the conceptual frameworks that will be briefly presented here are personal resilience, learned helplessness and optimism, posttraumatic growth, growth mindset, and grit will be briefly presented.

By helping students maintain and develop positive attitudes toward their learning and challenges, and understanding which program elements and approaches support and enhance student experiences, insights and suggestions grounded in frameworks such as growth mindset and grit will provide rich support for future decisions, actions, and directions. Therefore, an exploration of these frameworks is necessary to provide a substantial means of fully understanding the research and best ways forward. Consequently, these five frameworks will be represented by a brief review of works of selected researchers: personal resilience by Achor (2011), learned helplessness and optimism by Seligman (1991; 2010, 2011), posttraumatic growth by Tedeschi and Calhoun (1995, 2004), growth mindset by Dweck (1986, 2006, 2008), Yeager & Dweck (2012), and grit by Duckworth & Seligman (2006), Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, Duckworth & Eskreis-Winkler (2013), and Duckworth & Gross (2014).

Since sex differences in student learning experiences emerged as central to the study, the relevant works of Drew and Work (1998), Sax, Bryant, and Harper (2005), and Kaenzig, Hyatt and Anderson (2007) will also be briefly explored.

Personal Resilience

Personal resilience, learned optimism, posttraumatic growth, growth mindset and grit are all interconnected by central features of positive psychology. They emphasize that difficult and challenging situations in life do not necessarily last permanently but can be overcome, producing personal resilience to “bounce forward” (Achor, 2011, p. 104). Gaining personal resilience in this way can cultivate in people’s minds confidence that putting consistent effort in overcoming adversity can lead to realizing important life goals (Yeager & Dweck, 2012).

The construct of personal resilience draws on positive psychological elements well beyond technical ability and IQ level, taking the view that constructs such as inner strength and positive attitude matter greatly in learning. In understanding personal resilience, the constructs of learned helplessness and optimism become the historical foundation for the development of the concepts of posttraumatic growth, growth mindset, and grit.

Learned Helplessness and Optimism

Chronologically prior to the advent of the growth mindset and grit, the constructs of learned helplessness and optimism were proposed by Martin Seligman (1972), the founder of positive psychology. Learned helplessness is an emotional distress that often causes people to suffer from depression, anxiety, and/or failure (Seligman, 1975). While pessimism runs throughout learned helplessness, roots of optimism co-exist as a potentially learned alternative or

resolution. Although the two notions appear to be opposite to each other, learned helplessness can be developed into learned optimism. As Seligman proposes, “pessimists can in fact learn to be optimists... by learning a new set of cognitive skills” (Seligman, 1991, p. 5).

Learned helplessness. Learned helplessness research was first initiated in 1967 as an extension of studying depression (Seligman & Maier, 1967), and the most enduring conceptualization was proposed by Martin Seligman (1972) in the early 1970s. Based on early studies, Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale (1978) asserted that “helpless subjects gave small expectancy changes, which suggests a belief in external control, whereas subjects not made helpless gave large expectancy changes, which suggests a belief in internal control” (p. 51). Seligman (2010) defines learned helplessness in human beings as a personal attribution condition where “people who experience uncontrollable bad events become passive, not trying to do anything about their future” (p. 232). Passivity, in this sense, is a “give-up response” and a “quitting reaction” (Seligman, 2011, p. 15). The three P’s identified by Seligman—personalization, pervasiveness, and permanence—are the three components of pessimism and learned helplessness (2011). Personalization refers to the belief that one is at fault and ought to blame oneself for every mistake one makes. Pervasiveness refers to the belief that negative results effect, and will continue to effect, all aspects of one’s life. The last P is permanence, which refers to the belief that bad events or experiences will last permanently (Sandberg, 2016, May 14). In a state of learned helplessness, people believe that no matter how hard they try, they will not succeed. Consequently, their behavior becomes very passive, and they assume a feeling of helplessness, which is often compounded by being depressed.

In the 1970s and 1980s, numerous studies investigated potential sex differences in learned helplessness (Bar-Tal, 1978; Dweck & Bush, 1976; Dweck, Davidson, Nelson, & Enna, 1978; Eccles, Meece, Adler, & Kaczala, 1982). In general, these studies concluded that male students tended to attribute their successes to internal factors and their failures to external influences. Conversely, females tended to attribute their achievements to external causes, and they took personal responsibility for their failures (Ben-Shahar, 2009; Dweck & Bush, 1976; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973; Eccles et al., 1982). Broadly, learned helplessness is seen as “[a] sex-differentiated attributional pattern” (Eccles et al., 1982, p. 423) where female students demonstrate more likelihood of learned helplessness than male students (Dweck et al., 1978; Dweck & Licht, 1980).

Learned optimism. Learned optimism was proposed by Seligman (1991) as a self-help approach for people seeking to live happier lives. Seligman’s approach assumes that optimism is the key to help those who feel helplessness by reinforcing the idea and habit of mind by repeating that, “it is temporary, it’s just this one situation, and there is something I can do about it” (2010, p. 232).

Learned optimism emphasizes five elements of well-being, including positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment, which encourage people to be motivated to achieve no matter their circumstances (Seligman, 2010). The three P’s – personalization, pervasiveness, and permanence – are also identified by Seligman as the three factors of pessimism that prevent us from becoming optimistic and therefore hold us back from

being successful (Seligman, 2011). Recognizing the three P's and learning to see them from a reverse, optimistic perspective, can lead people to be optimistic.

Posttraumatic Growth

Achor (2011) extensively lists examples that demonstrate how much personal strength and self-confidence people can gain after going through trauma. This gain in personal strength and self-confidence encapsulates to the concept of posttraumatic growth (PTG) first proposed by Tedeschi and Calhoun (1995). Understanding posttraumatic growth relies on the answer to three questions: First, what is trauma? Second, what is meant by growth? Third, what is posttraumatic growth?

Trauma and growth. Trauma is interchangeable with things such as “crisis, [or] highly stressful events” (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004, p. 1). In psychology, trauma refers to “the unique individual experience of an event or enduring conditions in which the individual's ability to integrate his/her emotional experience is overwhelmed or the individual experience (subjectively) a threat to life, bodily integrity, or sanity” (Pearlman & Saakvitne, 1995, p. 60). Tedeschi and Calhoun define the term *trauma* as series of significant challenges and stresses to the “adaptive resources of the individuals' way of understanding the world and their place in it” (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004, p. 1). Tedeschi and Calhoun's comprehensive definition helps us to understand that highly intense and stressful study situations in educational context could be considered as trauma.

In the generic sense, growth can be either physical enlargement in size or be abstract in terms of growth of the mind or thinking. Growth is a term which has been adapted for use in

biology, social science, economics, mathematics, and psychology, among others. Growth, in a psychological sense, refers to what an individual obtains after successfully coping with, or recovering from, traumatic events, which leads to “establishing a comfortable, integrated assumptive world that incorporates the traumatic experience” (Janoff-Bulman, 2004, p. 1). Growth in this sense conveys a positive change after experiencing a wide range of events, possibly including mistakes an individual makes in their employment, daily life, or learning (Achor, 2011). The growth that an individual can achieve after traumatic hardships is a powerful way to expedite learning and acquire greater competitiveness and success (Achor, 2011).

Posttraumatic growth. Difficult and challenging situations often cause physical and emotional suffering, as well portend the possibility for physical, mental and/or psychological growth. Successful coping with tragedies and stressful circumstances demonstrates that adversities do not necessarily last permanently. Posttraumatic growth, then, refers to “positive psychological change experienced as a result of the struggle with highly challenging life circumstances” (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004, p. 1)

The majority of empirical studies on posttraumatic growth focus on traumas such as severe health issues, natural disasters, criminal attacks, as well as refugee and hostage experiences. Traumatic experiences in life can cause distresses and painful emotions (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004). The Buddhist aphorism that “what doesn’t kill us, makes us stronger” illustrates the idea that “great suffering or trauma can actually lead to great positive change across a wide range of experiences” (Achor, 2011, p. 104). Posttraumatic growth may become a positive pattern for how future crises and threatening events can become the source of greater personal

resilience (Peterson, Park, Pole, D'Andrea, & Seligman, 2008). Individuals can transform their unpleasant and negative experiences into inspiration and motivation for future posttraumatic growth. Adversity can lead to positive changes in personal strength, and create positive, rather than negative outcomes (Forgeard, 2013).

Growth Mindset

Two types of mindset evolve from Dweck's study on learned helplessness among children by giving them "a series of puzzles to solve" (Dweck, 2006, p. 3). The principal discovery was that children reported three basic reactions to the challenge presented by the often-frustrating circumstances created by puzzle games: (a) their desire to take on the challenge; (b) faith to accomplish the mission; and (c) determination to succeed. From these three basic reactions, Dweck distinguishes between two mindsets—fixed and growth. Subsequent studies indicate that students demonstrating a growth mindset always eventually find a way to fight through the challenge and develop a stronger reservoir of resilience and perseverance.

Mindset. People are different from each other in that we each think and behave in diverse and unique ways. Historically, a long-standing discourse explored whether these differences resulted from a physical, genetic basis or environmental influences (Dweck, 2006). While it is incontrovertibly true that each person has a unique genetic endowment at birth, research has clearly demonstrated that experience, training, and personal effort add to, and perhaps even transform the original performance boundaries of that initial, genetic condition (Dweck, 2006). The view (mindset) we adopt for ourselves, relative to the genetic-environmental interaction, profoundly affects the way we lead our lives.

The term *mindset* is used frequently in the literature of psychology and education.

Mindset refers to “a range of self-beliefs, with a fixed mindset on one end of a scale and growth mindset on the other” (McCutchen, Jones, Carbonneau, & Mueller, 2016, p. 208). Dweck (2006) defines mindset as the constellation of powerful changeable beliefs in our minds which can be categorized into two broad mindsets—fixed and growth.

Fixed and Growth Mindsets. In contrast to fixed mindset, the construct of growth mindset was first proposed by Carol Dweck in the 1970’s. Dweck (1986) proposed that, apart from genetically-framed ability, psychological and learning factors determine the effectiveness of individuals acquiring, transferring, and using knowledge and skills. Large numbers of research studies explore how, and to what extent, fixed and growth mindsets affect student achievement (Boaler, 2013; Dougherty, 2013; Dweck, 2006, 2010; Trei, 2007; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). Results demonstrate that people adapt differently and that the growth mindset provides a way to discover and apply effective solutions to improve learning and performance.

Dweck (2006) proposes that the mindsets individuals adopt, or learn to be personally preferred, profoundly affects the way they live their lives, and she further asserts that mindsets can be changed. People with a fixed mindset believe that their level of intelligence is simply an inborn (genetic) trait, with specific limits that will never change. Consequently, they are not in favor of applying the necessary effort to push through extremely challenging, or at times even mildly challenging, situations (Dweck, 2010). However, people with growth mindset think of “talents and abilities as things they can develop – as potentials that come to fruition through effort, practice, and instruction” (Dweck, 2009, p. 1). Those with a growth mindset value effort

and devotion and are aware of the reality that even geniuses need to work hard to make progress and contributions (Dweck, 2010). Those with a growth mindset do not give up easily, and are ready to take significant risks and confront serious challenges (Dweck, 2006). The growth mindset stems from the belief that everyone can cultivate and change their initial talents and aptitudes, interests, or temperament, and grow through application and experience (Dweck, 2006).

Growth mindset and academic performance. Studies show that students' achievement can be affected significantly by the type of mindset they adopt, both in K-12 and higher education. Students with growth mindsets are more oriented toward achieving learning goals and showing their commitment in learning, as well as demonstrating greater effort, devotion, and persistence to cope with academic challenges. Growth mindset students admit not only the existence of challenges but also acknowledge their accomplishments after temporary learning traumas (Dweck, 2008). Studies also find that, regardless of differences in sex or socioeconomic level, students with a growth mindset perform significantly better than students with a fixed mindset (Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2016; Dweck, 2008, 2009, 2012). Even students with similar demographics beyond sex and socioeconomic level perform better academically with a growth mindset, which findings complement the previous research findings of the positive impact of the advantages of the growth mindset, per se, on student academic performance (Claro et al., 2016). It is interesting to note that female students perform slightly better than males among those who hold a growth mindset (Dweck, 2009, 2012).

Given the consistency of these findings, it is necessary to foster a growth mindset culture in students in order to foster their effort, devotion, perseverance and long-term academic achievements (Dweck, 2010). In this regard, Dweck (2009) provided three rules in developing a growth mindset in students: (a) learning beyond academic performance; (b) working with passion and dedication; and (c) embracing mistakes and confronting deficiencies. When students are “praised for hard work” instead of their “intelligence,” they tend to believe that they can improve despite the challenges they are confronting (Mueller & Dweck, 1998, p. 33).

Yeager and Dweck (2012) believe that students’ mindset can be changed, and those who maintain a growth mindset can generate resilience. As mentioned previously, resilience is considered extremely important to students’ academic success (Yeager & Dweck, 2012). Relative to growth mindset, resilience is defined as “any behavioral, attributional, or emotional response to an academic or social challenge that is positive and beneficial for development” (Yeager & Dweck, 2012, p. 303). Other studies also find that students with a growth mindset have stronger belief in their potential for better academic performance and demonstrate more willingness to work harder for future goals (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2012; Stipek & Galinski, 1996).

Grit

The growth mindset focuses on the need for a certain view of taking on challenges and overcoming barriers. Yet, not only does an individual need a growth mindset, but also the quality of perseverance to complete tasks and goals. Duckworth and Eskreis (2013) conducted research

demonstrating a moderate, positive association between what they term *grit* and the growth mindset.

Besides simply having the opportunity for success, research has demonstrated that having grit is a significant determinant of success (Duckworth & Gross, 2014; Duckworth et al., 2007). Some propose that self-control and grit are interchangeable concepts, while not being truly identical (Duckworth & Gross, 2014). Grit has been shown to be a critical factor in academic tenacity, and academic tenacity is crucially important to student academic achievement (Dweck, Walton, & Cohen, 2011).

Duckworth's recent book *Grit: The Power of Passion and Perseverance* (2016) offers truly meaningful insights on the nature of grit. Grit demonstrates "perseverance and passion for long-term goals" (Duckworth et al., 2007, p. 1087). Having grit indicates that any challenging condition will likely be completed, no matter how hard it is or how long it takes (Duckworth & Gross, 2014). "[G]rit entails working strenuously toward challenges, maintaining effort and interest over years despite failure, adversity, and plateaus in progress" (Duckworth et al., 2007, pp. 1087-1088).

Grit, then, makes a crucial contribution to student academic success in concert with a growth mindset. While each may make important contributions alone, together they create a powerful team. Grit contributes tenacity to the positive possibilities encompassed in a growth mindset. Some argue that although grit, perseverance and passion are the keys for realizing long-term goals, contributing to academic success and engagement, and helping students optimistically determine to achieve regardless of any academic trauma they experience, in some

instances it may result in an overall lower level of well-being (Credé, Tynan, & Harms, 2016; Kohn, 2014).

Sex or Gender Differences

Several clear patterns related to sex or gender differences emerged in the findings of this study, which also indicates the importance of sex or gender differences in the context of education, as well as in this type of research. Spending 121 weeks on the New York Times Best Sellers List, John Gray's *Men Are from Mars, Women Are from Venus* (1992) is rated by some sources as the most popular work of non-fiction of the 1990's, and its publisher (Harper Collins) claims it to be the all-time best-selling hardcover nonfiction book. The book focuses the differences existing between men and women (the two terms he uses exclusively throughout his book). Gray (1992) argues that men and women are dramatically different in personality and action, so much so that they seem to be from different planets in the universe – Mars and Venus. But does Gray's book deal with differences between the sexes, or differences between genders, and does this potential distinction comprise a meaningful difference?

Defining sex and gender. In non-technical discourse, there is significant confusion concerning whether sex and gender are synonymous or different. In many circumstances, sex and gender are used interchangeably, but in technical use they are fundamentally different. People often polarize sex as female and male, while gender is attributed as women and men (Johnson & Repta, 2012; Lorber, 1996). “The term gender was first used by Greek sophists in the fifth century BC to describe the three fold classification of the names of things as masculine,

feminine, and intermediate” (Archer & Lloyd, 2002, p. 17). A representative definition of sex and gender appears in Ann Oakley’s *Sex, Gender and Society* as the following:

‘Sex’ is a word that refers to the biological differences between male and female: the visible difference in genitalia, the related difference in procreative function. ‘Gender’ however is a matter of culture: it refers to the social classification into ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’. (1972, p. 16)

Sex, in the modern era, has been defined consistently by scholars from different academic domains as “the binary [biological] categories male and female” (Archer & Lloyd, 2002, p. 17). Scholars typically agree that gender encompasses the social, psychological, and cultural differentiations between men and women and the features and characteristics strongly associated with the biological categories of male and female (Canary, Emmers-Sommer, & Faulkner, 1997). This definition coincides with the notion of gender as “the psychological features frequently associated with these biological states” (Deaux, 1985, p. 51) and “the social, psychological, and cultural differentiations between men and women” (Canary et al., 1997, p. 6).

Sex differences. The term *sex differences*, as used in most social sciences research, simply refers to the *demographic* biological categories of male and female (Archer & Lloyd, 2002). Large numbers of research projects address the issue of sex differences in the fields of communication, personal relationships, and behavioral psychology, among others (Aries, 1996; Canary et al., 1997; Eagly, 2013; Hall, 1990; Henley, 1977).

Sex differences in the domains of cognitive skills, personality traits and dispositions, and social behavior are also widely examined, and findings regarding sex differences are often found

to be statistically significant (Deaux, 1985; Halpern, 2013). In research focusing on education contexts and issues, diversity of student learning styles and educational experiences are often found to be associated with sex differences (Chang, 2004; Severiens & Ten Dam, 1994; Wehrwein, Lujan, & DiCarlo, 2007).

Learning styles. Studies in education often focus, in whole or in part, on a consistent question: is there an association between sex and certain learning styles? The answer is consistently positive that there are, in fact, consistent and persistent sex-based learning style differences associated with the student demographic categories of female and male (Chang, 2004; Demirbas & Demirkan, 2007; Kaenzig et al., 2007; Severiens & Ten Dam, 1994; Wehrwein et al., 2007).

Research finds that male students are more likely to prefer the abstract conceptualization mode of learning than females (Severiens & Ten Dam, 1994). Male and female students' preferences are significantly different in visual, auditory, read-write, and kinesthetic learning styles (Severiens & Ten Dam, 1994; Wehrwein et al., 2007). Chang (2004) suggests that male students are more achievement-oriented and female students are predominantly performance-oriented. Duckworth and Seligman (2006) found sex differences between male and female students in self-discipline, grades, and achievement test scores. They asserted that report card grades and achievement test scores show that female students are more self-disciplined than male students, and self-discipline can be used as a statistically significant mediator for sex and academic report categories (Duckworth & Seligman, 2006).

College educational experiences. A prominent difference between female and male students in reporting their educational experiences in college (university) has been widely examined. Female students believe that their performance level is lower and that they learned less than their male counterparts in medical school. Females also do not feel as confident as males in their abilities to achieve academic and career success (Scheuneman, 1997). Drew and Work (1998) indicate that student educational experiences in college demonstrate sex-based differences in various aspects. For example, female students show more satisfaction and joy and obtain development both intellectually and personally more than male students, even though their gains may not be as high as males in science and technology. Females also interact more with, and are influenced positively by, faculty members than male students.

In Sax et al., (2005), sex differences were observed in student interaction with and influences by faculty. Female students reflected more positively than males in “intellectual challenge, stimulation, and respects” as well as “emotional support” (p. 646) and professional development encouragement provided by faculty members. However, some similarities for both sexes also exist. Students’ interaction with faculty role models helps both female and male students to create a sense of desire to positively influence others (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). Both female and male students’ interaction with their faculty are reflected significantly in building academic self-confidence, gaining leadership ability, and pursuing life-long learning and higher degrees (Astin, 1993; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000).

Kaenzig, Hyatt and Anderson (2007) point out that there is a dramatic sex difference for business school students in perceiving the value of their educational experiences in team work

contexts. The attitudes students hold are very different, with female students reporting more negative experiences and impacts than males, when considering team work activities. Male and female students demonstrate different ways of developing generic skills such as analytical thinking and problem-solving skills (Rhee & Kim, 2012).

Research is consistent in suggesting that professors ought to be alert to, and account for sex differences, and the role sex plays, in student learning. Research consistently points out that universities and professors ought to use relevant sex-appropriate approaches to help both male and female students learn and perform more optimally.

Find and Mind the Gap

Whenever the phrase *mind the gap* appears, the picture of taking the London or Hong Kong (HK) Tube immediately comes to mind. Anyone who has the chance to experience the London or HK tube in the last three decades has likely heard the mechanized voice before the doors close, reminding passengers to *mind the gap*. In the case of college student experiences, a slightly different concept of *mind the gap* is in play. But to *mind the gap*, one must first *find the gap*. Finding the gap is the issue to which we now turn.

Finding the gap. Research on HE internationalization has mostly been conducted at a highly aggregated, macro-level (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Braskamp, 2009; Chan & Lo, 2008; Davies, 1995; Dolby, 2011; Green, 2002; Huang, 2003, 2007a; Knight, 2007b, 2008, 2012; Mok & Yu, 2013). Additionally, most research focuses on Western, developed contexts (Ayoubi & Massoud, 2007; Caruana & Spurling, 2007; Edwards, 2007; Van der Wende, 2007; De Wit, 1995, 2009). Very few studies have been conducted at the micro-level at individual institutions or on

specific internationalization programs. Of the few which examine specific internationalized business programs, very few explore the perspective of students, and none deal with the student HE internationalization education experience in China. This is the first gap in the research literature.

The second gap emerges when reviewing studies on sex differences in student learning, mainly focused on student learning styles. Again, very few studies deal with the students' perception of their educational experiences (Kaenzig et al., 2007; Mazon, 2010; Van Hoof & Verbeeten, 2005). Finally, few studies investigate sex differences in student educational experiences specifically in HE internationalization programs (Drew & Work, 1998; Kaenzig et al., 2007).

Minding the gap. With these three gaps in mind, the research supported by this review of literature addresses (minds) all of them. This research is a one-university case study in China (gap #1) dealing with female and male (gap #2) student educational experiences in four HE internationalization pilot business programs (gap #3). The study provides the narrative of the student perspective to the target audience of CCU administrators, and adds value in research-based knowledge of the HE internationalization of business programs at CCU.

APPENDIX B: DETAILED METHODS

This appendix begins with a description of the research methodology and how the research questions and methods were developed before the research was actually conducted in China. Then, the implemented methods and timeframe of the field-based research and data collection are presented, including descriptions of the sampling, interviews, and instruments. Finally, a description of the analytical process is presented.

Methodology

This ontologically qualitative study (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Woods, Gapp, & King, 2016) was situated at Central China University (CCU) in China. By choosing an ontologically qualitative study the *reality* being explored was intentionally delimited exclusively to CCU. This means that the specific national and institutional context, students, programs, etc., which apply to CCU were of central interest, rather than generating inferential data indicative of all internationalization programs across China. This does not mean that the results of the study cannot be of interest or use to other Chinese internationalization programs. Rather, it simply means that the intentional goal of this research was to provide data and results which apply directly to CCU, and which secondarily may be used by other programs by their choice and at their discretion.

This ontological position stands in clear contrast to more traditional, positivist and post-positivist approaches which have as the main goal to produce generalized knowledge (Kuhn, 2012; Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Neither the traditional nor qualitative ontological positions should be broadly considered inherently superior to the other, only in the sense that one is purposefully chosen as the guiding approach for a specific study with particular goals.

Research Questions

Since the principal researcher has been a faculty member at the Business School of Central China University (CCU) in China for over a decade, familiarity with the programs, administrators and students created an advantage in access and contextual expertise for conducting this type of research at this site. At the same time, CCU has implemented several internationalization programs representing the state-of-the-art in Chinese internationalization efforts. The principal researcher taught English language and intercultural business communication courses in the Business English (CIMA), Business English (ACCA), and Business Administration (CIMA) and Accounting (ACCA) internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs³ (also called international reform programs/classes). Through teaching at CCU, the researcher witnessed students' learning experience in all of these pilot programs. Student in-class and after-class communication with the researcher, to a large degree, conveyed a broad sense of their enthusiasm as well as struggles, which led to the following four questions regarding what kind of educational experiences the students have obtained in these pilot programs:

1. Why do students choose to enroll in the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School?
2. What do the students enrolled in the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School perceive as the current

³ ACCA refers to the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants and CIMA refers to the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants. ACCA and CIMA Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs refer to pilot programs that have ACCA and CIMA certificate exam courses implanted in the regular baccalaureate programs (also called instructional reform programs/classes) at Business School of Central China University (CCU Business School). The CCU Business School operates four ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot business programs. Each admits one new cohort each year. The Accounting (ACCA) was the first program constituted in 2007. The Business English (CIMA) began in 2009, followed by the Business English (ACCA) in 2012, and the Business Administration (CIMA) in 2012.
<http://www.cimaglobal.com>
<http://www.acca.org/home>

- biggest challenges/obstacles/problems they encounter as they study and do their course work in their programs? Why?
3. What do the students enrolled in the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School perceive as the most helpful skills and greatest benefits they are developing as they study and do their course work in their programs? Why?
 4. What demographic characteristics of students and their parents appear to be associated with student perceptions and experiences in the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School?

Qualitative research has been increasingly and widely adopted by researchers in different fields. “Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, that is, how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world” (Merriam, 1998, p. 6), as well as how individuals interpret their experiences. Interviews give researchers the opportunity to listen attentively to how respondents (in this study, students) construct their reality in order to gain the knowledge on the study topic.

The goal of qualitative research interviews is to “understand themes of the lived daily world from the subjects’ own perspectives. The structure comes close to an everyday conversation, but as a professional interview, it involves a specific approach and technique of questioning” (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 24). Kvale and Brinkmann introduced seven stages of research interview including “thematizing an interview project, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analyzing, verifying, and reporting” (2009, p. 19).

Flick (2009) described that “collecting verbal data is one of the major methodological approaches in qualitative research” and the researchers can use various “strategies to produce as

much openness as possible towards the object under study and views of the interviewee, narrator, or participant in discussions” (p. 211). Selecting an appropriate interview method (and there are many types of qualitative interviews) for this specific research relied on the “concrete research question[s]” as well as “how the data are to be interpreted later” (Flick, 2009, p. 214).

The interview method adopted for this research followed the guidelines of an episodic interview (Flick, 1997) and derived some conceptual aspects from an episodic interview protocol in use by Professors Steven and Julie Hite in their ongoing research (for which the lead researcher was a research assistant) entitled “Understanding Public School Leader and Parent Perceptions of Current Challenges in Education” (Tang, Hite, Hite, & Wu, 2016). Interview questions were divided into four categories: (a) some opening questions; (b) learning challenges and problems; (c) learning successes and achievements; and, (d) closing questions for follow-up and clarification. The interview questions were designed strictly based on the Flick’s three “types of situations” (episodes, repisodes, and historical situations) and “sorts of data” (situation narratives, examples, subjective definitions, and argumentative-theoretical statements) (1997, pp. 20-21). Figure B-1 is Flick’s presentation of how these elements work together in an episodic interview.

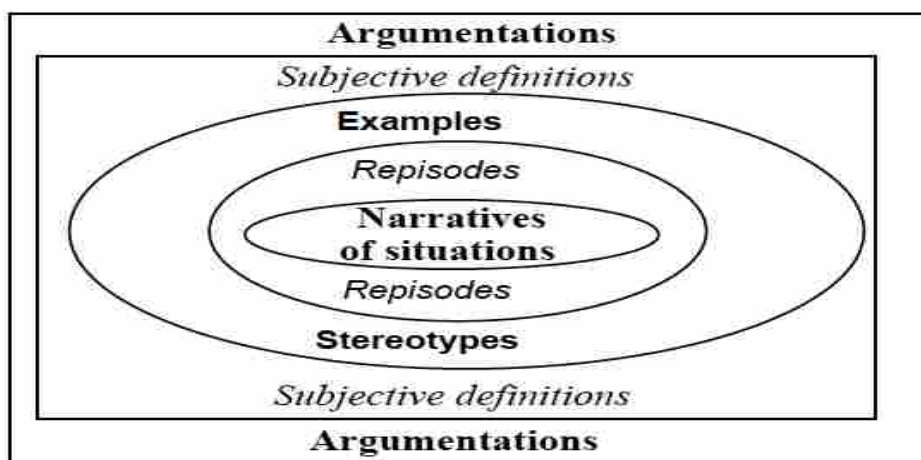


Figure B-1. Data sorts in the episodic interview (Flick, 1997).

Unlike conventional closed or open-ended interview protocols, which focus on singular responses to numerous questions on various topics, episodic interviews reflect how participants construct their reality in different ways on a much more limited number of topic areas. These participant constructions reflect “a combination of narratives oriented to situational or episodic contexts and argumentation that peel off contexts in favor of conceptual and rule-oriented knowledge” (Flick, 2009, p. 186). “Episodic and semantic knowledge,” rather than more typical uni-dimensional responses, are generated, which are “complementary parts of the ‘world knowledge’” of the participant (Flick, 1997, p. 5). Flick visualizes the relationship between participant-constructed episodic and semantic knowledge, and the episodic interview method in Figure B-2.

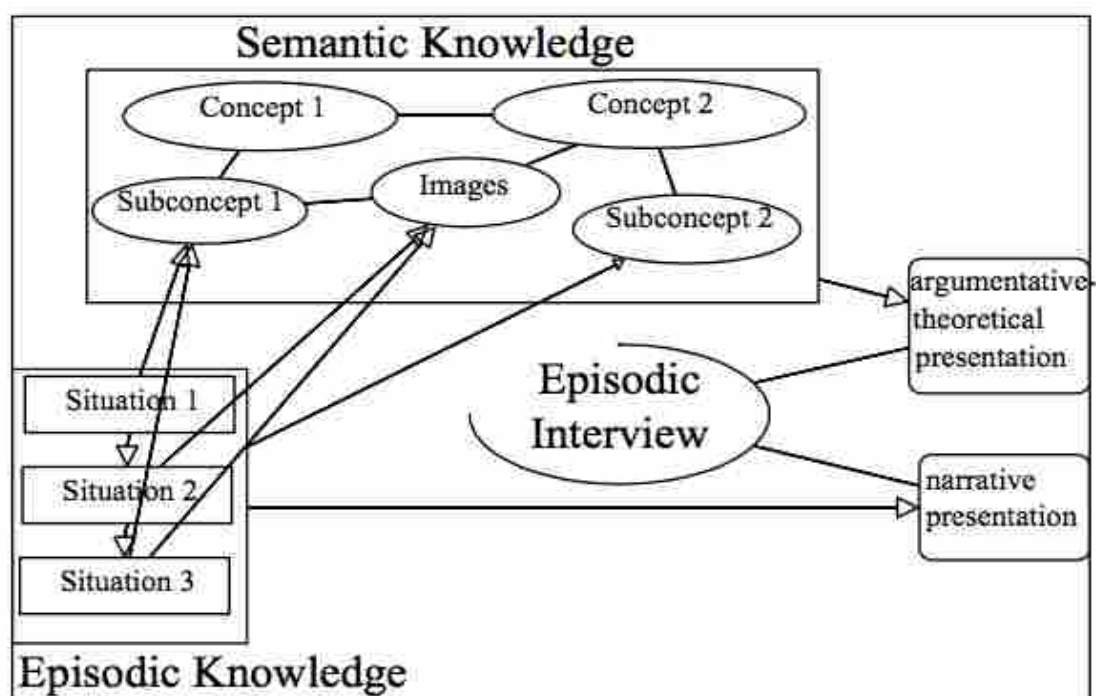


Figure B-2. Forms of knowledge and presentation in the episodic interview (Flick, 1997).

Consequently, this research attempted a much more complex approach to interviewing than typically seen in educational research. The focus was on recursive attempts, through the

episodic format, to help the student participants work through constructing knowledge around the four questions guiding this project.

A demographic questionnaire and interview questions were used along with the episodic interview protocol (see Appendix C). The demographic questionnaire used standard demographic questionnaires as a reference, such as the National Bureau of Statistics of the People's Republic of China (www.stats.gov.cn) and the U.S Census Bureau (www.census.gov). Data were collected on items including the student's sex, age, ethnicity, marital status, region of origin (hereafter, regionality), source of financial support, score on the National College/Higher Education Entrance Examination (NCEE), English language test score from the NCEE, year of enrollment (cohort), high school science-humanities division, initial subject/major choice at CCU, current subject/major at the CCU Business School, and university academic performance at the CCU Business School. Data were also collected for each student participant on each living parent's age, occupation, income, and educational background.

Interview Timeframe and Location

The on-site IRB-approved interviews were conducted from 16 October 2015 to 2 December 2015 with one Skype interview taking place on 11 February 2016. Fall semester at Chinese universities usually starts at the end of August and ends in the middle of January of the following year. October 2015 was an ideal time to begin interviewing (allowing the students to be well into their studies and routines) and finish before student final exams started in December.

Expanding on the brief rationale presented earlier in this appendix, CCU Business School was chosen as the research site for the following reasons. First, CCU provides several state-of-the-art in Chinese baccalaureate internationalization pilot programs which have been in operation for ten years. Second, China is a country in which social relationships, trust, and personal and

professional connections play a major role in access to resources, and in the success of work and daily life. Since the principal researcher is a former faculty member of CCU, permission to conduct the research, interaction with the political officer, access to the students for interviews, and acquisition of the data needed for this research were all achieved with far greater facility than would have been the case at a location where the researchers had no prior, long-term standing. Consequently, CCU was an ideal site for this ontologically qualitative interview-based research.

Sampling Plan

The target (and accessible) population for this study was all undergraduate students in the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School in China (n=670). The sampling frame was originally designed to include 24 students enrolled in the cohorts of 2012, 2013, and 2014. Ultimately, the 2015 cohort was not included due to delayed enrollments caused by their mandatory freshman military training in late September and early October 2015.

The accessible population was divided into four subgroups according to the type of internationalization baccalaureate pilot program they enrolled in (Stage 1), then divided within these four subgroups by sex (Stage 2), university academic performance/GPA level they hold (Stage 3), and cohort year (the year students enrolled) (Stage 4). This procedure represents a four-stage, non-proportional, stratified, purposive sampling plan (Flick, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). This order of priority, with respect to the importance of demographic factors associated with learning, matched expectations from the literature (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2013; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007) as well as the

experience of the researcher as to the order of priority in importance in the specific context of CCU.

The sample was non-proportional in that regardless of the actual proportion of these categories of students in the population, an equal number of female and male students (n=12) was selected from both the ACCA and CIMA pilot programs were interviewed. According to the stage-wise process, the sample included four female and four male students from the high performing group, four of each sex from the average performing group, and four of each sex from the low performing group. The distribution of cohort year was also equally distributed, with four female and four male students being included.

Students receiving the highest score in each academic performance level, who met all other sampling criteria, were selected to be interviewed. If a selected student was not available or willing to participate, another student who met the criteria was chosen through random sampling (with replacement). Table B-1 illustrates how the distribution of the sample would look according to this original sampling plan.

Interviews

The interviewing proceeded in six *rounds* (see Table B-2), using the criteria from the four-stage non-proportional stratified purposive sampling frame. Each round was comprised of the following four established priority of the sampling criteria:

1. One student from each type of program.
2. Even distribution between sexes.
3. All four students from the same performance level.
4. One student each of the three participating cohorts, plus one from one other.

Table B-1

Sampling Plan for n=24

Program	Performance Level	2012 Cohort: Senior		2013 Cohort: Junior		2014 Cohort: Sophomore		2015 Cohort: Freshman	
		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Business English - ACCA	High	1 ₁				1 ₆			
	Average			1 ₅	1 ₂				
	Low	1 ₄				1 ₃			
Accounting - ACCA	High			1 ₆				1 ₁	
	Average	1 ₂	1 ₅						
	Low					1 ₄	1 ₃	Not included due to military training	
Business English - CIMA	High	1 ₆		1 ₁					
	Average					1 ₅	1 ₂		
	Low	1 ₃			1 ₄				
Business Admin - CIMA	High	1 ₁				1 ₆			
	Average			1 ₂	1 ₅				
	Low	1 ₄				1 ₃			

Note: In the sampling table, the regularly cased numeral refers to one student being chosen in that cell, while the sub-scripted numeral (1/2/3/4/5/ or 6) refers to the round in which that participant was designated to be interviewed.

Table B-2

Six Interview Rounds

Round	Program				Sex		Performance Level			Cohort		
	BE ACCA	AC ACCA	BE CIMA	BA CIMA	F	M	HIGH	AVE.	LOW	2012	2013	2014
1	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	0	0	2	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	4	4	1	2	1
3	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	0	4	1	1	2
4	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	0	4	2	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	4	0	1	2	1
6	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	0	0	1	1	2

Additional Interview Subjects: up to 2 drop-outs and up to 2 transfers

Rounds beyond the first were conducted until information and response saturation were achieved (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006), and until at least one student from each program of each sex and performance level had been interviewed across each of the three participating cohort years. The plan included up to two available drop-outs and transfers to be interviewed in each category. The plan projected that achieving saturation would take approximately 6 rounds of interviews. If saturation was not reached after 24 interviews, then further interviews would be conducted to a maximum total of 32 interviews, with 32 interviews projected to be the maximum based on the time and resources available for the interviewing phase of the research project. Ultimately, the sample was comprised of 29 participants (see Tables B-3 and B-4).

Table B-3

Actual Sample (n=29)

Program	Performance Level	2012 Cohort: Senior		2013 Cohort: Junior		2014 Cohort: Sophomore		2015 Cohort: Freshman	
		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Business English - ACCA	High	1 ₁	1 ₇					1 ₆	
	Average			1 ₅	1 ₂				
	Low		1 ₄			1 ₃			
Accounting - ACCA	High			1 ₆		1 ₇	1 ₁		
	Average	1 ₂	1 ₅						Not included due to military service
	Low					1 ₄	1 ₃		
Business English - CIMA	High	1 ₇	1 ₆	1 ₁					
	Average					1 ₅	1 ₂		
	Low	1 ₃			1 ₄				
Business Admin - CIMA	High		Skype		1 ₇	1 ₆			
	Average		1 ₁	1 ₂	1 ₅				
	Low	1 ₄			1 ₃				

Table B-4

Actual Sample by Round (n=29)

ROUND	Program Type				Sex		Performance Level			Cohort		
	BE ACCA	AC ACCA	BE CIMA	BA CIMA	F	M	HIGH	AVE.	LOW	2012	2013	2014
1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	1	0	2	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	4	0	1	2	1
3	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	0	4	1	1	2
4	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	0	4	2	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	4	0	1	2	1
6	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	0	0	1	1	2
7	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	0	0	2	1	1
8 Skype	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0

Six Phases of Implementation

The research was implemented in six phases. These phases are graphically presented in Figure B-3. The phases include planning and approval, pre-implementation, interviewing, data transcribing, data scrubbing and formatting, and three stages of data analysis.

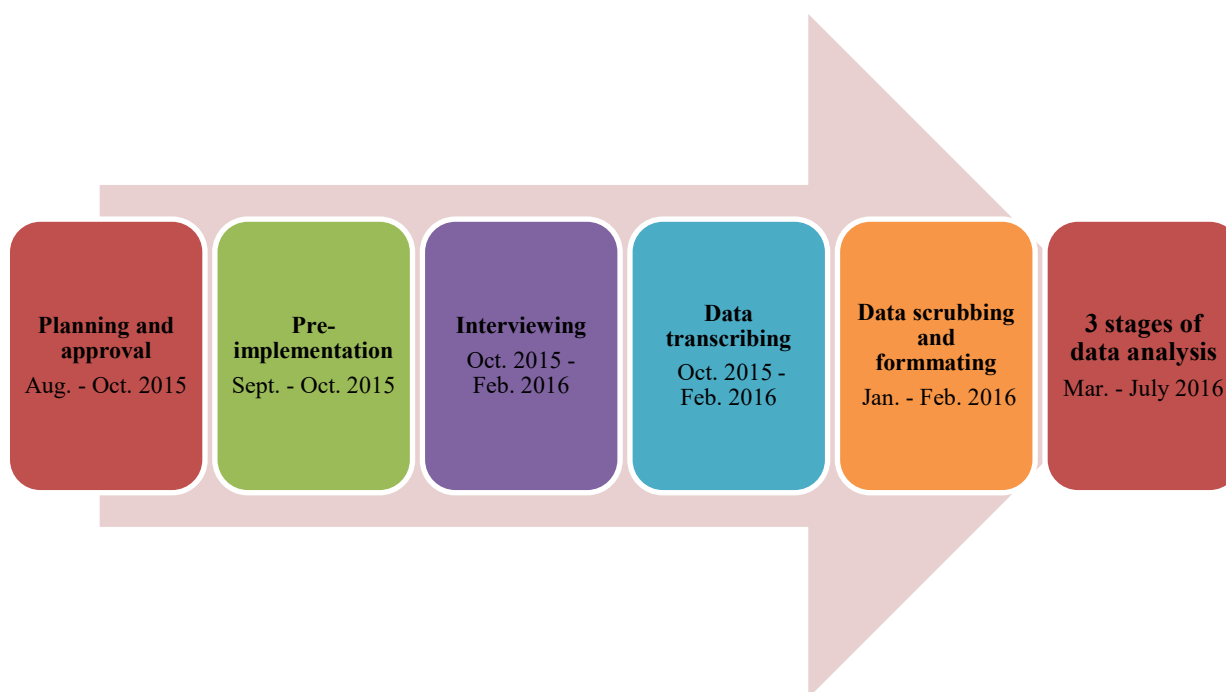


Figure B-3. Six Phases of Research Implementation.

Phase 1: Planning and Approval

The research project was planned and successfully defended as a doctoral prospectus in summer 2015. Once approved, the principal researcher contacted the CCU Provost to obtain permission to conduct the research at CCU business school. The Provost was very supportive of the proposal, and encouraged the principal researcher to proceed with the full process. Following the Provost's approval, the Business School Deans were contacted to obtain access to the various oversight and student support systems to facilitate conducting the interviews. The research plan was accepted by the Deans, and the research planning for the actual site commenced.

Concurrently, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) application was submitted to the IRB office of Brigham Young University (BYU) in late August 2015 (see Appendix D). While the IRB review process proceeded, the principal researcher traveled to China to start making various institutional contacts and to communicate with the Vice Deans and political instructors (a position/person unique to China which holds responsibility for non-instructional student affairs on university campuses) to prepare for conducting on-site research interviews. This preliminary work laid a very good foundation, and built trust between the researcher and the political instructors. As soon as the IRB application was approved in early October 2015, the research proceeded to the next phase.

Phase 2: Pre-implementation

Following the final, full approval of IRB application the Vice Dean of CCU Business School, who was in charge of students' affairs, was contacted. The Vice Dean formally informed the six political instructors (two political instructors in each cohort year) about this study. All six political instructors were willing to facilitate the research. The political instructors played their important institutional role of contacting the selected students and acquiring student participant

agreement to participate in the study. Before contacting the student participants for interviews, the researcher set up a meeting with the six political instructors, introduced the research to them, and let them know what kind of technical and logistical support was needed. The political instructors offered the researcher complete access to the academic records of participating students and provided their full support of the research.

At this point, the principal researcher contacted the students to schedule interviews. No drop-outs or transfers were identified for any of the targeted programs, which means that no students had dropped out of any of the three cohorts enrolled in the pilot programs, nor had any transferred to other programs. Potential student participants for all rounds of interviewing were selected based on the sampling criteria. One Skype interview was also scheduled to help fill the needed areas in the sampling frame. The student interviewed by Skype was an exchange student at a French business school, and consequently was not available during the interviews for an on-site interview. Due to challenges of student availability, the imbalanced student sex ratio at CCU and the Business School led to a slight disproportionality in the proportion of male to female students in the final sample. In total, 29 students, including the Skype interview, were ultimately included (see Tables B-3 and B-4).

All participating students were enthusiastic to be included in the study. The primary medium for initial contact was via text messages. The text message enquired as to a good time for telephone calls. Through the phone calls the principal researcher introduced the purpose of the study to each potential participant, explained some important parts of IRB protocol, assured them that their participation was voluntary, described the types of questions they would be asked during the interview, and helped them to understand that a demographic questionnaire would also

be filled out. Time and location for further rounds of interviews were also arranged during the telephone conversations.

Phase 3: Interviewing

Data collection for this study was done through face-to-face episodic interviews, which commenced on 16 October and continued until the last on-campus interview on 2 December 2015. Due to the students' tight schedules, the interviews were not conducted in rounds, as originally planned. Rather, the interviews were conducted according to students' availability. As the interviews progressed, careful monitoring of the distribution of participants across the criterion characteristics was done, and every effort was made to achieve an even distribution as originally planned. No selected student participants ever refused to participate, and none quit their interview prior to completion. All participants were very cooperative, and appeared supportive of the research process.

All interviews started with a detailed explanation of the consent form to ensure participants' full understanding of the purpose of the study, and their rights and protections during and after the interview. After the informed consent form was signed, the demographic questionnaire was completed. The items in the demographic questionnaire and interview protocol were translated into Mandarin (standard) Chinese, which is the mother tongue of the participants. Copies of all forms and instruments can be found in Appendix C.

Clarification on items in the consent form, questionnaire, and interview protocol were provided on a case-by-case basis according to the expressed needs of the participants. A professor at CCU was generous in providing her private office for the interviews. The use of a private office appeared to reduce participant stress, facilitating the sharing of valuable

information in a quiet and protected environment. The use of private space also enhanced the quality of the interview recordings, which were later transcribed.

To assure that the participants felt comfortable, casual conversation preceded the formal interview. The face-to-face interviews began when it was apparent to the interviewing researcher that the participant was ready. Some extended follow-up questions were used during the interview, when necessary, to obtain clear and relevant data.

The initial target of 24 students were interviewed by middle of November 2015. Since the guiding principle regarding how many interviews would be conducted depended on the “concept of saturation” (Guest et al., 2006, p. 59), and given that some new information was still emerging by the 24 interviews, it was decided that another round of interviews would be done. As a result, four more students were interviewed by the first week of December 2015 on CCU campus. In February 2016, after returning from China, the researcher also conducted a Skype interview with a BA (CIMA) program student who was an exchange student at a French business school at that moment. This student was supposed to be in the first round of interviews, according to the original sampling plan, but it was not possible to get contact with him in October 2015. Altogether, 29 students took part in the interviews. The researcher recorded all interviews with three digital recording devices to make sure the collected audio data was at no risk of loss, that the audio quality was as good as possible, and the subsequent transcription of the interviews and data analyses could move forward smoothly.

Phase 4: Data Transcribing

The interview transcription template was created based on Professors Steven Hite and Julie Hite’s template for their ongoing research project. The interviews were transcribed, word for word, directly into a MS Word document. Transcription began immediately during the first

round of interviews so that issues of data saturation could be determined directly from actual records, rather than from the memory of the principal investigator.

Transcription of the first 28 interviews was completed by the end of December 2015. Transcription of the Skype interview was done the same month as the interview in February, 2016.

Phase 5: Data Scrubbing and Formatting

Data scrubbing and formatting started when the principal researcher returned to the US in January of 2016. All audio interview files were transcribed in Mandarin Chinese (the language used for the interviews) and uploaded to QSR NVivo 10 software (QSR International) for qualitative data analyses. For ease of stage one analysis, each standard interview question was given a short title reflecting the essence of each question, which title was then formatted as an MS Word default *Heading 1* style. The text of the response was left in MS Word *Normal* style format.

Each interview's Word document was saved in a uniform format to match the identification of participant's pseudonyms for importing and data analysis in NVivo. The researcher proofread the transcription very carefully, while listening to the audio file, to check for the accuracy and correct formatting to be able to run the auto-coding feature in NVivo for the first step in stage one coding.

An Excel worksheet was created to input the information from all participants' demographic questionnaires. Pseudonyms were created for each participant and were recorded in a code worksheet. These pseudonyms replaced the actual names of all participants (Example: FH2BE – CIMA stands for female high-performing sophomore Business English – CIMA program student participant.). Pseudonyms were also used for all people and organizations

mentioned in the interviews. Responses to the demographic questionnaire, translated into English and entered into an Excel participant demographic worksheet by the researcher, were used as classifications in the qualitative data analyses of the interviews in NVivo.

The storage site for all subject demographic and interview response data was the principal researcher's personal computer. Double-redundant external backup protected against data loss. The Excel demographics worksheet, interview transcriptions, and QSR NVivo 10 coding files, stored on the same computer, and were access-protected with password security.

Phase 6: Three Stages of Data Analysis

Since qualitative data focuses on people's experience in life, and is "well suited for locating the meanings people place on the events, processes, and structures of their lives and for connecting these meanings to the social world around them" (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2013, p. 11), analysis of those data must proceed carefully and methodically. The three-stage approach taken in this data analysis was carefully designed to provide rich descriptions and explanations of the biggest challenges, greatest achievements, and potential associations between participants' demographics and their perception and experiences in the pilot programs. The analysis proceeded under the rubric of grounded theory methodology as initially proposed by Strauss and Corbin in 1990, as contrasted to the earlier form of grounded theory created by Glasser and Strauss (1965). The distinction between the two is important (Woods, Gapp, & King, 2016), and this distinction guided the flow of analysis in this project. The "comprehensive narrative and thematic analysis" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 1) comprised a "systematic, step-by-step, and iterative and reflexive process" (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006, p. 83).

The analysis consisted of the three stages of open, axial, and selective coding (Amsteus, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Interviews were coded into themes in NVivo to facilitate

thematic and pattern analyses. In stage one, the data were first auto-coded in an ETIC mode according to the research questions. Stages two and three employed an EMIC approach to allow the data to speak toward emergent themes and patterns. Particularly in the second and third stages, relevant types of coding and coding techniques proposed by Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013) facilitated the data analyses.

Stage 1: Open coding. Two months were dedicated to open coding. During the two months, weekly regular meetings with the principal researcher and two co-investigators. Valuable discussions were held, leading regularly to revising node labels, creating non-content (e.g. evaluation and emotion) nodes, and combining nodes of similar ideas to improve the coding quality and structure, and make sure the differences between different nodes were significant. One particularly important NVivo coding meeting was held in early April of 2016 which led to a more comprehensive and distinctive coding structure. Of particular interest was the creation of a *type* node. In the *type* node, constructs of reasons for enrollment, challenges, achievements, persistence in learning, and advice for improvement were created, which avoided the repetition of some within-node coding, and laid a firm foundation for Stage 2 coding (axial coding). A *Best Quotes* node was also created for later use in manuscript writing.

Five activities completed the Stage 1 coding and facilitated moving into Stage 2 (axial) coding. First, a matrix was run in NVivo to see if the participant attribute, emotion and evaluation nodes functioned properly. Second, a final check of the node structure was done to combine redundant, or delete underpopulated, nodes. Third, the nodes were calibrated by checking the coded content against the node labels to establish the reliability and validity of the coding. Fourth, the coding structure was subjected to review by two external teams. The first team was comprised of two native Chinese doctoral students. Under the direction of the principal

researcher, they reviewed the coding of the interviews to the NVivo node structure to verify the accuracy of the coding from the Chinese transcripts and to affirm the reasonable fit of the node structure to the data. The second team was comprised of two American English-speaking doctoral students who were trained in NVivo analysis. This team reviewed the node structure to explore and verify the logic of the structure and the relationship between the constructs implied by the nodes. They also evaluated whether the English labels of the nodes made sense in English.

Both teams offered valuable suggestions for changes and improvements, and concurred that the final coding structure was a reasonable representation of the data. For example, the label *Combination of Business and English Knowledge* was changed into *Integration of Business and English Knowledge*; *Business Mentality* was changed into *Business Mindset*; *Persistence in emotion* node was changed into *Determination*; and *English Improvement* was changed into *English Language Improvement*.

Finally, a native Chinese-language reviewer who is fluent in both Chinese and English (she teaches English at her university in China) was recruited as an outsider to read the content of three of the nodes to validate the coding of the Chinese transcripts into the English-language nodes. This reviewer found that over 90% of the coding was accurate, which established the validity of the coding.

During Stage 1 coding, 66% of respondents mentioning a theme was set as the threshold for inclusion. The following list illustrates the contents of the final 6-node open coding structure, along with the associate sub-nodes (a hierarchical presentation of the complete final Stage 1 coding structure can be found in Appendix E):

1. Emotion node (negative emotions including stressed, exhausted, disappointed, depressed and confused and positive emotions including confident, determined, fulfilled, grateful and motivated);
2. Evaluation node (challenge, degree strength intensity level, internal importance, outlook and attitude, power, type, and value);
3. Individual and personal factors (academic development, academic performance, and personal development);
4. School system and structural factors (class culture, flexibility of university system, program issues, and resource issues);
5. Relationship factors (communication, friendship and social networking, and influence of others);
6. Social and cultural factors (family expectation and mindset, job market needs, NCEE score, and *Suzhi* Education);
7. Concept of challenge;
8. Concept of achievement.

Stage 2: Axial coding. While the objective of open coding is to generate nodes which may generate meaningful themes (if they pass a pre-established inclusion threshold), axial coding actually investigates combinations of those nodes as potential themes. The strategy for transiting from open coding to actual axial coding entailed the initial selection of 12 of the exploratory themes based on which had the highest possibility of being meaningful. Potential for meaning was assessed based on the principal researcher's intuitive sense of what the collection and exploration of the data had taught her to this point, scrubbed by her prior experiences as a long-term instructor at CCU.

The axial coding stage proceeded in three phases. First, the researcher determined which 12 themes offered the greatest potential. Second, another set of 12 potentially interesting themes were identified. This process was iterated two more times, in which 48 themes were generated. Finally, from these 48 themes, the top 12 were chosen as having the greatest potential for meaning. These 12 themes were then clustered and ranked into six different categories. This clustered and ranked group of 12 themes became the source for the third and final analytical stage of selective coding (see Appendix F). The rest of the 48 axial coding were archived for future use.

The Stage 2 axial coding helped identify the key nodes and themes through generating matrixes, tables, and charts to visualize and explore the most potentially prominent and defensible findings. Of the final themes, student learning challenges and achievements were determined to be the most potentially meaningful. The threshold of 66% was used for inclusion in axial coding, resulting in the included patterns being more defensible and robust. The patterns discovered in axial coding were verified, matrix and display analyses were performed, and the results were reviewed by the research team.

Stage 3: Selective coding. Once the axial coding was completed, the next stage of selective coding was started. Selective coding is a process meant to narrow down a larger set of possible themes to a very few – to be truly selective, rather than generate tables or charts that contain diverse and only loosely-coupled themes. Three rounds of selective coding took place, generating three final tables representing the major findings of the research. In the first round, the 12 tables generated in axial coding were manipulated to give a clearer clustering of the themes. The inclusion threshold was revised to 80% to create a more robust analytical frame, and to accommodate the lower number of potential responses in the thematic categories. In the

second round, the data were run again by parent nodes to explore potentially prominent patterns by the four attributes of sex, program type, level of academic performance and cohort. In the third round the research team re-conceptualized the interaction of the four attributes by running them together with the themes to generate a three-dimensional query based on the prior two-dimensional selective coding queries. The three-dimensional queries illustrated much stronger and deeper patterns (see Appendix G). The three-dimensional themes were then projected in tables to display the important findings of this study, along with concise narratives from the interview files to support these findings.

In summary, this three-stage qualitative data analysis led to tabular illustrations (see Appendix G) of the challenges that students encountered and subsequent sense of achievements they feel they have accomplished in their internationalization pilot programs. The tables also convey the extent of co-occurrence discovered between their sense of challenges and achievements, and the association the students' attributes show in that condition of co-occurrence. The goal of exploring the research questions through identifying coherent patterns was accomplished and illustrated. The selective coding stage culminated the process in identifying the final emically-derived grounded results.

APPENDIX C: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Demographic Questionnaire for Students

Date: _____

First Name: _____ Last Name: _____

1. What is your sex?
 - Male
 - Female

2. What is your date of birth? _____ (MM/DD/YY)

3. Where is your place of birth? City _____ Province _____

4. Where does your family currently live? City _____ Province _____

5. What is your ethnicity? (*Please check one that applies*)
 - Han Chinese
 - Ethnic Minority (Please specify): _____

6. What is your marital status?
 - Single (never married)
 - Married

7. In which year did you enroll in ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at CCU Business School?
 - 2012
 - 2013
 - 2014
 - 2015
 - Other (Please specify): _____

8. What was your initial program/major choice at CCU? (*Please check one that applies*)
 - Business program/major (Please specify): _____
 - Non-business program/major (Please specify): _____

9. Which internationalization baccalaureate pilot program are you in at present? (*Please check one that applies*)
 - Business English (ACCA)
 - Accounting (ACCA)
 - Business English (CIMA)
 - Business Administration (CIMA)

10. What is your level of academic performance in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at CCU Business School? *(Please check one that applies)*

- High Performing
- Average performing
- Low performing

11. What was your high school academic division? *(Please check one that applies)*

- Science
- Humanity
- Other (Please specify): _____

12. What was your National College Entrance Exam (NCEE) overall score? _____
(Actual number)

13. What is your National College Entrance Exam (NCEE) English test score? _____
(Actual number)

14. Do you receive financial support from any of the following to facilitate your college education?

- Parents/family
- Income from part-time jobs
- Student loan
- Other (Please specify): _____

15. What is the age of your mother?

- 35-40 years old
- 41-45 years old
- 46-50 years old
- 51-55 years old
- 56 years old and over

16. What is the age of your father?

- 35-40 years old
- 41-45 years old
- 46-50 years old
- 51-55 years old
- 56 years old and over

17. What is the highest degree obtained by your mother?

- High School diploma
- Vocational/technical school
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree (MD, JD, etc.)
- Other (Please specify): _____

18. What is the highest degree obtained by your father?

- High School diploma
- Vocational/technical school
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree (MD, JD, etc.)
- Other (Please specify): _____

19. What is the occupation of your father? *(Please check one that applies)*

- Management
- Specialist
- Business and social service
- Information Technology (IT)
- Architecture and engineering
- Education
- Farming, fishing, and forestry
- Production
- Other (Please specify): _____

20. What is the occupation of your mother? *(Please check one that applies)*

- Management
- Specialist
- Business and social service
- Information Technology (IT)
- Architecture and engineering
- Education
- Farming, fishing, and forestry
- Production
- Other (Please specify): _____

21. What is your parents' approximate overall income per month?

- Below RMB 4,000
- RMB 4,000 – RMB 6,000
- RMB 6,000 – RMB 8,000
- Above RMB 8,000

学生调查问卷
2015年10月

日期: _____

姓: _____ 名: _____

1. 您的性别:

- 男
 女

2. 您的出生日期: _____ (年/月/日)

3. 您的出生地: _____ 省 _____ 市/县

4. 您的家庭目前居住地址: _____ 省 _____ 市/县

5. 您的民族/种族 (请选择所有适用项):

- 汉族
 少数民族, 请详细说明: _____

6. 您的婚姻状况:

- 单身 (从未结婚)
 已婚

7. 您在中国中央大学商学院 ACCA/CIMA 教改班/建制班的入学时间:

- 2012
 2013
 2014
 2015
 其他时间, 请详细说明: _____

8. 您在中国中央大学入学时被录取的专业:

- 商科类专业, 请详细说明: _____
 非商科类专业, 请详细说明: _____

9. 您目前就读的哪一个教改班?

- 商务英语 (ACCA)
 会计 (ACCA)
 商务英语 (CIMA)
 工商管理 (CIMA)

10.您在中国中央大学商学院 ACCA/CIMA 教改班的考核成绩?

- 优秀
- 良好/中等
- 及格/较差

11.您在高中的文理分科:

- 文科
- 理科
- 其他, 请详细说明: _____

12.您在普通高等学校招生全国统一考试(普通高考)的总成绩: _____ (实际成绩)

13.您在普通高等学校招生全国统一考试(普通高考)的英语单科成绩: _____ (实际成绩)

14.您完成学业的经济来源属于以下哪一种?

- 父母/家庭资助
- 兼职工作收入
- 大学生助学贷款
- 其他, 请详细说明: _____

15.您母亲的年龄:

- 35-40 岁
- 41-45 岁
- 46-50 岁
- 51-55 岁
- 56 岁及以上

16.您父亲的年龄:

- 35-40 岁
- 41-45 岁
- 46-50 岁
- 51-55 岁
- 56 岁及以上

17.您母亲持有的最高学历/学位:

- 高中学历
- 本科/学士学位
- 研究生/硕士学位
- 研究生/博士学位
- 专业学位(医学博士, 法学博士等)
- 其他, 请详细说明: _____

18.您父亲持有的最高学历/学位:

- 高中学历
- 本科/学士学位
- 研究生/硕士学位
- 研究生/博士学位
- 专业学位 (医学博士, 法学博士等)
- 其他, 请详细说明: _____

19.您母亲所从事的职业/行业

- 管理
- 专业技术
- 商业和社会服务业
- 信息技术 (IT 业)
- 建筑工程
- 文化教育
- 农牧渔林业
- 制造加工业
- 其他, 请详细说明: _____

20.您父亲所从事的职业/行业

- 管理
- 专业技术
- 商业和社会服务业
- 信息技术 (IT 业)
- 建筑工程
- 文化教育
- 农牧渔林业
- 制造加工业
- 其他, 请详细说明: _____

21.您父母月收入大概是多少?

- 4000 元
- 4000 元 - 6000 元
- 6000 元 - 8000 元
- 8000 元以上

Personal Episodic Interview & Questions for Students

The following 16 interview questions were asked of the students selected from the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program from CCU Business School:

Opening Question

1. Why did you choose to enroll in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at CCU Business School? Was it a decision made by yourself, or in cooperation with others?

Educational Challenges/Problems

2. What is the biggest challenge/problem you are encountering while you are studying in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School? Can you give me an example to illustrate your point?
3. Do you have any other examples to describe this kind of problem or challenge?
4. Do other students from your program face the same problem or challenge as you? Can you share some similar examples that others have mentioned regarding the same problem or challenge?
5. What are other big problems or challenges in your study in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School besides the biggest one you mentioned above?
6. Can you define a “study problem” or “study challenge”?
7. Why do you believe this problem or challenge is the “biggest” or “most important” problem in your study in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School?

Educational Success/Achievement

8. Besides the problems and challenges we have been discussing, what is the biggest success or achievement you have accomplished from studying in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School? Can you give one example to illustrate your idea?

9. What are other successes or achievement you have accomplished from studying in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School? Can you give some examples to illustrate your idea?
10. Do other students from your program accomplish the same success or achievement as you? Can you share some examples that others have mentioned regarding the study success and achievement?
11. What are other successes or achievements you have accomplished from studying in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the CCU Business School? Can you give some examples to illustrate your idea?
12. Can you define a “study success” or “study achievement”?
13. Why do you believe this is the success or achievement you gain from studying in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School?

Follow-up Questions

14. How do you describe your overall study experience in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School?
15. Why do you still persevere in completing the program while you are facing big challenges and problems?
16. Any suggestions would you like to give to improve the ACCA/CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot program at the CCU Business School to enhance your learning?

学生访谈问题

在(针对)本研究所做的采访中,中国中央大学商学院 ACCA/CIMA 教改班的学生会被问及以下十六个问题,以此来获得此研究所设基本构想的必要信息:

开场问题

问题一: 为什么您会选择报考中国中央大学商学院的 ACCA/CIMA 国际化人才培养教改班?这是您自己的个人决定还是和其他人商量后的选择?

学习/教育方面的问题或挑战

问题二: 举例描述您认为在中国中央大学商学院 ACCA/CIMA 教改班学习期间您在学习/教育方面面临的最大的问题或挑战是什么?

问题三: 您能列举出其他的情况或例子来描述您所提及到学习上的最大的问题或挑战吗?

问题四: 在相同教改班学习的其他同学面临与您相同的学习问题或挑战吗?您可以列举一些类似的情况或例子来和我们分享他们面临的问题或挑战吗?

问题五: 除了以上您所提及到的学习方面的最大问题或挑战,您觉得现在还面临的其他什么样的问题或挑战?

问题六: 我们从所有这些具体例子中跳出来,以一种更为“抽象”的方式思考。对您而言,学习/教育问题或挑战的抽象概念是什么?换言之,不用具体的事例,你如何抽象地定义“学习/教育问题”或“学习/教育挑战”?

问题七: 考虑到您刚提出的定义,您为什么认为您所提及到的那个问题是您在这个教改班学习所面临的“最大”或“最重要”问题或挑战?

学习/教育的收获或成功

问题八: 除了我们之前提到过的问题和挑战,请举例描述您认为在中国中央大学商学院 ACCA/CIMA 教改班学习期间您在学习/教育方面最大的成功或收获是什么?

问题九: 您能列举出其他的情况或例子来描述您所提及到学习/教育方面的最大的成功或收获吗?

- 问题十： 在相同教改班的其他同学获得与您相同的成功或收获吗？您可以列举一些类似的情况或例子来和我们分享他们的成功或收获吗？
- 问题十一： 除了以上您所提及到学习/教育方面的最大成功和收获，您觉得您现在还拥有其他什么样的成功或收获吗？
- 问题十二： 我们从所有这些具体例子中跳出来，以一种更为“抽象”的方式思考。对您而言，学习/教育成功或收获的抽象概念是什么？换言之，不用具体的事例，你如何抽象地定义“学习/教育成功”或“学习/教育收获”？
- 问题十三： 考虑到您刚提出的定义，您为什么认为您所提及到的那个成功或收获是您在教改班学习所获得的“最大”或“最重要”成功或收获？

后续跟进问题

- 问题十四： 您如何从整体上评价一下您在中国中央大学 ACCA/CIMA 教改班的学习/教育经历，感受和体验？
- 问题十五： 既然在这里的学习已经遇到很大的问题或挑战，您为什么还要继续坚完成在教改班的学习呢？
- 问题十五： 为了提高您在 ACCA/CIMA 教改班的学习，您有什么意见和建议可以和我们分享来帮助我们进一步改进和完善 ACCA/CIMA 教改班教学环境和教学质量？

APPENDIX D: IRB APPROVAL

Institutional Review Board
for Human Subjects



Brigham Young University
A-285 ASB Provo, Utah 84602
(801) 422-3841 / Fax: (801) 422-0620

October 7, 2015

Huili Tang
763 E 820 N Apt 304
Provo UT 84606

Re: Student Educational Experience in the ACCA and CIMA Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs
at the CCU Business School, PRC

Dear Huili Tang

This is to inform you that Brigham Young University's IRB has approved the above research study.

The approval period is from 10-7-2015 to 10-6-2016. Your study number is X15329. Please be sure to reference this number in any correspondence with the IRB.

Continued approval is conditional upon your compliance with the following requirements.

1. A copy of the 'Informed Consent Document' approved as of 10-7-2015 is enclosed. No other consent form should be used. It must be signed by each subject prior to initiation of any protocol procedures. In addition, each subject must be given a copy of the signed consent form.
2. All protocol amendments and changes to approved research must be submitted to the IRB and not be implemented until approved by the IRB.
3. The enclosed recruitment advertisement has been approved. Advertisements, letters, Internet postings and any other media for subject recruitment must be submitted to IRB and approved prior to use.
4. A few months before this date we will send out a continuing review form. There will only be two reminders. Please fill this form out in a timely manner to ensure that there is not a lapse in your approval.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Sandee M.P. Munoz".

Robert Ridge, PhD., Chair
Sandee M.P. Munoz, Administrator
Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects

Informed Consent: Student

Consent to be a Research Subject

Introduction

This research study is being conducted by Huili Tang, an EdD student at Brigham Young University (BYU), to explore educational experience of the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at the Business School of Central China University (CCU Business School), PRC. Dr. Steven Hite, a professor of Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations at BYU and my dissertation committee chair, will participate in this research project as a co-investigator. You have been invited to participate in this research because you are a current student enrolled in ACCA/CIMA pilot program at CCU Business School.

Procedures

The study consists of a demographic questionnaire and an episodic interview. If you agree to participate in this research study, the following will occur:

- You will complete a demographic questionnaire,
- You will be invited to participate in a personal interview of approximately 45-60 minutes,
- The interview will be audio-recorded to ensure the accuracy in transcribing your statements,
- The interview will be conducted at a location and time that is convenient for you.

Risks/Discomforts

Participating in this research will bring you minimal risks. You may have to sacrifice your time to participate for 45-60 minutes episodic interview. You can schedule the interview at a convenient place and time to reduce this potential risk. You also may feel a little uncomfortable to discuss personal study problems, or you may also feel stressed to discuss some sensitive issues related to your department the CCU Business School, or you may feel strongly about some issues related to your study. If you become uncomfortable, emotional or stressed during the interview, you may terminate the interview at any time and you do not need to answer any questions asked, or you may continue the interview at any time as you want.

A pseudonym will be used to directly protect your identity, particularly in all transcripts, analyses, presentations, and reports/publications. The program and university administration will have no access to the actual interviews, textual transcription files or data analyses so they will not have any chance to influence the progress of the research or create any potential risks to your participation. If you choose to not participate or not to answer any specific questions, no other person at the university, or elsewhere, will know of your decision.

Benefits

There are no immediate benefits to you for participating in this research, however this study explores how students perceive their educational experience in the ACCA/CIMA internationalization pilot program at CCU Business School and why they hold these opinions. The findings in this study may inform the university



One (1) printed unstapled copy must be submitted

Page 23 of 52

department chairs, school deans, provosts, and academic president how to retain and adapt these pilot programs to improve student learning.

Confidentiality

The data collected for this research will be stored on a password-protected computer and no person other than the researcher will have access to these files, with the exception of the Chinese translator during the coding checks. When the research is completed, all identifying information will be removed and maintained in a secure location.

Compensation

You will not receive any compensation for participating in this research.

Participation

Your involvement in this research project is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw or refuse to answer any given questions at any time without penalty or refuse to participate entirely. There will be no reference to your identity at any point in the research.

Questions about the Research

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Huili Tang at tanghui2002@gmail.com, or (385) 207-9144 (US) or (86) 135-720-28538(China). You may also contact Dr. Steven Hite at Steve_Hite@byu.edu, or (801) 422-3814 (US).

Questions about Your Rights as Research Participants

If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant in research projects, you may contact IRB Administrator (801) 422-1461; A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602; irb@byu.edu

Statement of Consent

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above consent and desire of my own free will to participate in this study.

Name (Printed): _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____



H3 Recruitment Material: Telephone Script for Student

Name of the potential participant: _____
 Telephone #: _____
 Date of contact: _____
 Time of contact: _____
 Researcher calling: _____

Script:

Hello, my name is [researcher name]. I am calling you to discuss your possibility of participating in a study being conducted by [me]. Is this a convenient time to have you spend about 5 minutes talking about this study or should I call you back when you are more convenient?

If it is NOT a good time to call now, then: When would it be a good time for me to call you back for 5 minutes to discuss your potential participation? Keep a record of date and time: _____

If now IS a good time, then:

I am calling to see if you would be willing to be interviewed for 45-60 minutes regarding your educational experience at your ACCA/CIMA pilot program at the Business School of Central China University (CCU Business School). This interview will be conducted at a place and time for your preference, and which fits best into your schedule. I am an EdD candidate at Brigham Young University (BYU) and the principal researcher in this research project. This study project and design have been approved by my dissertation committee of Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations at BYU and BYU's official review board to include human subjects.

If you agree to participate, I would meet with you and ask you some demographic questions and a few questions regarding your educational experience at your program at CCU Business School. You would have the chance and right to clarify any of the questions asked before answering, and if you feel stressed or uncomfortable to answering any of these questions you may choose not to respond or terminate the interview.

Would you be willing to participate in this study? [If no, thank them politely for their time.]

[If yes], Do you have any questions? (Answer questions)

When and where would it be most convenient for you to meet for 45-60 minutes?

What is the best way to communicate with you in the meantime: email: _____
 phone: _____

Using your email I will send you the contact information and a short description of the research for your information.

Thank you for your time, we look forward to meeting with you:

On _____ [date], at _____ [time], at _____ [location].





大学教务处

Office of Academic Affairs, _____

Provost Office, () Campus

() Province

China

August 15, 2015

Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects
Brigham Young University
A-285 ASB Campus Drive
Provo, UT 84602

Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects,

Ms. Huili Tang has the permission of () to conduct research for her proposed dissertation study on Student Educational Experience in the ACCA and CIMA Internationalization Baccalaureate Pilot Programs at the () School through this agency.

We hereby agree to provide Ms. Tang access to the students describing in her project design to conduct research for her dissertation between September 15, 2015 and December 15, 2015. The details of this study have been explained to us and we fully support her research. We are glad to make necessary information available to her research project.

Please contact me for any further questions at ()@ () .edu.cn or () () .

Respectfully yours,

Provost



中国 · ()
邮编: ()
电话: () ()
传真: () ()
电子信箱: () @ () .edu.cn

Postcode: ()
Tel: () ()
Fax: () ()
Email: () 1 @ () .edu.cn

() , China

APPENDIX E: OPEN CODING STRUCTURE AND THEMES

1. Emotion node

- 1) Positive emotions
 - a) Confident
 - b) Determined
 - c) Fulfilled
 - d) Motivated
- 2) Negative emotions
 - a) Confused
 - b) Disappointed
 - c) Exhausted
 - d) Stressed

2. Evaluation node

- 1) Challenge (difficult, medium, and easy)
- 2) Degree strength intensity level (high/big, medium, and low/small)
- 3) Internal importance (very important and somewhat important)
- 4) Outlook and attitude (optimistic/hopeful and pessimistic/doubt)
- 5) Power (soft and hard)
- 6) Type (reasons for enrollment, challenge, achievement, concepts, overall perception, persist in program, and suggestion)
- 7) Value (good/like/positive and bad/dislike/negative)

3. Personal and individual factors

- 1) Academic development
 - a) Course learning issues
 - Business Course learning issues
 - English language learning issues
 - Integration of business and English language knowledge
 - b) Paradigm shift
 - c) Personal interest
 - d) Time allocation
- 2) Academic performance
- 3) Personal development
 - a) Character shaping
 - Attitude toward
 - Confidence
 - b) Competitive edge
 - c) Cost-benefit analyzing ability
 - d) Personal change management ability

- Self-directed learning
- Stress management
- e) Skills acquisition
 - Communication skill
 - Language skill
 - Learning skill
 - Problem solving skill

4. School system and structural factors

- 1) Flexibility of university system
- 2) Program issues

5. Relationship factors

- 1) Communication
- 2) Friendship and social networking
- 3) Influences of others

6. Social and cultural factors

7. Concept of learning challenge

8. Concept of learning achievement

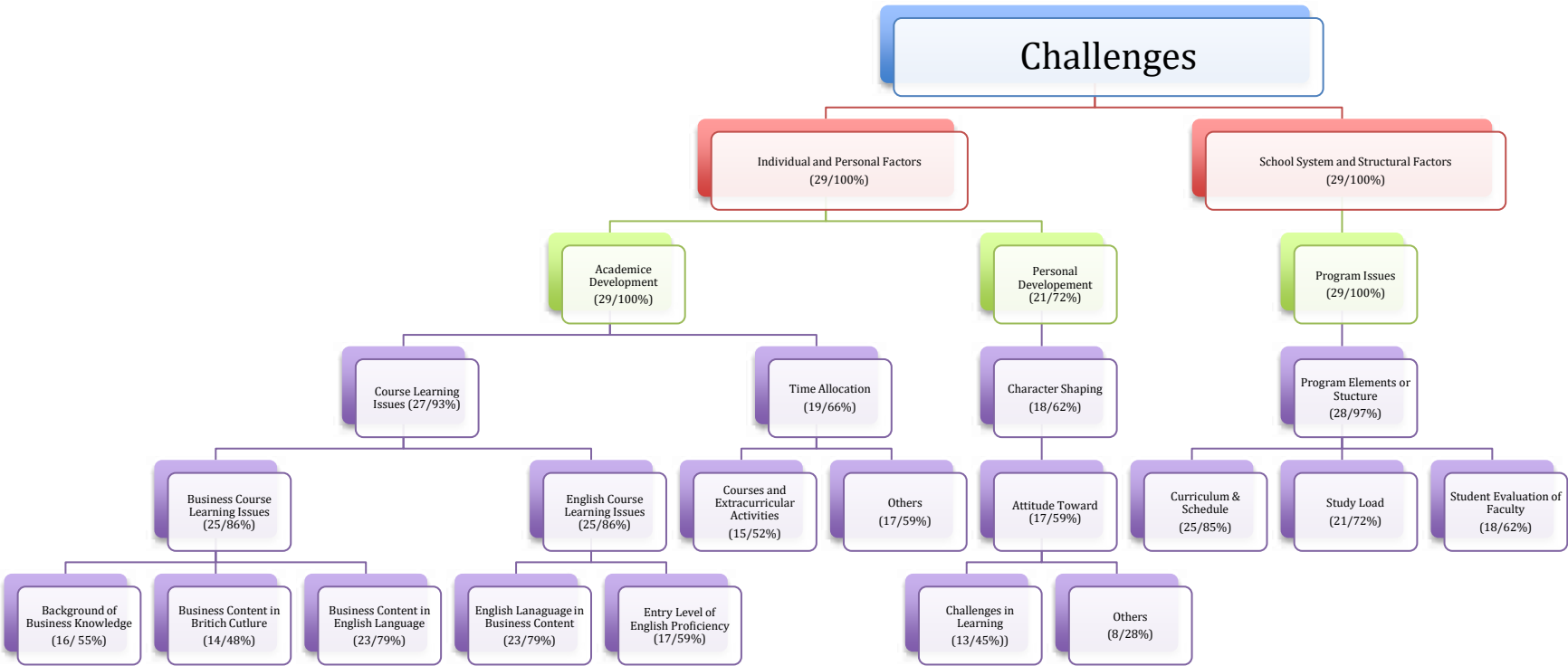


Figure E-1. Themes of challenges.

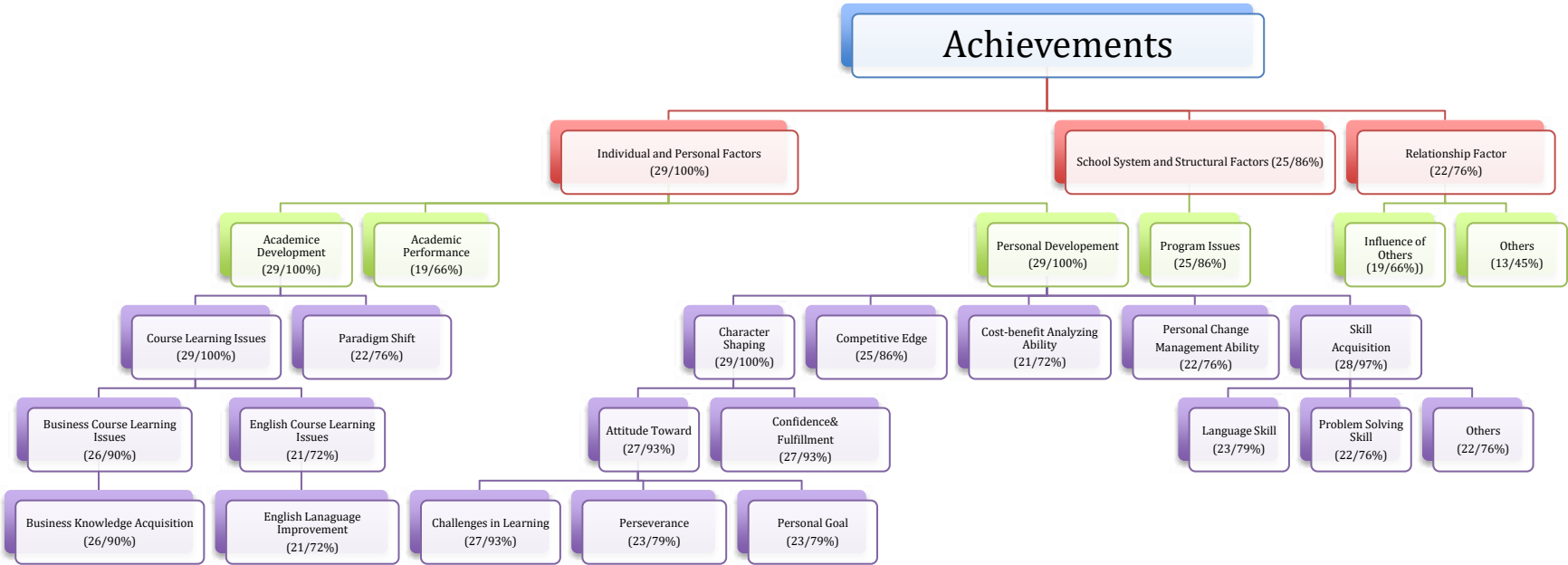


Figure E-2. Themes of achievements.

APPENDIX F: AXIAL CODING THEMES

Phase One: First Twelve Key Themes

1. Emotion by All Factors
2. Emotions by Individual and Personal Factors
3. Emotion by School System and Structural Factors
4. Type (evaluation) by Individual and Personal Factors
5. Type (evaluation) by School System and Structural Factors
6. Degree by Individual and Personal Factors
7. Degree by School System and Structural Factors
8. Degree by Relational Factors
9. Internal Importance by School System and Structural Factors
10. Power by Individual and Personal Factors
11. Value by Individual and Personal Factors
12. Value by School System and Structural Factors

Phase Two: Four Sets of Twelve Themes

1st set of twelve themes

1. Challenges and achievements by all factors
2. Challenges by all factors
3. Achievements by all factors
4. Emotions by all factors
5. Emotions by individual and personal factors
6. Power by all factors
7. Internal importance by school system and structural factors
8. Internal importance by relationship factors
9. Value by all factors
10. Value by relationship factors
11. Degree by individual and personal factors
12. Degree by relationship factors

2nd set of twelve themes

1. Emotions by school system and structural factors
2. Emotions by relationship factors
3. Positive emotions by academic development
4. Negative emotions by academic development
5. Power by academic development

6. Power by personal development
7. Power by school system and structural
8. Challenge(type) by individual and personal factors
9. Challenge (type) by school system and structural factors
10. Challenge (type) by relationship factors
11. Internal Importance by individual and personal factors
12. Value by individual and personal factors

3rd set of twelve themes

1. Challenge by child nodes in all factors
2. Degree by challenge (type) by child nodes in all factors
3. Challenge (Evaluation node) by all child nodes in all factors
4. Outlook and attitude by all factors
5. Outlook and attitude by individual and personal factors
6. Outlook and attitude by school system and structural factors
7. Achievement by child nodes in all factors
8. Achievement by individual and personal factors
9. Achievement by school system and structural factors
10. Emotions by child nodes of all factors
11. Positive emotions by individual and personal factors
12. Negative emotions by individual and personal factors

4th set of twelve themes

1. Emotions by persist in program
2. Reasons by all factors
3. Internal importance by program issue
4. Importance by class culture and resource
5. Relationship factor by reasons for enrollment
6. Value by program issue (school system and structural factors)
7. Value by flexibility of university system
8. Challenge by subnodes of influences of others
9. Achievement by subnodes of influences of others
10. Reasons by child nodes of all factors
11. Suggestions by all factors
12. Degree by subnodes of influences of others

Rank of 2nd Phase of Axial Coding

1. Challenge and achievement by all child nodes of all factors
2. Challenge and achievement by individual and personal factors
3. Challenge and achievement by school system and structural factors
4. Emotions by individual and personal factors
5. Emotions by school system and structural factors
6. Power by individual and personal factors
7. Reasons for enrollment by all factors and why persist in program
8. Challenge (evaluation) by all child nodes of all factors
9. Challenge (evaluation) by individual and personal factors
10. Challenge (evaluation) by school system and structural factors (program issues)
11. Outlook by individual and personal factors & school system and structural factors
12. Value by individual and personal factors

Phase Three: Top 12 Follow-up of Axial Coding

1. Challenge/achievement by all child nodes of all factors
2. Challenge/achievement by individual and personal factors
3. Challenge/achievement by school system and structural factors
4. Challenge (evaluation node) by individual and personal factors
5. Challenge (evaluation node) by school system and structural factors
6. Emotions by individual and personal factors
7. Emotions by school system and structural factors
8. Power by child nodes of all factors
9. Power by individual and personal factors
10. Reasons for enrollment by all factors/relational factors
11. Achievement by child nodes of all factors
12. Degree by relational factors

APPENDIX G: TABLES OF SELECTIVE CODING

Table G-1

Patterns of Achievements by Challenges (n=29)

Achievements	Challenges			
	Learning Business Content in English (n=23)	Learning English from Business Content (n=23)	High Intensity of Curriculum and Schedule (n=25)	Heavy Study Load (n=21)
Academic Development				
Acquisition of Business Knowledge (n=26)	21 (72%)	20 (69%)	22 (76%)	18 (62%)
Shift of Paradigm (n=22)	18 (62%)	19 (66%)	20 (69%)	15 (52%)
Personal Development				
Transform to Positive Attitude (n=27)	23 (79%)	22 (76%)	23 (79%)	19 (66%)
Confidence and Fulfillment (n=27)	21 (72%)	21 (72%)	23 (79%)	20 (69%)
Acquiring Competitive Edge (n=25)	21 (72%)	20 (69%)	21 (72%)	20 (69%)
Increased Personal Management Ability (n=22)	19 (66%)	18 (62%)	18 (62%)	15 (52%)
Acquiring Skills (n=28)	23 (79%)	23 (79%)	24 (83%)	19 (66%)
Relationship Factors				
Influenced Positively	16 (55%)	16 (55%)	16 (55%)	15 (52%)

Note. Not everyone reported each achievement or challenge theme individually or in combination with other themes in this table. Consequently, none of the reported themes or patterns equal the total sample size of 29. Patterns that met the 66% threshold for intersection of themes are indicated in bold font, indicating the percentage of all 29 participants that could have responded in each cell.

Table G-2

Challenges by Academic Performance and Sex (n=29)

Challenges	Academic Performance								
	High (n=12)			Average (n=9)			Low (n=8)		
	Sex			Sex			Sex		
	All (n=12)	M (n=6)	F (n=6)	All (n=9)	M (n=5)	F (n=4)	All (n=8)	M (n=4)	F (n=4)
Learning Business Content in English (n=23)	11 (92%)	6 (100%)	5 (83%)	5 (56%)	2 (40%)	3 (75%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Learning English from Business Content (n=23)	11 (92%)	6 (100%)	5 (83%)	6 (67%)	3 (60%)	3 (75%)	6 (75%)	2 (50%)	4 (100%)
High Intensity of Curriculum and Schedule (n=25)	9 (75%)	4 (67%)	5 (83%)	9 (100%)	5 (100%)	4 (100%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Heavy Study Load (n=21)	9 (75%)	3 (50%)	6 (100%)	5 (56%)	2 (40%)	3 (75%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)

Note. The threshold for a pattern (indicated in bold font) was set at 80% of students reporting the above four categories as biggest challenges by academic performance and sex, since fewer participants could have been found in each cell than in themes alone.

Table G-3

Achievements by Academic Performance and Sex (n=29)

Achievements	Academic Performance								
	High (n=12)			Average (n=9)			Low (n=8)		
	Sex			Sex			Sex		
	All (n=12)	M (n=6)	F (n=6)	All (n=9)	M (n=5)	F (n=4)	All (n=8)	M (n=4)	F (n=4)
Academic Development									
Acquisition of Business Knowledge (n=26)	10 (83%)	6 (100%)	4 (67%)	8 (89%)	4 (80%)	4 (100%)	8 (100%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)
Shift of Paradigm (n=22)	9 (75%)	5 (83%)	4 (67%)	8 (89%)	4 (80%)	4 (100%)	5 (63%)	3 (75%)	2 (50%)
Personal Development									
Transform to Positive Attitude (n=27)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	8 (89%)	4 (80%)	4 (100%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Confidence and Fulfillment (n=27)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	8 (89%)	5 (100%)	3 (75%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Acquiring Competitive Edge (n=25)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (67%)	2 (40%)	4 (100%)	7 (88%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Increased Personal Management Ability (n=22)	11 (92%)	6 (100%)	5 (83%)	6 (67%)	3 (60%)	3 (75%)	5 (63%)	2 (50%)	3 (75%)
Acquiring Skills (n=28)	12 (100%)	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	8 (89%)	5 (100%)	3 (75%)	8 (100%)	4 (100%)	4 (100%)
Relationship Factors									
Influenced Positively by Others (n=19)	7 (58%)	3 (50%)	4 (67%)	6 (67%)	2 (40%)	4 (100%)	6 (75%)	2 (50%)	4 (100%)

Note. The threshold for a pattern (indicated in bold font) was set at 80% of students reporting the eight achievements by academic performance and sex, since fewer participants could have been found in each cell than in themes alone.

DISSERTATION REFERENCES

- Abramson, L. Y., Seligman, M. E., & Teasdale, J. D. (1978). Learned helplessness in humans: Critique and reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87*(1), 49.
- Absalom, M., & Vadura, K. (2006). Student perceptions of internationalization of the curriculum an Australian case study. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 5*(3), 317-334.
- Achor, S. (2011). *The happiness advantage: The seven principles of positive psychology that fuel success and performance at work*. New York, NY: Random House, Inc.
- Adhikari, A., Flanigan, M. A., & Tondkar, R. H. (1999). A survey of international accounting education in the US and some other countries. *Journal of Accounting Education, 17*(2), 175-189.
- Aigner, J., Nelson, P., & Stimpfl, J. (1992). *Internationalizing the university: Making it work*. Springfield, VA: CBIS Federal Inc.
- Altbach, P. G. (2002). Perspectives on international higher education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 34*(3), 29-31.
- Altbach, P. G. (2004a). Globalisation and the university: Myths and realities in an unequal world. *Tertiary Education & Management, 10*(1), 3-25.
- Altbach, P. G. (2004b). Higher education crosses borders: Can the United States remain the top destination for foreign students? *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 36*(2), 18-25.
- Altbach, P. G. (2007). Chinese higher education in an Open-door Era. *International Educator, 16*(4), 15-19.

- Altbach, P. G. (2009). One-third of the globe: The future of higher education in China and India. *Prospects*, 39(1), 11-31.
- Altbach, P. G. (2015). Higher education and the WTO: Globalization run amok. *International Higher Education*, (23), 2-4.
- Altbach, P.G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 290-305.
- Altbach, P. G., & Peterson, P. M. (1998). Internationalize higher education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 30(4), 36-39.
- Altbach, P. G., & Teichler, U. (2001). Internationalization and exchanges in a globalized university. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 5(1), 5-25.
- Amsteus, M. N. (2014). The validity of divergent grounded theory method. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 13(1), 71-87.
- Archer, J., & Lloyd, B. (2002). *Sex and gender*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Aries, E. (1996). *Men and women in interaction: Reconsidering the differences*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Arum, S., & Van de Water, J. (1992). The need for a definition of international education in US universities. In C. B. Klasek (Ed.), *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education* (pp. 191-203). Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Sorensen, C. K., & Walker, D. (2013). *Introduction to research in education* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.

- Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college?: Four critical years revisited* (1st ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass San Francisco.
- Ayoubi, R. M., & Massoud, H. K. (2007). The strategy of internationalization in universities: A quantitative evaluation of the intent and implementation in UK universities. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(4), 329-349.
- Bar-Tal, D. (1978). Attributional analysis of achievement-related behavior. *Review of Educational Research*, 48(2), 259-271.
- Bartell, M. (2003). Internationalization of universities: A university culture-based framework. *Higher Education*, 45(1), 43-70.
- Bauer, P. T. (1968). International development policy: Two recent studies. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 82(3), 474-497.
- Becker, G. S. (1975). Investment in human capital: Effects on earnings. In G. S. Becker (Ed.), *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis, with special reference to education* (2 ed., pp. 13-44). Cambridge, MA: The National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER).
- Becker, G. S. (1992). Human capital and the economy. *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, 136(1), 85-92.
- Ben-Shahar, T. (2009). *The pursuit of perfect: How to stop chasing perfection and start living a richer, happier life* (1st ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Bennett, R., & Kane, S. (2011). Internationalization of U.K. university business schools: A survey of current practice. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 15(4), 351-373.

- Bettencourt, M. (2011). Languages across the curriculum: A response to internationalization in foreign language education. *Multicultural Education, 19*(1), 55-58.
- Black, K. (2004). A review of factors which contribute to the internationalisation of a programme of study. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, 3*(1), 5-18.
- Blackwell, L. S., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition: A longitudinal study and an intervention. *Child Development, 78*(1), 246-263.
- Boaler, J. (2013). Ability and mathematics: The mindset revolution that is reshaping education. *Forum, 55*(1), 143-152.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development* (1st ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Braskamp, L. A. (2009). Internationalization in higher education: Four issues to consider. *Journal of College and Character, 10*(6), 1-8.
- Brigham, M. (2011). Creating a global citizen and assessing outcomes. *Journal of Global Citizenship & Equity Education, 1*(1), 15-43.
- Burn-Murdoch, J. (2016, June 24). Brexit: Voter turnout by age. Retrieved from <http://blogs.ft.com/ftdata/2016/06/24/brexit-demographic-divide-eu-referendum-results/>.
- Canary, D. J., Emmers-Sommer, T. M., & Faulkner, S. (1997). *Sex and gender differences in personal relationships*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Caruana, V., & Spurling, N. (2007). *The internationalisation of UK higher education: A review of selected material: Project report*. York, UK: Higher Education Academy.

- Cavusgil, S. T. (1991). Internationalization of business and economics programs: Issues and perspectives. *Business Horizons*, 34(6), 92-100.
- CCU. About CCU (pseudonym). Retrieved from <http://www.CCU.edu.cn/xxgk1/xxjj.htm>. 2016, May.
- CCU Business School. Introduction to CCU (pseudonym) Business School. Retrieved from <http://bschool.CCU.edu.cn/xygk.htm>. 2016, May.
- Chan, D., & Lo, W. (2008). University restructuring in East Asia: Trends, challenges and prospects. *Policy Futures in Education*, 6(5), 641-652.
- Chan, S., & Chang, F. (2013). Sharing the emerging educational market in China: Cross-border EMBA programmes in China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, 2(2), 112-126.
- Chang, W. (2004). Learning goals and styles by gender: A study of NUS students. *CDTL Brief*, 7(1), 4-5.
- Chen, D. (2011). Internationalization of higher education in China and its development direction. *Higher Education Studies*, 1(1), 79-83.
- Chow, E. N. L. (2003). Gender matters studying globalization and social change in the 21st century. *International Sociology*, 18(3), 443-460.
- Claro, S., Paunesku, D., & Dweck, C. S. (2016). Growth mindset tempers the effects of poverty on academic achievement. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 113(31), 8664-8668.

- Clifford, V. (2005). Embracing and resisting border pedagogies: Student views of internationalising the curriculum in higher education. *Higher Education in a Changing World: Research and Development in Higher Education*, 28, 116-123.
- Cort, K. T., Das, J., & Synn, W. J. (2011). Internationalizing a business school program: A descriptive study of a strategic implementation process of internationalization. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 1(5), 29-40.
- Credé, M., Tynan, M. C., & Harms, P. D. (2016). Much ado about grit: A meta-analytic synthesis of the grit literature. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000102>
- Davies, J. L. (1992). Developing a strategy for internationalization in universities: Towards a conceptual framework. In C. B. Klasek (Ed.), *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education* (pp. 177-190). Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.
- Davies, J. L. (1995). University strategies for internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings. In P. Bok (Ed.), *Policy and policy implementation in internationalization of higher education* (pp. 3-18). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education (EAIE).
- De Wit, H. (1995). Education and Globalization in Europe: Current Trends and Future Developments. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 1, 28-53.

- De Wit, H. (2009). *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of America and Europe: A historical, comparative, and conceptual analysis*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Deaux, K. (1985). Sex and gender. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 36(1), 49-81.
- Demirbas, O. O., & Demirkan, H. (2007). Learning styles of design students and the relationship of academic performance and gender in design education. *Learning and Instruction*, 17(3), 345-359.
- Dolby, N. (2011). Internationalizing higher education in South Africa and the United States: Policy and practice in global, national, and local perspective. Online Submission. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED523150.pdf>.
- Dougherty, D. (2013). The maker mindset. In M. Honey & D. E. Kanter (Eds.), *Design, make, play: Growing the next generation of STEM innovators* (pp. 7-11). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Drew, T. L., & Work, G. G. (1998). Gender-based differences in perception of experiences in higher education: Gaining a broader perspective. *Journal of Higher Education*, 69(5), 542-555.
- Duckworth, A. L. (2016). *Grit: The power of passion and perseverance*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster, Inc.
- Duckworth, A. L., & Eskreis-Winkler, L. (2013). True grit. *The Observer*, 26(4), 1-3.
- Duckworth, A. L., & Gross, J. J. (2014). Self-control and grit related but separable determinants of success. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 23(5), 319-325.

- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*(6), 1087-1101.
- Duckworth, A. L., & Seligman, M. E. (2006). Self-discipline gives girls the edge: Gender in self-discipline, grades, and achievement test scores. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(1), 198.
- Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist, 41*(10), 1040-1048.
- Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. New York, NY: Random House, Inc.
- Dweck, C. S. (2008). *Mindsets and math/science achievement*. New York, NY: Carnegie Corporation of New York Institute for Advanced Study, Commission on Mathematics and Science Education.
- Dweck, C. S. (2009). Who will the 21st-century learners be? *Knowledge Quest, 38*(2), 8-10.
- Dweck, C. S. (2010). Even geniuses work hard. *Educational Leadership, 68*(1), 16-20.
- Dweck, C. S. (2012). *Mindset: How you can fulfil your potential*. London, UK: Hachette UK.
- Dweck, C. S., & Bush, E. S. (1976). Sex differences in learned helplessness: I. Differential debilitation with peer and adult evaluators. *Developmental Psychology, 12*(2), 147-156.
- Dweck, C. S., Davidson, W., Nelson, S., & Enna, B. (1978). Sex differences in learned helplessness: II. The contingencies of evaluative feedback in the classroom and III. An experimental analysis. *Developmental Psychology, 14*(3), 268-276.

- Dweck, C. S., & Licht, B. G. (1980). Learned helplessness and intellectual achievement. In J. Garber & M. E. Seligman (Eds.), *Human helplessness: Theory and applications* (pp. 197-221). Cambridge, MA: Academic Press.
- Dweck, C. S., & Reppucci, N. D. (1973). Learned helplessness and reinforcement responsibility in children. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 25(1), 109.
- Dweck, C. S., Walton, G. M., & Cohen, G. L. (2011). *Academic tenacity: Mindsets and skills that promote long-term learning*. Seattle, WA: Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.
- Eagly, A. H. (2013). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Eccles, J. S., Meece, J. L., Adler, T. F., & Kaczala, C. M. (1982). Sex differences in attributions and learned helplessness. *Sex Roles*, 8(4), 421-432.
- Edwards, J. (2007). Challenges and opportunities for the internationalization of higher education in the coming decade: Planned and opportunistic initiatives in American institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 373-381.
- Fereday, J., & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). Demonstrating rigor using thematic analysis: A hybrid approach of inductive and deductive coding and theme development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 80-92.
- Flick, U. (1997). *The episodic interview: Small scale narratives as approach to relevant experiences*. Discussion Papers - Qualitative Series. London: London School of Economics Methodology Institute.

- Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Forgeard, M. J. (2013). Perceiving benefits after adversity: The relationship between self-reported posttraumatic growth and creativity. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, 7(3), 245-264.
- Gacel-Ávila, J. (2005). The internationalisation of higher education: A paradigm for global citizenry. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 9(2), 121-136.
- GATS. (1995). *The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS): Objectives, coverage and disciplines*. Retrieved from https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/gatsqa_e.htm.
- Glaser B. G. & Strauss A. L. (1967) *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research Chicago*. New York, NY: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Goldin, C. (2003). The human capital century. *Education Next*, 3(1), 73-78.
- Goodwin, M. J., & Heath, O. (2016). The 2016 referendum, Brexit and the left behind: An aggregate-level analysis of the result. *The Political Quarterly*, 87(3), 323-332.
- Gray, J. (1992). *Men are from Mars, women are from Venus* (1st ed.). New York, NY: Harper Collins Publishers.
- Green, M. F. (2002). Joining the world: The challenge of internationalizing undergraduate education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 34(3), 12-21.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59-82.

- Hale, A. and Tijmstra, S. (1990) *European management education: A handbook*. Geneva, Switzerland: Interman.
- Hall, J. A. (1990). *Nonverbal sex differences: Accuracy of communication and expressive style*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Halpern, D. F. (2013). *Sex differences in cognitive abilities* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Hanvey, R. G. (1982). An attainable global perspective. *Theory Into Practice*, 21(3), 162-167.
- Harari, M. (1972). *Global dimensions in U.S. education: The university*. New York, NY: Center for War/Peace Studies.
- Harari, M. (1992). The internationalization of the curriculum. In C. B. Klasek (Ed.), *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education* (pp. 52-79). Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.
- He, J. (2012). Increasing the openness of education as an approach to promoting educational reform and development. *Chinese Education and Society*, 45(3), 61-72.
- He, L. (2016). Transnational higher education institutions in China: A comparison of policy orientation and reality. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20(1), 79-95.
- Henley, N. (1977). *Body politics: Power, sex, and nonverbal communication*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Howe, W. S., & Martin, G. (1998). Internationalisation strategies for management education. *Journal of Management Development*, 17(6), 447-462.

- Hser, M. P. (2005). Campus internationalization: A study of American universities' internationalization efforts. *International Education*, 35(1), 35.
- Huang, F. (2003). Policy and practice of the internationalization of higher education in China. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7(3), 225-240.
- Huang, F. (2005). Qualitative enhancement and quantitative growth: Changes and trends of China's higher education. *Higher Education Policy*, 18(2), 117-130.
- Huang, F. (2006). Internationalization of Curricula in Higher Education Institutions in Comparative Perspectives: Case Studies of China, Japan and The Netherlands. *Higher Education: The International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning*, 51(4), 521-539.
- Huang, F. (2007a). Internationalisation of higher education in the era of globalisation. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, 19(1), 1-15.
- Huang, F. (2007b). Internationalization of higher education in the developing and emerging countries: A focus on transnational higher education in Asia. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 421-432.
- Janoff-Bulman, R. (2004). Posttraumatic growth: Three explanatory models. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(1), 30-34.
- Jiang, X. (2008). Towards the internationalisation of higher education from a critical perspective. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 32(4), 347-358.

- Johnson, J. L., & Repta, R. (2012). Sex and gender. In J. L. Oliffe & L. Greaves (Eds.), *Designing and conducting gender, sex, and health research* (pp. 17-37). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Journal of Studies in International Education. (2017). Submission guidelines. Retrieved from <https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/journal-of-studies-in-international-education/journal201378#submission-guidelines>.
- Kaenzig, R., Hyatt, E., & Anderson, S. (2007). Gender differences in college of business educational experiences. *Journal of Education for Business*, 83(2), 95-100.
- Kedia, B. L., & Englis, P. D. (2011). Internationalizing business education for globally competent managers. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 22(1), 13-28.
- Kedia, B. L., Harveston, P. D., & Bhagat, R. S. (2001). Orienting curricula and teaching to produce international managers for global competition. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 13(1), 1-22.
- Kern, M. L., Waters, L. E., Adler, A., & White, M. A. (2015). A multidimensional approach to measuring well-being in students: Application of the PERMA framework. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 10(3), 262-271.
- Kezar, A., & Moriarty, D. (2000). Expanding our understanding of student leadership development: A study exploring gender and ethnic identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 41(1), 55-69.
- Klasek, C. B. (Ed.). (1992). *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education*. Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.

- Knight, J. (1993). Internationalization: management strategies and issues. *International Education Magazine*, 9(1), 21-22.
- Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints* (Vol. 7). Ottawa, Canada: Canadian Bureau for International Education Research.
- Knight, J. (1997). Internationalization of higher education: A conceptual framework. In J. Knight & H. De Wit (Eds.), *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries* (pp. 5-19). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education.
- Knight, J. (2002). Trade talk: An analysis of the impact of trade liberalization and the General Agreement on Trade in Services on higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 6(3), 209-229.
- Knight, J. (2003a). *GATS, trade and higher education: Perspective 2003 – where are we?* London: The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education.
- Knight, J. (2003b). Updated internationalization definition. *International Higher Education*, 33(International Issue), 2-3.
- Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 5-31.
- Knight, J. (2007a). *Implications of crossborder education and GATS for the knowledge enterprise*. Paper presented at the UNESCO Forum on Higher Education, Research and Knowledge, Paris.

- Knight, J. (2007b). Internationalization: Concepts, complexities and challenges. In J. J. F. Forest & P. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 207-227). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Knight, J. (2008). *Higher education in turmoil: The changing world of internationalization*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education. In D. Deardoff, H. De Wit, J. Heyl & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 27-42). London: SAGE Publications.
- Knight, J. (2015). Updated definition of internationalization. *International Higher Education*, 33, 2-3.
- Knight, J. (2016). Transnational education remodeled: Toward a common TNE framework and definitions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20(1), 34-47.
- Knight, J., & De Wit, H. (1995). Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: Historical and conceptual perspectives. In De Wit, H (Ed.), *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: A comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America* (pp. 5-32). Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators.
- Kohn, A. (April 6, 2014). The downside of grit. Retrieved from <http://www.alfiekohn.org/article/downside-grit/>.
- Kuhn, T. S. (2012). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (4th Ed.). Chicago, IL & London: University of Chicago Press.

- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interview: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- LeBlanc, E. (2007). Internationalizing the curriculum: A discussion of challenges and first steps within business schools. *Higher Education Perspectives*, 3(1), 28-44.
- Lorber, J. (1996). Beyond the binaries: Depolarizing the categories of sex, sexuality, and gender. *Sociological Inquiry*, 66(2), 143-160.
- Ma, S., & Trigo, V. (2011). Internationalization of China's MBA education: Failing to walk the talk? *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 22(3), 149-167.
- Mazon, B. K. (2010). *The student experience of internationalization in a US and Dutch higher education context*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED513576)
- McCutchen, K. L., Jones, M. H., Carbonneau, K. J., & Mueller, C. E. (2016). Mindset and standardized testing over time. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 45, 208-213.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education: Revised and expanded from case study research in education* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publications.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Min, W. (1999). Global challenges and the Chinese response. In P. Altbach & M. Peterson (Eds.), *Higher education in the 21st century: Global challenge and national respons. IIE research report No. 29*. Annapolis Junction, MD: Institute of International Education.
- Mincer, J. (1984). Human capital and economic growth. *Economics of Education Review*, 3(3), 195-205.
- MOE. (2008). About 211 Project (211 Gongcheng Jianjie) [Public file]. Retrieved from http://www.moe.gov.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/moe_846/200804/33122.html.
- MOE. (2010). *Outline of the national plan for medium and long-term education reform and development (2010-2020)*. Beijing, China: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/China/China_National_Long_Term_Educational_Reform_Development_2010-2020_eng.pdf.
- MOE. (2011). About 985 Project [Public file]. Retrieved from <http://www.moe.gov.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/s6183/201112/128828.html>.
- Mok, K. H. (2005). Globalization and educational restructuring: University merging and changing governance in China. *Higher Education*, 50(1), 57-88.
- Mok, K. H. (2007). Questing for internationalization of universities in Asia: Critical reflections. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 433-454.
- Mok, K. H., & Jiang, J. (2017). Massification of higher education: Challenges for admissions and graduate employment in China. In K. Mok (Ed.) *Managing international connectivity, diversity of learning and changing labour markets: East Asian perspective* (pp. 219-243). Singapore: Springer.

- Mok, K. H., & Xu, X. (2008). When China opens to the world: A study of transnational higher education in Zhejiang, China. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 9(4), 393-408.
- Mok, K. H., & Yu, K. M. (Eds.). (2013). *Internationalization of higher education in East Asia: trends of student mobility and impact on education governance*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mueller, C. M., & Dweck, C. S. (1998). Praise for intelligence can undermine children's motivation and performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(1), 33.
- Nayyar, D. (2006). Globalisation, history and development: A tale of two centuries. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, 30(1), 137-159.
- NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis Software (Version 10) [Computer software]. (2012). Melbourne, Australia: QSR International Pty Ltd.
- Oakley, A. (1972). *Sex, gender and society*. London, UK: Maurice Temple Smith.
- OECD. (1996). *Internationalising the curriculum in higher education*. Paris, France: OECD.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2007). Sampling designs in qualitative research: Making the sampling process more public. *The Qualitative Report*, 12(2), 238-254.
- Pearlman, L. A., & Saakvitne, K. W. (1995). *Trauma and the therapist: Countertransference and vicarious traumatization in psychotherapy with incest survivors*. New York, NY: WW Norton & Co.
- Peterson, C., Park, N., Pole, N., D'Andrea, W., & Seligman, M. E. (2008). Strengths of character and posttraumatic growth. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 21(2), 214-217.

- Phillips, D. C., & Burbules, N. C. (2000). *Postpositivism and educational research*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Porter, P., & Vidovich, L. (2000). Globalization and higher education policy. *Educational Theory*, 50(4), 449-465.
- Qiang, Z. (2003). Internationalization of higher education: Towards a conceptual framework. *Policy Futures in Education*, 1(2), 248-270.
- Rhee, B. S., & Kim, S. (2012). Differential pathways to generic skills development of male and female college students in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 13(4), 677-690.
- Rizvi, F., & Walsh, L. (1998). Difference, globalisation and the internationalisation of curriculum. *The Australian Universities' Review*, 41(2), 7-11.
- Robertson, R. (1992). *Globalization: Social theory and global culture*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Ross, H. A., & Lou, J. (2005). "Glocalizing" Chinese higher education: Groping for stones to cross the river, mo zhe shi tou guo he. *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies*, 12(1), 227-250.
- Sandberg, S. (2016, May 14). University of California, Berkely 2016 commencement address. Retrieved from <https://news.berkeley.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/Sheryl-Sandberg-Berkeley-commencement-speech.pdf>.
- Sauvé, P. (2002). Developing countries and the GATS 2000 Round. In J. R. Cuadrado Roura, L. Rubalcaba-Bermejo & J. R. Bryson (Eds.), *Trading services in the global economy* (pp. 257-263). Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing.

- Sax, L. J., Bryant, A. N., & Harper, C. E. (2005). The differential effects of student-faculty interaction on college outcomes for women and men. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*(6), 642-657.
- Scheuneman, J. D. (1997). *An evaluation of gender differences in computer-based case simulations*. Paper presented at the The National Council on Measurement in Education, Chicago. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED410263.pdf>.
- Scott, R. A. (1994). Campus developments in response to the challenges of internationalization: The case of Ramapo College of New Jersey (USA). *Higher Education Management, 6*(1), 71-89.
- Seligman, M. E. (1972). Learned helplessness. *Annual Review of Medicine, 23*(1), 407-412.
- Seligman, M. E. (1975). *Helplessness: On depression, development, and death*. New York, NY: WH Freeman/Times Books/Henry Holt & Co.
- Seligman, M. E. (1991). *Learned optimism*. New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Seligman, M. E. (2010). Flourish: Positive psychology and positive interventions. In M. Matheson (Ed.), *The Tanner lectures on human values* (pp. 231-243). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan.
- Seligman, M. E. (2011). *Learned optimism: How to change your mind and your life*. New York, NY: Vintage.
- Seligman, M. E. (2012). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

- Seligman, M. E., & Maier, S. F. (1967). Failure to escape traumatic shock. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 74(1), 1-9.
- Severiens, S. E., & Ten Dam, G. T. (1994). Gender differences in learning styles: A narrative review and quantitative meta-analysis. *Higher Education*, 27(4), 487-501.
- Steger, M. (2003). *Globalization: A very short introduction*. Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Steger, M., Battersby, P., & Siracusa, J. (Eds.). (2014). *The SAGE handbook of globalization* (Vol. 1). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Stipek, D., & Gralinski, J. H. (1996). Children's beliefs about intelligence and school performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88(3), 397-407.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Stromquist, N. P. (2007). Internationalization as a response to globalization: Radical shifts in university environments. *Higher Education*, 53(1), 81-105.
- Tang, H., Hite, S. J., Hite, J. M., & Wu, X. (2016, August 22-26). *Suffering while enjoying: Student educational experiences in the ACCA and CIMA internationalization baccalaureate pilot programs at [West] University Business School, China*. Paper presented at the XVI World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, Beijing, China.

- Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling a typology with examples. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(1), 77-100.
- Tedeschi, R. G., & Calhoun, L. G. (1995). *Trauma and transformation: Growing in the aftermath of suffering*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Tedeschi, R. G., & Calhoun, L. G. (2004). Posttraumatic growth: Conceptual foundations and empirical evidence. *Psychological Inquiry, 15*(1), 1-18.
- Trei, L. (2007). *New study yields instructive results on how mindset affects learning*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University. Retrieved from <http://news.stanford.edu/news/2007/february7/dweck-020707.html>.
- Van Damme, D. (2001). Quality issues in the internationalisation of higher education. *Higher Education, 41*(4), 415-441.
- Van der Wende, M. (1997a). Internationalising the curriculum in Dutch higher education: An international comparative perspective. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 1*(2), 53-72.
- Van der Wende, M. (1997b). 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 internationalisation of higher education in Europe* (pp. 10-31). Stockholm, Sweden: National Agency for Higher Education.
- Van der Wende, M. (2007). Internationalization of higher education in the OECD countries: Challenges and opportunities for the coming decade. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3-4), 274-289.

- Van Hoof, H. B., & Verbeeten, M. J. (2005). Wine is for drinking, water is for washing: Student opinions about international exchange programs. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 9*(1), 42-61.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. In M. Gauvain & M. Cole (Eds.) *Readings on the development of children* (pp. 34-41). New York, NY: Scientific American Books.
- Wang, L. (2014). Internationalization with Chinese characteristics: The changing discourse of internationalization in China. *Chinese Education & Society, 47*(1), 7-26.
- Webb, M. S., Mayer, K. R., Pioche, V., & Allen, L. C. (1999). Internationalization of American business education. *Management International Review, 39*(4), 379-397.
- Wehrwein, E. A., Lujan, H. L., & DiCarlo, S. E. (2007). Gender differences in learning style preferences among undergraduate physiology students. *Advances in Physiology Education, 31*(2), 153-157.
- Wilson, G. K. (1964). Thirty years of business and politics. *Politics, 16*, 677-715.
- Wolfinger, R. E., & Rosenstone, S. J. (1980). *Who votes?* (Vol. 22). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Woods, P., Gapp, R., & King, M. A. (2016). Generating or developing grounded theory: Methods to understand health and illness. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy, 38*(3), 663-670.

- Yang, R. (2000). Tensions between the global and the local: A Comparative illustration of the reorganisation of China's higher education in the 1950s and 1990s. *Higher Education*, 39(3), 319-337.
- Yang, R. (2002). *Third delight: The internationalization of higher education in China*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Yang, R. (2005). *Internationalizing Chinese higher education: A case study of a major comprehensive university*. In P. Ninnes & M. Hellsten (Eds.), *Internationalizing Higher Education* (pp. 97-118). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Yang, R. (2014). China's strategy for the internationalization of higher education: An overview. *Frontiers of Education in China*, 9(2), 151-162.
- Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). Mindsets that promote resilience: When students believe that personal characteristics can be developed. *Educational Psychologist*, 47(4), 302-314.
- Yuan, B. (2011). Internationalization at home: The path to internationalization in Chinese research universities. *Chinese Education and Society*, 44(5), 84-96.
- Zimitat, C. (2008). 13 student perceptions of the internationalisation of the undergraduate curriculum. In L. Dunn & M. Wallace (Eds.), *Teaching in transnational higher education: Enhancing learning for offshore international students* (pp. 135-147). New York, NY: Routledge.