Why Study in Latin America?

International Student Mobility to Colombia and Brazil

by Alexandra Nitz

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Sociology at Bielefeld University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Dr. phil.)

First supervisor: Prof. Thomas Faist, Ph.D., Universität Bielefeld Second supervisor: Prof. Dr. Peter Graeff, Christian-Albrechts-Universität zu Kiel

Bielefeld – Published in March 2017

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people supported me throughout the different stages of my doctoral project and contributed to the realization of this dissertation. Initially, I want to thank my first supervisor, Thomas Faist from Bielefeld University. He accompanied my research with continuous feedback through the whole time and was always there when I needed support. My thanks also go to my second supervisor, Peter Graeff from Kiel University, who provided helpful feedback on the methodological parts of my thesis.

This dissertation would not have been possible without the contributions from students from around the world and people from many institutions in Colombia and Brazil. I owe special thanks to all international students who participated in my face-to-face interviews and in my online survey, and shared their personal insights with me. With reference to my research on Colombia, I am very grateful to the German Academic Exchange Service in Bogotá, particularly to Sven Werkmeister, who strongly supported me during the two empirical phases. Furthermore, I want to thank the staff from the international offices of the Universidad Nacional de Colombia and the Universidad del Norte as well as from the Colombian Institute of Educational Credit and Technical Studies Abroad that helped me recruit participants for my face-to-face interviews. Likewise, I am grateful for the assistance of further institutions of higher education in Colombia that recruited respondents for my online survey. Moreover, I want to thank the Colombian Ministry of National Education for providing detailed information on internationalization of higher education in Colombia. Regarding my research on Brazil, I owe thanks to Clarissa Neves, who firmly supported me during my research stay at the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul as well as to the staff of the international office of the same university, which assisted me in the recruitment of interviewees. Additionally, I want to thank the German Academic Exchange Service in Rio de Janeiro for providing information on the internationalization of higher education in Brazil.

Various people helped me with respect to different aspects, such as commenting on chapters of my thesis, proofreading of texts and questionnaires that were not written in my mother tongue, and participating in the pretests. In this connection, I want to express my special thanks to Georgi for his overwhelming support. Moreover, I want to thank Inga for her friendship and continuous help at various stages of my project. I am also very grateful for the support from my family as well as from further friends and colleagues, among them Mahshid, Kathi, Kathrin, Mihi, Michael, Clara, Andrés, Frank, Tom and the participants in the colloquium "Transnational Studies".

I am especially thankful for the structural support, the three and a half years of scholarship and further financial assistance I received from the Bielefeld Graduate School in History and Sociology, funded through the German Research Foundation. These resources were essential for the realization of my doctoral project.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	
List of Graphs	ii
List of Abbreviations	iii
INTRODUCTION	1
PART I: GENERAL FRAMEWORK	7
1. Literature Review	7
1.1 International Academic Mobility	7
1.2 Motivations for Choosing a Study Destination	10
1.2.1 Education and Professional Career	12
1.2.2 Living Environment and Personal Development	13
1.2.3 Language	14
1.2.4 Social Networks and Financial Issues	15
1.2.5 Motivations according to Socio-demographic Characteristics	15
1.3 Country Image and Information Sources	16
1.4 Alternative Study Destinations	19
1.5 Methods Applied in Previous Studies	19
1.6 Summary and Identification of Research Gap	20
2. Theoretical Framework	23
2.1 Youth Mobility and Individualization	23
2.2 Theoretical Models in the European Context	26
2.3 Social Networks	29
2.4 Country Image and Information Sources	30
2.5 Summary	31
3. Overview of Research Design	34
3.1 General Procedure	34
3.2 Qualitative Pilot Study on Colombia	36
3.3 Quantitative Survey on Colombia	37
3.4 Qualitative Interviews on Brazil	37
3.5 Summary	38
PART II: COLOMBIA	39
4. Background Information on Colombia	39
4.1 Colombian System of Higher Education	39
4.2 Internationalization of Higher Education in Latin America	42
4.3 Internationalization of Higher Education in Colombia	47
4.4 Summary	52
Communy	52

5. Empirical Results of the Qualitative Pilot Study	54
5.1 Development of Guideline and Data Collection	54
5.2 Description of Interviewees	58
5.3 Internal Motivations	58
5.3.1 Education	58
5.3.2 Professional Career	59
5.3.3 Living Environment	60
5.3.4 Personal Development	62
5.3.5 Language	62
5.4 External Factors	63
5.4.1 Social Networks	63
5.4.2 Structural Issues	64
5.5 Country Image and Information Sources	65
5.6 Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations	67
5.7 Reflection on the Pilot Study	67
5.8 Summary and Suggestions for the Standardized Survey	69
6. Preparation of Online Survey Data and Development of Hypotheses	72
6.1 Development of Questionnaire and Data Collection	72
6.2 Adjustment of Data	75
6.3 Grouping of Internal Motivations	78
6.3.1 Education and Career in General	80
6.3.2 Education and Career Related to Development/Conflict	80
6.3.3 Pleasant Living Environment	81
6.3.4 Personal Development	82
6.3.5 Model of Internal Motivations for Studying in Colombia	82
6.4 Hypotheses for Statistical Analysis	83
6.4.1 Motivations according to Socio-demographic Characteristics	84
6.4.2 Country Image and Information Sources	84
6.4.3 Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations	86
6.5 Summary	90
7. Empirical Results of Online Survey	92
7.1 Descriptive Results	92
7.1.1 Sample	92
7.1.2 External Factors	95
7.2 Typology of International Students	97
7.2.1 Requirements for Cluster Analysis	98

7.2.2 Results of Cluster Analysis: Five Types of International Students	99
7.2.2.1 Type 1: Social Analysts	102
7.2.2.2 Type 2: Language-oriented	103
7.2.2.3 Type 3: Self-actualizers	104
7.2.2.4 Type 4: Pragmatists	105
7.2.2.5 Type 5: Experience-seekers	106
7.3 Testing of Hypotheses	107
7.3.1 Motivations according to Socio-demographic Characteristics	107
7.3.2 Country Image and Information Sources	108
7.3.3 Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations	112
7.3.3.1 Requirements for Binary Logistic Regression	114
7.3.3.2 Results of Binary Logistic Regression	118
7.4 Summary and Discussion of Empirical Findings	122

125

PART III: BRAZIL

8. International Students in Brazil 125 8.1 Background Information on Brazil 125 8.1.1 Brazilian System of Higher Education 125 8.1.2 Internationalization of Higher Education in Brazil 128 8.2 Empirical Results of Qualitative Interviews 131 8.2.1 Data Collection 131 8.2.2 Description of Interviewees 132 8.2.3 Internal Motivations 133 8.2.4 External Factors 135 8.2.5 Country Image and Information Sources 136 8.2.6 Brazil and Alternative Study Destinations 137 8.3 Summary 138 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION 140

Bibliography	147
Appendix A: Qualitative Pilot Study	158
Appendix B: Online Survey	166
Appendix C: Empirical Findings from Online Survey	202

List of Tables

Table 1: Inbound mobile students by host region	46
Table 2: Model of internal motivations for studying in Colombia	
Table 3: Main field(s) of study (N)	
Table 4: Means of internal motivations by five types	100
Table 5: Statistically significant differences between five types using nonparametrictests (one-way ANOVA by the Kruskal-Wallis test, pairwise comparison)	101
Table 6: Overall motivation to study in Colombia, Mann-Whitney test (one-sided)	113
Table 7: Variables of the model explaining the choice of Colombia as the favoritestudy destination	117
Table 8: Nagelkerke R ²	119
Table 9: Results of binary logistic regression (odds ratios), dependent variable: Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean first choice	120
Table 10: Top sending countries 2012	130
Table 11: Model explaining the choice of Colombia as the favorite study destination	143

List of Graphs

Graph 1: Model of motivations for going abroad in accordance with Krzaklewska	28
Graph 2: Three empirical phases of the doctoral project	36
Graph 3: Two pillars of internationalization: at home and cross-border	44
Graph 4: Distribution of age	93
Graph 5: Regions of nationality	94
Graph 6: First favorite study destination	112

List of Abbreviations

CATPCA	Categorical principal component analysis
ССҮК	Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst
ENLACES	Latin American and Caribbean Meeting Space for Higher Education Espacio de Encuentro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Educación Superior
EAP	European School of Management Studies Paris École Européenne des Affaires de Paris
GDP	Gross domestic product
ICETEX	Colombian Institute of Educational Credit and Technical Studies Abroad Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior
JACS	Joint Academic Coding System
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PEC-G	Exchange Program for Undergraduate Students Programa de Estudantes-Convênio de Graduação
PEC-PG	Exchange Program for Postgraduate Students Programa de Estudantes-Convênio de Pós-Graduação
SENA	National Training Service Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USD	United States Dollar

INTRODUCTION

The importance of internationalization of higher education has increased significantly in the last few years. The rationales behind investing in internationalization are manifold. According to Knight, development of human resources and strategic alliances can be crucial at the national level in this regard. Furthermore, international branding and income generation can be regarded as important factors at the institutional level. Internationalization of higher education has various aspects - one of the most decisive being the mobility of people (see Chapter 4.2).

In order to theorize the mobility of international students in the context of social processes, King and Ruiz-Gelices connected this type of mobility with the theory of individualization developed by Beck and Beck-Gernsheim. In the individualized society, people have to plan their own biography carefully, as they cannot fall back anymore on traditional rules and structures. Against this background, King and Ruiz-Gelices concluded that the decision to study abroad shows that students aim to design their own biography because studying abroad can favor career opportunities. However, according to King, reasons for mobility are varied nowadays. Thus, motivations for studying abroad can also go beyond the improvement of career options, resulting in a variety of different possible reasons (See Chapter 2.1).

More than 3.5 million students were studying outside their home country in 2010 (UNESCO, 2012, p. 137). It has been estimated that this number will increase to 8 million in the year 2025 (e.g., Green et al., 2012, p. 445). For a long time, developed countries with English as their national language as well as countries located in Western Europe were the main destinations for internationally mobile students, mostly coming from the "global South" (Rumbley et al., 2012, p. 10). Until a few years ago, approximately half of these international students were enrolled in institutions of higher education in the five main English-speaking countries, namely the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand (Banks & Bhandari, 2012, p. 388).

However, other countries have begun to evolve into popular destinations for higher education since the past few years—a change which is discernible through a growth in the number of incoming foreign students¹ (Banks & Bhandari, 2012, p. 388). Hence, several international students nowadays decide to study abroad in "nontraditional destinations" (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011, p. 10), outside the above-mentioned regions. In this context, some developing countries are no longer solely the sending

¹ The term *foreign student* is used in my thesis as a synonym for *international student* to avoid repetitions.

countries but have become receiving countries as well (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011, p. 12). The number of international students in almost all global regions has grown notably since the last few years. When looking at the percentage increase reflected in the data provided by UNESCO between the years 2006 and 2010, Latin America/the Caribbean and Arabic countries are the leading destinations, as the number of international students approximately tripled (see Table 1 in Chapter 4.2). Although many foreign students still study in countries where English is the national language, English-speaking programs are increasingly being offered in countries with other native languages—e.g., in Scandinavia or East Asia. Moreover, languages like Spanish, Arabic, and Mandarin will become more important for career opportunities in the future (Banks & Bhandari, 2012, pp. 394-395).

Publications that analyze international student mobility in general, or the choice of a host country as a study destination in particular, focus principally on English-speaking countries followed by studies on Europe (see Chapters 1.1 and 1.2). As many students study there, it is not surprising that most research studies concentrate on these regions. However, there has not been much research on motivations for selecting nontraditional study destinations as well as on Latin American host countries (see Chapter 1.2). As outlined above, the number of foreign students enrolled in institutions of higher education in Latin America has increased remarkably over the last few years, making this continent the topic of an interesting case study. In the following paragraphs, two countries are selected from this continent to analyze the motivations of international students regarding their study destination choice.

Colombia has plans to be among the three top competitive countries in Latin America by the year 2032. Since achieving this aim also relies on educational outcomes, several initiatives have already been taken by the Ministry of National Education to advance the internationalization of Colombian higher education (see Chapter 4.3). The campaign "Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge (CCYK)" (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 50) started in this context in 2009. One aspect of this campaign is to present the country as an interesting and advantageous study destination for higher education in order to raise inbound student mobility (see Chapter 4.3). Most top receiving countries generally launch campaigns for recruitment of international students (Green et al., 2012, p. 445). As Colombia's image transmitted via media outlets is rather negative, it is essential to transform it into a more positive image (Guilland, 2012, p. 1). Thus, the launching of the campaign CCYK can be regarded as an important step toward becoming an attractive international study destination. Against this background, it can be stated that internationalization of higher education is highly prioritized in Colombia (see Chapter 4.3). In contrast, many other Latin American countries do not have a particular strategy

2

in place to raise the number of foreign students and accordingly do not attach much importance to internationalization of their higher education system (see Chapter 4.2).

In general, the number of international students pursuing their studies in Colombia approximately 1,500 students in 2010—is not very high (OECD et al., 2012, pp. 221-222). However, according to the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), Bogotá, there is a current trend that students from Germany are increasingly favoring Colombia as their preferred destination for higher education: "In the past few years, Colombia has developed into one of the most attractive study destinations for German students in Latin America. It is still a kind of an insider tip, but more German students come to the country every semester" (DAAD, n.d., para. 1; own translation).

To sum it up, Colombia began to invest in higher education to become an attractive host country for international students. Although the number of international students enrolled in Colombia is still low, it is rising—at least regarding incoming students from Germany. The case of Colombia is interesting as this country is an evolving international study destination. However, international students' motivations for choosing this particular destination have not been investigated yet. Against this background, the main research question of this project is: Which motivations and other factors have been crucial for the decision of foreign students to study in Colombia? On the basis of previous research and empirical findings of my project, two models were developed on the choice of Colombia as an international study destination. The first model contains internal motivations for studying in Colombia, while the second model explains the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination.

In order to broaden the scope of this doctoral project, a second regional focus was included additionally. The objective of this approach is to reveal if motivations for studying in Colombia differ from those for studying in another Latin American country. In this connection, it was particularly focused on revealing motivations apart from those discovered in Colombia. The aim of this procedure is not a direct comparison between the two countries. Instead, the second case study serves as an add-on to help adapt the models for choosing Colombia as a study destination to a second country in the region in order to provide suggestions for future research.

Some publications from the existing literature cite improving English or German language skills among the top motivations for choosing a specific study destination (see Chapter 1.2.3). Similarly, the improvement of Spanish language skills was of great importance for several interviewees in the pilot study (see Chapter 5.3.5). Keeping this in mind, Brazil was chosen as the second regional focus because the country's national language is Portuguese and not Spanish as in most Latin American countries. The

inclusion of Brazil is even more interesting because Portuguese is not as widely spoken as Spanish around the world. As there is not much knowledge available on the motivations for studying in Brazil (see Chapters 1.2 and 1.6), this country is a worthwhile second case study. Consequently, the research questions regarding Brazil are: Which motivations and other factors have been crucial for the decision of international students to study in Brazil? Has the improvement of Portuguese language skills been important for choosing Brazil as an international study destination?

There are different types of international students. In my doctoral project, the focus is on both degree-seeking and non-degree-seeking students from undergraduate and postgraduate studies (excluding doctoral students), who are enrolled in a field of study at a higher education institution in Colombia or Brazil. As there is no data available on the motivations of foreign students concerning their decision to study in Colombia, new data had to be collected. In order to answer the specific research questions that are outlined in detail in Chapter 6.4, it is essential for the project to have a quantitative design (see Chapter 3.1). Most studies on nontraditional host countries, which were analyzed in the literature review, are not based on qualitative research (see Chapter 1.6). However, it is likely that motivations for choosing a developing country for studying abroad are not identical to those for selecting a developed country (see Chapter 1.1). Due to scarce information about the reasons for studying in developing countries stemming from qualitative research, it was essential to realize a qualitative pilot study in Colombia prior to the construction of the quantitative questionnaire. Thus, data collection began with face-to-face interviews with international students in Colombia to uncover crucial motivations for choosing this target country—factors which go beyond the reasons presented in the literature review (see Chapter 3.2). After the realization of the qualitative pilot study, the quantitative survey was carried out, constructed on the basis of theoretical considerations, findings from previous studies, and empirical results from the face-to-face interviews in Colombia (see Chapter 3.3). With reference to Brazil, qualitative interviews were preferred, as the focus is to reveal whether there are further reasons for choosing Brazil as a study destination apart from those found in Colombia. A quantitative survey was not carried out in Brazil because it is not necessary to answer the corresponding research question (see Chapter 3.4). Hence, the doctoral project consists of three empirical phases: Two phases for the main case study on Colombia and one phase for the additional case study on Brazil.

My thesis consists of three parts: General framework (Part I), Colombia (Part II), and Brazil (Part III). The first part contains three chapters and begins with the presentation of the literature review in Chapter 1. The central topic of this chapter is the overview of motivations regarding the choice of a specific host country in international higher education. These motivations are grouped into the following categories: Education and professional career, living environment and personal development, language, social networks, and financial issues. Moreover, further topics related to research on international academic mobility in general (e.g., terminology, and historical overview) and on the selection of a study destination in particular (e.g., country image) are covered. The chapter finishes with the presentation of the research gap that was identified through the literature review. Chapter 2 describes the theoretical framework that was applied in this project. The core of this chapter is the depiction of two models of motivations for going abroad in the European context by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) and Krzaklewska (2008), which were later used as the basis for the development of the Colombian models. Chapter 3 outlines the research design for all three empirical phases.

The second part containing the main case study on Colombia comprises four chapters. The provision of background information on the Colombian system of higher education and its internationalization is the objective of Chapter 4. In addition, internationalization of higher education is explained in general, followed by a detailed examination of the Latin American case in order to get a broader view of this topic. Chapter 5 portrays empirical results from the face-to-face interviews in the qualitative pilot study, starting with information on the development of the interview guideline and data collection. Afterward, the respondents are described regarding, for example, socio-demographic aspects followed by their motivations for choosing Colombia as the target country in international higher education. In addition, further issues related to the selection of Colombia as the study destination are depicted, including the interviewees' country image of Colombia before they studied there. Chapter 6 begins with information on the construction of the standardized questionnaire and data collection. Afterward, it is described how the online survey data was prepared for subsequent calculations. Finally, hypotheses for statistical analysis are detailed. Chapter 7 presents empirical results of the online survey. After providing descriptive results, five types of international students are introduced, followed by the findings from the testing hypotheses that were developed in the preceding chapter.

The third part with the additional case study on Brazil comprises Chapter 8 and is structured similar to the second part on Colombia. It begins with background information on the Brazilian higher education system and its internationalization. Subsequently, empirical results of the face-to-face interviews are detailed. In this context, information on data collection is given at first, followed by the description of the interviewees and their motivations for choosing Brazil as the host country. Furthermore,

information on additional aspects such as the respondents' country image of Brazil before their studies is also provided.

After the third part, a summary and conclusion on the entire thesis are provided. Initially, the main contributions of the dissertation are outlined. In this context, the model of internal motivations for studying in Colombia and the model explaining the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination are mentioned. Subsequently, these models were adjusted to the Brazilian context, thereby providing a pathway for future research.

PART I: GENERAL FRAMEWORK

1. Literature Review

The first chapter provides an overview of the relevant literature on international academic mobility in general and the choice of a study destination in particular. It begins with the presentation of different aspects of research on academic mobility, including, for example, the terminology, a short historical overview, and regional preferences of authors. Afterward, the current state of research regarding motivations for the selection of a host country for international higher education is presented; it is grouped into the following thematic categories: Education and professional career, living environment and personal development, language, social networks, and financial issues. In this context, differences in the weights attached to motivations according to socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender and region of origin, are depicted. Moreover, the country image of Colombia and Brazil as well as various information sources international students consulted before pursuing studies abroad are presented. As not all students from the works reviewed managed to study in their first destination choice, this work provides information on alternative study destinations. Additionally, the methods used in previous publications for data collection are outlined. The last part of this chapter provides a summary of the main findings and the presentation of the research gap that the present project aims to fill.

1.1 International Academic Mobility

Before providing an overview of the relevant literature, a couple of clarifications about the terminology are necessary. Some authors discuss which of the two terms, namely *migration* and *mobility*, is more adequate for students studying abroad (e.g., Findlay et al., 2006, pp. 292-293; King et al., 2010, pp. 6-7; King & Raghuram, 2013, p. 129). According to King and Raghuram (2013, p. 129), there are two points to consider. On the one hand, there are students who go abroad for a short-term stay—e.g., they participate in the Erasmus program and afterward, in most cases, return to their home countries. As the word mobility stresses the act of moving and does not focus on the other hand, there are students who leave their home country for a long-term stay—for instance, for their university degrees. Owing to the long period of time and higher uncertainties about returning to their home countries, the term migration is appropriate in this regard. In this study, the target group consists of students pursuing a short-term

as well as a long-term stay abroad. Therefore, it was decided to give preference to the word mobility in this project, as migration is not an adequate term for students who stay for a short-term.

Another question arises when measuring the mobility of international students—e.g., not many countries gather information about foreign students enrolled in their institutions of higher education on a consistent basis. Moreover, there is no universal guideline for data collection regarding the definition of international students. Consequently, this leads to problems in the comparison of numbers on a global scale (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011, pp. 3-4). Banks and Bhandari (2012, pp. 381-382) describe two popular methods to determine the number of international students. First, several countries refer to visa status or citizenship in their data collection. However, this procedure can result in an underestimation of the number of foreign students. This particularly applies to regions with close relationships, such as Europe, where student mobility is often not bound on visa requirements. Second, the method used by UNESCO is often adopted. Here, three criteria are taken into consideration: No permanent residency in the study destination, certificate to enter tertiary education received from a foreign country, and citizenship of another country. As students who have matriculated for at least one year are only considered, those who pursue shortterm stays are not included in the corresponding statistics. Owing to a rising participation in short-term programs, statistics that rely on these criteria underestimate the number of internationally mobile students.

In the beginning, research on academic mobility was mainly conducted in the Unites States while focusing on particular institutions of higher education as well as on specific programs. In Europe only a very few scholars investigated international mobility in higher education before the 1970s, mainly concentrating on topics related to academics from developing countries. In general, research in both Europe and the USA was sporadic and often financed by organizations concerned with international issues in higher education, for example, to improve their programs (Teichler, 1996, pp. 340-341). Thus, for a long period of time, there was not much research on the mobility of foreign students, with the exception of brain drain (e.g., Findlay et al., 2005, p. 192; King, 2003, p. 157), and also not on the decision for a study destination (Chew & Croy, 2011, p. 255). However, research on international student mobility has increased remarkably over the last few years (e.g., Dervin & Machart, 2015, p. 7; King et al., 2010, pp. 4-5).²

² For more publications on international student mobility, refer, for example, to the literature reviews of King et al. (2010), King and Raghuram (2013), and Sondhi (2013, pp. 31-54).

In their publication about research on academic mobility, Dervin and Lopes Rosa (2006, pp. 38-41) conclude that scholars come from a wide range of different backgrounds. Their way of exploring academic mobility is not unified. Therefore, approaches differ concerning theory and method, which in turn makes it "difficult to bracket the discipline" (Dervin & Lopes Rosa, 2006, pp. 38-39); hence one cannot speak of an established research field yet. Disciplines that investigate international student mobility include education and social sciences as well as other disciplines related to human sciences (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 39).

The mobility of international students is primarily analyzed with a focus on target countries that have English as the national language (Waters & Brooks, 2010, p. 217). Furthermore, much research has been conducted on the experiences of international students during their participation in the Erasmus program, not taking into account the fact that there are other possibilities for educational mobility worldwide (Murphy-Lejeune, 2008, p. 13). Although the number of foreign students who decide to attend a university in a developing country is growing, there has not been done much research on it so far. In this context, it is supposed that there are differences, for instance, between the motivations for choosing such a country as the destination for international higher education than opting for a traditional target country (Cantwell et al., 2009, pp. 335-337).

Research on studying abroad can be grouped according to different criteria. Danckwortt (1984, p. 18) suggests a categorization of the factors connected with studying abroad in three time frames. Some of the factors before the stay abroad are one's expectations, the available information on the study destination, and the opinion of family and friends. Impacts during the stay abroad include adjustment and satisfaction. Influences of staying abroad refer to the outcomes of higher studies abroad on the career of international students. Taking this categorization into account, the decision to choose a country as an international study destination falls into the first category "factors before the stay abroad" (Danckwortt, 1984, p. 18; own translation).

Up to now, there has not been much theoretical work on the mobility of international students. Most research works investigating the choice of foreign students where to study mostly refer to the push-pull model (Cantwell et al., 2009, p. 341). Lim et al. (2011, pp. 1692-1693) give a useful summary of the important push and pull factors relating to international student mobility. On the one hand, there are reasons in the home country that make students to look for higher education abroad. Such elements—the so-called push factors—can be the absence of possibilities for specialization or postgraduate education and low quality of higher education in general.

On the other hand, destination countries possess different characteristics that are attractive for foreign students. Such aspects, referred to as pull-factors, are for instance: Good reputation of higher-education institutions, possibilities for future career, and subsequent migration to the study destination.

Even though this approach is used frequently, several authors criticize it by pointing to its limitations. Lee (2008, p. 323) states that the push-pull model is helpful to analyze important factors relating to the flow of international students at the macro-level. However, this author complains that enough attention has not been paid to the interaction between these factors and the individual student. Li and Bray (2007, pp. 793-794) also recognize the value of the model with respect of external forces, although strongly emphasizing the importance of individual characteristics such as gender, age, and socio-economic background. Furthermore, Cantwell et al. (2009, p. 340) stress that the push-pull model almost exclusively acknowledges factors that influence student flows from less developed toward more developed regions. Foreign students who study in developing countries—either coming from developed or other developing countries—are not considered. Against this background, Cantwell et al. (2009, pp. 350-351) conclude that flexible theoretical approaches should be created for applying to different contexts.

In some of the reviewed publications, further theoretical models explaining the choice of a study destination are used. However, these approaches—like the push-pull model—are not adequate for answering the research questions of this project and therefore were not, or only partially, mentioned. For example, Cubillo et al. (2006, pp. 104-111) and Chen (2007, pp. 760-761) present models where the choice of the host country is solely one element out of several, and the particular institution and program are deemed important.

1.2 Motivations for Choosing a Study Destination

There are different kinds of studies that address reasons for studying abroad. On the one hand, there are studies that approach the topic exclusively on the country level and focus on international student flows (e.g., Bessey, 2012; Didelon & Richard, 2012; Perkins & Neumayer, 2014; Rodríguez González et al., 2011; Wei, 2013). These studies analyzed factors such as GDP, common language, geographic proximity, and university rankings to see whether they favor or hinder international student mobility from particular countries toward specific study destinations. On the other hand, there are studies that concentrate on individual preferences and characteristics of foreign students. Some of these works investigated why students study abroad in general, not

10

directing at one joint study destination (e.g., Findlay & King, 2010; Sondhi, 2013; Van Mol & Timmerman, 2014; Van Mol, 2015). However, in these cases, students often stem from the same country of origin. Other investigations analyzed which motivations and factors are crucial for the selection of a particular target country (e.g., Cantwell et al., 2009; Glover, 2011) or a specific university (e.g., Baharun et al., 2011; Staniscia, 2012). Results from those works that concentrate on individual students and not on countries are presented in the following sub-chapters because students are the objects of inquiry in my doctoral project. Moreover, this paper focuses on the choice of a particular target country in international higher education and therefore the findings exclusively refer to the selection of a specific host country.

Most studies that analyzed motivations and factors influencing the choice of a particular target country in international higher education focused on developed countries outside Europe with English as the national language (e.g., Alberts & Hazen, 2005; Chen, 2007; Glover, 2011). Moreover, there are several studies on European countries (e.g., Baláž & Williams, 2004; Isserstedt & Link, 2008). With reference to developing countries, a handful of studies concentrate on Asia (e.g., Lim et al., 2011; Son, 2011) and a couple on Africa (e.g., Mpinganjira, 2011³). In case of Latin America, only one study on Mexico (Cantwell et al., 2009) and three others on Brazil (Liberato, 2012; Moriguchi & Rodrigues, 2011; Subuhana, 2007) were found.

In order to get an overview of the empirical findings on the decision for a target country for studies abroad, the most important reasons were grouped together in the following categories: Education and professional career, living environment and personal development, language, social networks, and financial issues.⁴ As the respective studies were carried out in diverse methodological ways, it is difficult to compare them adequately. For example, different scales and ways for measuring the importance of reasons were used. Thus, the most important findings were taken into account only if the corresponding motivation appeared in at least two case studies. In a majority of

³ There is a related study from the same author, published in 2012, with a different target group. In the publication from 2011, international undergraduate students were considered (Mpinganjira, 2011, p. 2182), while the publication from 2012 considered African postgraduate students (Mpinganjira, 2012, p. 263). As this doctoral project focuses on international students who stem from various countries and not solely from a specific region of origin, results from the publication from 2011 are presented in this chapter.
⁴ To ensure a similar structure of the chapters, categories were organized following the model of

⁴ To ensure a similar structure of the chapters, categories were organized following the model of Krzaklewska, which is presented in Chapter 2.2. However, the category containing cultural motivations from Krzaklewska's model was expanded to *living environment*, comprising not only cultural issues but also topics related to the living environment at the target country in general. Further, the reasons relating to social networks and financial issues for choosing a particular study destination were included in an additional category.

cases, reference was made to the three or five most relevant reasons of each publication, depending on the number of the requested motivations in the study.⁵

1.2.1. Education and Professional Career

Motivations related to good educational possibilities were mentioned in the majority of the studies. For example, the surveys conducted by Kondakci (2011, p. 581) and Michael et al. (2003, p. 62) show the excellent quality of higher education in Turkey and Australia to be the main reason influencing the decision of international students in favor of these target countries. Similarly, academic rankings were very important for Latin American students opting for international education in Mexico (Cantwell et al., 2009, p. 345). Alberts and Hazen (2005, p. 137) found that—primarily for international students enrolled for a full degree—the well-known quality of postgraduate programs greatly influenced the decision in favor of the USA as a host country. Further, the chance to acquire specialized knowledge was one of the top reasons for foreign students studying at German higher-education institutions (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 29). In a couple of studies it turned out that possibilities relating to higher education in the target country were considered superior to those in the home country—e.g., Slovakian students studying in the UK (Baláž & Williams, 2004, p. 225) and Sub-Saharan students in Morocco (Berriane, 2009, pp. 15-16).

A comfortable atmosphere for concentrating on learning was crucial in studies on Australia (Glover, 2011, p. 185), Canada (Chen, 2007, p. 766) and the UK (Maringe & Carter, 2007, p. 466). With respect to the study environment in Malaysia, there are huge differences between students from China and from Middle Eastern countries. While a good learning environment for the first group belonged to the top reasons, it was not important at all for the latter group when choosing Malaysia for their studies abroad (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696). Further, study conditions in Germany, which were regarded superior to those in the country of origin, were important for the decision of several participants (Isserstedt and Link, 2008, p. 29).

Several publications regard studying abroad in a specific country as a possibility for improving career opportunities. For example, foreign students in Australia (Glover, 2011, p. 185) and Germany (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 30) stressed the overarching significance of education abroad in the selected target country in the context of their

⁵ One of the three studies with Brazil as the target country gives information on the most decisive motivations for choosing Brazil as the study destination (Liberato, 2012, p. 9). The remaining two works also mention reasons for studying in Brazil but do not provide information on their importance for respondents. Thus, only the study of Liberato is considered in this chapter. However, in Chapter 8.2 on empirical findings of my interviews in Brazil, reference is also made to results from the publications of Moriguchi and Rodrigues (2011) and Subuhana (2007).

future career perspectives. The research work of Mpinganjira (2011, p. 2184) highlights the appreciation for South African higher education in international students' home countries, terming it as the top motivation. Similarly, Maringe and Carter (2007, p. 466) found that the most important reason for African students to study in the UK was that qualifications acquired at a British higher-education institution are respected worldwide. Moreover, foreign students enrolled in Canada (Chen, 2007, p. 766) as well as in South Korea (Son, 2011, p. 69) considered a degree from these countries as helpful for more mobility in their future jobs.

1.2.2 Living Environment and Personal Development

There are several motivations relating to the living environment of the target country for the choice of a specific study destination. A factor that appeared in this context is comfortable climate, as mentioned in some studies on international students in Australia (Glover, 2011, p. 185; Llewellyn-Smith & McCabe, 2008, p. 599). Lim et al. (2011, p. 1696) emphasize this particular motivation when talking about students from Middle Eastern countries studying in Malaysia.

Living in a foreign culture is deemed crucial by a number of studies. In the publications of Jones (2006, p. 231), Kondakci (2011, p. 581) and Son (2011, p. 69) on Thailand, Turkey, and South Korea, the respondents wanted to know the culture of the host countries. Moreover, as seen in a study on Canada as the target country, the students concerned were not only interested in understanding the general culture of the country, but they also wanted an in-depth understanding of its multiculturalism (Chen, 2007, p. 766).

On the contrary, living in a similar culture can also be regarded as an attractive option. In the publication of Liberato (2012, p. 9) on Angolan students in Brazil, the circumstance that African culture has had an intensive impact on the culture of this Latin American country was crucial for their decision about the international study destination. Similarly, cultural diversity was not important for Sub-Saharan students when choosing Morocco as their target country for higher education (Berriane, 2009, p. 15).

Another aspect closely connected with the living environment is the security situation of a country. For East Asian students in Canada (Chen, 2007, p. 766), and for Chinese students in Malaysia (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696), the perception of the host country as a safe place to live—for instance, because of its low violence rate—was the top motive influencing the decision about their destination for international higher education.

Likewise, international students in Australia (Glover, 2011, p. 185) and South Korea (Son, 2011, p. 69) emphasized the significance of high personal safety. Beyond the feeling of individual safety, the stability of the political system can also be an element that affects the decision about the target country, as shown by the publication of Jones (2006, p. 231) about Thailand.

Finally, experiencing life in another country for a temporary period can be a motivation, as it was the case for Slovakian students in the UK (Baláž & Williams, 2004, p. 225). Further, it can be regarded as a possibility for personal development—students are curious and want to see if they could cope with a foreign environment (Alberts & Hazen, 2005, p. 137; Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 30).

1.2.3 Language

Some studies consider language enhancement among the top motivations for the choice of a particular study destination—e.g., the German language was cited in the survey by Isserstedt and Link (2008, p. 29) and English in the publications of Baláž and Williams (2004, p. 225) and Eder et al. (2010, p. 239). According to a participant of the study on foreign students in the USA, English language skills are "not a plus; it is a must to speak fluent English. Often, this represents a major job requirement" (Eder et al., 2010, p. 239). Thus, the improvement of foreign language skills during the stay at a university outside the home country was considered essential for future career perspectives. However, the work of Caudery et al. (2008, p. 123) on Sweden and Denmark shows that the motivation for learning exclusively Swedish or Danish can be attached to only 10% of the whole sample, while the exclusive improvement of English language skills was important for almost half of the interviewees. Also, 20% of the participants were interested in learning the national language and also in improving their respective English proficiencies.

However, already possessing a good command of the language of instruction of the target country can also be a motivation for choosing a particular study destination. In the study of Berriane (2009, pp. 15-17) some of the francophone Sub-Saharan students stated that the possibility of studying in Morocco in French positively influenced their decision in favor of the country. Similarly, the common official language Portuguese was attractive for several Angolan students to opt for Brazil as the host country (Liberato, 2012, p. 9).

1.2.4 Social Networks and Financial Issues

Local social networks at the study destination can influence the decision about the target country for international higher education. For example, family members and friends enrolled at Malaysian universities at the same time were a decisive factor for Chinese students to opt for Malaysia (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696). Similarly, Beech (2015, p. 345) uncovered that local social networks—e.g., siblings living in the same country—influenced the decision of international students to study in the UK.⁶

Additionally, social networks can affect the choice of an international study destination with respect to the recommendation of a particular country by others. In this context, Michael et al. (2003, p. 62) found out that propositions made by family and friends had a serious impact on the choice of Australia as the target country. Other actors that can suggest target destinations are agents. In case of students from Middle Eastern countries, agents had strong influence on the selection of Malaysia as the host country (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696).

Financial issues in connection with the educational stay abroad were pointed out frequently. The cost of living can be an influential factor for the decision of the host country. In the study of Jones (2006, p. 231) about international students in Thailand and Australia, this was the most important reason why the respondents opted for these host countries. Similarly, low living expenses were also a crucial motivation for students from Middle Eastern countries studying in Malaysia (Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696). Next, the absence, or a low amount, of tuition fees was considered highly relevant in this regard (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 30; Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696). Popular possibilities to reduce monetary expenses are scholarships and other funding opportunities, which were cited as the top motivations in the works of Alberts and Hazen (2005, p. 137) on the USA and of Berriane (2009, p. 15) on Morocco.

1.2.5 Motivations according to Socio-demographic Characteristics

Some of the studies did not analyze only the importance of several motivations about the decision for a specific host country for the entire sample but also considered a socio-demographic characteristic; a handful of publications even considered various characteristics. These aspects include, for example, gender (Chen, 2007, p. 766; Isserstedt & Link, 2008, pp. 29-30) and home country or geographical region (Cantwell

⁶ Beech (2015) analyzed the role of social networks for the decision to study abroad by international students enrolled in the UK in detail. However, this publication almost exclusively focuses on studying abroad in general and references made to the UK as the specific target country are rather marginal. Therefore, no more information on the findings of this study is provided.

et al., 2009, p. 345; Chen, 2007, p. 766; Kondakci, 2011, pp. 581-582; Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696). Regarding the educational background of the participants, some important characteristics to be considered are the level of education (Chen, 2007, p. 766), the field of study (Chen, 2007, p. 766), and the type of stay abroad (exchange students, full-degree students) (Alberts & Hazen, 2005, p. 137).⁷ These aspects have a decisive impact on the weighing of some of the motivations in those publications—some of them more and others less so. In particular, there are remarkable disparities regarding the region of origin. For instance, Lim et al. (2011, p. 1696) considered personal safety as the most important reason for Chinese students from Middle Eastern countries. Further, one of the most important elements influencing the decision of Middle Eastern students in favor of Malaysia as the host country were recommendations by agents, while this particular criterion was not of great value for Chinese students.

1.3 Country Image and Information Sources

As stated in Chapter 2.4, the image of a country as perceived by students can have an impact on their decision about choosing the host country. However, as a country's image is very specific, it would not be helpful to provide information from previous publications on the country image of study destinations, other than Colombia and Brazil. Hence, results from only those studies that analyze the image of these two countries are outlined at this point, even though most of these works do not focus on the motivations of international students for the choice of the two countries as study destinations.

Brigard Perdomo (2008: pp. 1-2)⁸ analyzed the country image of Colombia with an online survey for international students from around the world. Unfortunately, there has been no differentiation between students who already have been to Colombia and those who have not been there before (Brigard Perdomo, 2008, p. 54). The opinion about various aspects concerning Colombia was measured, and the results are presented for the entire sample as well as for different cultural groups. Regarding the findings for the whole sample, the most important positive characteristics associated with Colombia are in the following order: Exotic atmosphere, receptivity/friendliness/ hospitableness, and exciting destination. The most negative attributes are: Low security and no quiet country for relaxing (Brigard Perdomo, 2008, p. 44). These

⁷ In this project, the term *socio-demographic characteristic* is ascribed a broad meaning regarding educational aspects. Not only the educational level but also further characteristics related to education were included.

⁸ Final project of undergraduate studies (Business Administration), handed in at the Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá.

results, however, partly differ when students from similar cultural backgrounds are grouped in the same category. Latin Americans⁹ hold the most favorable image of Colombia.¹⁰ This can be attributed to the fact that Latin Americans are closer to Colombians with respect to geography, culture, and stage of development and therefore have a more realistic view of Colombia (Brigard Perdomo, 2008, p. 50).

"Unlike most Latin American countries, Brazil has a well-defined image, based on its beaches, the Rio de Janeiro carnival, and the Amazon rainforest" (Boniface et al., 2012, p. 25). In order to obtain more specific information on Brazil's country image, the publications of Awuah and Reinert (2011) and Rezende-Parker et al. (2003), which analyze the image of Brazil in detail, are presented in the following paragraphs. Before that, a study on foreign students in Brazil, which marginally touches on this issue, is quoted. In this work, Subuhana (2007, p. 326) found that the Mozambican students' country image of Brazil was especially influenced by soap operas. Here, Brazil was regarded as a "social paradise, [a] synonym of development and progress, [...] of an abundant life and of immeasurable opportunities for everyone" (Subuhana, 2007, p. 326; own translation). However, some of the respondents knew that reality in Brazil is different from the image transmitted via soap operas.

Awuah and Reinert (2011, pp. 140-141) questioned the European students enrolled at a Swedish university about their image of Brazil, considering them as potential tourists. None of the participants had ever been to Brazil. Awuah and Reinert (2011, p. 146) conclude that the image of Brazil in their study is not very positive. For example, 40.82% of the participants regarded Brazil as less safe and 30.36% even as not safe.¹¹ Moreover, 49.49% of them considered Brazil as a violent country and 16.07% as very violent. However, some aspects were evaluated as positive—for instance, friendliness (56.38% of the participants found the country to be friendly and 27.30% very friendly) and hospitality (48.72% of the participants found the country to be hospitable and 21.43% very hospitable) (Awuah & Reinert, 2011, p. 142). When requested to give a word that appropriately characterizes Brazil, the most frequent answers were: soccer (10.46%), carnival (8.93%), and beautiful (4.08%) (Awuah & Reinert, 2011, p. 144). Information sources for the image of Brazil were mainly television (54.85%), friends/family (29.08%), newspapers (18.62%), and the Internet (15.56%) (Awuah & Reinert, 2011, p. 143).

⁹ This cultural group includes Latin Americans from all countries in South America and Central America, excluding the Guianas and Brazil (Brigard Perdomo, 2008, p. 38).
¹⁰ For detailed information on the country image of Colombia by different cultural groups, refer to Brigard

¹⁰ For detailed information on the country image of Colombia by different cultural groups, refer to Brigard Perdomo (2008, pp. 82-84).

¹¹ For most questions, a 4-point Likert scale was used, ranging from very high to very low, additionally including not/have no idea (Awuah & Reinert, 2011, p. 140).

Rezende-Parker et al. (2003, p. 246) analyzed the image of Brazil as held by Americans interested in tourism. Previous visitors to this country (35%) as well as people who have never been to Brazil (65%) were included in their survey (Rezende-Parker et al., 2003, p. 248). Considering the entire sample, a positive image was found regarding, for example, natural and scenic beauty, variety of music and dance, several natural parks and much wildlife, and good place for going to the beach. A negative image was uncovered, for example, for crowdedness of the cities, beggars, and local standards of cleanliness and hygiene. When splitting the sample into prior visitors and non-visitors, it turned out that people who have been to Brazil before hold a more positive image of the country (Rezende-Parker et al., 2003, p. 248). With reference to three different aspects, the respondents were asked to give words describing the characteristics of Brazil. The most frequent answers were: Beaches/beautiful beaches (42.1%), Amazon jungle/Amazon river/rainforest (40.8%), Carnival (20.8%) (Aspect: Images evoked when thinking of Brazil as a vacation destination); Fun/partying/ festive/celebrating (27.0%), Friendly (22.3%), Relaxed/relaxing/laid back/loose (22.3%) (Aspect: Descriptions of the atmosphere or mood expected while visiting Brazil); Amazon jungle/Amazon river/rainforest (57.5%), Rio de Janeiro (31.3%), Christ the Redeemer/Corcovado (26.2%) (Aspect: Distinct or unique attractions in Brazil) (Rezende-Parker et al., 2003, p. 249).

As mentioned in Chapter 2.4, information sources are decisive for the creation of a country image. Thus, the sources of information used about the potential study destination for foreign students are explored. In the publications of Chen (2007, p. 773), Eder et al. (2010, p. 240) and Son (2011, p. 81), the Internet is cited as the main source for information on the host country and/or the city and/or the institution. In the study of Jones (2006, p. 174), the Internet was the second important source for information on the target country. Another highly frequented opportunity for obtaining information about the proposed study destination was the consultation of relatives and/or friends (e.g., Michael et al., 2003, p. 62; Son, 2011, p. 81). However, it was difficult to get information about the possibilities for higher education abroad in a specific country in a couple of cases, as reported by international students enrolled at universities in Canada (Chen, 2007, p. 768) and in the UK (Maringe & Carter, 2007, p. 470).

1.4 Alternative Study Destinations

In some of the works reviewed, the respondents were asked if the country of their studies abroad was their country of first choice, and, if not, what their preferred host country was. In several publications it turned out that around half of the international students did not consider the country where they pursued their international studies as their first option. This was the case for foreign students in Germany, where 57% international students did not opt for this country as their top destination (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, pp. 43-44). The same applies to Australia with 52% and to Thailand with 46% students (Jones, 2006, p. 172). For South Africa and South Korea, the number of international students who did not select the respective country in the first place was somewhat lower at 39.8% (Mpinganjira, 2011, pp. 2182-2183) and 37.3% (Son, 2011, p. 58) of the students, respectively. A close look at the alternative study destinations mentioned tells us that references were mostly made to countries with English as the national language, such as the USA (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 44; Jones, 2006, p. 172; Son, 2011, p. 58), the UK (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 44; Mpinganjira, 2011, p. 2183; Son, 2011, p. 59), and Australia (Jones, 2006, p. 172; Mpinganjira, 2011, p. 2183). Other countries were named, but in rather lower numbers; they are mainly located in Europe as alternative to Germany (Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 44) and in Asia as alternative to Australia (Jones, 2006, p. 172) and to South Korea (Son, 2011, p. 59).

Sometimes, external constraints have an impact on the choice of an international study destination. For instance, Berriane (2009, p. 15) found that Sub-Saharan students in Morocco considered receiving a scholarship as their most important reason for choosing this host country. In most cases, students went to Morocco because they had no chance to decide in favor of a more attractive target country, as many of them finance their studies through a scholarship from the Moroccan state. In fact, the respondents would have preferred to study in North America or Europe if there was a possibility for funding higher education in those countries (Berriane, 2009, pp. 4, 15). Similarly, several international students studying at higher education institutions in Scandinavia selected Denmark or Sweden because options for studying in other destinations were scarce (Caudery et al., 2008, p. 121).

1.5 Methods Applied in Previous Studies

In the publications reviewed in the previous sub-chapters, there is not one prevailing method for data collection. The most common techniques for uncovering motivations for deciding the study abroad destination were qualitative interviews and standardized questionnaires. However, researchers used diverse kinds of qualitative interviews and

19

different possibilities for distributing the standardized questionnaires. For instance, some scholars conducted semi-structured interviews (Caudery et al., 2008, p. 116; Liberato, 2012, p. 2), while others carried out in-depth interviews (e.g., Baláž & Williams, 2004, p. 223; Mpinganjira, 2011, p. 2182). In further cases, focus group discussions were the preferred method for collecting data (e.g., Alberts & Hazen, 2005, pp. 134-136; Maringe & Carter, 2007, p. 464). In the work of Mpinganjira (2011, p. 2182), results from qualitative interviews and focus group discussions were used for the creation of a quantitative questionnaire. Likewise, Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe (2008, p. 596) developed the standardized questionnaire on the basis of findings from qualitative interviews. Some researchers carried out their studies via standardized printed questionnaires (e.g., Isserstedt & Link, 2008, p. 10; Lim et al., 2011, p. 1695). Others such as Cantwell et al. (2009, p. 344) and Glover (2011, p. 183) collected the required information via online questionnaires.

1.6 Summary and Identification of Research Gap

Until recently, there has not been much research on the mobility of international students in general and on the choice of a study abroad destination in particular. However, research on the mobility of students in international higher education has grown notably over the last few years. Nevertheless, academic mobility is not an established research field so far, as it is characterized by a variety of different disciplines involved in the topic. In most cases, international student mobility is analyzed with a focus on target countries with English as the national language and on the Erasmus program. Although the number of foreign students enrolled in developing countries is on the rise, there has not been much research on student mobility in these regions yet. The push-pull model is the theoretical model that is mostly referred to in research on motivations for the selection of an international study destination. However, it is criticized that individual characteristics, such as age, gender etc., are not considered in this model, as its focus lies on external forces. Moreover, this model principally concentrates on student flows from developing toward developed regions and ignores movements toward developing regions.

With reference to reasons for participation in higher education abroad, there are different types of publications. On the one hand, there are works that analyze student flows between countries. On the other hand, there are studies that focus on the individual level. The latter publications either concentrate on motivations for studying abroad in general, or on motivations for a particular country or a specific university. As individual students in a particular country are the target group of this doctoral project,

only studies that correspond to these criteria were reviewed. Most of these publications focus on English-speaking developed countries outside Europe. Further, there are several studies on countries in Europe and some on developing countries. Key results from these publications were grouped into the following categories: Education and professional career, living environment and personal development, language, social networks, and financial issues. In some studies it was found out that the importance of motivations differed according to socio-demographic characteristics, especially concerning the region of origin. As the image of a country can influence the study destination choice, publications that analyze the country image of Colombia and Brazil were presented. In this connection, positive and negative connotations of the country image were uncovered. In order to obtain information about a specific country, the Internet, friends, and relatives were the main sources for foreign students. However, according to the results of a few publications, finding information about a potential study destination was difficult for international students. In several works it was asked whether the country in which the respondents were pursuing their studies abroad was their first option or not. For around half of the students questioned, the present study destination was the first choice. Alternative target countries mentioned in most of the cases have English as their national language. The methods used in previous studies for collecting data on motivations in favor of a particular country were mostly standardized questionnaires or qualitative interviews.

As a result of the literature review presented in this chapter, it is concluded that research on international student mobility in general, and on the choice of a study destination in particular, focuses principally on developed countries with English as the national language and afterward on Europe. However, some works on nontraditional study destinations have been published over the last few years. Nevertheless, more research on these regions should be carried out, as it is a "myth [...] that [academic] mobility is limited to the West" (Welch, 2008, p. 293). Concerning publications on destination countries in Latin America, one study on Mexico (Cantwell et al., 2009) and three on Brazil (Liberato, 2012; Moriguchi & Rodrigues, 2011; Subuhana, 2007) were identified. However, the works on Brazil concentrate on a particular group of students, namely respondents from Portuguese-speaking countries in Africa or participants of the PEC-G program¹². Moreover, Liberato (2012) and Subuhana (2007) only marginally refer to motivations for selecting Brazil as the target country for international higher education. As the number of foreign students in Latin America is on the rise (see Chapter 4.2), more intensive research is needed on the mobility of international students in this region.

¹² For information on the PEC-G program, refer to Chapter 8.1.2.

Many publications exclusively provide findings for the whole sample. However, in several cases, authors differentiated between socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, the region of origin, and the field of study. For some of these aspects, especially regarding the region of origin, crucial differences in the weighing of motivations were uncovered (e.g., Cantwell et al., 2009, p. 345; Lim et al., 2011, p. 1696). Thus, socio-demographic characteristics should be taken into account when analyzing the importance ascribed by international students to different reasons for the choice of their destination for studying abroad.

Almost all publications targeting nontraditional study destinations primarily carried out their research with a standardized questionnaire. One of those surveys was developed on the basis of focus group discussions and in-depth interviews (Mpinganjira, 2011, p. 2182). Only a couple of studies consisted of qualitative interviews (e.g., Liberato, 2012, p. 2). According to Cantwell et al. (2009, pp. 335-337), factors influencing the decision to study in a developing country probably vary from those for studying in a developed country. Owing to lack of information about the motivations for choosing nontraditional study destinations received from qualitative research, the creation of a suitable standardized questionnaire for foreign students in Colombia is difficult. Consequently, it is recommended to carry out a qualitative pilot study in Colombia.¹³

Concluding this chapter, it was realized that there has not been much research regarding the motivations for studying in a nontraditional study destination in general and in Latin America in particular. Moreover, there has been no research on the motivations for choosing Colombia as a study destination. Hence, research on Colombia as a target country for international higher education, considering a differentiation between various socio-demographic characteristics, helps us to uncover crucial reasons for the choice of this host country. Beginning with a qualitative pilot study at a few Colombian institutions of higher education, subsequently followed by a bigger sample of international students with a quantitative survey, is an appropriate methodological way. Although there are already publications on Brazil, these are limited to particular groups of students and, in most cases, only slightly touch on motivations for choosing this country. Therefore, the realization of international students from different regions of origin and diverse types of studies, is very promising.

22

¹³ For more information about methodological aspects of the pilot study, refer to Chapter 3.2.

2. Theoretical Framework

The second chapter presents the theoretical framework that is used to analyze the choice of Colombia as a target country in international higher education. As there is not a single theory that exactly fits this purpose, different theoretical approaches were combined. The chapter is organized into five parts: The first section begins with a brief overview of the historical diversification of the rationales for international geographic mobility. Subsequently, the life of international students and their mobility decisions are framed in the context of the approach of youth mobility (e.g., King, 2002) and the theory of individualization (e.g., Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993). In the second part theoretical models elaborated by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) and Krzaklewska (2008), which contain crucial motivations for going abroad in the European context, are introduced and connected. Making use of the theorization of international migration networks (e.g., Faist, 2000), information on social networks is given in the third section. The fourth part entails an elaboration on the country image which itself is an element of the model developed by Murphy-Lejeune. In this context, it is mostly referred to the theoretical considerations of Cubillo et al. (2006) and Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002). The chapter ends by summing up the main results.

2.1 Youth Mobility and Individualization

King (2002, pp. 89-95) depicts how migration is a phenomenon that has always been involved in the creation of societies. This includes, for example, the waves of European settlers to the American continent in the 19th century and the flow of guest workers from Mediterranean countries to Northwestern Europe after the Second World War. After the Cold War, the forms of geographic mobility have diversified making it difficult to continue to draw a clear line between migration and further types of mobility (e.g., commuting and tourism).¹⁴ However, traditional migration types, such as those mentioned before, dominated concepts and theories of migration for a very long time. On most previous occasions the drivers of migration flows were connected with economic and political rationales. Nowadays, the motivations for mobility are a lot more divergent. Besides those that were crucial in the past, new motivations emerged—e.g., "excitement, experience, leisure, 'seeing the world'" (King, 2002, p. 95). Consequently, mobility in these cases is not regarded as a necessity but something worth striving after.

¹⁴ For a discussion on the terms *mobility* and *migration* in the context of international students, refer to Chapter 1.1.

Against this background, international mobility of students can be regarded as a "subset of youth migration" (King, 2002, p. 99).¹⁵ The underlying assumption here is that seeking pleasure, getting to know foreign cultures, having new experiences and adventures, and traveling can be important in the decision for a stay abroad (e.g., King, 2002, p. 99; Mason, 2002, p. 93; Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 80). Nonetheless, international students studying at a foreign university are not the only group of people which can be assigned to the concept of youth mobility. For example, it also comprises adolescents during the so-called gap year after completing high school and before starting tertiary education, or young people after finishing university and beginning a job (King, 2002, p. 99).

International student mobility has hardly been theorized in connection with the embedment in social processes (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003, p. 231). One of the scarce attempts was undertaken by King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003, pp. 232, 245-246), who connected the theory of individualization, developed by Beck and Beck-Gernsheim, with international student mobility.

With the beginning of industrialization and the transition to modernity, traditional ties like social class structures began to dissolve (Beck, 1983, pp. 40-41; Beck-Gernsheim, 1994, pp. 125-126).¹⁶ This development was accompanied by societal changes, wherein the individual became the center of attention (Beck, 1983, pp. 58-59). "In the individualized society the individual must therefore learn [...] to conceive of himself or herself as the center of action, as the planning office with respect to his/her own biography, abilities, orientations, relationships and so on" (Beck, 1992, p. 135). Though individuals have more options to design their own biography, they are responsible for their mistakes (Beck, 1983, p. 59). It is no longer possible to refer to rules of village communities and the like; instead, individuals have to make their own decisions (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993, p. 179). However, it is important to note that such decisions are made within institutional and societal contexts, such as the labor market, that cannot be influenced by the individual (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993, pp. 179-180; Beck-Gernsheim, 1994, p. 133). Furthermore, incidents that cannot always be anticipated, such as an economic crisis, may have effects on individuals, too (Beck,

¹⁵ There are two other theoretical perspectives that can be related to international student mobility (Findlay et al., 2006, p. 293; King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003, p. 231). The first considers foreign students as a "subset of highly skilled migration" and the second as a "product of globalization" (Findlay et al., 2006, p. 293). However, these two approaches do not focus on individual motivations for studying abroad but rather on macro and meso level phenomena in the frame of student mobility flows—for instance, on political agendas, recruitment strategies, and consequences of brain drain. Hence, it was decided to opt for the youth mobility concept.

¹⁶ Beck and Beck-Gernsheim mostly refer to the German context. They state that the impact of social classes in other countries can still be seen in daily life, including other European countries like the UK (Beck, 1986, pp. 121-122).

1983, p. 69). Hence, autonomous action is only possible in a very limited way, causing a paradoxical situation where the individual performance-oriented outlook is of great importance (Beck, 1983, pp. 55, 69; Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993, p. 179). "[T]he creed of modern society is that life is what you make it" (Beck-Gernsheim, 1996, p. 140)—resulting in the necessity of planning one's own biography purposefully while reacting flexibly to new situations (Beck-Gernsheim, 1994, pp. 137-138).

Beck and Beck-Gernsheim do not refer to students in particular, but their approach can be used to theoretically incorporate the mobility of international students (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003, p. 232). Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (2002, p. 32) state that education can be a tool that favors career opportunities, for instance, through certificates such as university degrees. Also, according to King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003, pp. 245-246), the decision for a stay abroad at a foreign university is an independent contribution to form one's own biography. Acquisition of language skills and intercultural competences, among others, enable students to influence their career in a positive way. In contrast to former generations, students nowadays have more possibilities to form their own educational background, for example, through scholarships for stays abroad (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003, p. 232). Besides, the experience of participating in international higher education does not only have a beneficial impact on individual career opportunities but also forwards self-discovery (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003, p. 246).

Although the impact of social class structures has notably declined, social inequalities still persist. This continuity is based on a general shift of levels in education and income, among others, sustaining old or generating new disparities between particular groups. This shift has important consequences, especially for people who belong to the less privileged, as it allows them to participate in those areas of consumption which previously were unavailable for them (Beck, 1983, pp. 35-37). Within this change, higher education has become a product of mass consumption, clearly marking a gap between earlier and contemporary generations (Beck, 1986, p. 128). As access to education has become easier, competition for good grades, jobs, and the like has increased (Beck, 1983, p. 39).

Applying this phenomenon to today's students, it can be assumed that studying abroad is seen as a possibility to distinguish oneself from fellow students and further career opportunities. As young people now have more chances to finance their stay abroad than former generations, the probability of participating in international higher education is rising. Students who do not avail themselves of the opportunity for a stay at a foreign university must bear the risk of losing an option that could have positively influenced their individual careers. However, according to the approach of youth mobility, economic rationales are not the only crucial drivers for the mobility of foreign students. Thus, it can be assumed that both career-related reasons and further motivations, such as those mentioned before (e.g., getting to know foreign cultures, traveling), can influence the decision to study abroad.¹⁷

2.2 Theoretical Models in the European Context

This sub-chapter introduces two models on going abroad, which were developed in the European context by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) and Krzaklewska (2008). Even though they are concerned with motivations and other factors which international students take into account for going abroad in general, and not on the choice of a particular target country, they were used as the theoretical framework. The reason for this is that most motivations regarding the selection of specific host countries that appeared in the literature review and in the qualitative pilot study in Colombia correspond to elements of the two models. Moreover, both models perfectly match the theoretical assumptions of youth mobility and individualization.

The ethnographic study carried out by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) is considered as pioneering research on the mobility of international students (King et al., 2010, p. 5; King & Raghuram, 2013, p. 3). The author conducted 50 semi-structured interviews with students who participated in three different types of stays abroad in Europe (Erasmus students, language assistant teachers, participants of the EAP program¹⁸). The study comprises various topics such as prior experience with international mobility, motivations for studying abroad, students' experiences during their sojourn, and educational achievements (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, pp. 43, 46-47).

Like Beck and Beck-Gernsheim, Murphy-Lejeune (2002, p. 15) assumes that biographies are no longer predetermined and can be influenced by decisions taken by individuals. Murphy-Lejeune (2002, p. 79) regards motivations for going abroad as an element of a broader concept, which contains latent, active, and resulting components that is presented in the following paragraphs.

Motivations for going abroad are the "set of forces presiding over a decision or a course of action" (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 79). Together with objectives, they belong

¹⁷ Krzaklewska (2013, pp. 79-82) frames the experiences of Erasmus students in the discourse around youth and adulthood, considering youth as "period of fun [...] [and] competing for the future" (Krzaklewska, 2013, p. 79) at the same time. This concept is based on resembling theoretical assumptions such as the combination of youth mobility and individualization.
¹⁸ The "École Européenne des Affaires de Paris or EAP" (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 46) program is an

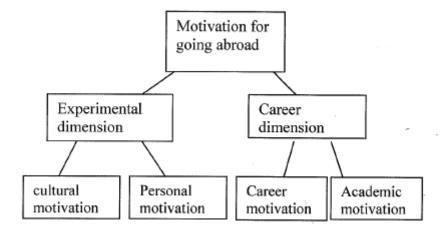
¹⁸ The "École Européenne des Affaires de Paris or EAP" (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 46) program is an international study abroad program offered by a university in Paris. Students who participate in this program stay in three European countries for three years on aggregate. During this period of time they study and also gain working experience (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, pp. 46-47).

to "active components" and can be regarded as influences for the decision to go abroad on a conscious level. Particular objectives are expected to be reached through motivations that guide the decision to go abroad. Against this background, it can be concluded that students actively contribute to the design of their own biography. Moreover, active components match the motivations for studying abroad, as introduced in the preceding sub-chapter, whether they be career-related or further reasons.

"Latent components" comprise different elements, dreams and desires, and also the personalities of students. With reference to the first, some interviewees mentioned their long-cherished interest in going abroad. In some cases, students already formed the image of a specific country as well as of its people and culture, where they would like to go (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, pp. 77-79). Concerning the latter, Murphy-Lejeune (2002, pp. 67-70) found that personal characteristics like openness and extraversion can raise chances to opt for an international long-term stay. Hence, it can be maintained that the decision to go abroad can be shaped by elements that lie beyond internal conscious motivations.

As the focus of my doctoral project is on the motivations for studying in Colombia and Brazil, and not on an evaluation of the outcomes of these studies and future plans, the "resulting components" were not incorporated in this study. Moreover, it has to be taken into account that such components can solely be considered if students are questioned after having studied abroad (Krzaklewska, 2008, p. 85). However, in this project students were interviewed or completed the online questionnaire during their studies in Colombia.

Coming back to active components that were equated with motivations introduced in Chapter 2.1, it is now elaborated more on these motivations that are situated on a conscious level. In this connection, a theoretical model developed on the basis of reasons for participating in the Erasmus program by Krzaklewska (2008, pp. 83, 93) was applied. For this purpose, Krzaklewska (2008, pp. 85-87) used findings from three previous studies and from her own research. The three prior projects on which the author focused are: A survey that evaluated the Erasmus program for the European Commission, the previously mentioned qualitative interviews from the study of Murphy-Lejeune, and a poll on an online portal named "Café Erasmus" (Krzaklewska, 2008, p. 86). The function of this online portal is that students interested in participating in the Erasmus program can gather information from students who have already taken part in the program. Concerning her own research, Krzaklewska (2008, pp. 87-88) carried out eight in-depth interviews with students who participated in the Erasmus program. Moreover, she analyzed 172 autobiographical narratives from students who studied abroad—these were available online. Afterward, the results of Krzaklewska's (2008, pp. 87-91) qualitative analysis were included in the construction of the online questionnaire of the Erasmus Student Network Survey in 2006, where 10,965 students participated.



Graph 1: Model of motivations for going abroad in accordance with Krzaklewska

Source: Krzaklewska (2008, p. 94).

The model of motivations for going abroad, developed by Krzaklewska (2008, pp. 93-95), consists of two dimensions, each of them containing two categories of motivations (see Graph 1). The "experimental dimension"-divided in "cultural motivation" and "personal motivation"—comprehends reasons such as new experiences, pleasure, personality development, and foreign cultures. The "career dimension"-split into "career motivation" and "academic motivation"— comprises, for example, better career opportunities and strengthening of academic expertise. Krzaklewska emphasizes that the desire to go abroad can be motivated by career and experimental reasons at the same time, showing "the coexisting agenda of youth as fun and youth as a preparation for the labour market" (Krzaklewska, 2008, pp. 95-96). Moreover, Krzaklewska (2008, pp. 94-95) found that language is a very crucial motivation. Nevertheless, the "linguistic dimension" is not part of her model because knowledge of a language can belong to the career dimension (e.g., better career prospects) as well as to the experimental dimension (e.g., immersion into a foreign culture). As active components originate in the individual who intends to reach certain objectives, the five categories of motivations from the model of Krzaklewska are called *internal motivations* in my thesis.

Sometimes it is not easy for interviewees to depict their reasons for participating in international higher education. On the one hand, formal motivations, such as career opportunities and language competences, can cross one's mind in the first place, even when personal motives, such as pleasure and traveling, are more crucial. On the other

hand, motivations can be regarded as interrelated and therefore not easily separated by interviewees (Krzaklewska, 2008, pp. 85-86; Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 80). Consequently, most students do not have only one main motivation for going abroad.

Krzaklewska (2008, p. 96) emphasizes that the significance of the dimensions can vary according to different group characteristics like cultural background. For example, the results of the study carried out by Murphy-Lejeune (2002, pp. 77, 231) differed according to the three groups of students. Moreover, it has to be pointed out that the motivations for going abroad can change in the course of time—within one stay abroad and also between different stays (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 81). Finally, Krzaklewska (2008, p. 96) suggests that the model should be evaluated in further empirical studies.

2.3 Social Networks

As outlined in Chapter 1.2.4, external factors, such as a student's social surroundings, can also affect the choice of a study destination for international higher education. Such elements are external and hence are referred to as *external factors* in my thesis. Similarly, the decision in favor of, or against, migration is not only based on the individual but also influenced by the social environment (Faist, 2000, p. 97). Therefore, the significance of social networks for international student mobility in my project is framed in the context of international migration networks. According to Faist (2000, p. 96), migration networks simplify several aspects related to migration, such as finding an apartment or a job. "In short, migrant networks reduce the economic and psychological risks and costs associated with international long-distance migration" (Faist, 2000, p. 96).

Social capital is in focus when networks are analyzed. According to Faist (2000, pp. 102-103), social capital is a resource for facilitating cooperation and reaching specific objectives. Hence, possessing social capital is favorable, while not holding social capital is unfavorable as it limits possibilities for action (Jansen, 2006, pp. 26-27). Social capital can be advantageous in the context of international migration—e.g., in terms of information on access to financial support, or on employment possibilities, and regarding the familiarization with the host country (Faist, 2000, pp. 111, 121). Consequently, people who can fall back on information from different sources have more possibilities than others (Jansen, 2006, p. 29).

Resources that international migrants make use of are embedded in ties (Faist, 2000, p. 115). Ties represent certain forms of transactions and are part of social spaces (Faist, 2004, p. 4): "By transnational spaces we mean relatively stable, lasting and

dense sets of ties reaching beyond and across the borders of sovereign states. They consist of combinations of ties and their contents, positions in networks and organisations, and networks of organisations that cut across the borders of at least two nation-states" (Faist, 2004, pp. 3-4).

In the literature review it was uncovered that recommendations by people who have been to the target country can influence the study destination choice. Likewise, the same was found for local social networks (e.g., friends or relatives living in the study destination), as presented in Chapter 1.2.4. Against this background, two types of transnational spaces, namely "diffusion [and] small groups, particularly kinship systems" (Faist, 2004, p. 7), are relevant for this study. Diffusion is defined as "contact fields for the exchange of goods, capital, persons, information and cultural practices" (Faist, 2004, p. 8) and can mostly be found in fields related to business. Contact between people who exchange resources can be loose—for instance, tourists who meet in a resort (Faist, 2004, pp. 7-8). Such ties can be very important in the context of international migration—e.g., regarding the access to information (Faist, 2000, p. 101). Small kinship groups comprise units like families and households. Even though transnational families do not live in the same country, their members can benefit through ties as they can avail of resources such as solidarity and reciprocity (Faist, 2004, pp. 7-8).

2.4 Country Image and Information Sources

As described in Chapter 2.2, according to Murphy-Lejeune, some students already hold an image of the target country before beginning their studies abroad. Hence, at this point, theoretical considerations concerning the construction of a country image are detailed. Cubillo et al. (2006) and Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002) look upon students as consumers of higher education. Regarding customer's behavior in general, the underlying assumption is that the image of the country of production has an important effect on the decision in favor of, or against, the purchase of a product or service: "The 'made in' image is the picture, the reputation, the stereotype that [...] consumers attach to products of a specific country" (Nagashima, 1970, p. 68). Before buying, the customer examines certain elements of the commodity—e.g., the brand or the country of origin (Cubillo et al., 2006, p. 103). This is especially true for unfamiliar services and products (Srikatanyoo & Gnoth, 2002, pp. 139-140).¹⁹ The differences in prices

¹⁹ For more information, refer to the following authors named by Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002, p. 140): Huber and McCann (1982) and Olson and Jacoby (1972).

notwithstanding, customers usually tend to opt for industrialized countries, instead of developing countries, as the provider of services (Cubillo et al., 2006, p. 109).

The opinion of people about products from a specific country can be derived, for instance, from one's own or friends' experiences, advertisement, etc. (Srikatanyoo & Gnoth, 2002, p. 140)²⁰. As those information sources are crucial for the creation of the country image, it is essential to uncover them (Chew & Croy, 2011, p. 257). Nevertheless, it has to be considered that a country image is not fixed and can change, for example, through prestigious intermediaries or marketing strategies (Srikatanyoo & Gnoth, 2002, p. 141)²¹.

Concerning international higher education, it has been found out that the country image can have a crucial effect on the decision about the target country. This is owing to the difficulty of assessing certain elements of staying abroad in advance—e.g., the quality of higher education (Srikatanyoo & Gnoth, 2002, pp. 142-144). With reference to Australia, Glover (2011, pp. 189-190) found that the image of Australia as an attractive tourist destination was important for those international students who had participated in the author's survey to opt for that particular study destination. Bourke (2000, p. 125) emphasizes that foreign students, in most cases, first decide about the target country and then about the particular educational institution. For information on the country image of Colombia and Brazil from prior studies, refer to Chapter 1.3.

Different campaigns have been launched to promote Colombia (e.g., Colombia is Passion)²² and Brazil (e.g., Brazil Sensational!)²³ as attractive countries over the last few years. Moreover, the campaign Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge (CCYK) portrays Colombia as an attractive destination for international higher education. In chapter 4.3 on the internationalization of higher education in Colombia, an overview of the campaign CCYK is provided.

2.5 Summary

Forms of geographic mobility have modified within the last few decades. Economic and political rationales, along with new kinds of motivations, have been crucial drivers of international migration. Against this background, youth mobility was selected as the theoretical approach of this project to analyze motivations for the decision to study

 ²⁰ For more information, refer to the following authors named by Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002, p. 140): Curtis (1967), Han (1989), and Nebenzahl et al. (1997).
 ²¹ For more information, refer to the following authors named by Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002, p. 141):

²¹ For more information, refer to the following authors named by Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002, p. 141): Curtis (1967), Nagashima (1970), Nebenzahl et al. (1997), and Teas and Agarwal (2000).

²² For more information, refer to Echeverri et al. (2010) and Guilland (2012, pp. 2-4).

²³ For more information, refer to Aires Barroso and Nicolau Mota (2010).

abroad (e.g., King, 2002). The main point here is that the stay abroad at a foreign university can be motivated by reasons beyond academia, such as traveling and knowing foreign cultures. King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003) connected this approach with the theory of individualization developed by Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (e.g., 1993). Nowadays, individuals can no longer only rely on traditional structures but are also responsible for the design of their own lives, including their educational careers. In this context, King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003) assume that the participation in international higher education is an individual contribution to the formation of the student's biography and favors career perspectives. As higher education has become available for broader parts of society over the years, competition in the labor market has grown. In this regard, characteristics that distinguish a student from fellow students—for instance, attendance at a foreign university—have become more important. To sum it up, motivations related to education and career, as well as reasons beyond them, have to be considered in the analysis of international student mobility.

In the context of international student mobility in Europe, the works of two authors comprise a systematization of important motivations for participating in international higher education. Murphy-Lejeune (2002), who carried out a pioneering research, introduced a concept of studying abroad, containing latent, active, and resulting components.²⁴ The latent components refer to dreams and desires—including the image of a particular country—and personal characteristics of the student, such as openness and extraversion. Active components were equaled with the five motivations from the theoretical model of Krzaklewska (2008), which comprises the experimental dimension (cultural and personal motivation), the career dimension (career and academic motivation), and the linguistic dimension. In most cases, students do not only have one main reason for going abroad and the reasons for their choice can be both experimental and career-related at the same time. Krzaklewska recommends taking particular group characteristics, such as the region of origin, into consideration when using her model for analysis.

Besides internal motivations from the five categories of Krzaklewska, external factors can also influence the choice of a study destination in international higher education. Some studies from the literature review showed that social networks have serious impact on the study destination choice and hence they were also included in my project. Theoretically, social networks of foreign students are framed in the context of international migration networks (e.g., Faist, 2000; Jansen, 2006). Social capital is regarded as a resource that has positive effects for migrants—for example, access to

²⁴ No information on the resulting components is given because they are not considered in this study (see Chapter 2.2).

information on jobs and easier familiarization with the host country. Resources are embedded in ties, and these again are part of social spaces. In the context of this study, two types of transnational spaces were introduced: Diffusion and small kinship groups.

Regarding the country image, an element of latent components from the concept of Murphy-Lejeune, references were made to the theoretical assumptions of Cubillo et al. (2006) and Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002), who consider students as consumers of higher education. The country image can have an important effect on the decision for or against the purchase of a product, or in the case of foreign students on the choice of an international study destination. The construction of the country image is based on different information sources such as friends or one's own experiences. Colombia and Brazil established campaigns for a positive promotion of the country image. In case of Colombia, there is even the campaign CCYK, which is directed specifically at attracting international students.

3. Overview of Research Design

The third chapter provides an overview of the research design of this dissertation. At the beginning, general information, such as the determination of the types of international students included in this research, is provided. Moreover, it is explained why the project consists of three empirical phases and why particular methods have been adopted in these phases. Subsequently, more specific information on each of these three phases is provided. However, this chapter solely serves as an introduction to methodological issues. Further details regarding the development of interview guideline and questionnaire, data collection, etc. are depicted in the chapters where empirical results of the three phases are presented (see Chapters 5.1, 6.1, and 8.2.1).

3.1 General Procedure

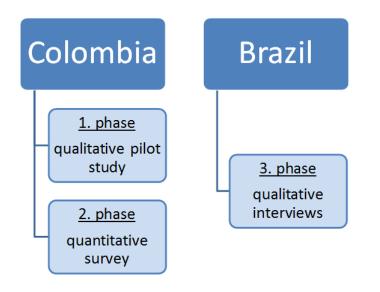
Before providing information on the empirical data used for analyzing the mobility of foreign students in Colombia and Brazil, the kinds of international students that have been considered in my dissertation are depicted. In general, it mainly is distinguished between the type of studies abroad (degree-seeking/non-degree-seeking), the level of studies (undergraduate/postgraduate), and the type of activities (studies/internship/ teaching) (King et al., 2010, p. 7). During the collection of data for this project, only students whose motivations probably do not diverge too much from each other were included in order to be able to develop a model that comprises all respondents. Hence, regarding the type of activities, only students enrolled in a field of study at a Colombian or Brazilian institution of higher education were considered. Students who exclusively pursue another type of activity similar to the above-mentioned ones and who have not matriculated in a subject at a Colombian or Brazilian university were excluded, because such activities are not directly related to "studying." Likewise, students exclusively registered in Spanish or Portuguese language classes were ignored. Concerning the level of studies, both undergraduate and postgraduate students, with the exception of doctoral students, were considered. According to Bilecen (2014, p. 2), "[B]eing a doctoral student represents a transitional stage in one's life. As students, they orient themselves toward studying and writing their dissertation in the pursuit of a degree, but at the same time it is their first foray into the role of a professional researcher in a given academic field." Against this background, it is assumed that doctoral students have different motivations for their decision to come to Colombia or Brazil. The reason, therefore, is that their role as professional scientists distinguishes them clearly from bachelor's and master's students; their main occupation is to conduct research on a specific topic and not "studying." Regarding the type of studies in Colombia or Brazil,

both degree-seeking students and non-degree-seeking students were included. As the number of international students studying in Colombia is not very high, it was decided not to narrow down the criteria for including respondents too much in order to prevent the problem of not getting enough participants.

As there is no data on the motivations of foreign students for choosing Colombia as the target country for studies abroad, it was necessary to collect new data. It was decided not only to include students from a particular sending country but from as many countries of origin as possible. Hence, the project had to be realized in the receiving country Colombia because it would not have been feasible to get in contact with international students who were going to study in Colombia while they still were staying in their home countries. As motivations can change in the course of time (see Chapter 2.2), it would have been interesting to compare the motivations of the students interviewed before studying in Colombia. This procedure would have probably been possible if this study was limited to one sending country. However, as this study aims to include students from various countries of origin, such a comparison was not realizable. Moreover, the limited number of international students in Colombia (see Chapter 4.3) would not have allowed a reduction to one single sending country, as this would have resulted in an insufficient number of respondents.

To answer the specific research questions that have been presented in Chapter 6.4, a quantitative design of the project is required. For instance, it was tested if the weight of motivations for the choice of Colombia as the host country differs according to sociodemographic characteristics. In this context, it was analyzed, among other things, if female and male students put the same importance on personal development when choosing Colombia as their study abroad destination. Another example refers to the question as to why Colombia was the first favorite study destination for a number of foreign students. In this context, the impact of several motivations and other factors, such as socio-demographic characteristics on the choice of Colombia, as the first option was examined.

As publications on the motivations for studying in Latin America have hardly been found, the collection of data started with a qualitative pilot study. Afterward, based on the findings from the pilot study and previous studies from other authors, a standardized questionnaire was developed. A qualitative design is appropriate for Brazil, as the aim is to uncover if there are further motivations for studying in Brazil than the motivations revealed in the Colombian case study. Qualitative empirical phases were used in my doctoral project to carry out exploratory research. Regarding the quantitative study in Colombia, this paper uses the results from the qualitative pilot study and prior studies to develop hypotheses that were analyzed later with the survey data. As outlined in this paragraph, the doctoral project consists of three empirical phases that have been depicted in Graph 2.



Graph 2: Three empirical phases of the doctoral project

Source: Author's own graph.

3.2 Qualitative Pilot Study on Colombia

Concerning publications on the choice of a particular study destination, many of the studies in the literature review, which focused on destinations outside Europe and English-speaking countries, were not based on qualitative data (see Chapter 1.6). Furthermore, hardly any studies on target countries in Latin America were identified. Owing to lack of information about the motivations for studying in these destinations obtained through qualitative research, it was difficult to prepare an adequate standardized questionnaire for international students in Colombia. This is even more the case since it was expected that motivations for studying in developing countries are not equal to those for studying in developed countries, as outlined in Chapter 1.1. With the pilot study, it was intended to find out which of the reasons that were important in prior studies on other countries also are important for the choice of Colombia as international study destination. Moreover, other determining motivations that were not mentioned in previous studies but that should be included in the standardized questionnaire could be uncovered. With the help of the qualitative pilot study, questions were tested and response categories were developed. Hence, the main purpose of the pilot study is to aid the construction of a suitable standardized questionnaire, where decisive motivations would not be disregarded. In addition, experiences from the pilot study, for example, concerning the way of getting in contact with potential participants, were used for the realization of the standardized survey.

It was decided to conduct interviews until saturation is reached, and no new information is obtained (Glaser & Strauss, 1971, p. 61). Thus, collection of data was finished after the realization of 16 face-to-face and one written interview with foreign students in Colombia (see Chapter 5.1). As in several prior studies some motivations varied according to different socio-demographic characteristics (see Chapter 1.2.5), it was ensured that interviewees differed in terms of their gender, regional, and educational backgrounds, and also in terms of their types of study in Colombia (degree-seeking vs. non-degree-seeking). In order to avoid problems during the pilot study, pretest interviews conducted in Germany before the pilot study were an essential part of the first empirical phase.

3.3 Quantitative Survey on Colombia

Results from the qualitative pilot study were the main basis for the construction of the standardized online questionnaire. Additionally, findings from a number of previous studies, illustrated in Chapters 1 and 2, were used for its development, too. With the data from the quantitative survey, research questions presented in Chapter 6.4 were investigated, which refer, for example, to the relationship between the importance of motivations and socio-demographic characteristics.

In 2010, nearly 1,500 foreign students were registered in Colombian institutions of higher education (see Chapter 4.3). As many international students enrolled in Colombian universities as possible should be included in the second empirical phase of the project. Thus, various institutions of higher education in Colombia were contacted with the help of the German Academic Exchange Service in Bogotá. Moreover, potential respondents were approached via Facebook (see Chapter 6.1). This procedure resulted in the collection of the data of 127 participants, which served as the basis for analysis (see Chapter 6.2). Likewise, as in the pilot study, a pretest before the survey was part of this empirical phase to prevent complications during the realization of the online survey.

3.4 Qualitative Interviews on Brazil

In order to widen the scope of my doctoral project, Brazil was included as an additional Latin American case study. The main reason for the incorporation of Brazil is to uncover if the motivations for an educational stay in Colombia are different to those for

choosing Brazil as an international study destination. Thus, it especially focused on discovering reasons apart from those found in Colombia. Against this background, a qualitative design is suitable, which comprised face-to-face interviews with open questions and not a standardized survey with predetermined answer categories.

As in the case of Colombia, it was the most workable way to realize interviews on-site in Brazil to include students from different countries of origin (see Chapter 3.1). Thus, face-to-face interviews were carried out in Brazil with international students from different backgrounds, just as in the pilot study in Colombia (see Chapter 3.2). Similarly, the number of interviews was oriented at the saturation principle, resulting in seven interviews (see Chapter 8.2.1).

3.5 Summary

The target group of this dissertation project is international students who are registered in a field of study at an institution of higher education in Colombia and Brazil. Both degree-seeking and non-degree-seeking students were considered, irrespective of whether they are pursuing undergraduate or postgraduate studies (but excluding doctoral studies). In order to answer the specific research questions for Colombia, the project demands a quantitative design. However, the collection of data began with a qualitative pilot study in Colombia to allow the development of an adequately standardized questionnaire. With regard to Brazil, qualitative interviews were conducted to reveal if motivations for choosing this study destination are different to those for studying in Colombia. Hence, the project encompasses three empirical phases altogether: two qualitative phases realized in Colombia and Brazil, and one quantitative phase carried out with an online survey for foreign students in Colombia.

PART II: COLOMBIA

4. Background Information on Colombia

The present chapter provides background information on higher education in Colombia and its international dimension; it is divided into four parts. In the first section the Colombian higher education system is portrayed. It begins with a short overview of the development of Colombian universities from the 16th century until today. Afterward, information on different kinds of institutions of tertiary education, enrollment, quality assurance, and Colombia's position in global and regional university rankings is given. In the second part internationalization of higher education is described in general followed by an examination of the Latin American case. Besides the definition of and rationales for internationalization in general and on a regional scale, relevant data on incoming students flows in global regions is presented, followed by an outline of intraregional mobility in Latin America. The third section depicts the internationalization of Colombian higher education. After a historical overview of international initiatives in Colombian higher education, the rationales of the government as well as of universities that drive internationalization are presented. In this context, the campaign "Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge," which advertises Colombia as an advantageous academic destination, is introduced. Additionally, information on inbound student mobility in Colombia and partnerships with foreign universities is given. Finally, the fourth part provides a complete summary.

4.1 Colombian System of Higher Education

Jaramillo (2003, p. 3) presents an overview of the historical development of the Colombian system of higher education, which has been summed here. The first institutions of higher education in Colombia were established at the end of the 16th century. The first Colombian university, Santo Tomás de Santafé de Bogotá, was founded in 1580. Colombian universities were initially strongly influenced by Spanish models. In the 19th century, these universities were reformed on the basis of the French tradition.²⁵ Up to that time, access to higher education was very limited and Latin was the language of instruction in most cases.

At the end of the 20th century, important changes concerning the Colombian system of higher education took place. A new national constitution was formulated in 1991, where education was regarded essential for everybody, and should be provided by the public

²⁵ For information on the Spanish and French model of higher education, refer to Anderson (2004).

and private institutions (Jaramillo, 2003, p. 14). In this context, Law 30 was enacted in 1992 in order to regulate the Colombian public higher education sector, emphasizing the role of the universities as a place for production of knowledge (Pacheco, 2001, p. 3 as cited in Jaramillo, 2003, p. 14). Consequently, the number of institutions of higher education increased remarkably. Although these institutions are situated in different Colombian regions, they are mainly located in a few major cities as well as in the Colombian capital Bogotá (Jaramillo, 2003, pp. 3-4).

From 2007 to 2011, a growth of GDP expenditure for all levels of education took place in Colombia (OECD et al., 2012, p. 43). With reference to higher education, public spending increased from 0.86% of GDP in 2007 to 0.98% in 2011 (MEN, 2011b as cited in OECD et al., 2012, p. 44). Comparing these numbers with public expenses for tertiary education in Latin America, Colombia provided more than the regional average (OECD et al., 2012, p. 43). Moreover, Colombian expenditures nearly match the OECD average of 1.0% in 2008 (OECD et al., 2012, p. 263).

Nowadays, there are four different kinds of institutions of tertiary education, namely universities, university institutions, technological institutions, and professional technical institutions.²⁶ In universities or university institutions students can obtain a degree in undergraduate and postgraduate studies. The focus of technological and professional technical institutions is on the preparation for specific technical jobs (OECD et al., 2012, p. 32). In 2011, there were 288 Colombian institutions of tertiary education, and 195 of them were universities or university institutions (30% public and 70% private) and 93 were technological institutions or professional technical institutions (23% public and 77% private) (MEN, 2011a as cited in OECD et al., 2012, p. 33). Barring the professional technical institutions, successful graduation from high school is obligatory for admission to institutions of tertiary education in Colombia. Nevertheless, it is up to these institutions to decide about additional preconditions. In this context, references are often made to the outcomes of the SABER 11 test²⁷ (OECD et al., 2012, p. 32).

Concerning enrollment, a notable increase of the number of undergraduate and postgraduate students at Colombian institutions of tertiary education has been observed in the last few years. In 2010, the total undergraduate enrollment rate²⁸ was

²⁶ After this paragraph, it is not distinguished between the four types of tertiary education institutions as most sources do not allow such a differentiation. Hence, when the term university is mentioned, it does not specifically refer to this type of institution but to institutions of higher education in general.

²⁷ The SABER 11 test addresses high school students in the 11th grade, who intend to study at a Colombian institution of higher education. In this test, knowledge in different subjects such as mathematics, physics, social sciences, Spanish, and foreign languages is examined. The planning and realization of the SABER 11 test is organized by the Colombian Institute for Educational Evaluation (OECD et al., 2012, p. 40).

²⁸ The percentage of the population aged between 17 and 21 years was considered (MEN, 2011a as cited in OECD et al., 2012, p. 35).

37.1% (937,889 students), in comparison with 24.4% (1,587,928 students) in 2002. Enrollment on the master's level rose by more than 250% from 6,776 students in 2002 to 23,808 students in 2010 (MEN, 2011a as cited in OECD et al., 2012, p. 35). With the exception of "National Training Service" (OECD et al., 2012, p. 33) (SENA, original in Spanish: Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje) centers²⁹, students registered at all Colombian institutions of tertiary education have to pay tuition fees (OECD et al., 2012, p. 43). As these fees are important for private institutions, the span of tuition fees across Colombian universities is remarkable. For example, students paid for one semester in law between USD 106 (Universidad del Atlántico, public) and USD 5,500 (University of Los Andes, private) in 2011 (OECD et al., 2012, pp. 43-44).

Owing to a notable increase in the number of providers in Colombian higher education, some methods for analyzing the quality of educational programs were implemented (OECD et al., 2012, pp. 40-42). First, all institutions need to be included in the "Register of Qualified Programmes" (OECD et al., 2012, p. 42). In order to be able to register in this list, certain preconditions concerning quality must be fulfilled. Any provision of educational programs without this registration is not possible. Second, the institutions can take part in a voluntary accreditation process.³⁰ Third, results of the SABER PRO test are used to evaluate the quality of Colombian higher education. After finishing their bachelor's degree, students are obliged to participate in the SABER PRO test according to their field of study (OECD et al., 2012, pp. 40-42). Relating to the qualification of Colombian teachers in tertiary education, an increase in higher-level academic titles has been observed over the last few years. As many as 17% held a master's degree and 3% a doctor's degree in 2002, while these numbers rose to 19% and 4% in 2009 (OECD et al., 2012, p. 45).

According to Liu and Cheng (2011, pp. 145-152), the meaning and scope of university rankings has expanded in recent times. There are now around one dozen rankings on a global scale. High global rankings help universities to advance their reputation, thereby attracting investors and excellent students as well as researchers. However, there are a number of criticisms on global university rankings, for example, regarding their focus on specific aspects relating to the achievements of a university such as publications.

²⁹ Large numbers of training programs, free of charge, are offered by SENA. However, with a few exceptions, these programs do not belong to the tertiary sector. For more information on SENA, refer to OECD et al. (2012, p. 33).
³⁰ After Law 30 came into force in 1992, a voluntary accreditation system was established. Accreditation is

³⁰ After Law 30 came into force in 1992, a voluntary accreditation system was established. Accreditation is conducted on the basis of different elements of evaluation (Téllez Mendivelso & Langebaek Rueda, 2014, pp. 83-88). Recently, a specific international dimension was included, namely "national and international visibility" (Téllez Mendivelso & Langebaek Rueda, 2014, p. 84; own translation, original in Spanish: visibilidad nacional e internacional). In total, 767 programs and 33 institutions of higher education were accredited in 2013 (Téllez Mendivelso & Langebaek Rueda, 2014, p. 84).

Even though rankings are a controversial issue, they give insights into the international position of universities. Only a handful of Latin American institutions of higher education appear in leading positions on a worldwide scale (Maldonado-Maldonado, 2012, p. 21). In the Times Higher Education Rankings 2014–2015, only four Latin American universities are among the top 400, with the Universidad de los Andes as the sole Colombian university occupying a ranking of 251–275 (Times Higher Education, n.d.). As many as 10 Latin American higher education institutions appear in the top 400 of the QS World University Rankings 2014–2015. Among them, there are three Colombian universities, the Universidad de los Andes on place 262, the Universidad Nacional de Colombia on place 316, and the Pontifica Universidad Javeriana on place 347 (Top Universities, n.d. b). The last organization also offers a regional ranking of the top Latin American universities in 2014. Among the best 100, there are 11 Colombian institutions of higher education (Top Universities, n.d. a). Hence, Colombian universities score well in the Latin American context.

4.2 Internationalization of Higher Education in Latin America

In the 1980s the word internationalization became a commonly used term in the context of higher education. Since then, activities carried out within this framework have gotten more diverse and gone beyond the initial concentration on academic mobility and international studies. Hence, internationalization has become significant and complex in the last few years (Knight, 2012, p. 27).³¹ Some scholars fear that the term internationalization turns into a "catch-all concept for anything that is related to the international dimension of higher education" (Knight, 2012, p. 28). Therefore, it can be stated that there is not a universal definition of this term. Against this background, Knight (2012, p. 29) developed the following working definition that intends to be neutral in order to be suitable for many countries: "Internationalization at the national/sector/institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (Knight, 2003, p. 2 as cited in Knight, 2004, p. 11). In order to make sure that the broad range of the application of the definition does not get endangered, the focus is on the macro and meso level but not on the micro level (Knight, 2012, p. 30).

The broad term internationalization comprises regionalization of higher education. In different world regions there are initiatives for regionalization, which are important for

³¹ For more information on these changes, refer to Knight (2012, pp. 27-29).

the sector of higher education (Knight, 2012, pp. 30-31)³². Although Knight emphasizes that a definition of regionalization is still missing, she paraphrases it as "a process of promoting, recognizing, and formalizing opportunities for regional collaboration among national governments, nongovernmental education bodies, and individual higher education institutions" (Knight, 2012, p. 30).

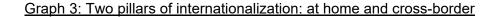
As manifold as the comprehension of the term internationalization of higher education, the rationales for internationalization are also diverse. Similar to the activities conducted connection with internationalization. the reasons behind in internationalization have changed over time (Knight, 2004, pp. 21-23). According to Knight (2012, p. 32), clearly-defined rationales for policy statements as well as concrete plans to evaluate the impacts of the activities carried out in the framework of internationalization are essential. Knight (2004, p. 23) presents an overview of more recent rationales for internationalization:

- National level: human resources development, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation building, social/cultural development
- Institutional level: international branding and profile, income generation, student and staff development, strategic alliances, knowledge production³³

As the differentiation between the institutional and the national level is of growing significance, the rationales are organized according to these two levels (Knight, 2004, pp. 22-23). However, it has to be taken into account that this scheme is not identically applicable to all countries and all universities around the world—because rationales for internationalization can vary (Knight, 2004, p. 28). Later in this chapter, the Colombian government's and Colombian universities' rationales for internationalization of higher education are examined on the basis of Knight's concept.

A second important distinction concerning the internationalization of higher education refers to "internationalization at home' and 'cross-border education" (Knight, 2012, p. 34); the latter is also known as "abroad" (Knight, 2012, p. 34). Graph 3 shows that the two pillars are both individual and interconnected at the same time. Mobility of people is considered as a very crucial aspect of internationalization (Rumbley et al., 2012, p. 6). Although the focus in this project lies on the mobility of international students toward Colombia, strategies devised by the Colombian Ministry of National Education and Colombian universities regarding different activities at home and abroad are presented later to get a broader overview.

 ³² More information about regional cooperation in Latin America is given at the end of this sub-chapter.
 ³³ For more detailed information about these rationales, refer to Knight (2004, pp. 22-28).





Source: Knight (2012, p. 34).

Compared to Europe and parts of Asia, Latin America is still at the beginning of internationalization of higher education (Salmi, 2014, p. 17). In general, governments in the region do not consider internationalization as an aspect of utmost importance (Gacel-Ávila, 2012, p. 499; Holm-Nielsen et al., 2005, p. 65). This is obvious from the palpable lack of governmental support, for instance, regarding scarce public funding for internationalization (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010, pp. 104-105; Gacel-Ávila, 2012, pp. 499-500). The general weaknesses of higher education systems in Latin America, including an outdated educational model and shortage of faculty members with postgraduate degrees, also impede internationalization (Gacel-Ávila, 2012, pp. 495-498). According to Maldonado-Maldonado (2012, pp. 20-21), Latin American governments focus on three aspects of internationalization, namely academic mobility, networking, and education across borders. However, these governments mainly attach importance to outgoing student mobility, while suitable strategies to increase incoming student mobility are absent (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010, pp. 89-91; Gacel-Ávila, 2012, p. 503; Holm-Nielsen et al., 2005, p. 65). Moreover, not much attention is paid on strategies related to "comprehensive internationalisation" (Gacel-Ávila, 2012, p. 503)for example, incorporation of international elements in the curriculum. Finally, international offices are positioned at the lower end of the hierarchy of higher education

44

institutions and therefore they are not adequately included in the implementation of internationalization strategies (Gacel-Ávila et al., 2005, p. 352).

Although conditions for internationalization have not been very positive, there has been a marked advancement of internationalization of higher education in the region, which is visible, for instance, through involvement in international networks and increasing academic mobility. However, owing to the focus on individuals and not on the system as a whole, the activities that are carried out in the framework of internationalization do not have a long-lasting effect (Gacel-Ávila, 2012, pp. 506-507). Based on the information on internationalization provided in the present and the preceding paragraph, Gacel-Ávila concludes that the "low level of commitment among national as institutional leaders, [is] further evidence that internationalisation priority is more discourse than reality" (Gacel-Ávila, 2012, p. 502). Consequently, internationalization should be given fundamental importance within higher education policies (Gacel-Ávila, 2012, pp. 507-508).

Traditionally, great numbers of students that go abroad for their studies come from developing countries. Nevertheless, the number of foreign students that decide to study at a university in a developing country is not very high. Thus, in the context of international student flows, developing countries are principally regarded as sending countries and not as receiving countries. However, the landscape of international higher education is changing. Several developing countries (e.g., in Asia) have implemented strategies to increase the number of incoming international students (Altbach & Knight, 2011, p. 113). Some developing countries also serve as localities for transnational providers of higher education, for example, through branch campuses (Deardorff et al., 2012, p. 457). Hence, the significance of developing countries has grown and they have begun to emerge as "competitors, equal partners, and key actors" (Deardorff et al., 2012, p. 458).

Table 1 presents the information from UNESCO on incoming student mobility for the world's host regions.³⁴ Except for Central Asia, the total number of inbound students in all regions tends to increase from 2006 to 2010. The same applies to Latin America/the Caribbean as host region, where the number of inbound students rose from around 24,000 in 2006 to about 68,000 in 2010. However, the number reached top in Latin America with about 80,000 students in 2009. Even though the number in 2010 was less than that, the general trend in Latin America is moving upward as the number of incoming students from 2006 to 2010 had nearly tripled.

³⁴ For information on measuring the mobility of international students, refer to chapter 1.1.

Region	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Arab States	72,956	80,026	132,752	187,008	219,389
Central and Eastern Europe	204,276	199,955	228,753	308,877	321,270
Central Asia	49,026	52,307	51,375	47,168	43,782
East Asia and the Pacific	505,751	514,290	559,236	679,055	752,253
Latin America and the Caribbean	24,052	53,113	57,709	80,271	68,306
North America and Western Europe	1,722,753	1,816,945	1,841,933	1,973,680	2,060,749
South and West Asia	10,978	10,739	14,665	15,358	17,629
Sub-Saharan Africa	62,276	73,095	79,417	77,825	89,462
Total	2,652,068	2,800,470	2,965,840	3,369,242	3,572,840

Table 1: Inbound mobile students by host region

Note: Table compiled on the basis of the tables from the Global Education Digest provided by UNESCO. Sources: UNESCO (2008, p. 118); UNESCO (2009, p. 140); UNESCO (2010, p. 181); UNESCO (2011, p. 205); UNESCO (2012, p. 137).

Regionalization of the mobility of international students is generally increasing. For example, more and more students from Middle Eastern countries are studying in Qatar and the United Arab Emirates. The same applies to Asian students going to Singapore (Green et al., 2012, p. 446). However, it is not very common for Latin American students to study at a foreign university compared to students from other regions. Nevertheless, the number of Latin American students opting for studying at foreign universities is on the rise (Jaramillo & de Wit, 2011, p. 129). Although the total number is still quite low, the same trend applies to intraregional student mobility within Latin America. For example, Costa Rica, El Salvador, and Honduras are becoming attractive study destinations for Central American students. Student mobility within South America to a large extent takes places between countries that belong to Mercosur territory, which is located in the southern corner of the region (Jaramillo & de Wit, 2011, pp. 134-136). Moreover, Colombian universities enjoy a good reputation in the region, which has made Colombia a destination for students from neighboring countries like Venezuela and Ecuador, as the quality of higher education in such countries is mostly lower (RCI, 2006, p. 68).

According to Jaramillo and de Wit (2011, p. 136), the recent growth in mobility within Latin America can be attributed to the creation of different forms of regional cooperation, such as the participation in regional university associations. In this context, the Latin American and Caribbean Meeting Space for Higher Education (ENLACES) has to be mentioned; this initiative has been created as a space for

regional academic cooperation in Latin America and the Caribbean. The objectives of ENLACES are, amongst others, simplification of academic mobility, facilitation of the acceptance of academic titles, and formation of a regional credit system (Knight, 2012, pp. 30-31). On the one hand, Spanish as the common national language in most Latin American countries facilitates intraregional student mobility (de Wit, 2014, p. 142). On the other hand, there are various kinds of obstacles that should be overcome, such as divergences concerning admission to higher education, recognition of academic titles, and migratory policies relating to student visas (Jaramillo & de Wit, 2011, p. 138).

As illustrated before, the number of Latin American students studying at a foreign university is not high. However, the number of international students studying in Latin America is even lower (Jaramillo & de Wit, 2011, p. 129). The only exception is Cuba, the top host country for international students in the region (Maldonado-Maldonado, 2012, p. 21). Foreign students who study in Cuba do not only come from the Caribbean and Latin America but also from Africa and, though in smaller numbers, from Asia and the Middle East. The Cuban government provides a high amount of scholarships for international students, particularly for students from developing countries (Hickling-Hudson & Arnove, 2014, pp. 210, 217-219). The reason for this attitude is the "desire to build solidarity in the global South" (Hickling-Hudson & Arnove, 2014, p. 219).³⁵ Of late, a number of Latin American countries (e.g., Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and Argentina) have started to regard themselves as both sending and receiving countries for international student mobility (Jaramillo & de Wit, 2011, p. 139). Nevertheless, "there is still a long way to go before Latin America becomes an attractive and recognized higher education destination for its own students and students from other parts of the world" (Jaramillo & de Wit, 2011, pp. 139-140).

4.3 Internationalization of Higher Education in Colombia

Jaramillo (2003, pp. 5-6) provides an overview of the historical development of the internationalization of Colombian higher education, which is summarized in the present paragraph. Since the 1950s, some Colombian institutions of higher education began to cooperate with foreign universities, mainly concentrating on academic mobility. However, these initiatives were quite isolated and did not pertain to the higher education sector as a whole. In connection with development assistance, Colombian students could apply for scholarships for studies abroad, which were provided, for instance, through the Fulbright Commission. Additionally, postgraduate students could

³⁵ For detailed information on the case of Cuba as a receiving country for international students, refer to Hickling-Hudson and Arnove (2014).

approach the Colombian Institute of Educational Credit and Technical Studies Abroad (ICETEX), the only Colombian governmental institution involved in the management of financial assistance for academic mobility. However, both types of financial support aimed at outgoing, not incoming, student mobility. In the last quarter of the 20thcentury a major shift has taken place in this regard. Some Colombian universities included an international dimension in their strategies. Nevertheless, the number of educational institutions concerned with internationalization still remained considerably low. The rationales for internationalization, besides the adaption to crucial global development, were the possibilities of academic mobility for Colombian students and scientists within the framework of university agreements, knowledge transfer, and international reputation.

As detailed in Chapter 4.1, Law 30 from 1992 addresses the public higher education sector. Here, for the first time, the internationalization of Colombian universities was considered as one of the priorities in the country's higher education sector. Subsequent to the enactment of this law, tasks concerning internationalization were assigned to different official bodies dealing with higher education. Furthermore, additional entities were established—for instance, the "National Accreditation System" (Jaramillo, 2003, p. 15; own translation, original in Spanish: Sistema Nacional de Acreditación), an optional accreditation process. In summary, internationalization was not considered a crucial issue for a long time. However, this topic has now become one of increasing concern for the Colombian government (OECD et al., 2012, p. 206).

In 2013, a survey with 190 institutions of higher education in Colombia was carried out, covering various aspects of internationalization (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 78). According to the study, enhancing academic quality is the top rationale for internationalization. In addition, supporting the attainment of intercultural competences turned out to be very crucial for the universities. However, income generation and global competition were considered less relevant. The increase in academic mobility and in the number of university agreements, and the inclusion of international elements in the curriculum, are the most important measures taken to reach the above-mentioned goals. At the same time, the internationalization of administrative management and the mobility of non-academic staff were regarded as less decisive (MEN & CCYK, 2013, pp. 80-81).

After the presentation of rationales and strategies at the institutional level, those of the national level are illustrated. Colombia intends to belong to the three top competitive Latin American countries until 2032. As the achievement of this objective also depends on educational outcomes, the Ministry of National Education designed policies for the timeframe of 2010–2014 to improve the quality of education (Campo Saavedra, 2014,

p. 9). In this context, the "Project for the Promotion of Internationalization of Higher Education" (Campo Saavedra, 2014, p. 9; own translation, original in Spanish: Proyecto de Fomento a la Internacionalización de la Educación Superior) was adopted, which pursues the three following aims: improvement of possibilities for internationalization, capacity building in Colombian universities for managing internationalization, and advertising Colombia as international academic destination. To this end, since 2008, the Colombian Ministry of National Education has launched a number of initiatives to push internationalization (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 50). In this context, the ministry started the "Partnership Program" (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 51; own translation, original in Spanish: Programa de Acompañamiento) to support Colombian universities in becoming internationalized. As many as 42 Colombian institutions of higher education participated in this program in 2012; they obtained advice in the design and management of strategies to include international dimensions in their institutions. Several accredited universities work together with the ministry in this counseling process by sharing their knowledge with those universities that have less experience with internationalization. In this connection, the ministry furthers, for example, the following activities: including international dimensions in the curriculum, participating in university networks, and increasing the mobility of international students and scientists (MEN & CCYK, 2013, pp. 51-55).

At this point, the motives for the internationalization of Colombian higher education, as presented in the preceding paragraphs, are related to the rationales provided for the national and institutional levels attached to the concept of Knight (see Chapter 4.2). First, motives on the national level are analyzed. The overarching aim of the Colombian government to belong to the three top competitive Latin American countries is planned to be reached via the improvement of the quality of higher education. In this context, internationalization of the higher education sector is stressed. This means that *human resources development*³⁶ is at the center of attention. Including international elements in the curriculum and increasing academic mobility are activities through which this becomes obvious. Second, motives on the institutional level are investigated. As enhancing academic quality and intercultural competences are of utmost importance for Colombian universities that participated in the survey of 2013, *knowledge production* and *student development* are the most crucial drivers of internationalization. These are intended to be achieved, for instance, through academic mobility and inclusion of international idimensions in the curriculum. Moreover, *strategic alliances*

³⁶ The words in italics in this paragraph refer to the keywords developed by Knight (see Chapter 4.2). For more details on the different rationales, refer to Knight (2004, pp. 22-28).

are deemed decisive as Colombian universities focus on the expansion of university agreements.

Referring to the distinction between internationalization at home and abroad, as introduced in Chapter 4.2, it can be stated that activities on which leaders at the national and institutional levels concentrate take both areas into account. As the focus of this dissertation project is on incoming student mobility, information concerning activities related to this aspect is more detailed. The campaign Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge (CCYK) was created in 2009 (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 50). It was established by the Ministry of National Education, accredited Colombian universities, and further national bodies linked to higher education in Colombia (CCYK, n.d. c, para. 1). "CCYK's main objectives are to promote and disseminate Colombian research, academic and outreach programs abroad, strengthen the internationalization of the Accredited Universities of Colombia, study current trends in internationalization, and promote quality process in all Colombian higher education institutions. CCYK promotes active collaboration between Colombian Universities, converting our country into a diverse and increasingly integrated campus for national and international students, as well as a relevant and reliable partner for international education programs" (CCYK, n.d. c, para. 1). On the homepage of the campaign, some specific characteristics of Colombia, which make the country an advantageous and interesting academic destination, are portrayed with the help of pictures and slogans. In this context, references are made to the particularities of the kind of Spanish spoken in Colombia, which is not difficult to understand due to its clarity, good quality of higher education, hospitality and creativity of Colombians, cultural richness, and high biodiversity and beautiful landscapes (CCYK, n.d. a; CCYK, n.d. b).

As illustrated in the overview of the rationales for the internationalization presented before, *international branding and profile* can be a motive for the internationalization of higher education at the institutional level (see Chapter 4.2). According to Knight (2004, p. 21), who developed the respective scheme, branding as a rationale has recently become important. "[...] institutions and providers are undertaking serious efforts to create an international reputation and name brand for their own institution or for a network/consortium to place them in a more desirable position for competitive advantage" (Knight, 2004, p. 21). It is interesting to note that branding here is solely considered as a rationale at the institutional but not at the national level. The campaign CCYK, however, was launched by a network of organizations at the institutional and national levels. Thus, in case of Colombia, leaders of both levels are aware of the importance of the creation of an attractive profile of the country as an international academic destination. It implies that, in contrast to several other Latin American

50

countries, as depicted in Chapter 4.2, the priority of internationalization in Colombia has crossed the threshold of discourse and become a reality.

The previous descriptions show that there is now a strong interest in the internationalization of the Colombian higher education sector in general as well as in the rising incoming academic mobility in particular. The weight that is attributed to the attraction of international students and researchers has also become visible through the rising participation of Colombian official bodies and universities in international higher education fairs, as well as through the offer of scholarships for foreigners provided by the Colombian government via ICETEX (OECD et al., 2012, p. 208). ICETEX awards scholarships on the basis of reciprocity to foreigners for their stay at Colombian institutions of higher education, targeting visiting professors, foreign language teachers, and postgraduate students³⁷ (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 36; OECD et al., 2012, p. 208). As many as 57 grants were awarded to international postgraduate students, 111 grants to language teachers, and 680 scholarships to visiting professors in 2012 (MEN & CCYK, 2013, p. 38).

Lack of consistent data is a problem concerning the number of incoming students to Colombia (OECD et al., 2012, p. 219). However, a study on the internationalization of the Colombian higher education sector was published in 2007, including the number of foreign students in Colombia. As many as 209 Colombian institutions of higher education were contacted in connection with this survey, and 174 of them provided information (ASCUN & RCI, 2007, p. 16). According to this study, 1,424 international students were enrolled at 73 institutions of higher education in Colombia in 2006. The Universidad de la Sabana received the highest number of foreign students (209), followed by the Universidad EAFIT (169) and the Universidad Externado de Colombia (117). International students pursued different kinds of studies, including exchange semesters, full degree studies, Spanish language classes, and internships. The first top five countries of origin were Venezuela, the USA, Germany, France, and Argentina (ASCUN & RCI, 2007, pp. 34-36). More recent data from the National System of Higher Education Information shows that there were 1,457 international students in Colombia in 2010.³⁸ The main countries of origin did not change much from what they had been four years back. The top five sending countries in 2010 were Venezuela, the USA, Peru, Germany, and Mexico (OECD et al., 2012, pp. 221-222).

 ³⁷ Only those international students who come from particular countries which collaborate actively in higher education with Colombia and which have signed exchange agreements are able to apply to these postgraduate scholarships (Cancillería, n.d., Comments, para. 1).
 ³⁸ It is referred to "foreign students enrolled in Colombian tertiary education institutions" (OECD et al.,

³⁸ It is referred to "foreign students enrolled in Colombian tertiary education institutions" (OECD et al., 2012, p. 222). However, there is no information on which kinds of studies international students pursued in Colombia.

International students not coming from countries in Latin America mainly pursue nondegree studies in Colombia (de Wit, 2014, p. 139). In this regard, it is quite revealing to look at agreements between Colombian and foreign universities. In general, there are many of these partnerships, which are mainly of a bilateral format. Most university agreements were signed with Spain and the USA, followed by Latin American and other European countries. Although Colombia traditionally focuses on partnerships with universities in the so-called northern countries, regional cooperation within Latin America has grown noticeably. However, there are hardly any partnerships with universities in Asian and African countries (Jaramillo, 2003, pp. 34-35).

Despite the fact that several Colombian higher education institutions possess university agreements with foreign institutions, exchange agreements, according to OECD et al. (2012, p. 223), imply that students from foreign universities would study at Colombian universities and vice versa. However, there are obstacles that reduce student flows toward Colombian institutions of higher education in general. As they offer hardly any courses taught in English, attraction to study in Colombia is limited to students who already have a certain command of Spanish or are at least interested in learning the language. Moreover, Colombia has a negative image as a country with a high level of violence. However, as stated by de Wit (2014, p. 139), with reference to the latter, one can be more optimistic as the security situation in Colombia has improved in recent times.

4.4 Summary

With its first institutions already established in the 16th century, Colombia has a long tradition of higher education. Law 30 was introduced in 1992 within the framework of its new national constitution. On the basis of this legislation, there has been notable growth of the number of higher education institutions. Nowadays, there are 288 institutions of tertiary education in Colombia, located mainly in the capital Bogotá and a few major cities. Different methods have been devised in order to control quality—e.g., exams for bachelor's students and a voluntary accreditation process for universities. Although very few Latin American higher education institutions appear in leading positions in global rankings, Colombian universities perform quite well in regional comparisons.

In providing a definition of internationalization and the rationales behind it, the chapter made reference to Knight (2004). The author developed a working definition that could be applicable for many countries. Regarding the rationales, Knight distinguishes between the national and institutional levels. Latin America is still in the primary stages

of internationalization of the higher education sector. Most Latin American governments do not regard internationalization as a priority and mainly concentrate on outbound student mobility, while strategies for a comprehensive approach are lacking. Nevertheless, even though there are a couple of challenges to face, the international dimension of higher education in the region has become more and more visible over time. The number of incoming mobile students in Latin America is growing; it almost tripled between 2006 and 2010, according to UNESCO. Likewise, intraregional academic mobility in Latin America is on the rise. Although traditionally identified as sending countries, some countries in the region now also consider themselves as receiving countries.

Since the 1950s, some Colombian universities have been engaged in international activities by usually focusing on outgoing academic mobility. However, such endeavors were very scarce. Internationalization of higher education has become more significant in Colombia only after Law 30 came into force in 1992. According to a survey conducted in 2013, which had representatives of 190 Colombian universities, the increase in academic quality is considered as the top motive for internationalization. Improving quality of education through internationalization is of utmost importance to the Colombian government, as it would help Colombia to become a top competitive country in the region. Leaders at the institutional and the national levels have initiated activities that can be ascribed to internationalization both at home and abroad. One of these initiatives is the campaign CCYK, which was designed by higher education institutions and different national bodies. This campaign promotes international cooperation by branding Colombia as an advantageous academic destination and attractive partner for academic collaboration. These and other activities reveal that the internationalization of the higher education sector is receiving strong interest in Colombia. In the context of these activities, a recent focus on inbound student mobility has become observable, with the main partners for university exchange being European and Latin American countries as well as the USA. However, as the total number of incoming students is quite low, Colombia still has to go a long way to become a crucial receiving country in terms of international student flows.

5. Empirical Results of the Qualitative Pilot Study

The main purpose of the pilot study is to help construct an adequate standardized questionnaire (see Chapter 3.2). This chapter presents the empirical results from the interviews of the pilot study. However, a portrait of individual students is not provided. Instead, an overview of the crucial findings is given. In this context, attention is paid particularly to findings that were not mentioned or did not turn out as important in previous studies presented in the literature review.

Information on the development of the guideline for face-to-face interviews and on the process of data collection is given at the beginning of Chapter 5. Here, the pretest interviews carried out in Germany in the forefront of the pilot study are also mentioned. When providing empirical results, the interviewees are described according to their socio-demographic characteristics and the type of studies they pursue in Colombia. Afterward, internal motivations related to education, professional career, living environment, personal development, language, and external factors (social networks, structural issues) are detailed. Subsequently, the country image that interviewees hold of Colombia, including information sources that were crucial for the creation of the image, is presented. Since not all students opted for Colombia as their first favorite target country in international higher education, alternative study destinations in which they were interested are also described. Finally, it is reflected on the realization of the pilot study, followed by a summary of the main empirical findings and suggestions for the standardized survey.

5.1 Development of Guideline and Data Collection

The pilot study was conducted with face-to-face interviews. In the construction of the interview guideline and the realization of the interviews, I made use of the problemcentered interview of Witzel (2000). Moreover, Helfferich (2009), Maindok (1996), and Reinders (2005) were also consulted for further methodological advice. The guideline was developed on the basis of the theory and findings from previous studies illustrated in Chapters 1 and 2.³⁹ Afterward, it was revised on the basis of discussions with other researchers from the Faculty of Sociology at Bielefeld University. The guideline consists of 18 questions; some of them comprising sub-questions (see Appendix A 1). However, the exact number of questions asked varies from interview to interview because of the presence of some filter questions. As the aim is to uncover why

³⁹ Some authors of prior studies provided their questionnaire. Thus, a couple of these questionnaires also were considered in developing the interview guideline—e.g., Findlay and King (2010, pp. 57-67) and Murphy-Lejeune (2002, pp. 235-239).

students decided to study in Colombia, most questions refer to the time before the interviewees began their studies in this country. The first question concerns the situation when the interviewees for the first time thought about studying in Colombia. It was hoped that this question would stimulate narrations, as it is not difficult to answer and affirms the respondent's personal story as the center of attention. Furthermore, since this question is very broad, it was presumed that the interviewees could even answer some of the other questions at the same time. It means that from the very beginning of the interview, the students were made familiar with the situation that they were those who would talk and that it was not a question-answer examination. The guideline is divided into five thematic blocks, namely the first impression of Colombia, motivations for choosing Colombia, alternative study destinations, international experience in general, and further questions. Finally, I translated the guideline from English into Spanish and German, and all the versions were proofread by native speakers.

In order to facilitate the interview, a short form containing questions about demographic aspects and information about the stay in Colombia was prepared and then handed over to the respondents directly before the interview (see Appendix A 2). An agreement about the interview, explaining voluntariness and anonymization, was prepared to be given to the students before the interview as well (see Appendix A 3). To reduce the time needed for the oral interview and to make it easier for the interviewees to provide information on potentially sensitive issues, such as education of their parents, a short standardized questionnaire was prepared, which was given to the respondents at the end of the interview. The questionnaire contained information on education, language skills, financing of stay in Colombia, and family (see Appendix A 4).

In January 2012, previous to the field trip, I carried out five pretest interviews with international students studying at Bielefeld University and a university of applied sciences nearby. On the one hand, the purpose of this pretest was to check if the questions were understandable or if some of them had to be revised. On the other hand, it was important for me to prepare myself for conducting the interviews, especially as the vast majority of the interviews were supposed to be conducted in English and Spanish, neither of which are my mother tongue. The respondents in the pretest were friends or recruited with the help of acquaintances. They were asked the same questions which had been used for the interviews with international students in Colombia, with the only difference being that the students in the pretest were asked

why they decided to study in Germany.⁴⁰ Two interviews were conducted in English, two in Spanish, and one in German.

The gualitative pilot study was carried out in Bogotá and Barranguilla in February and March 2012. For its successful realization, it was essential to receive support from the information center of the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) in Bogotá, the international offices of two universities, and the Colombian Institute of Educational Credit and Technical Studies Abroad (ICETEX), a Colombian institution that is concerned with higher education. As the number of international students at some Colombian universities is not very high, institutions of higher education for conducting the interviews were selected on the basis of the number of foreign students enrolled. It was hoped that this method would increase the chance of finding enough studentshailing from different backgrounds (e.g., in terms of their region of origin and type of studies)—who would be interested in participating in the interviews (see Chapter 3.2).

In this context, a report on the internationalization of Colombian higher education⁴¹ was considered, which provided an overview of the number of international students enrolled in particular Colombian universities in 2006 (ASCUN & RCI, 2007, pp. 35-36). Out of the 10 universities with the highest number of international students, two universities were selected—Universidad Nacional de Colombia (public university in Bogotá) and Universidad del Norte (private university in Barranquilla). It was decided to take two institutions of higher education that differ according to organizational status (public vs. private), location (capital Bogotá vs. city outside of Bogotá), and climate (Bogotá in the Andes vs. Barranquilla in the Caribbean). As only non-degree-seeking international students from these two institutions participated in my interviews, the DAAD offered me to contact ICETEX as an organization which provides scholarships for degree-seeking students. With the help of ICETEX, it was possible to find foreign students who stayed for their full degree in Colombia and took part in my interviews. These respondents were pursuing their studies in other universities in Bogotá. Moreover, the DAAD also established contact to the Colombian Ministry of National Education where I obtained relevant information on the internationalization strategies that were crucial for the background information provided in chapter 4.3.

One way for contacting potential respondents was to reach them via email, written in Spanish and English, with the invitation to participate in the interview for my dissertation project (see Appendix A 5). This email was sent through the international offices of the Universidad Nacional de Colombia and the Universidad del Norte to

⁴⁰ As the security situation in Germany is not a topic of much concern, the corresponding questions were neglected in the pretest (see Appendix A 1, Questions B 10 a and B 10 b). ⁴¹ For more information on this report, refer to Chapter 4.3.

international students enrolled at that point in time. There was not much response to this email; only four interviews were carried out as a result. Therefore, I participated in an excursion organized for foreign students from one of the universities and also in an informative meeting of the other institution of higher education to recruit more interviewees. Furthermore, I got in contact with some participants at the international offices on-site and via ICETEX, as described in the preceding paragraph, or via students who had already taken part in my interview.

During the pilot study I carried out 16 interviews. As one student was not able to participate in the face-to-face interview, I gave him the guideline and he sent his answers back to me via email. The interviews were conducted shortly before or at the very first beginning of the lecture period. Besides one interview, all the interviews were carried out in the three languages mentioned at the beginning of this chapter. As one participant is from Brazil, I translated the keywords of all questions in Portuguese before the meeting and hence it was possible to conduct the interview in the student's mother tongue. With the exception of three cases, the interviews were held in the native languages of the respondents. The three European students who have another mother tongue opted for Spanish. The average length of the interviews was about 33 minutes.

On the basis of discussions with the interviewees from the pretest in Germany as well as with my fellow students from Bielefeld University prior to my field trip, I decided to conduct the interviews, if possible, in a "natural environment" (Reinders, 2005, p. 183; own translation), which means at a place frequented by students. Adolescents that participated in the study of Reinders (2005, p. 185), in most cases, suggested a café as location for the interview. Against this background, most interviews in the pilot study took place in a café on campus. In a few cases, the interviews were carried out in a room provided by ICETEX.

As the main aim of the qualitative pilot study was to help construct an adequate standardized questionnaire afterward, only some parts of the interviews were transcribed. Most of the information was summarized while listening to the recordings. A complete transcription is not necessary, as this paper does not focus on a deep and detailed interpretation of individual cases but on uncovering a wide variety of motivations and other factors for the decision of international students to study in Colombia.

5.2 Description of Interviewees

In total, 17 foreign students participated in the pilot study. Most of the interviewees started their studies in Colombia in the semester where the interview took place. Ten respondents were female and seven were male. Their average age was 24, ranging from 21 to 30 years. They were enrolled in postgraduate and undergraduate studies (excluding doctoral studies) and various fields of study. Three students did their full master's degrees (four semesters) in Colombia, while the others were non-degreeseeking students. In most cases, the latter group stayed for one semester and in a few cases for one year. Five respondents came from Latin America (Brazil, Chile, Mexico⁴²), five from North America (Canada, Puerto Rico⁴³, USA) and seven from Europe (Austria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Russia, Spain). This geographical distribution corresponds to statistics showing that the main countries of origin of international students studying in Colombia are located in these three world regions (see Chapter 4.3).

5.3 Internal Motivations

At this point, motivations that were uncovered in the qualitative interviews are grouped into five categories of internal motivations. This categorization follows the model of Krzaklewska (see Chapter 2.2).⁴⁴ However, cultural motivation from Krzaklewska's model was expanded to living environment, including cultural issues and topics related to different leisure activities in particular and the living environment in general.

5.3.1 Education

Similar to the literature review (see Chapter 1.2.1), educational motivations played a crucial role for many of the respondents from the pilot study. Just as in the study of Cantwell et al. (2009, p. 345) on foreign students in Mexico, the reputation of the university had an important effect for some interviewees on their choice of Colombia. For example, a student from North America, when asked about the Colombian university where he was enrolled, said it is "IVY-League, you know, it's high top big league school." Moreover, there are further reasons that appeared in the pilot study,

⁴² From a geographical point of view, Mexico sometimes is regarded as a part of North America. However, from a cultural point of view, it better fits the Latin American region and therefore was categorized in this regional group.⁴³ Puerto Rico is assigned to the region North America, as Puerto Ricans are US citizens (Puerto Rico

Herald, n.d., para. 1).

⁴⁴ The names of three categories from Krzaklewska were changed slightly in this project (Krzaklewska: academic, career, personal; my doctoral project: education, professional career, personal development).

which can be grouped into the category of educational motivations. These include, for example, participating in a specific study program/courses offered on topics that are not available in home country/at home university, getting to know different academic perspectives, getting to know everyday life and internal structure of a foreign university, collecting data for the thesis, getting a degree from two universities, and doing an internship.

The importance of social networks as information source, or for recommendations, or because of friends/relatives living at the study destination, was referred to in previous research (see Chapters 1.2.4 and 1.3). A new point that was not mentioned in the literature review as a central theme is that international students intend to form social networks during their stay abroad in order to establish academic cooperation that goes beyond the timeframe of studies abroad. For example, a European interviewee mentioned that she would like to invite Colombian scholars who she would get to know during her stay in Colombia to her home university for conferences.

A finding that was mentioned neither in the theoretical framework nor in the literature review is the desire to study in a country that is still developing and/or in a country with an internal conflict. An interviewee enrolled in development studies stated that pursuing such a topic in a developing country is an advantage. This respondent remarked that studying development studies in Europe or the USA is different from studying it in Latin America. Furthermore, the student emphasized that studying in a country that has experience with violence can be interesting because violence is an important issue in this respondent's home country as well. Hence, it would be interesting to know how Colombia handles its internal conflict. Likewise, another student who was enrolled in political science courses wanted to understand how Colombia's process of development takes place in the face of an internal armed conflict. By staying in Colombia, this interviewee aimed to comprehend the country's political situation and to find out why Colombians migrate to other countries.⁴⁵

5.3.2 Professional Career

Just as in the literature review (see Chapter 1.2.1), a number of motivations related to professional career appeared in the pilot study. For example, the interviewees aimed at improving job opportunities through different types of skills that they hoped to gain during their studies in Colombia. Besides the establishment of academic cooperation as described in Chapter 5.3.1, some international students planned to use their stay in

⁴⁵ For information on the internal conflict in Colombia, refer to Kurtenbach (1997) and Stockmann (1989).

Colombia to build social networks that could be helpful for finding a job later on. For example, a respondent explained that he would like to network with ambitious people, which could help him getting in contact with important persons. Another student would like to make connections during her studies in Colombia because "it would be nice to get a job working between [name of home country] and Colombia." Hence, the interviewees planned to indulge in social networking during their stay in Colombia to have access to resources after their studies abroad.

Some students pointed out that their decision to study in Colombia gives them an advantage over students going abroad to other study destinations. A respondent from North America mentioned: "Career-wise, I think it will open up äh various doors because that all gives me more experience in Latin America than I previously had. [...] it'll give me something slightly different äh than other people who have studied in my field. Not everyone studies in Colombia." Another participant from Europe was of the opinion that an educational stay abroad in Colombia "would be more outstanding in the curriculum vitae than a stay in Spain [...] that is something different. Well, Spain [...] is very close and one was often there, one was there for holidays." These examples support the assumption that was drawn from the approach of individualization—the wish of international students to distinguish themselves from potential future job competitors through an educational stay abroad (see Chapter 2.1). Moreover, the statements cited in this paragraph clearly show that these interviewees intended to distinguish themselves on the basis of their selection of an unconventional country for international studies.

The respondent enrolled in political science courses, who was interested in understanding Colombia's political situation (see Chapter 5.3.1), was of the opinion that studying in a country with an internal conflict could improve chances in the job market. Such experience can be appreciated by future employers because it demonstrates that a person has gained confidence by living in an environment with a comparatively high level of violence. Likewise, as educational motivations related to development/conflict, the motivation to enhance job opportunities by studying in a country with an internal conflict is a finding that did not appear in any studies from the literature review.

5.3.3 Living Environment

Factors connected with living environment, which were important in previous studies such as comfortable climate (see Chapter 1.2.2), also appeared in the pilot study. Furthermore, the interviewees frequently mentioned their wish regarding getting to know the neighborhood, the city and its surroundings, as well as going out. In this context, a couple of students explained that they intend to dance or take a dancing class, particularly Salsa. Experiencing local food and music was attractive for some interviewees as well.

In the literature review, it was depicted that living in a culturally unknown environment during studies aboard can be attractive for international students (see Chapter 1.2.2). In the pilot study many respondents stressed this motivation, too. Some of them were of the opinion that studying at a foreign university does not make much difference from studying in their home country; the difference of studies abroad is based on the cultural environment and mentality because these contexts vary from one country to another. Beyond that, some students thought that it is more important to learn from the new cultural environment than to attend a lot of classes at university. In some cases, the interviewees stated that they looked forward to following everyday activities in Colombia. For example, a respondent explained that he would like to "operate as a normal person that I be become [...] a bogotano⁴⁶". Another interviewee said that she would like to "spend a lot of time with simple families just hanging out at home, watching television, cooking meals—so, nothing special." On the contrary, there are a couple of students who held the view that it is an advantage that they come from a similar culture. In this way, they would not feel too much being a stranger during their stay in Colombia. Here, cultural similarity, and not cultural difference, was a motivation.

As illustrated in the theoretical chapter, traveling can be important for the decision to study abroad as well. However, the publications from the literature review on a particular host country did not refer to traveling as a decisive reason. The only work that points to something related to traveling among the top motivations is the study of Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe (2008, p. 599), where "To enjoy Australia's sea, sun and surf" and "The tourist and cultural attractions in Australia" were the two most important reasons for choosing this study destination. All the more, it is interesting to observe that all respondents without exception mentioned that they plan to travel during their stay in Colombia. Many interviewees, even those who were in Colombia solely for one semester, had at least one month after the end of classes for traveling. Some students additionally wanted to travel occasionally on the weekends, often having one day off (e.g., Monday or Friday) that they intended to use for their excursions. The plans of the participants for their travels were more or less concrete—they usually knew which places they would like to visit but did not have a detailed itinerary.

In some cases, traveling was a very crucial motivation for the decision to study in Colombia. For example, an interviewee from North America admitted: "Principally, the

⁴⁶ Bogotano is a resident of Colombia's capital Bogotá.

experience that I wanted to have [...] with this exchange is traveling and getting to know South America. The trip to Colombia, aside from academic reasons, was an excuse to get to know South America." Here, traveling is seen as a very important—perhaps even the most important—motivation for selecting Colombia as an international study destination. Like this student, other respondents planned to visit different parts of Colombia as well as further countries in Latin America. For example, an interviewee from Europe told me that his girlfriend, who lives in his home country, would join him after the end of the semester and then they would take a two-month tour from Colombia to Mexico via Central America.

5.3.4 Personal Development

Motivations related to personal development appeared in some studies from the literature review (see Chapter 1.2.2). The same applies to the pilot study. In this regard, many respondents characterized their stay in Colombia as a "special experience." For example, they hoped that they could broaden their horizon, for instance, by getting to know new people and other perspectives. They did not only refer to Colombians but to other international students as well. Some interviewees associated their stay in Colombia with independence, maturity, or self-discovery. A student from Europe stated that he did not want to take part in the Erasmus program because "everything is already very organized" and life during the participation in the Erasmus program is quite similar to life at his home university. For this reason, he wanted to experience something different and opted for Colombia. Another participant told me that she did not know any Colombian living in Colombia before her arrival, which would make her stay abroad an adventure. Hence, the desire to accept the challenge and get along in an unfamiliar environment was crucial for these students.

5.3.5 Language

Some prior publications stated that enhancement of language skills was one of the top motivations for the selection of a specific target country (see Chapter 1.2.3). In the pilot study a number of interviewees with a mother tongue other than Spanish emphasized that improving Spanish language skills during their studies abroad was an important reason behind the selection of Colombia. Some of them mentioned this motivation in connection with the improvement of job opportunities. For example, one student stated that speaking Spanish and having lived for a longer period of time in a Spanishspeaking country is an additional qualification in the job market. Moreover, he explained that this additional qualification was also crucial to convince his parents of his studies in Colombia, as they initially thought that studying abroad would be a waste of time. For another respondent, who was enrolled in Spanish studies in her home country, studying for one semester in a Spanish-speaking country is obligatory for obtaining the degree. Concerning students with Spanish as mother tongue, only one interviewee referred to the linguistic component of studies in Colombia. This Spanish native speaker explained that she is interested in learning vocabulary which is characteristic of Colombia and different from the Spanish spoken in her home country in Latin America.

5.4 External Factors

Subsequent to the presentation of internal motivations, external factors that were revealed in the face-to-face interviews are detailed. Similar to the literature review (see Chapter 1.2.4), reasons related to social networks and financial issues appeared in the qualitative pilot study. Moreover, it turned out that exchange agreements between the home university and the host university can be very crucial for non-degree-seeking students. As financial support and exchange agreements both relate to structural opportunities through external offers, they are combined into one category with the name *structural issues*.

5.4.1 Social Networks

As detailed in the theoretical framework, the decision for migration is based on individuals and their social environment (see Chapter 2.3). Likewise, in the literature review it was found that local social networks can play a crucial role for the selection of an international study destination—e.g., friends or relatives studying or living in the destination country (see Chapter 1.2.4). Similar results were also found in the qualitative pilot study. In this context, Colombian girlfriends/boyfriends or family members/friends living in Colombia were mentioned. For example, a student from North America made Colombian friends during her previous stay in Latin America, and some of them encouraged her to study at the Colombian university where they are enrolled. As these friends are quite close and she wanted to spend time with them, she decided to study in Colombia. This respondent was of the opinion that having friends at the study destination is an advantage because everything is easier than without having any friends on-site.

Some interviewees explained that their friends and fellow students from their home country had studied abroad and their positive feedback motivated them to go abroad. On the one hand, this encouragement led to participation in international higher education in general. One respondent argued that students feel encouraged by their friends' and fellow students' success in the application process. Before that, these students were of the opinion that it is very difficult to get a university place or a scholarship due to high competition. On the other hand, fellow students' previous experience of studying abroad can also favor the choice of a specific study destination. For example, an interviewee was encouraged to opt for Colombia by another student from his home country who already studied at the same Colombian university and enjoyed his stay. With the knowledge of somebody else's very good experience at this university, the respondent felt that the risk of making a wrong decision has reduced. Besides the recommendation by the previous student, a Colombian acquaintance suggested Colombia as an ideal study destination to this interviewee. Hence, studying abroad in general as well as the decision about a country or a university in particular can be promoted by recommendations provided by friends or fellow students. The importance of recommendations for the selection of a particular country was uncovered by some publications in the literature review, too (see Chapter 1.2.4).

5.4.2 Structural Issues

For a couple of students, it was decisive that the estimated living expenses are not as high in Colombia as in other study destinations. Similarly, receiving a scholarship was an important reason for some respondents for the decision to study in Colombia. Scholarships that participants from the pilot study were awarded come from a number of different providers, for instance, home country, home university, and ICETEX.⁴⁷ Furthermore, the existence of agreements between the home university and foreign universities in most cases was very important among the options considered by non-degree-seeking students for the selection of their international study destination. For example, a couple of students only took those universities into consideration which offer an exchange agreement with their home university. In some cases, the international office of the home university possesses a list of partner universities from which the interviewees picked out one. Such agreements were regarded as an easy way to participate in international higher education, as they do not require too much effort regarding the organization and preparation of staying abroad. One participant

⁴⁷ For more information on the scholarship program of ICETEX, refer to Chapter 4.3.

even stated: "I did not specifically select Colombia. Well, it was more because of the exchange agreement of the university."

5.5 Country Image and Information Sources

As illustrated in the theoretical framework (see Chapter 2.4), the image of a country can have a crucial effect on the decision about the international study destination. The interviewees in the pilot study were asked about the image of Colombia that they possessed before their first stay in this country. The findings partly match those from the study of Brigard Perdomo (see Chapter 1.3) but also bring up some new topics. In the qualitative pilot study it was uncovered that there are varied country images—many of them characterized by several stereotypes. However, some common aspects have also been found. For example, it turned out that many respondents stated that they had not known much about Colombia. A student from Europe said that she did not know about regional differences between Latin American countries, adding, "I have seen it more as a whole, Latin America."

Many interviewees heard about problems such as violence and drugs because such topics are often mentioned in the media in connection with Colombia. Nevertheless, almost no respondent was afraid because of Colombia's security situation. As a student from Latin America expressed, the stay in Colombia is "like every stay abroad." And a European interviewee explained that the security situation in Colombia is like in other countries; it depends on one's particular location. The most frequent statement concerning this issue is that the students were concerned very little but were aware that they had to be careful while staying in Colombia. In this context, it is interesting to observe that many participants said that their parents or friends are very worried about their stay in Colombia.

Although it was mentioned rather often that Colombia possesses a bad reputation in their home country, some students thought that this image can be changed. Other ideas brought in connection with Colombia were Colombian celebrities such as Gabriel García Márquez or Shakira as well as party and Salsa dancing. Some less often mentioned keywords were: underdeveloped country, low living expenses, beautiful nature, interesting cultures, friendly people, and hot weather. These findings show that, in contrast to the image often portrayed by the media, the interviewees connected positive characteristics with Colombia as well. As all these students finally decided to study in Colombia, it is not surprising that their country image comprises several positive attributes.

One student from North America was interested in Colombia for a long time. This interviewee said: "One of my childhood dreams was to be a banana farmer [...] this is when I was twelve. But I wanted to have a banana farm and be self-sustained." By hearing about the historical development of the Chiquita Company, this student got interested in a particular region of Colombia that possesses a high number of banana plantations and planned to visit this specific region during her stay in Colombia.

Five out of the 17 interviewees had been to Colombia before their studies. The purposes of their previous visits to Colombia were, for example, holiday, business trip, or Colombian girlfriend. The length of such stays ranged from around ten days to nine months. Some students even visited Colombia a couple of times before studying in this country. These participants additionally talked about their experiences during their previous stay(s) in this country. They enjoyed their time in Colombia, especially concerning friendly people, nice weather, and tasty food. Some explained that they were impressed by Colombia's active development and that local people are creative and full of new ideas. Only one interviewee who had previously worked with organizations that advocate rights of particular groups (e.g., farmers) in Colombia's conflict mentioned negative aspects such as violence and repression of the opposition. However, this respondent was of the opinion that it is not dangerous for foreigners to stay in Colombia as long as they do not meddle with politics.

As described in Chapter 2.4, the construction of a country image is shaped by the sources from which people get information about the corresponding country. The two most frequently consulted information sources depicted in the literature review, namely the Internet and friends/relatives, were important in the pilot study as well. However, it was uncovered that the interviewees consulted different people and different kinds of media in order to get information about Colombia. Those who asked other people referred either to Colombian friends or friends/relatives who had been to Colombia before. In some cases, the relationship with these people was more established—e.g., flat mates or boyfriends from Colombia. In other cases, international students contacted these people when deciding about the international study destination or met them by chance. One student also participated in an informative meeting about studying abroad at the home university. With reference to media sources, the respondents informed themselves about Colombia in general and about universities in particular through the Internet (e.g. homepages of Colombian universities, the Colombian Ministry of National Education, the Colombian embassy, YouTube), newspapers, television, guidebooks, and reports from former students. However, just as in some previous studies, it was difficult to find reliable information in a few countries, for instance, because media outlets in some students' home countries are

66

censored by the respective governments. Regarding those interviewees who already visited Colombia before, it has to be taken into account that their country image is not only based on information sources but also on personal experiences gained in the country itself.

5.6 Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations

In previous research, where the order of desired study destinations was asked from the respondents, for around half of the students, the actual study destination coincides with the target country that was mentioned as the first option for studies abroad (see Chapter 1.4). In the interviews from the pilot study it turned out that there are three different cases regarding the first study destination choice. First, there are students who opted for Colombia in the first place. Second, other country/countries was/were the first option. Third, a particular continent was the first choice. Close to the results from the literature review, a bit less than half of the interviewees selected Colombia in the first place.

However, it has to be noted that for some of the respondents, studying abroad in general was more important than the selection of a particular study destination. For example, a student explained that she wanted to go abroad to a study destination where the chance to get a university place is very high. In her opinion: "One should not plan it too much where one goes [...] one makes a lot of new experiences that will definitely, in one way or the other, be helpful. I am convinced of it." According to another participant, even if there would appear the possibility to work abroad, such work stay would have a "different character" than the experience of studying at a foreign university. This attitude is based on the assumption that it would not be possible to get to know the country on another occasion in the same way as a foreign student. Consequently, the experience of studying abroad as an international student was considered as a unique opportunity.

5.7 Reflection on the Pilot Study

On the whole, the pilot study was conducted without major problems. The support from the information center of the DAAD in Bogotá, the international offices of the two Colombian universities, and ICETEX was crucial for the successful realization of the pilot study. With regard to contacting the interviewees, there was some response to the email with the request for participation in the interviews. Nevertheless, personal contact was more important. Most of the students who were contacted personally agreed to participate in the interview. Furthermore, many of them showed interest in receiving a summary of the findings from the pilot study. The time needed to realize the 16 interviews was rather long as it lasted around five weeks. This was partly due to the fact that I arrived before the semester and stayed for the first couple of weeks of the semester. On the one hand, this was a good opportunity because I was able to participate in the informative meeting and the excursion. On the other hand, many students only arrived directly before the beginning of their classes which made it difficult to find time for the interview.

As 13 out of the 16 interviews were carried out in the respective mother tongues of the respondents, there was no serious language problem. The level of Spanish for the three interviews that were not conducted in the students' native language was adequate, ranging from intermediate to fluent. The questions in the interview guideline were formulated in whole sentences to facilitate the realization of the interviews that were not held in my mother tongue. However, because of the practice gained during the pretest interviews carried out in Germany, it was possible for me to handle the interview as an "(almost completely) normal conversation" (Reinders, 2005, p. 200; own translation), using the guideline flexible, formulating questions freely, asking for more detailed information, and including spontaneous questions, among others.

As the majority of the interviews took place in cafés, background noises were disturbing in some cases while listening to the recordings afterward. Nevertheless, the interviewees found it very positive to be able to respond to the questions in cafés, since they liked the relaxed and informal atmosphere at those places.

In general, it was not difficult for interviewees to understand the questions from the guideline. However, there was confusion in a few cases—in particular, regarding the question about the country image (see Appendix A 1, Question A 2). For those students who had visited Colombia earlier, I improvised this question and asked them about their country image before their first stay in Colombia. However, with regard to the research interest of this project, it would have been more meaningful to ask them about the country image before their specific educational stay in Colombia. Concerning the short standardized questionnaires that international students filled out directly before and after the interview, it turned out that there were a few difficulties. For example, it was difficult for some respondents to find the correct answer category for their previous educational qualification as "bachillerato" in Spanish in some countries signifies general qualification for university entrance while in others it means a bachelor's degree.

5.8 Summary and Suggestions for the Standardized Survey

The guideline for the face-to-face interviews was developed on the basis of the results from previous research and the theoretical framework. In the forefront of the pilot study, five pretest interviews were carried out in Germany. The pilot study took place in Bogotá and Barranquilla in February and March 2012. In total, 16 face-to-face interviews were conducted with international students from Europe, Latin America, and North America. One additional interview was completed in written form. Seven of the interviewees were male and ten female. Three of them did their complete degree in Colombia, while the other students stayed for one or two semesters.

Regarding the content of the interviews, internal motivations for studying in Colombia relating to the three dimensions (career, experimental, linguistic) presented in Chapter 2.2 were found. Furthermore, reasons that can be assigned to the category social networks, as presented in Chapter 2.3, were identified. Additionally, the new category of structural issues, which similar to social networks refers to external factors, was uncovered. As there are a lot of motivations and other reasons for the choice of Colombia, only a few results that were surprising or were not very important in studies done so far are summarized.

Concerning educational motivations, it was found that some of the interviewees planned to establish social networks during their studies in Colombia with the aim of academic cooperation that continues after their stay abroad. Regarding motivations connected with professional career, the respondents intended to form social networks in Colombia for finding a job in the future. With reference to job opportunities, it also turned out that some students were of the opinion that the selection of Colombia as a study destination is advantageous to other countries, such as Spain, because an educational stay in Colombia "would be more outstanding in the curriculum vitae," as explained by a student from Europe. This shows that studying in Colombia can be a way to distinguish oneself from future job competitors.

A completely new finding, which was not mentioned in any study from the literature review, is the motivation of two students enrolled in development studies and political science, to study in a developing country with an internal conflict. Through their stay abroad they would like to experience how Colombia is developing and handling its conflict. In addition, studying in a country with an internal conflict was regarded as positive influence on career opportunities by the respondent enrolled in political science, as it would show future employers the competence of getting along in a challenging environment.

Regarding motivations connected with the living environment, the desire to get to know Colombia through traveling—and in many cases, also other countries in Latin America—is a motivation that came up in every interview. It is interesting to see that this reason was not pointed out in the previous studies as crucial, with the exception of resembling motivations in the publication of Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe (2008). The relevance of this motivation can be illustrated with the quote of an interviewee from North America, who said that studying in Colombia "was an excuse to get to know South America."

With reference to external factors, the importance of exchange agreements between the home university and the Colombian university was emphasized frequently by the non-degree-seeking students. A number of them only considered those universities that offer such an agreement in their choice about the international study destination.

Many interviewees did not know a lot about Colombia before their stay abroad. Some of them were not aware about regional differences within the continent. It was found that there are varied country images, often containing stereotypes such as Salsa dancing, friendly people, and drugs. The respondents gathered information about Colombia via different information sources, such as other people or media.

When asked about their first favorite study destination, the interviewees either referred to Colombia, other country/countries or a specific continent. In this context, it is worth to mention that for some students, participating in international higher education in general, rather than choosing a target country, was more crucial. Here, studying abroad was regarded as a chance that would not be available after graduating from the university.

Experiences from the pilot study were used for formulating recommendations for the realization of the standardized survey. First, the support from the DAAD, the international offices, and ICETEX was crucial for the recruitment of interviewees. Thus, it is essential to include gatekeepers in order to reach an adequate number of participants in the survey. Second, it turned out that contacting students personally was very time-consuming, even though the interviews were only conducted in two cities. Given the fact that international students from many universities in different Colombian cities should be included in the quantitative study, it would not be realizable to carry out the interviews personally. It implies that an online survey is the best way for data collection. As participation in an online survey is less time-consuming than in a face-to-face interview, a positive influence on the number of participants was expected. Third, those respondents from the pilot study who could not do the interview in their mother tongue chose Spanish. Hence, it is important to provide the standardized questionnaire

in both Spanish and English.⁴⁸ Fourth, problems regarding understanding, as outlined in Chapter 5.7, show that the revision of some questions and answer categories on the basis of experiences from the pilot study is crucial. This is even more so because unlike the pilot study, there is no possibility for questions of clarifications in the online survey.

Based on the findings described in this chapter, it is concluded that it was possible through the pilot study to check which of the reasons mentioned in the previous studies were also relevant for the decision to study in Colombia; it was also possible to find out about further motivations that were not brought up in the literature review. Although the new findings sound plausible, I would not have considered them without the pilot study and hence they would not have been included in the standardized survey. Therefore, the results of the pilot study are very helpful for incorporating relevant questions and answer categories in the online survey. Moreover, the results from the pilot study do not only have implications on the content of the quantitative questionnaire, they are also helpful to realize the online survey.

⁴⁸ It was decided that it is not necessary to provide any further language in the online survey. As mentioned in Chapter 4.3, nearly all courses at Colombian universities are held in Spanish, which implies that international students should possess a certain level of Spanish language skills. Hence, the offer of these two languages in the survey is sufficient.

6. Preparation of Online Survey Data and Development of Hypotheses

Chapter 6 contains information on the collection and preparation of the online survey data and presents hypotheses for statistical analysis. It begins with the development of the questionnaire, the process of data collection, and the adjustment of data. Using the categorical principal component analysis, reasons for studying in Colombia were grouped into main categories, resulting in the creation of a model of internal motivations for studying in this country. Thereafter, several hypotheses concerning the choice of Colombia as an international study destination are presented. These were developed on the basis of theoretical considerations, findings from previous studies, and the pilot study carried out in Colombia. Finally, a short summary is provided.

6.1 Development of Questionnaire and Data Collection

The quantitative study was carried out with an online questionnaire because it was considered the most adequate and practicable method for data collection. A personal distribution of the questionnaire in Colombia would have been very time-consuming, as described in Chapter 5.8. The online questionnaire was principally developed on the basis of the findings from the qualitative pilot study carried out in Colombia in 2012.⁴⁹ Additionally, when formulating a couple of questions and answer categories, I consulted the results from publications presented in the literature review as well as questionnaires from previous studies.⁵⁰ The questionnaire was developed in English. Then, it was edited based on discussions with other researchers from the Faculty of Sociology and other faculties at Bielefeld University. Afterward, I translated it into Spanish. Both versions were proofread by native speakers. Finally, the questionnaire was programmed into the online tool Unipark.

The questionnaire that you can find in Appendices B 1 and B 2 starts with the request to choose either the Spanish or the English version. On the next page, a short welcome note was included with information regarding the topic, the specific groups of international students included in the study, and anonymity as well as contact details. As it is the objective to find out why the participants chose Colombia as their international study destination, most questions refer to the time before students started their studies in this country. Initially, it is asked whether the respondents had an image of Colombia before pursuing their studies, which aspects they associated with this

⁴⁹ For methodological advice when constructing the questionnaire, mainly Gräf (2010), Kirchhoff et al. (2006), Porst (2011), and Theobald (2007) were consulted.

⁵⁰ Questionnaires from other publications, which were considered in the development of the online questionnaire, for instance, were from Findlay and King (2010, pp. 57-67), Jones (2006, pp. 345-350), Murphy-Lejeune (2002, pp. 235-239), and Son (2011, pp. 108-113).

country, and which information sources they used to get information about Colombia. It was hoped that these icebreaker questions would pique the interest of the participants to continue with the questionnaire (Porst, 2011, pp. 135-142). The questionnaire is organized according to the following topics: image of Colombia and information sources, demographic information and information on studies in Colombia, alternative study destinations, including a ranking of the first three countries or continents where the students wanted to study, motivations for the choice of Colombia as international study destination, further factors influencing the choice of Colombia, previous international experience, additional information (field of study, funding of studies, etc.), and family. As some filter questions were included, the number of questions varied from one respondent to another.

In September 2013 a pretest was carried out with researchers and students from different fields of study and different countries of origin, most of them affiliated with Bielefeld University. Seven persons filled out the English and two the Spanish version. It was necessary to conduct a pretest in order to check if the questions, answer categories, and instructions were understandable. Furthermore, the average time needed to complete the whole questionnaire was measured, as it was included in the recruiting e-mail. Afterward, the modifications were included in the questionnaire.

The online survey started in the middle of October 2013. With the help of the information center of the DAAD in Bogotá, international students enrolled at Colombian universities at that point of time were contacted. An e-mail inviting international students to participate in the online survey for my doctoral project was sent to the international offices of nearly all institutions of higher education in Colombia by the DAAD. As the contact to Colombian international offices was made via the DAAD and the contact to international students via international offices, it cannot be estimated how many foreign students finally received the invitation to the online survey. The e-mail was written in Spanish and English, including information about the topic, the academic context of the study, the expected duration for filling out the questionnaire (15 minutes), and affirmation of anonymity and contact information (see Appendix B 3). Moreover, the DAAD posted a short version of the e-mail on its Facebook and Twitter pages, providing the link to the online questionnaire.

Before the online survey, it was discussed with researchers from different academic and regional contexts if it would be helpful to make use of incentives. It was decided that gift coupons for a Colombian bookstore (Librería Nacional) and the online store Amazon would be suitable. It was important to have one possibility (Amazon) where bonuses can be used outside Colombia because some participants probably would not be staying anymore in Colombia when they get informed about winning a prize in the lottery. Hence, the possibility to participate in a lottery with five gift coupons for USD 50 each for either the bookstore or Amazon was mentioned in the e-mail. In addition, students were informed that they could receive a summary of the results once the doctoral project is completed. As most of the students participating in the pilot study were very interested in the findings of my project, it was hoped that a summary of the results as incentive would increase the interest of international students to participate in the survey. In order to ensure anonymity, information given in the questionnaire was separated from the e-mail addresses given by the respondents, provided they wanted to participate in the lottery and/or receive the summary. In fact, the participants were forwarded to another website within Unipark at the end of the questionnaire by clicking on a link. Thus, information given in the questionnaire was stored in a different database than the e-mail addresses. Of course, the Colombian international offices were informed that they would obtain a summary of the results as well.

As many as 75 respondents completed the whole questionnaire until mid-November in 2013. Within the following week no further international students participated in the survey. Therefore, alternative ways of contacting potential respondents were considered. Within the context of the importance of social networks, Facebook was seen as an additional opportunity to get in contact with foreign students in Colombia. Informal groups comprising international students studying at a particular Colombian institution of higher education, often limited to a certain semester or year, were identified. As no overview of such groups is available, they were found by using certain keywords in the search function—such as "international students", "exchange", "name of university", and "name of city" in Spanish and English. The already-mentioned report on the internationalization of higher education in Colombia was consulted so as to include universities, illustrated in a graphic of the Colombian institutions of higher education with the highest number of international students enrolled in 2006, were used to identify relevant groups in Facebook (ASCUN & RCI, 2007, p. 36).

During the following weeks members of the identified groups in Facebook were contacted via a personal message, including a short version of the original e-mail. In order to increase the probability of being read, the length of the message was reduced as much as possible. However, it was not only shortened regarding the content but also relating to the language, as it was only sent in Spanish. Preference was given to Spanish and not to English because it was assumed that all foreign students have at least an intermediate command of Spanish, as nearly all lectures and seminars in

Colombia are conducted in Spanish and hardly any courses are offered in English (see Chapter 4.3). This decision was supported by the fact that all interviewees from the pilot study who could not opt for their native language chose Spanish over English. Moreover, up to that moment, most of the respondents filled out the online questionnaire in Spanish. After sending the messages via Facebook, the participation in the online survey increased again. As many as 145 international students completed the whole questionnaire until the end of December 2013. No further students participated in the survey till the end of January 2014 and therefore it was decided to stop data collection.

6.2 Adjustment of Data

Before the analysis, data should be prepared in an adequate manner so that the data set is ready for calculation. This process involves, for instance, checking the quality of data, handling of missing values, and generating new variables. Before the preparation part, data was exported from Unipark to the statistical software IBM SPSS Statistics. However, only information from those participants who completed the questionnaire till the end was considered, which resulted in a data set comprising 145 participants.

In order to ensure good data quality, it is essential for the respondents to be thorough in their approach. The participants could quickly click through the questionnaire, for example, to participate in the lottery at the end of the survey and thus they could fail to answer the questions carefully. Unipark possesses a tool for identifying persons who completed the questionnaire very fast, when contrasted with the entire sample. For every respondent, the individual time for replying per page is compared with the average time for the whole sample, and it is expressed in a variable named "quality." A person who exactly needs the average time for completing per page has a value of 0.5 for this variable. A respondent with a value of 0.25 requires half the amount of the average time to fill out the questionnaire per page (QuestBack GmbH, 2014, pp. 586-587). Against this background, it was decided to check the data provided by those participants who have a value of less than 0.25 for the variable "quality." Thus, open questions were examined to find out if the participants gave meaningful answers. Out of the 17 respondents possessing a value below 0.25 for the variable "quality," only one did not give answers that made sense and consequently was removed from the sample.

At the beginning of the questionnaire, it was explained that only those international students who currently are studying in Colombia should participate. This approach was

adopted because it was assumed that the memory of the moment when the students decided to study in Colombia faded over time (see also Chapter 2.2). Additionally, in cases where the respondents after their studies in Colombia would go abroad again, memories could even get blurred. For example, motivations for studying in Colombia could be mixed with motivations for this latter stay abroad. Regardless of this instruction, 21 students completed the survey, even though they already finished their studies in Colombia, and two participants did not yet begin their studies in Colombia at that point of time. As the number of respondents is not that high, it was decided to reduce the sample as less as possible. Thus, the 15 participants who at least studied in Colombia during the first semester of 2013 were kept.⁵¹ The statements of the other eight students were deleted.⁵² After these transformations, the sample was reduced to 136 respondents.

Concerning the beginning of the participants' studies in Colombia, there seemed to be a problem of understanding. International students were asked to insert the year when they started their studies in Colombia. Seven respondents did not enter the year but a one-digit number. It was assumed that these students provided the number of semester they study or plan to study in Colombia. In order to find out if the general quality of the information of these students' is sufficient to keep them in the sample, it was checked if they gave meaningful answers to the open questions. As this was the case for all seven respondents, it was decided to keep them in the sample in order to prevent a further reduction of the number of participants. Hence, the value for the variable "beginning of studies in Colombia" of these students was recoded with a missing value. Thus, the total number of foreign students remaining in the sample was still 136.

On closer examination of the answer behavior in longer-item batteries, it turned out that some respondents have a notable number of missing values. Hence, item batteries with a high number of variables and considerable relevance concerning the main research questions were checked.⁵³ Students with missing values for at least half of the answer items within one thematic block, or with three or more missing values within longer item batteries, were excluded. This number of missing values was considered too high for coincidence, which created doubts regarding the respondents'

⁵¹ The survey was carried out during the second semester of 2013.

⁵² Not only students who finished their studies in Colombia a long time ago were excluded. In order to keep the sample not too heterogeneous, respondents who did not begin their studies in Colombia at that point in time were also removed. Furthermore, it could not be guaranteed that these participants were able to provide information about all crucial items in the questionnaire (for example, whether they would get a scholarship for their studies in Colombia or not).

⁵³ These batteries refer to the following blocks: aspects of country image of Colombia, motivations related to education, motivations related to professional career, motivations related to living environment, and motivations related to personal development.

thoroughness. This reduction resulted in a final number of 127 participants. As explained already in Chapter 4.3, there is no exact up-to-date number of international students enrolled at all Colombian institutions of higher education. The most recent number that was found was 1,457 foreign students in 2010. As many as 127 out of 1,457 students would correspond to around 9% of the whole population of international students enrolled at Colombian universities.

As mentioned before, there are a few open questions where respondents had to type the answer, such as nationality and mother tongue. These questions were considered as open questions because there would have been too much categories for a dropdown list. However, before these variables could be used for further analysis, they had to be standardized. It means that spelling mistakes in English were eliminated, upper and lower case were adjusted, and answers given in Spanish were translated into English. Moreover, a few students named cities, instead of countries, as their favored study destination. Consequently, the names of cities were changed into countries.

As the offer of some fields of study as well as their names, are not identical in every country, it was difficult to find a categorization valid for all systems of higher education around the globe. The coding system that seemed to be the most adequate-it embraces a high number of academic subjects grouped into main and subcategories—is the "Joint Academic Coding System (JACS)" (Higher Education Statistics Agency, n.d. a, para. 1), which was created for the UK by the Higher Education Statistics Agency and the Universities and Colleges Admission Service. Thus, the categories for the main field of study in the questionnaire were developed on the basis of JACS version 2 (Higher Education Statistics Agency, n.d. b). In this connection, the 19 main subject groups were reduced to 18, as "European languages, literature and related subjects" and "Eastern, Asiatic, African, American and Australasian languages, literature and related subjects" were combined into one group entitled "languages, literature and related subjects." In order to make it easier for the respondents to mark the appropriate category, examples of sub-categories were included in brackets following the main category-for instance, "business and administrative studies (e.g., accounting, marketing, tourism)." Moreover, slight transformations were implemented for easier understanding (e.g., "subjects related to medicine" instead of "subjects allied to medicine"). To make sure that no field of study was forgotten, the category "other" was included with the possibility of typing the field of study manually. With the help of the complete list of sub-categories provided by JACS, it was possible to classify almost all statements of those participants who chose the category "other" among the main categories.

6.3 Grouping of Internal Motivations

Applying the theoretical approach of individualization to students, it was assumed that studying abroad can be a strategy to influence career opportunities positively. By participating in international higher education, different kinds of skills can be acquired and that way students can distinguish themselves from their fellows. However, studying abroad can also be stimulated by reasons beyond academia and career. At this point, the theoretical frame of individualization is connected with the approach of youth mobility. This approach implies that motivations linked to new experiences such as traveling and getting to know foreign cultures can be crucial (see Chapters 2.1 and 2.2). Hence, it is supposed that the decision for studying in a particular country can be motivated by experimental and career dimensions at the same time.

Plenty of motivations for choosing Colombia as an international study destination related to the experimental and career dimensions were included in the online questionnaire. In order to get an overview of these motivations, frequencies are provided in Appendix C 1 in the attachment. In the online questionnaire, the participants were asked to indicate if these items were important for their decision to study in Colombia. As these motivations altogether contain around 30 items⁵⁴, the answer categories were limited to "yes" and "no," although a five point scale ranging from "not at all important" to "very important" would have provided more detailed information. This decision was made in order to reduce the length of the online questionnaire as much as possible in order to obtain as many participants as possible. This is particularly important because the number of international students enrolled at Colombian institutions of higher education was estimated to be around 1,500 (see Chapter 4.3). Moreover, in an early phase of the pretest, it turned out that answering the questions on a five-point scale was exhausting and time-consuming.

In the online questionnaire, items that probably measure similar motivations were grouped together into one of the four categories of education, professional career, living environment, and personal development. This classification corresponds to the adapted categories of the model of Krzaklewska (see Chapter 5.3). Thus, the grouping was based on theoretical considerations and not on empirical evidence. This means that it can be possible that not all items of one category measure the same phenomenon. Therefore, it was analyzed whether the variables of one group contain one phenomenon or more phenomena. However, already during the construction of the questionnaire, it was difficult to decide whether some items should be assigned to the

⁵⁴ The exact number of items varied according to the type of study in Colombia (non-degree-seeking student/ degree-seeking student) and mother tongue (native Spanish speaker/non-native Spanish speaker).

category education or to professional career. Thus, these two categories were put together for analysis but excluding the three variables related to development and conflict. The decision was based on the fact that this kind of motivation is a completely new finding from the pilot study (see Chapters 5.3.1 and 5.3.2) and should get the chance to be included in the subsequent models as a separate dimension. Hence, the original categories education and professional career were newly composed in *education and career in general* and *education and career related to development/ conflict*.

An adequate method for reaching the above-described objective is factor analysis. This method analyzes if there are groups of variables that represent a complex concept such as intelligence or creativity. Thus, the aim of factor analysis is to handle complexity through grouping variables that measure the same phenomenon into one category (factor). This way, variables are grouped into one or more factors, each of them representing a complex concept that cannot be measured with only one single variable (Brosius, 2013, p. 789). However, as corresponding variables are categorical and do not possess a metric scale, categorical principal component analysis (CATPCA), instead of factor analysis, should be used here (IBM, n.d. a, Resolving the problem, para. 1-2). With this method, a high number of categorical variables can be decreased to a few components (IBM, n.d. b, para. 2).

As it is aimed at uncovering whether variables within one category measure one phenomenon or more phenomena, CATPCA was realized separately for each category. Concerning the decision about the number of components, reference was made to the eigenvalue criterion that has to be interpreted in the same way as for classical principal component analysis (IBM, n.d. c, para. 1). Only components with an eigenvalue bigger than one were considered. Components with an eigenvalue below one were not taken into account, as they do not explain a sufficient part of the total variance (Brosius, 2013, p. 802). Variables with low loadings were removed step by step. It was decided that the minimum loading of a variable should at least lie around 0.5. Moreover, one dimension should consist of at least three variables so that single variables would not get too much weight in the subsequent analysis.

6.3.1 Education and Career in General

Before the analysis, the third and fourth variables from the category education⁵⁵ were recoded into one variable as they relate to the same motivation, but each of them is a filter variable referring in the first case to non-degree-seeking students and in the second case to degree-seeking students. As explained in Chapter 2.2, language skills can belong to both the career and the experimental dimensions. Hence, the first variable from the category education, which is linked to the improvement of Spanish language skills, was not considered at this point.⁵⁶ After these transformations, eight items related to the original category education and four to the original category professional career were left, and they were used for CATPCA. One component with six variables was derived from the analysis (eigenvalue: 1.923), including the following loadings:

- Getting to know people who could be helpful for finding a job in the future (0.686)
- Getting to know academics for establishing academic cooperation (0.610)
- Working in the future in a job related to Colombia (0.603)
- Getting to know different academic perspectives (0.510)
- Studying at a foreign university with a good reputation (0.487)
- Improving job opportunities through skills gained during studies abroad (e.g. language, intercultural competence) (0.469)

This component comprises variables representing general motivations related to education and professional career. Students plan to broaden their academic horizon and academic networks for educational reasons as well as to improve job opportunities through knowledge and social networks in Colombia. Hence, the name *education and career in general* is well matched for this index.

6.3.2 Education and Career Related to Development/Conflict

As explained in Chapter 6.3, the three variables related to development and conflict were treated as a separate category. One component (eigenvalue: 1.768), including all three items, was derived from analysis with the following loadings:

⁵⁵ Third variable: participating in specific courses offered on topics that are not available at my home university; fourth variable: participating in a specific study program offered on topics that are not available in my home country.
⁵⁶ For the separate linguistic dimension, the variable about the improvement of Spanish language skills

⁵⁶ For the separate linguistic dimension, the variable about the improvement of Spanish language skills was not used as it is a filter variable only asked from students with a mother tongue other than Spanish. References were instead made to the variable *studying in Colombia because Spanish is spoken*, which was asked from all the participants.

- Improving job opportunities through studying in a country with an internal conflict because it proves my capability of living in a challenging environment (0.829)
- Studying in a country with internal conflict in order to observe how this country is dealing with conflict (0.797)
- Studying in a developing country because the topic development is an important issue in my studies (0.668)

Obviously, variables from this component exclusively touch on motivations that are connected with Colombia as a developing country and as a country with an internal conflict. By studying in Colombia international students intend to broaden their academic understanding regarding these issues and even aim at increasing job opportunities. Thus, the title *education and career related to development/conflict* is suitable.

6.3.3 Pleasant Living Environment

In the online questionnaire 11 items were included in the category living environment. However, only six of them were considered for CATPCA. The eighth and ninth variables, as well as the tenth and eleventh variables,⁵⁷ consist of motivations that are related to cultural and geographical closeness and distance. Hence, these items are highly connected with the regional background of respondents. In order to avoid a foreseeable strong regional impact in this category, it was decided to exclude these four items.⁵⁸ Additionally, the third variable that refers to low costs was ignored because it does not thematically fit the other items of this category. It is more related to financial aspects than to experimental motivations. After realizing CATPCA, one component (eigenvalue: 1.653), with four variables, was derived, which comprises the following items and loadings:

- Interesting free time activities (e.g. sightseeing, salsa dancing) (0.787)
- Comfortable climate (0.607)
- Getting to know local specialities (e.g. food, music) (0.594)
- Traveling in Colombia (0.560)

The items of this component are connected with a living environment that provides various activities within the closer and the more distant regions. As these activities take place in an enjoyable surrounding and are characterized by a comfortable climate, it

⁵⁷ Eighth variable: culture is close to my own culture; ninth variable: culture is different from my own culture; tenth variable: Colombia is geographically close to my home country; eleventh variable: Colombia is geographically far away from my home country.

⁵⁸ The fifth item (living in a foreign culture) is not formulated in a regionally affected way as the two previously mentioned variables. Hence, it represents a better possibility for the inclusion of an item related to culture.

was decided to slightly change the name of this category to *pleasant living environment*.

6.3.4 Personal Development

As only one participant answered the item "getting to know new people and other perspectives" not in an affirmative manner—this variable nearly does not contain any variance. Therefore, only the remaining three variables related to personal development were used for CATPCA. One component (eigenvalue: 1.789) containing three items with the following loadings was derived:

- Becoming more independent and mature (0.854)
- Getting to know more about myself (0.793)
- Change of social environment (0.663)

The component implies three items related to personal development. Although one of the original items is not part of this index, the three remaining variables describe the development of students through self-discovery and maturation in a new social environment. Hence, the name of this index does not need to be changed and continues to be called *personal development*.

To sum up, four components were derived from CATPCA, namely *education and career in general, education and career related to development/conflict, pleasant living environment,* and *personal development.* After the realization of CATPCA, four average indices were constructed.⁵⁹

6.3.5 Model of Internal Motivations for Studying in Colombia

The model of motivations for going abroad was developed in the European context by Krzaklewska (see Chapter 2.2) and is now tailored to the context of Colombia. Krzaklewska distinguishes between career dimension (career motivation, academic motivation), experimental dimension (cultural motivation, personal motivation), and linguistic dimension. The Colombian model of internal motivations comprises the same three dimensions, but the categories of motivations that belong to the dimensions are partly different. The career dimension consists of the two categories *education and career in general* and *education and career related to development/conflict*. Obviously, since the model from Krzaklewska is about studying in European countries, the second named motivation did not appear. As already pointed out before, this kind of reason has not been mentioned in any of the studies from the literature review. Hence, this

⁵⁹ Variables were not weighted with component loadings, as it would have hindered the interpretation of the index (Spörndli, 2004, p. 117).

completely new category of motivation for choosing a study destination expands the model beyond the borders of Europe. Concerning the experimental dimension, there are two categories in the Colombian model, namely *pleasant living environment* and *personal development*. The linguistic dimension in the Colombian model is measured with the variable *Spanish-speaking country*⁶⁰.

Dimensions Krzaklewska (2008)	Categories of internal motivations (Colombian case study)
Career dimension	Education and career in general
	Education and career related to development/conflict
Experimental dimension	Pleasant living environment
	Personal development
Linguistic dimension	Spanish-speaking country

Table 2: Model of internal motivations for studying in Colombia

Source: Author's own table based on Krzaklewska (2008, pp. 93-95) and the data set of international students in Colombia.

For the entire sample of 127 students, the index *personal development* holds the highest mean (0.85), followed by *pleasant living environment* (0.74), *education and career in general* (0.69), *Spanish-speaking country*⁶¹ (0.58), and *education and career related to development/conflict* (0.42).

6.4 Hypotheses for Statistical Analysis

On the basis of theoretical considerations and on results from prior studies as well as the pilot study, several hypotheses were elaborated. In this chapter, the presented hypotheses are organized according to the following topics: internal motivations according to socio-demographic characteristics, country image and information sources, and Colombia and alternative study destinations.

⁶⁰ Original question: "When you decided to study in Colombia, did you consider the following motivations in your decision? If yes, how important were the considered motivations?"

Original item: "studying in Colombia because Spanish is spoken"; answer categories: 0 = no, 1 = yes, not at all important up to 5 = yes, very important. It was assumed that for respondents with the value 0, this motivation was as unimportant as for participants with the value 1. Hence, students with values 0 and 1 were put together in the same category. This transformation was helpful in so far as it resulted in a variable with a metric scale that can easily be used for further calculations. As the four indices of the career and experimental dimension have a range from 0 to 1, the variable *Spanish-speaking country* was adapted to this range.

⁶¹ The variable *Spanish-speaking country* has six missing values. Thus, the mean for this variable refers to 121 students.

6.4.1 Motivations according to Socio-demographic Characteristics

In some of the prior studies mentioned in the literature review, it turned out that the importance of motivations for choosing a particular study destination can differ according to the following socio-demographic characteristics: gender, level of education, type of stay abroad, geographical region, and field of study (see Chapter 1.2.5). Likewise, concerning the model of Krzaklewska on reasons for going abroad, the author assumes that people with different characteristics place different importance on the same motivations (see Chapter 2.2). Moreover, social class structures are still important in daily life in some countries (see Chapter 2.1). Thus, the social background of participants was considered in this project as the sixth socio-demographic characteristic.⁶²

In this connection, it was examined if the weight of specific internal motivations for choosing Colombia as an international study destination varies according to the abovementioned six socio-demographic characteristics. An analysis was carried out with regard to the two indices of the experimental dimension, the two indices of the career dimension, and one variable of the linguistic dimension (see Chapter 6.3.5). For example, it was investigated if male and female students put the same importance on personal development when opting for Colombia as the target country in international higher education. As most prior studies considered only one socio-demographic characteristic and did not base their analyses on the same motivations as in this project, this investigation is exploratory, and no hypotheses were made regarding the direction of the effects.

6.4.2 Country Image and Information Sources

The image of a country can influence the destination choice in international higher education (see Chapter 2.4). As many interviewees from the pilot study did not have a broad knowledge of Colombia (see Chapter 5.5), a differentiation in the online questionnaire between a clear image and a vague image of Colombia before

⁶² When constructing the questionnaire, it was assumed that it would be difficult for the respondents to categorize themselves into social classes and afterward for the researcher to compare class structures across several countries. For example, there are no globally comparable standard categories for income (Rippl & Seipel, 2008, p. 126). Thus, it was decided to develop a question that focuses on the social positions in the society where your parents live. Please specify the appropriate position of your parents concerning aspects such as income, property, job etc." The answer categories are: 1 (low) to 5 (high). This question was asked individually for mother and father, as it could be possible that one's parents are separated and thus do not belong to the same social position or that a student does not have contact anymore to one of them and therefore cannot estimate the appropriate category, among other factors. In cases where information was given for both parents, their values were added up, then divided by two, and finally saved in one single variable. This resulted in values ranging from 1.0 up to 5.0, including steps of 0.5.

participants began their studies in this country was made. In this connection, it was analyzed whether students with a clear image had the same image of Colombia regarding positive and negative aspects as respondents with a vague image. However, no hypothesis was made regarding the direction of the effect.

As information sources are the basis for the formation of the country image (see Chapter 2.4), it can be revealing to uncover the meaning of different information sources in connection with the country image of Colombia. In this regard, it was assumed that students with a vague country image had a high need for information and, therefore, consulted more information sources than students with a clear image of Colombia. Moreover, it was analyzed if participants who used a particular information source had a more positive/negative country image of Colombia than those who did not use this specific source. An analysis was carried out separately for the eight following information sources:

<u>The Internet/television:</u> A number of interviewees from the pilot study stated that they heard about negative aspects of Colombia, such as drugs and violence, through the media in their home country (see Chapter 5.5). Therefore, it was assumed that international students who used the Internet/television as information source had a more negative country image before studying in Colombia than students who did not use such sources to inform themselves about Colombia.

International office of home university/international office of Colombian university/ education fair: As the promotion of academic exchange belongs to the tasks of international offices and education fairs about studying abroad, it was supposed that information about Colombia provided in these contexts is connected more with positive than negative aspects. Therefore, it was supposed that international students who consulted the international office of the home university/international office of Colombian university/an education fair as information source had a more positive country image before studying in Colombia than those who did not consult these sources to inform themselves about Colombia.

<u>Reports from other students about studying in Colombia/personal contact with</u> <u>Colombians/personal contact with people (not Colombians) who have been to</u> <u>Colombia:</u> Reports from other students about studying in a particular country can contain negative as well as positive characteristics. Likewise, this is true for information provided by citizens or other people who have already been to a specific country. Hence, the direction of the effect of these information sources on the country image of Colombia cannot be predicted. Brigard Perdomo (2008) carried out a study on the country image of Colombia with international students from various countries. When the participants were grouped according to cultural background, it was found that respondents from Latin America held the most positive image of Colombia compared to participants from other regions (see Chapter 1.3). Hence, it was analyzed if foreign students from Latin America possessed a more positive country image before studying in Colombia than students from other regions.

In their study on the country image of Americans on Brazil, Rezende-Parker et al. (2003) uncovered that prior visitors to Brazil had a more positive country image compared to non-visitors (see Chapter 1.3). Against this background, it was investigated if respondents who have already been to Colombia held a more positive country image before their studies in Colombia than participants who did not visit the country previously.

6.4.3 Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations

In the literature review it turned out that in studies where participants were asked about their favorite target country in international higher education, only around half of the respondents stated that the actual study destination was the country they opted for in the first place (see Chapter 1.4). Likewise, for nearly 50% of the interviewees in the pilot study, Colombia was the first option for their studies abroad (see Chapter 5.6). In this context, it can be questioned if students who named Colombia as their first target country in the online questionnaire were more motivated to study in Colombia in general than those participants who did not give Colombia as their first option.⁶³

In order to identify which factors are crucial for the decision of international students to choose Colombia as the first favorite study destination, motivations and further aspects were analyzed. These stem from theoretical considerations, empirical results from the pilot study, and previous studies from other authors. The following paragraphs present the hypotheses for a model which, consisting of four thematic blocks (sociodemographic characteristics, active components, latent components, external components), explains the choice of Colombia as the favorite study destination.

First of all, socio-demographic characteristics are controlled. In some of the studies from the literature review it turned out that the importance of motivations for choosing a particular study destination differed according to these aspects (see Chapter 1.2.5). Hence, it is possible that these characteristics have an effect on the decision of

⁶³ Original question: "Before studying in Colombia, how motivated were you in general to study in this country?"; answer categories: 1 = very unmotivated to 5 = very motivated.

Colombia as the first favorite study destination and accordingly were included in the model. Nevertheless, *type of studies in Colombia* was not incorporated because it is highly related to the variable *exchange agreement* from the fourth block⁶⁴. Consequently, the five variables *gender*, *state of studies*, *region of nationality*, *field of study*, and *social background*⁶⁵ were considered.

Second, variables belonging to active components for studying abroad from the theoretical concept of Murphy-Lejeune were included. As explained in Chapter 2.2, the active components were equated with motivations from the model of Krzaklewska. Based on the findings from the pilot study in Colombia and the online questionnaire, the model of Krzaklewska was adjusted to the Colombian context (see Chapter 6.3.5). Hence, the four indices and one variable of the Colombian model of internal motivations related to the experimental dimension, the career dimension, and the linguistic dimension represent the active components.

Based on the approach of individualization, it was assumed that studying abroad improves career opportunities (see Chapter 2.1). This supposition is supported by the findings from many prior studies (see Chapter 1.2.1) as well as from the pilot study (see Chapters 5.3.1 and 5.3.2) because motivations related to education and career were crucial for the decision about the international study destination. At first glance, this suggests that the effect of the index education and career in general on the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination is positive. However, it has to be analyzed how the quality and reputation of higher education in Colombia is perceived in comparison with other study destinations. As outlined in Chapter 4.2, the quality of higher education in Colombia is appreciated in the region. For example, Colombia possesses a number of highly ranked universities in Latin America-wide rankings. However, when rakings are considered on a global scale, Colombia very rarely shows up in the top 400 (see Chapter 4.1). As additional information on the reputation of Colombian higher education, one may consult the variable "famous universities" that was included in the aspects of the country image of Colombia at the beginning of the online questionnaire. Only 17.2% of the participants associated Colombia with this item (see Appendix C 2 a). These explanations propose that academic and career-related motivations were not very important when choosing Colombia as the first favorite target country in international higher education. Consequently, the effect of the index education and career in general is expected to be negative.

⁶⁴ For more information, refer to Chapter 7.3.3.1

⁶⁵ Even though social background was not mentioned in studies from the literature review in this connection, it also was included as a socio-demographic characteristic in my doctoral project (see Chapter 6.4.1).

No previous studies have been found which analyzed motivations linked to education and career in relation to development or conflict. Thus, the hypothesis regarding the direction of its effect on the choice of Colombia as the first favorite target country in international higher education is based on the findings from the pilot study. There, interviewees who were enrolled in political science courses and development studies mentioned this motivation (see Chapters 5.3.1 and 5.3.2). As this reason refers to some specific characteristics of the country, it is assumed that the index *education and career related to development/conflict* has a positive impact on the first choice of Colombia.

The approach of youth mobility is based on the assumption that motivations beyond career perspectives are also crucial for going abroad (see Chapter 2.1). In this connection, aspects related to the living environment appeared in some previous studies (see Chapter 1.2.2). By relating this motivation to Colombia as an academic destination, it was uncovered in the pilot study that the living environment is of utmost concern for most participants. For example, traveling in Colombia is essential, as it was mentioned by all the interviewees. Moreover, for some respondents, traveling even was among the most important motivations for choosing Colombia as the study destination (see Chapter 5.3.3). With reference to the online survey, a look at the country image of respondents tells us that most items related to an enjoyable living environment hold high frequencies (e.g., beautiful nature 87.9%, nice weather 69.8%; see Appendix C 2 a). Based on these observations, a positive effect of the index *pleasant living environment* is anticipated.

As presented in the approach of individualization, studying abroad can be connected with personal development, too (see Chapter 2.1). Aspects belonging to this type of motivation appeared in a handful of prior studies analyzed in the literature review (see Chapter 1.2.2) as well as in the pilot study (see Chapter 5.3.4). In the online questionnaire only around one-fourth of the respondents held a clear country image before studying in Colombia. The remaining participants either possessed a vague or no image of Colombia at all (see Chapter 7.3.2). Thus, it can be guessed that living in a foreign country for at least one semester— taking into account that students had very limited knowledge about the country—is considered a good possibility for personal development. There will be plenty of opportunities for self-discovery and becoming more independent in the process of getting along in the new environment. Therefore, a positive effect of the index *personal development* on the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination is anticipated.

According to the model of Krzaklewska, the linguistic dimension can be an important reason for going abroad (see Chapter 2.2). As reported by several studies mentioned in the literature review, improving foreign language skills belonged to the top motivations (see Chapter 1.2.3). In the pilot study in Colombia, respondents with a mother tongue other than Spanish frequently named the enhancement of Spanish language skills (see Chapter 5.3.5). Besides, in the campaign CCYK, Spanish spoken in Colombia is termed easy-to-understand by official bodies due to its clarity (see Chapter 4.3). Such circumstance could be attractive for foreign students in their study destination choice. Concerning participants with the same mother tongue as the language in the study destination, the same language can also be a motivation in favor of a particular target country. For example, in her study on international students in Morocco, Berriane (2009) found that some francophone students appreciated studying in a French-speaking country. Similarly, Liberato (2012) showed that the same thing happened with Portuguese for Angolan students studying in Brazil (see Chapter 1.2.3). Considering these observations, a positive effect for the variable Spanish-speaking country is expected.

Third, variables related to the latent components from the concept of Murphy-Lejeune were included. Compared to active components, they can be regarded as less apparent aspects that influence the study destination choice (see Chapter 2.2). The latent components were incorporated in the online questionnaire by asking questions that refer to the country image of Colombia and the dream of getting to know the country. As outlined in Chapter 2.4, the country image can have an important effect on the decision about the international study destination. Against this background, it is supposed that a positive *country image* increases chances to opt for Colombia as the first target country. With reference to dreams, a student in the pilot study had the dream of getting to know Colombia since childhood (see Chapter 5.5). Thus, it can be assumed that having the *dream of getting to know Colombia* has a positive effect on the choice of this country as the first academic destination.⁶⁶

Finally, as outlined in Chapter 2.3, social networks in terms of diffusion and small kinship groups from the concept of transnational spaces by Faist (2004) can influence decisions on international geographic mobility. In Chapter 7.1.2 a descriptive overview of variables from the online survey concerning social networks (*local social network,*

⁶⁶ Personal characteristics were initially thought to be included, as these are part of the latent components from the concept of Murphy-Lejeune (see Chapter 2.2). However, this was not realized because variables measuring the personality of students cannot be adapted from the general model of going abroad to the model of Colombia as a particular study destination. The two previously mentioned latent components were adjusted to the Colombian context (country image of Colombia, dream of getting to know Colombia). However, as this is not possible with the personality of students, personal characteristics were not considered.

recommendation) and also on further external factors related to international student mobility in Colombia (*exchange agreement, scholarship*) is given. These factors positively affected the choice of a particular study destination (in some studies from the literature review) or the selection of Colombia (of some interviewees from the pilot study). Hence, it is analyzed if these variables have a positive impact on the decision of Colombia as the first favorite study destination in the online survey. As the four variables are directly bound to external circumstances, they are named *external components* in my thesis.

In Appendix C 3 in the attachment, there is an overview of all variables that were selected for the analysis of the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination, and they have been grouped into the previously mentioned four thematic blocks (socio-demographic characteristics, active components, latent components, external components). However, as some variables had to be transformed before calculations, this is not the final chart. In Chapter 7.3.3.1 a table with final variables is presented.

6.5 Summary

From October 2013 to December 2013, an online survey was carried out with international students enrolled at various Colombian universities. The questionnaire was constructed on the basis of the results from the pilot study realized in Colombia in 2012 and also from some previous studies. With the help of the DAAD in Bogotá, respondents were contacted via the international office of the respective Colombian university. Additionally, I approached potential participants via Facebook. The questionnaire was available in English and Spanish. Finally, the information of 127 foreign students was used for the analysis.

In order to find out why international students decide to study in Colombia, various hypotheses were developed. However, before testing hypotheses, CATPCA was used to group the large number of internal motivations that was included in the online questionnaire into few components. The answer categories for motivations in the online questionnaire were constructed dichotomously, although a scale with more points would have given more information. In future studies on this issue it should be weighed up if more items on a smaller scale or fewer items on a larger scale are more appropriate to reach the study's objective (see Chapter 6.3). After the grouping, empirical results were used to adapt the model of motivations for going abroad of international students in Europe to motivations for studying in Colombia. The resulting model of internal motivations comprises three dimensions developed by Krzaklewska

(2008), which contain the five following categories of internal motivations for studying in Colombia: education and career in general, education and career related to development/conflict (career dimension), pleasant living environment, personal development (experimental dimension), and Spanish-speaking country (linguistic dimension). Finally, several hypotheses for a statistical analysis were generated on the basis of theoretical considerations, results from prior publications, and the pilot study in Colombia.

7. Empirical Results of Online Survey

Chapter 7 presents the empirical results of the online survey with international students in Colombia. Initially, descriptive information of the sample is given, such as home country, level of education, and field of study. In addition, an overview of external factors (e.g., social networks) that influenced the choice of Colombia as an international study destination is provided. Subsequently, a typology of foreign students is presented. Applying hierarchical cluster analysis, five types of students with similar motivations for studying in Colombia were uncovered: social analysts, languageoriented, self-actualizers, pragmatists, and experience-seekers. Afterward, the findings from the testing of hypotheses, which were generated in Chapter 6, are depicted. For instance, a model explaining the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination was analyzed using binary logistic regression. Finally, the main empirical results are summarized and discussed.

7.1 Descriptive Results

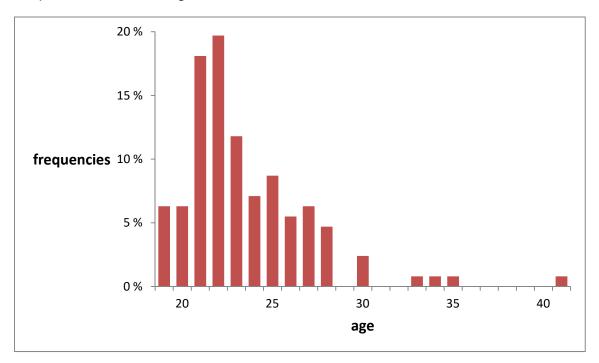
7.1.1 Sample

As described in Chapter 6, the information from 127 participants was used for data analysis. Interestingly, only 12.6%⁶⁷ of the guestionnaires were filled out in English and 87.4% in Spanish. Looking at the mother tongue of the participants in the survey and by relating these results to the findings from the pilot study, it can be explained why the Spanish version of the questionnaire was used that often. As many as 55.9% of the participants indicated that Spanish is their mother tongue, whereas 44.1% mentioned a mother tongue other than Spanish. Out of these other languages, German (16.5%) and French (16.5%) were named most frequently. There were only 5.5% native English speakers. Interestingly, two native English speakers filled out the questionnaire in Spanish. Four respondents indicated that they have two mother tongues, and one respondent had even three native languages. Students who neither had Spanish nor English as their mother tongue preferred Spanish (77.6%)⁶⁸ over English (22.4%) when completing the questionnaire. These findings correspond to the experience in the pilot study, where all interviewees with native languages other than the languages offered in the interview opted for Spanish.

⁶⁷ When percentages are given, all values are considered (including missing values), if not mentioned otherwise. However, the percentage of missing values is generally not provided within the text; it is provided only in cases of either high numbers or specific thematic relevance. ⁶⁸ In this sentence, only students with a mother tongue other than Spanish or English are considered.

Hence, the total N here is 49.

Around two-thirds of the respondents attended private universities, while around onethird of them went to public universities in Colombia. As many as 40.2% were enrolled in an institution of higher education in Bogotá, and nearly half of the students in a university that is located in a region outside Bogotá.⁶⁹ Most international students (88.2%) started their studies in Colombia in 2013. Only a handful had begun in 2011 (2.4%) or 2012 (3.9%)⁷⁰. The number of semesters in Colombia for the respondents varied from one to eight. However, the majority (59.1%) only stayed for one semester, while 28.3% of the participants opted to stay for two semesters. As many as 79.5% have never been to Colombia before their studies, whereas 11.8% of the students already visited Colombia once, 3.9% twice, and 4.7% three times or even more.



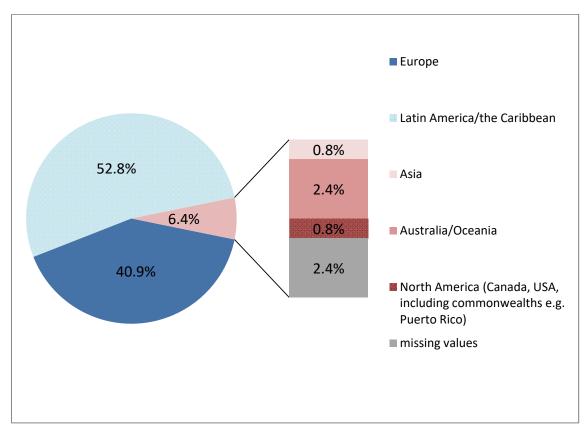
Graph 4: Distribution of age

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

59.8% of the participants were female and 40.2% male. Only 2.4% of them were married. Their average age was 23.5 years—ranging from 19 to 41 years. However, 22 years (19.7%) and 21 years (18.1%) were stated most frequently, and only a handful of students were older than 30 (see Graph 4). The participants were asked about their nationalities (for a list of nationalities see Appendix C 4). After the survey was finished, the nationalities were grouped according to regions (see Graph 5). The regions of nationality were classified in the same way as the regions of birth asked in the preceding question (see Appendix B 1). More than half of the participants held Latin

 ⁶⁹ 12.6% of the respondents have missing values.
 ⁷⁰ Concerning the handling of students with missing values for this variable, refer to Chapter 6.2.

America/the Caribbean nationalities, with Mexican⁷¹ being the most frequently named nationality (32.3%). Around two-fifths had a European nationality, with the two most cited nationalities being French (15.7%) and German (15.0%). There were very few students from Asia, North America, and Australia/Oceania; there was no student from Africa. As detailed in Chapter 4.3, the USA was the second sending country in 2010 concerning the number of international students who studied in Colombia. Hence, it is interesting to observe that only one student from the USA participated in the online survey. However, as there are no more current statistics, it is difficult to say whether there are fewer American students who study in Colombia nowadays or if their participation in the online survey was very low in comparison with students from other geographical regions.



Graph 5: Regions of nationality

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Around 70% were enrolled in undergraduate studies and approximately 30% in postgraduate studies. Regarding the type of their studies in Colombia, the vast majority of 78.0% realized a part of their studies in Colombia, whereas 22.0% were doing a full degree in Colombia. The degree-seeking students were asked to choose their main

⁷¹ From a geographical point of view, Mexico belongs to North America. However, from a cultural point of view, it fits better the category of Latin America. Therefore, the category of North America was reduced to Canada and the USA, including commonwealths.

field of study, while the non-degree-seeking students were asked to mention their main field of study at their home universities (see Table 3). The participants were instructed to indicate every main field of study, if applicable. Hence, more than 127 statements were given, which implies that the use of percentages in this table would not be meaningful. Therefore, it was referred to the numbers of students, instead of the percentages, when giving information about main fields of study. Concerning the whole sample, the three most frequently cited fields of study were business and administrative studies (32), social studies (32), and engineering (19).

Table 3: Main field(s) of study (N)

Main field of study	Non- degree- seeking students	Degree- seeking students	Total
Architecture, building and planning	6	0	6
Biological sciences (e.g. biology, psychology)	10	1	11
Business and administrative studies (e.g. accounting, marketing, tourism)	25	7	32
Communication studies and documentation	7	2	9
Creative arts and design (e.g. drama, photography)	11	0	11
Education	6	1	7
Engineering (e.g. civil engineering, electronic engineering)	12	7	19
Historical and philosophical studies (e.g. history, theology)	4	1	5
Languages, literature and related subjects	6	3	9
Law	6	3	9
Linguistics and related subjects	4	3	7
Mathematical and computer sciences	4	1	5
Medicine and dentistry	8	0	8
Physical sciences (e.g. chemistry, physics, geology)	6	0	6
Social studies (e.g. sociology, politics, social work)	24	8	32
Subjects related to medicine (e.g. pharmacy, nursing)	4	0	4
Technologies (e.g. metallurgy, materials technology)		1	2
Veterinary sciences, agriculture and related subjects	5	0	5
Other	1	1	2

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

7.1.2 External Factors

Besides internal motivations, external factors, such as social networks and structural issues, can also influence the destination choice in international higher education. With reference to social networks, recommendations and local social networks affected the decision of the respective study destination in some prior studies (see Chapter 1.2.4). Likewise, the recommendation of Colombia or a specific Colombian university as well as partner, relatives, or friends living in Colombia during the student's stay were

important reasons in the pilot study for some respondents to study in this country (see Chapter 5.4.1). Hence, both diffusion and small kinship groups of the theoretical concept of transnational spaces, as developed by Faist (see Chapter 2.3), can be relevant for the study destination choice in international higher education. Regarding structural issues, it was uncovered that exchange agreements between the foreign university and the home university played a crucial role in the pilot study. Some of the interviewees exclusively considered countries with such agreements in their destination choice (see Chapter 5.4.2). Moreover, scholarships were important for the selection of a target country in international higher education in a couple of studies from the literature review (see Chapter 1.2.4) and in the pilot study (see Chapter 5.4.2).

With reference to recommendations, it was asked, on the one hand, if Colombia was suggested by people who have already been there. As many as 59.1% of the participants answered this question affirmatively. On the other hand, it was questioned if a specific Colombian university was recommended by people who had studied there. As many as 38.6% agreed that this was the case. Altogether, 70.9% of the respondents received at least one of these two kinds of recommendation. Hence, it can be concluded that obtaining recommendations was quite common among foreign students in Colombia. However, the same does not apply to the possession of local social networks. The percentage of respondents having local social networks in Colombia during their studies is remarkably low. 9.4% had a partner living in Colombia at the same time, 5.5% had their relatives in the country, and 12.6% had friends there. When asked about the functions of these networks, it was uncovered that there are not big differences between spending time, help before the stay abroad, and help during the stay abroad within each type of network (see Appendix C 5). However, when comparing between the three types, it was revealed that those who had partner and/or relatives in Colombia put more importance on the three network functions as those who had friends in Colombia. As the number of participants with local social networks was guite low, it was calculated how many students held at least one type of network. It was found that 21.3% had partner and/or relatives and/or friends living in Colombia during their stay. Thus, the vast majority of the respondents did not possess any local social network in Colombia at all.

Concerning structural issues, it can be observed that 55.1% of the participants got a scholarship for their studies in Colombia. Relating to exchange agreements, it is interesting to note that the home university of the broad majority of those students who did not stay for their full degree in Colombia had an agreement with the Colombian

university where they were enrolled (89.9%). Only a few of these students did not come in the context of a university convention (10.1%). All participants who stayed for a part of their degree in Colombia were asked if they only considered countries with exchange agreements when deciding about the study destination; of them, 78.8% answered affirmatively. It has to be taken into account that many respondents were invited for participation in the online survey via international offices of the Colombian university where they were registered. These again were contacted by the DAAD in Bogotá (see Chapter 6.1). Thus, it can be guessed that international offices that received the email from the DAAD in most of the cases are likely to be engaged with international academic mobility and possess exchange agreements. Therefore, the high number of non-degree-seeking students who study in Colombia with an exchange agreement could also be influenced by the way of recruitment.

7.2 Typology of International Students

Foreign students usually have more than one main reason for participating in international higher education. Moreover, motivations can belong to the experimental and the career dimensions at the same time (see Chapter 2.2). Similarly, interviewees from the pilot study mentioned several motivations for their decision to study in Colombia (see Chapter 5.3). Developing a typology contributes to the reduction of complexity by providing a structure (Pries, 1997; Reinhold, 1990 as cited in Promberger, 2011, p. 6). Thus, international students were grouped into different types according to those motivations that they considered most important when deciding to study in Colombia. After creating the typology, it was examined if the groups differed regarding socio-demographic characteristics such as gender and region of origin. The development of a typology of foreign students based on motivations for opting for a particular study destination using quantitative data and the analysis of the resulting types regarding various socio-demographic characteristics have not been part of any of the studies cited in the literature review.⁷² Consequently, the creation of a typology of international students in Colombia is particularly valuable.

⁷² Three studies containing a typology of international students' motivations were identified. However, they are not based on the same criteria as the typology of my project. First, in her ethnographic study, Murphy-Lejeune (2002, pp. 79-96) identified three main motivations why foreign students go abroad in Europe. According to her research, each of these reasons is outstanding in one of the three types of students; the category "speaking foreignness" (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 82) (implying different issues connected with language) is typical for language assistant teachers, "living foreignness" (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 87) (experience of living for a long time in a foreign country) for Erasmus students, and "international openness" (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 92) (growth of personality) for EAP students (for more information on the EAP program, refer to Chapter 2.2). Second, Krzaklewska (2013, pp. 82, 91-92) analyzed autobiographical narratives and in-depth interviews of Erasmus students and assigned them to three groups (career oriented, culture oriented, explorers). Her typology is mainly based on the experiences of

7.2.1 Requirements for Cluster Analysis

For creating a typology, those characteristics must be decided upon on which the typology would be based (Kluge, 2000. 3.1 Erarbeitung relevanter Vergleichsdimensionen, para. 1). In this project, aspects for grouping participants are internal motivations for choosing Colombia as a study destination, which are related to the career, experimental, and linguistic dimensions. Consequently, the respondents were grouped based on the importance they set on the four indices education and career in general, education and career related to development/conflict, pleasant living environment, personal development, and the variable Spanish-speaking country when choosing Colombia as an international study destination.

Of course, external factors (social networks, structural issues) can also influence the decision of a study destination. Nevertheless, it was decided to base the typology exclusively on internal motivations. External factors depend on circumstances that cannot be directly influenced by the individual student. This means, for example, that a respondent either received recommendations of Colombia or a specific Colombian university or not; the home university of a participant either possessed an exchange agreement with a Colombian university or not. Additionally, external factors are not linked to specific characteristics of the country; exchange agreements can exist with a university in Colombia, Argentina, Japan, etc.; friends can live in Colombia, Spain, Australia, etc. On the contrary, internal motivations are directly or indirectly connected with specific characteristics of Colombia—e.g., if a student stated that getting to know people who could be helpful for finding a job in the future was important for the decision to study in Colombia, then this student was of the opinion that he/she can get to know such people in Colombia; if a student stated that becoming more independent and mature was crucial for the decision to study in Colombia, then this student was of the opinion that he/she can reach these goals in Colombia (perhaps studying in a neighboring country to the home country would not fulfill such conditions). Hence, external factors were not used to create a typology.

An adequate method to create a typology is cluster analysis (Kuckartz, 1988, 1995, 1996 as cited in Kluge, 2000, 3.4 Charakterisierung der gebildeten Typen, para. 2). The aim of cluster analysis is to group objects (here: international students) that are as much similar as possible according to certain criteria (here: motivations for studying in

students during the participation in the Erasmus program but also on their motivations for going abroad. Third, Choudaha et al. (2012) used an online survey with around 1,600 international students with the USA as a prospective study destination. Foreign students' behavior during the search of information on studying in the USA was analyzed, connecting results with motivations for the study destination choice. The typology is based on the dimensions "academic preparedness and financial resources" (Choudaha et al., 2012, para. 1), resulting in four groups of students: "strivers [...] strugglers [...] explorers [and] highfliers" (Choudaha et al., 2012, Profiles of U.S.-bound international student segments, para 2).

Colombia) in the same cluster (Brosius, 2013, p. 711). Students within one group should be as similar as possible, thus contributing to internal homogeneity. At the same time, groups should be as different as possible, hence providing external heterogeneity (Kluge, 1999, pp. 26-27).⁷³

Variables that possess similar characteristics and are highly correlated have more influence in cluster analysis than variables that measure independent characteristics (Bortz, 2005, p. 569). Thus, variables with a high correlation can bias results (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 549). In order to ensure that the five motivations are not highly correlated, Pearson coefficients were analyzed initially. If two variables have a higher correlation coefficient than 0.9, it is advised to exclude one of them from cluster analysis (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 550). As you can see in Appendix C 6, correlations are quite weak, with the highest coefficient being 0.304 between education and career in general and personal development. Thus, it is not necessary to exclude any index or variable from the cluster analysis.

It was decided to use hierarchical cluster analysis because there was not any hypothesis concerning the exact number of clusters, and the number of respondents was not very high (Bühl, 2014, p. 633). Regarding the method for realizing cluster analysis, Ward's method was used because it is a proven procedure for finding reliable results (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 551). According to Bühl (2014, p. 651), the appropriate distance measure when using Ward's method is squared Euclidean distance. As already pointed out before, the number of the points on the scales of the four indices and the one variable are not identical. In order to avoid biased results, a ztransformation was realized (Backhaus et al., 2006, pp. 550-551; Brosius, 2013, pp. 720-721).

7.2.2 Results of Cluster Analysis: Five Types of International Students

The number of types was decided on the basis of a dendrogram as it allows optical identification of a meaningful number of clusters. It shows how small or large distances are during the process of clustering groups (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 534; Brosius, 2013, p. 728). Nevertheless, it would not be useful to opt for too many clusters because the number of respondents was not very high (Kluge, 1999, p. 27)74. Thus, it was decided to consider solutions only for three, four, and five clusters. As it can be seen in Appendix C 7, five clusters is an adequate solution. Four or three clusters are not

 ⁷³ For more information, refer to the authors named by Kluge (1999, p. 27, Footnote 23).
 ⁷⁴ For more information, refer to the authors named by Kluge (1999, p. 27, Footnote 25).

recommended, as distances for merging five clusters into four or three clusters are quite large.

In the following, the five types that were identified through cluster analysis are described using cluster profiles. For this purpose, the means of the five internal motivations were examined in connection with the clusters on a descriptive level (Bühl, 2014, p. 645). The results are provided in Table 4. Within each type, attention was paid to indices/variable⁷⁵ with high means as they show which kinds of motivations were important for this group to choose Colombia as a study destination. Additionally, the means of the same index/variable were also compared across types. This way, it can be uncovered which indices/variable allow a good separation of the clusters and are distinctive for a particular type. In this part, the analysis does not remain descriptive but also refers to nonparametric tests⁷⁶ analyzing if the values of the four indices and the one variable, on which the cluster analysis is based, differ in a statistically significant manner between the clusters.

	Туре								Total			
Index/variable	1		2		3		4		5		lot	ai
	Mean	Ν	Mean	Ν	Mean	Ν	Mean	Ν	Mean	Ν	Mean	N
Education and	0.85	30	0.81	25	0.72	29	0.53	21	0.33	16	0.69	121
career in												
general												
Education and	0.88	30	0.20	25	0.17	29	0.40	21	0.48	16	0.43	121
career related to												
development/												
conflict												
Pleasant	0.80	30	0.70	25	0.72	29	0.62	21	0.83	16	0.73	121
living												
environment												
Personal	0.99	30	0.93	25	1.00	29	0.33	21	0.85	16	0.85	121
development												
Spanish-	0.66	30	0.91	25	0.14	29	0.48	21	0.89	16	0.59	121
speaking												
country												

Table 4: Means	of internal	motivations by	v five types
	or internal	mouvationo b	

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Table 5 provides the results of the nonparametric tests. At first glance, it can already be determined that all indices/variable, besides *pleasant living environment*, differ in a

⁷⁵ As four of the internal motivations are indices (education and career in general, education and career related to development/conflict, pleasant living environment, personal development) and one motivation is not an index (Spanish-speaking country) when referring to all five motivations, it is written "indices/ variable".

variable". ⁷⁶ T-test and one-way ANOVA are adequate methods for the comparison of means. However, these are parametric tests and require, among others, a random sampling and a normal distribution of data (Brosius, 2013, pp. 478-479, 500). In this project, these requirements are not met. Hence, nonparametric tests were used because fewer criteria have to be considered (Brosius, 2013, p. 859). Consequently, the Mann-Whitney test was used in the whole project instead of t-test, along with the Kruskal-Wallis test instead of one-way ANOVA (Brosius, 2013, p. 859; Bühl, 2014, p. 373).

statistically significant manner between several types. As *pleasant living environment* holds rather high means in all clusters (between 0.62 and 0.83), this index generally was important for the decision to study in Colombia. However, it is not very helpful for analyzing differences between the five types. Hence, the interpretation does not refer to this index only, for instance, in cases where it possesses a remarkably high mean compared to other indices/variable within a cluster. Something similar applies to *personal development*. This index has high values for all types (between 0.85 and 1.00), besides Type 4 (0.33). Thus, *personal development* was crucial for choosing Colombia as an international study destination for students from all groups, with the exception of Cluster 4. Consequently, this index is not very useful in distinguishing Types 1, 2, 3, and 5. Therefore, this index is only mentioned if it holds a notably high mean in comparison with other indices/variable within a cluster. The other two indices and the variable are appropriate for separating clusters from each other.

Table 5: Stati	stically signif	cant difference	s between	five types	using no	<u>nparametric</u>
tests (one-way	ANOVA by t	he Kruskal-Wal	is test, pairv	vise compa	arison)	

Index/variable	Туре								
	1	2	3	4	5				
Education and	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to				
career in general	Types 4, 5	Types 4, 5	Туре 5	Types 1, 2	Types 1, 2, 3				
Education and	Different to all	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to				
career related to	other types	Type 1	Туре 1	Type 1	Type 1				
development/									
conflict									
Pleasant	-	-	-	-	-				
living									
environment									
Personal	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to				
development	Туре 4	Type 4	Туре 4	all other	Type 4				
				types					
Spanish-	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to	Different to				
speaking country	Туре 3	Types 3, 4	Types 1, 2, 5	Types 2, 5	Types 3, 4				

Note: Types that differ from each other significantly at α = 0.05 are listed (values of adjusted significance were considered for interpretation; see Footnote 141 in the appendix). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

In order to depict indices that are characteristic for a particular type in more detail, it was examined which original binary variables of the corresponding index possess high frequencies (see Appendix C 8). Finally, the clusters are described according to noticeable socio-demographic characteristics: gender, state of studies (undergraduate studies/postgraduate studies), type of studies in Colombia (degree-seeking students/ non-degree-seeking students), region of nationality (Europe and other regions/Latin

America and the Caribbean)⁷⁷, field of study (business and administrative studies/social studies/other fields)⁷⁸, and social background (low social position/middle social position/high social position)⁷⁹. Additionally, information is given on the share of students with Colombia or Latin America/the Caribbean,⁸⁰ as the first favorite study destination in cases where the percentage differs remarkably from those in other types (see Appendix C 9).

7.2.2.1 Type 1: Social Analysts

Counting 30 students, the first cluster is the biggest of the five types. For both indices of the career dimension, this type possesses the highest mean compared to the other groups, namely *education and career in general* (0.85) and *education and career related to development/conflict* (0.88). Going other clusters (Cluster 2: 0.20; Cluster 3: 0.17; Cluster 4: 0.40; Cluster 5: 0.48). Going beyond descriptive analysis, the findings from the nonparametric tests show that the value of *education and career related to development/conflict* for Group 1 differs in a statistically significant manner from all other types, hence emphasizing the importance of this motivation. Relating to *education and career in general*, Type 1 varies significantly from Types 4 and 5.

For *education and career in general*, the variable "improving job opportunities through skills gained during studies abroad (e.g. language, intercultural competence)" holds the highest agreement. All students from this group answered affirmatively to this item. This variable is closely followed by "getting to know different academic perspectives" (96.7%). For *education and career related to development/conflict*, the variable "improving job opportunities through studying in a country with an internal conflict

⁷⁷ In Chapter 7.1.1, the regional background of the participants from the online survey is described. With the exception of five respondents, all students possessed a nationality from either Latin America/the Caribbean or Europe. Participants from other regions had a nationality from Australia, China, or the USA. As their number was very low, they were put together with the European respondents. This classification was made because students from Latin American countries who study in Colombia are in the same geographical and a similar cultural region. On the contrary, students from Europe and other regions come from another geographical and a culturally different region than Colombia.

⁷⁸ As illustrated in Chapter 7.1.1, the respondents pursued a number of different main fields of study. The subjects "business and administrative studies" and "social studies" were by far the most frequently named. All other fields of study have frequencies below 20. To prevent categories with sparse occupancy, all subjects other than business and social studies were put into one group. However, since it was possible to name more than one main field of study, there are four cases where students chose both social and business studies. As it is not possible to place one participant in two categories, these four respondents were assigned to "other fields".

⁷⁹ The variable that measures the social position of the student's parents ranges from 1 to 5. For the comparison of means, the following three categories were created: "low social position" (Values 1.0 to 2.5), "middle social position" (Values 3 to 3.5), and "high social position" (Values 4.0 to 5.0). As the number of observations for the Values 1.0 to 2.5 is very low, they were put in the same category.

⁸⁰ For the construction of this variable, refer to Chapter 7.3.3.1.

because it proves my capability of living in a challenging environment" has the highest frequency (93.3%). Similarly, the item "studying in a country with internal conflict in order to observe how this country is dealing with conflict" (86.7%) has high agreement.

When looking at the composition of the first type regarding different socio-demographic characteristics, there are variations worth pointing out for *state of studies*, *field of study*, and *social background*. In the first cluster, the portion of respondents enrolled in undergraduate studies is the highest of all types. With reference to *field of study*, Cluster 1 by far holds the highest share of students from social studies (40.0%) (Cluster 2: 16.0%, Cluster 3: 10.3%, Cluster 4: 19.0%; Cluster 5: 25.0%). Concerning *social background*, there is the highest share of students from low social background in the first type.

To sum it up, for students from the first type, motivations from the career dimension were crucial for their decision to study in Colombia. Moreover, the respondents put paramount importance on the specific aspect of Colombia as a country characterized by development and conflict. The share of students from undergraduate studies and low social position is somewhat higher than that in the other four types. Furthermore, this cluster by far contains the highest portion of students from social sciences.

7.2.2.2 Type 2: Language-oriented

The second type comprises 25 respondents. This group has the highest value for *Spanish-speaking country* (0.91), which differs in a statistically significant manner from Clusters 3 and 4. Moreover, Type 2 holds the second highest value for *education and career in general* (0.81), which varies significantly from Groups 4 and 5.

With reference to *education and career in general*, it was analyzed which original binary variable of this index contains the highest frequency. The following two items turned out to have 96.0% agreement: "getting to know different academic perspectives" and "improving job opportunities through skills gained during studies abroad (e.g. language, intercultural competence)." Furthermore, the variable "studying at a foreign university with a good reputation" has similar high frequencies (92.0%).

Relating to socio-demographic characteristics, there is only one point worth mentioning: the second cluster has the highest share of students enrolled in postgraduate studies.

Summarizing the findings for the second type, it can be stated that Colombia's being a Spanish-speaking country was very crucial for the decision of this group to study in Colombia. Besides the linguistic dimension, general educational and career-relevant motivations were very important for their decision to opt for Colombia as a destination in international higher education. In the second cluster, the portion of participants pursuing postgraduate studies is the highest of all clusters.

7.2.2.3 Type 3: Self-actualizers⁸¹

The third type consists of 29 students. Within this group *personal development* has the highest mean. In Chapter 7.2.2 it was explained that reference would be made to *personal development* only if its value is remarkably high compared to the means of the other indices/variable within a cluster. As you can see in Table 4, this is precisely the case for Group 3. Moreover, this cluster also holds the highest mean of *personal development* (1.0) across all clusters. The value of 1.0 signifies that all participants in this type have the maximum value for this index. The mean of *education and career in general* (0.72) is located close to the mean of the entire sample. The means of *education and career related to development/conflict* (0.17) and *Spanish-speaking country* (0.14) are the lowest of all types. Regarding *Spanish-speaking country*, the mean is the lowest compared to the four other clusters (Cluster 1: 0.66; Cluster 2: 0.91; Cluster 4: 0.48; Cluster 5: 0.89), and it varies in a statistically significant manner from three clusters (Clusters 1, 2 and 5). It implies that the linguistic dimension was not important at all for the decision of the respondents from this group to pursue higher studies in Colombia.

When analyzing socio-demographic characteristics, *types of studies in Colombia*, *region of nationality, field of study,* and *Colombia/Latin America first choice* are worth mentioning. Type 3 possesses the highest portion of degree-seeking students. The share of respondents from Latin America/the Caribbean for the whole sample is 50.4%, while it is 47.1% for participants from Europe and other regions. The third group has 20.7% students from Latin America/the Caribbean and 79.3% from Europe and other regions. These numbers diverge notably from those of the entire sample and are only exceeded by the composition of Cluster 5. Regarding *field of study*, Cluster 3 holds the lowest share of students from social studies. Finally, Cluster 3 shows by far the lowest percentage of participants (17.2%) who gave Colombia or Latin America/the Caribbean as their first favorite study destination (entire sample: 44.6%).

It can be concluded that for participants from the third type, *personal development* was the most important motivation for studying in Colombia. Compared to other clusters, motivations relating to the career dimension were not very important. This particularly

⁸¹ The term *self-actualization* stems from Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943).

applies to the index linked to development and conflict. Furthermore, the linguistic dimension was not crucial at all. This type holds the highest share of degree-seeking students; it mainly consists of respondents from Europe and other regions; it has very few students from social studies and it possesses the lowest percentage of participants with Colombia or Latin America/the Caribbean as the first study destination choice.

7.2.2.4 Type 4: Pragmatists

Concerning Type 4, which comprises 21 students, it is noticeable that it does not possess any index/variable with the highest mean. Furthermore, the values in all cases are located below the total mean of the whole sample. Within this cluster, the two indices/variable with the highest mean are *pleasant living environment* (0.62), followed by *education and career in general* (0.53). Hence, these two indices were the most important reasons for this group for choosing Colombia as the study destination, although their means are not very high.⁸²

As *pleasant living environment* and *education and career in general* possess the highest values within the fourth cluster, the frequencies of the original binary variables that belong to these two indices were examined. It can be determined that "getting to know local specialties (e.g. food, music)" and "traveling in Colombia" (each 71.4%), along with "getting to know different academic perspectives" (81.0%) were the items most often quoted.

With reference to socio-demographic characteristics, it is interesting to observe that this type by far holds the highest share of male students (61.9%) (Cluster 1: 40.0%, Cluster 2: 36.0%, Cluster 3: 41.4%; Cluster 5: 25.0%). Concerning the main *field of study*, Cluster 4 has the highest portion of participants enrolled in business and administrative studies.

To sum it up, students from this type generally did not attach much importance on most motivations considered for creating the typology. The indices/variable with the highest means are *pleasant living environment* and *education and career in general*. Hence, at least to some extent, general academic and career motivations and an enjoyable living environment can be regarded as crucial for choosing Colombia for international higher education. Regarding socio-demographic characteristics, it was found that this cluster

⁸² The reason for low values in this type is not clear. It could be the case that only a few original items of which the indices were composed were important for the decision of the respondents from this cluster to study in Colombia. However, as original variables are dichotomous, it was not possible for the participants to attach more weight to these items.

has the highest share of male respondents and students enrolled in business and administrative studies.

7.2.2.5 Type 5: Experience-seekers⁸³

The fifth type is the smallest with 16 students. Regarding *Spanish-speaking country*, this group holds the second highest value (0.89), which differs in a statistically significant manner from those of Clusters 3 and 4. There are two other indices in Cluster 5 which have a similar mean like that of the linguistic dimension: *pleasant living environment* (0.83) and *personal development* (0.85). Moreover, the value of *pleasant living environment* is the highest mean for this index across all types. Hence, motivations related to the experimental dimension played a central role for this type in the choice of Colombia as a study destination. On the contrary, motivations of the career dimension were not regarded as very decisive. The value for *education and career related to development/conflict* (0.48) is close to the mean of the whole sample, whereas the value of *education and career in general* (0.33) is by far the lowest of all clusters (Cluster 1: 0.85; Cluster 2: 0.81; Cluster 3: 0.72; Cluster 4: 0.53), varying in a statistically significant manner from those of Clusters 1, 2 and 3.

When examining the original binary variables of the index *pleasant living environment*, it was found that the following two variables with 93.8% each have the highest frequencies: "getting to know local specialties (e.g. food, music)," and "traveling in Colombia." Moreover, the item "interesting free time activities (e.g. sightseeing, salsa dancing)" has also high agreement (87.5%). Relating to *personal development*, "getting to know more about myself" (93.8%) was mentioned most often.

With reference to socio-demographic characteristics, there are a number of points that are worth mentioning. First, it is the type with the highest share of female students. Second, it has the highest percentage of non-degree-seeking students. Third, this cluster by far holds the highest share of students from Europe and other regions (93.8%) (Cluster 1: 40.0%; Cluster 2: 44.0%; Cluster 3: 79.3%; Cluster 4: 61.9%). Fourth, Group 5 possesses the highest portion of students from middle social position and the lowest portion of students from low social position. Finally, Type 5 is by far the biggest group concerning the share of participants who chose Colombia or Latin America/the Caribbean as their first favorite study destination (87.5%) (whole sample: 44.6%).

⁸³ The term *experience-seeking* stems from Zuckerman's dimensions of sensation seeking (Zuckerman, 1971).

It can be concluded that for participants from the fifth type, motivations from the experimental dimension and the linguistic dimension were crucial for the decision to study in Colombia. In contrast, the respondents were not much concerned about the motivations of the career dimension. Considering the regional background of students from this group, they mainly stem from Europe and other regions. In comparison with other clusters, they have a higher share of female participants, non-degree-seeking students, and respondents belonging to middle social position. Furthermore, Cluster 5 holds by far the highest portion of students who chose Colombia/Latin America as the first favorite study destination.

Concluding the interpretation of the five types, it becomes apparent that most students had more than one main reason for choosing Colombia as their international study destination. Furthermore, the findings show that motivations related to experimental and career dimensions can be important at the same time. Additionally, it can be affirmed that the separate treatment of the linguistic dimension, as suggested by Krzaklewska (see Chapter 2.2), is appropriate. Results from cluster analysis show that the linguistic dimension is characteristic for Group 5, where the respondents also gave weight to the experimental dimension but not much to the career dimension. Finally, it is revealing that *education and career related to development/conflict* was very crucial for students from Type 1 when choosing Colombia as a target country in international higher education. As this motivation has not been part of previous research considered in the literature review, the novelty of this finding has to be emphasized.

7.3 Testing of Hypotheses

7.3.1 Motivations according to Socio-demographic Characteristics

As explained in Chapter 6.4.1, it was analyzed if the meaning of internal motivations for choosing Colombia as a study destination differs according to socio-demographic characteristics. Hence, the two indices of career dimension (education and career in general, education and career related to development/conflict), the two indices of experimental dimension (pleasant living environment, personal development), and the variable of linguistic dimension (Spanish-speaking country) were examined relating to gender, state of studies (undergraduate studies/postgraduate studies), type of studies in Colombia (degree-seeking students/non-degree-seeking students), region of nationality (Europe and other regions/Latin America and the Caribbean), main field of study (business and administrative studies/social studies/other fields), and social background (low social position/middle social position/high social position). In Appendix C 10, the results of the comparison of means according to the six socio-demographic

characteristics, using two-sided nonparametric tests, are provided.⁸⁴ The text exclusively makes reference to the statistically significant results.

First of all, it is remarkable that for *region of nationality*, statistically significant differences on a 1% level were found for two indices and one variable. Students from Latin America/the Caribbean put more importance on the following two motivations compared to students from Europe and other regions: *education and career in general* (0.81 vs. 0.62)⁸⁵ and *personal development* (0.95 vs. 0.82). However, for participants with a nationality other than Latin American, a *Spanish-speaking country* was a lot more important than for respondents with a nationality from Latin America/the Caribbean (0.84 vs. 0.29).

Besides *region of nationality*, statistically significant results were found for *field of study*. For respondents who are enrolled in social studies, *education and career related to development/conflict* was more important than it was for participants from business studies and other fields (0.63 vs. 0.32 / 0.28).

7.3.2 Country Image and Information Sources

Many interviewees from the pilot study said they did not know a lot about Colombia (see Chapter 5.5). Therefore, the first question in the online questionnaire addressed the issue of having a country image of Colombia before studying there. Additionally, it was distinguished between a clear and a vague image. As many as 8.7% of the participants did not have any image at all, while 66.9% held a vague and only 24.4% a clear country image. These findings support the results from the pilot study. They emphasize the fact that international students did not know very much about Colombia, as only around one-fourth of the respondents possessed a clear image.

Students who stated that they either held a vague or a clear country image were asked to indicate if they associated 14 items linked to different aspects of Colombia with this country or not.⁸⁶ Items that were quoted most frequently are in the following order: beautiful nature (87.9%) and friendly people/interesting culture/developing country (each 87.1%). Aspects that were mentioned most rarely are: developed country (5.2%), famous universities (17.2%), and tasty food (31.9%). When differentiating between

 ⁸⁴ For an explanation why nonparametric tests were used for analysis, refer to Footnote 76 in Chapter 7.2.2.
 ⁸⁵ Ranks are the basis of most nonparametric tests (Brosius, 2013, p. 859). However, it was decided to

⁸⁵ Ranks are the basis of most nonparametric tests (Brosius, 2013, p. 859). However, it was decided to give grouped medians in parenthesis and not mean ranks, as the grouped medians are easier to interpret (Bühl, 2014, pp. 363, 375).

⁸⁶ In Appendix C 2, the frequencies and percentages can be found for all 14 items for all students with a country image of Colombia as well as individually for the group with a clear image and the group with a vague one.

participants with a vague and respondents with a clear country image, it was found that there are not many divergences regarding the country image with the exception of developing country and the three negative items. 61.3% of the students with a clear image related Colombia with the aspect of developing country, whereas in the group with a vague image, it was 96.5%. The agreement with negative items was much higher in the group with the vague image; 83.5% associated Colombia with an unsafe country, 80.0% with crime and 91.8% with drugs. But in the group with a clear country image, only 54.8% cited the aspect of an unsafe country, 54.8% crime and 64.5% drugs. This means that students with a vague country image related Colombia more to the status of a developing country and with negative aspects than students with a clear country image.

In order to find out how the country image of Colombia is connected with positive and negative attributes, an index was developed. On the one hand, out of those 14 items, six hold prefix adjectives that undoubtedly create a positive association: friendly people, interesting culture, beautiful nature, nice weather, tasty food, and famous universities. These positively associated items were combined in an additive index named "positive country image index," ranging from 0 to 6. On the other hand, three items are clearly connected with negative attributes: unsafe country, crime, and drugs. To enable the combination of these variables with those from the positive index at a later stage, the items linked to negative aspects were recoded inversely. It means that answering affirmatively to one of these items implicated obtaining the value 0 for this variable and otherwise the value 1. Values from these three characteristics were integrated in an additive index called "negative country image index," ranging from 0 to 3. Next, the two indices were combined in one single additive index named "country image index" on a 10-point scale that ranges from 0 to 9. The value 0 stands for a very negative image, and the value 9 for a very positive image of Colombia.⁸⁷ Out of those students who possessed a country image of Colombia, there is one participant that holds the value 0 and one that has the value 9 (see Appendix C 11 a). However, most students possess values between 3 and 6, with the mean lying at 4.48. Hence, the mean almost corresponds to 4.5, which represents the center of the scale and thus implies a neutral opinion. It signifies that the country image of Colombia on average is quite balanced.88

⁸⁷ There are five items left: partying and dancing, Colombian celebrities, developed country, developing country, and low living expenses. As these variables cannot be assigned unambiguously to positive or negative attributes, they were not considered for further calculation.
⁸⁸ Differentiating between the group clear image and the group vague image, participants with a clear

^{oo} Differentiating between the group clear image and the group vague image, participants with a clear image held a slightly better country image of Colombia compared to respondents with a vague image. However, on applying a Mann-Whitney test (two-sided), it was seen that differences are not statistically significant (see Appendix C 11 b).

In Chapter 2.4 it was detailed that information sources are important for the formation of the country image. For this reason, the participants were asked in the online questionnaire if they searched for information about Colombia. As many as 11.8% answered negatively, while 88.2% answered affirmatively.⁸⁹ Eight different sources of information were listed, and the respondents could indicate the appropriate sources (multiple answers were possible). The mean of information sources used amounts to 4.08.⁹⁰ Hence, on average, every participant who utilized information sources consulted four different sources. This finding confirms the results from the pilot study, where it turned out that the interviewees had referred to various information sources (see Chapter 5.5). In Appendix C 12, frequencies and percentages can be found for all eight items for all students who searched for information as well as individually for the group with a clear image and the group with a vague one. Variables that were mentioned most frequently are in the following order: the Internet (100.0%), personal contact with people (not Colombians) who are/have been in Colombia (66.1%), and personal contact with Colombians (60.7%). Items that were named most rarely are: informative meeting/education fair about studying abroad (19.6%), television (27.7%), and international office of home university (34.8%). When distinguishing between participants with a clear and a vague image, there are some differences worth mentioning. The reference of the two information sources international office of the home university (38.2% vs. 28.6%) and international office of the Colombian university (40.8% vs. 25.0%) is somewhat higher for students with a vague image than students with a clear image. Furthermore, respondents with a vague country image more often contacted people (not Colombians) who are/have been in Colombia (71.1% vs. 57.1%), but less often Colombians (57.9% vs. 71.4%) as participants with a clear image.

In order to find out if the use of specific information sources has an effect on the country image, the eight information sources were analyzed individually. As stated in Chapter 6.4.2, it was assumed that the use of the Internet/television is linked to a more negative country image. Then, it was supposed that the consultation of the international office of the home university/the international office of the Colombian university/education fair is connected with a more positive country image. Next, it was assumed that the usage of reports from other students about studying in Colombia/personal contact with Colombians/personal contact with people (not Colombians) who have been to Colombia is linked to a different country image, but the

⁸⁹ There is no relevant difference between students with a clear country image and students with a vague one (90.3% vs. 89.4% searched information).

⁹⁰ Differentiating between the group clear image and the group vague image, respondents with a vague image used more information sources as participants with a clear image. However, on applying a Mann-Whitney test (one-sided), it was seen that differences are not statistically significant (see Appendix C 11 c).

direction of these effects were not predicted. Consequently, the first and the second type of information sources were analyzed with a one-sided nonparametric test, while the third was analyzed with a two-sided nonparametric test.

As all participants indicated that they used the Internet, this variable was not considered for the following calculations. For the other seven items, Mann-Whitney tests were carried out separately for each variable. Findings for the seven tests are provided in Appendix C 13. In the text reference is made exclusively to one test as it provides statistically significant results. Concerning the third type of information sources that was examined with a two-sided Mann-Whitney test, it was found that the respondents who used reports from other students about studying in Colombia had a significantly more positive country image before studying in Colombia than those who did not use reports to inform themselves about Colombia (4.61 vs. 3.90)^{91,92}

In order to analyze the hypothesis that foreign students from Latin America⁹³ possessed a more positive country image before studying in Colombia than those from other regions, a one-sided Mann-Whitney test was used (see Appendix C 14). However, the values of their mean ranks do not differ in a statistically significant manner from each other. Hence, the null hypothesis that claims that international students from Latin America did not possess a more positive country image before studying in Colombia than students from other regions cannot be rejected. Referring these findings to Brigard Perdomo, it cannot be supported that students from Latin America held a more positive country image compared to students from other regions.

Concerning the hypothesis that students who already visited Colombia before their studies held a more positive country image than non-visitors, a one-side Mann-Whitney test was used (see Appendix C 15). As there are no statistically significant differences, the null hypothesis that states that the previous visitors did not possess a more positive country image before studying in Colombia than non-visitors cannot be rejected.

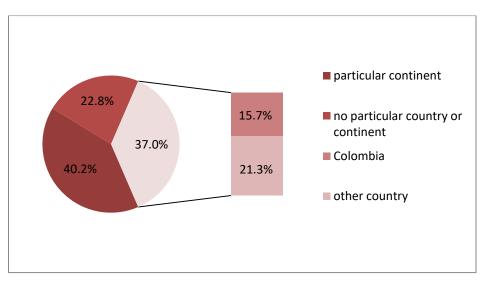
⁹¹ Grouped medians are given in parenthesis.

⁹² As only one test showed statistically significant results and the sub-sample of students with a clear image is very small, nonparametric tests were not conducted separately for the group clear image and the group vague image.

⁹³ Brigard Perdomo assigned participants from South America and Central America to the category "Latin America". However, Brazilians were not included in this category, as they do not have the same cultural background as people from other countries in this region (Brigard Perdomo, 2008, pp. 37-38). In the study of Brigard Perdomo, there was one respondent from the Caribbean (Barbados) and this person was put into the group "Anglo American countries" (Brigard Perdomo, 2008, p. 32). In order to make the results from the online questionnaire comparable to those from Brigard Perdomo, students from Brazil and from the Caribbean were separated from the category "Latin America" and put together with respondents from "Europe and other regions."

7.3.3 Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations

In the pilot study it turned out that for some students, the selection of a specific study destination was not that important. In a couple of cases, it was more relevant to take the unique opportunity to study abroad in general (see Chapter 5.6). Against this background, a question regarding the existence of favorite study destinations was included in the online questionnaire. International students were asked if they wanted to study in a particular country or continent or not.⁹⁴ In affirmative cases, they could refer to up to three countries or three continents and rank them according to their preferences. As you can see in Graph 6, 40.2% of the respondents indicated that they wished to study in specific continent(s), 37.0% mentioned particular country/countries, and 22.8% neither wanted to study in any particular country nor in any specific continent.



Graph 6: First favorite study destination

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Out of the 47 respondents who mentioned particular country/countries, 20 stated that Colombia was their first choice. Referring this number to the entire sample, 15.7% of the students that participated in the survey named Colombia as their first favorite study destination. Comparing this result to the pilot study (see Chapter 5.6) and to the literature review (see Chapter 1.4), where around half of the international students opted for the respective country in the first place, this number is quite low. Nevertheless, most previous studies do not provide information about whether the corresponding country was the participant's first choice or not. Consequently, these findings must be interpreted carefully as they stem from a very limited number of prior

⁹⁴ Original question from the online questionnaire: "After deciding to study abroad, did you want to study in a **particular** country or continent?"; answer categories: yes, in particular country/-ies; yes, in particular continent(s); no, not in any particular country or continent.

studies. Out of the remaining 27 students who gave a country other than Colombia as their first choice, Spain was mentioned most frequently by eight respondents, followed by Brazil by four participants (see Appendix C 16). Concerning the 51 students who mentioned specific continent(s), 35 named Latin America/the Caribbean as their first choice—this corresponds to 27.6% of the entire sample. The second most given continent is Europe by nine students, followed by North America by five students (see Appendix C 17).

Altogether, 43.3% of the participants either gave Colombia (as country) or Latin America/the Caribbean (as continent) as their first study destination choice. Although those who named Latin America/the Caribbean as the continent of their first choice did not refer explicitly to Colombia, this country implicitly belongs to their favorite geographical region. Hence, they managed to study in the continent of their first choice.⁹⁵ In this context, it was investigated whether students who opted for Colombia or the region Latin America/the Caribbean in the first place were more motivated to study in Colombia in general than those who did not give Colombia or the region Latin America/the Caribbean as their first choice.⁹⁶

	Ν	Mean rank	Grouped median
Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean not first choice	72	60.31	4.44
Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean first choice	55	68.84	4.62

Table 6: Overall motivation to study in Colombia, Mann-Whitney test (one-sided)

Note: Answer categories: 1 = very unmotivated, 5 = very motivated.

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

The difference between the mean ranks based on a one-sided Mann-Whitney test is not statistically significant (see Table 6). Thus, the null hypothesis that suggests that both groups have the same overall motivation to study in Colombia cannot be rejected. The value of the grouped median for respondents who opted for Colombia or the region Latin America/the Caribbean in the first place is solely slightly higher in comparison with the value for those who did not chose Colombia or the region Latin America/the Caribbean as the first target country for their studies abroad (4.62 vs. 4.44). However, it is interesting to observe that the values of the grouped median from both groups are quite high, namely between four and five points on a five-point scale. This signifies that international students from both groups had a considerably high motivation to study in Colombia.

 ⁹⁵ For more information on the categorization of the first favorite study destination, refer to Chapter 7.3.3.1.
 ⁹⁶ Original question from the online questionnaire: "Before studying in Colombia, how motivated were you

in general to study in this country?"; answer categories: 1 = very unmotivated to 5 = very motivated.

As described before, 43.3% of the participants of the online questionnaire indicated that Colombia or the region Latin America/the Caribbean was their first choice as study destination in international higher education. Binary logistic regression is used to identify which factors were crucial for their decision to opt for Colombia or the region Latin America/the Caribbean in the first place. With this statistical method it is possible to explain differences between groups (here: Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean first choice). Chances of belonging to the group where the dependent variable applies (here: Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean first choice) are calculated (Rohrlack, 2009, p. 267).

7.3.3.1 Requirements for Binary Logistic Regression

In Chapter 6.4.3, the variables selected for binary logistic regression were introduced. An overview of all variables used for binary logistic regression is provided in Appendix C 3. However, before starting calculations, some of these variables had to be transformed in order to adequately include them in the model.

The choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination is the dependent variable. It is a dichotomous variable that distinguishes between students who gave Colombia as their first desired target country in international higher education (value = 1) and students who did not name Colombia as the first option (value = 0). However, as described in Chapter 7.3.3, the respondents were not forced to give particular countries, but instead could also refer to specific continents or no geographical region at all.

Concerning participants who stated that they did not want to study in any particular country or continent, it is obvious that they did not opt for Colombia in the first place. Hence, these students were coded with the value 0. Regarding respondents who gave a specific continent as their first destination, the classification into the new binary variable was more complicated. Of course, if a region other than "Latin America/the Caribbean" was named as the first option, the value 0 was obtained. However, a decision had to be made how to handle students who mentioned "Latin America/the Caribbean" in the first place. As argued in the preceding sub-chapter, Colombia is part of the region "Latin America/the Caribbean" and therefore these students managed to study in the continent of their first choice and consequently fit into Group 1.

Regarding independent variables, transformation of variables related to the country image of Colombia, dream of getting to know Colombia, local social network,

recommendation, type of studies in Colombia, and exchange agreement between Colombian and home university had to be made.

In Chapter 7.3.2 it was explained how different aspects of the country image were combined in one index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image). However, there are some respondents who indicated that they did not possess any image of Colombia before their studies abroad. In order to prevent a loss of these cases for binary logistic regression, the index was not included as metric variable in analysis. Rather, the index was divided by half: All participants with values from 0 to 4 were put in one group (negative country image) and respondents with values from 5 to 9 in another group (positive country image). It would be possible to create a categorical variable with three categories (no country image, negative country image). However, the category "no country image" would have low frequencies. Therefore, it was decided to generate a dichotomous variable (no country image/negative country image vs. positive country image).

Owing to logical reasons, only those respondents who did not visit Colombia before their studies were asked whether they had the dream of getting to know Colombia or not. Those students who did not have the dream to get to know Colombia were put together with those who have been to Colombia. This resulted in a dichotomous variable (no dream of getting to know Colombia vs. dream of getting to know Colombia).

As the number of students who participated in the online survey was not very high, not too many independent variables should be included in the model (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 480). Therefore, the three variables that refer to local social network (partner/relatives/friends in Colombia at the same time) were combined into one binary variable. If at least one of these three groups of people was in Colombia during the participant's stay, the value 1 was given and otherwise the value 0. The same transformation was conducted for the two variables that are related to recommendation (recommendation of Colombia, recommendation of specific Colombian university). If at least one of these recommendations was made, the value 1 was given, otherwise the value 0.

The existence of an exchange agreement between the Colombian university and the student's home university should be considered in the model, as university agreements had a very important impact in the pilot study (see Chapter 5.4.2). Hence, it was thought about using a variable with three categories to differentiate between degree-seeking students, non-degree-seeking students with university agreement, and non-degree-seeking students without university agreement. However, as the number of

non-degree-seeking students without exchange agreement was very low, it was decided to put them together with degree-seeking students. This way, the new dichotomous variable does not distinguish clearly between degree-seeking students and non-degree-seeking students but between students with and without a university agreement. The other alternative would have been combining non-degree-seeking students without agreement and non-degree-seeking students with agreement into one category and contrasting them to degree-seeking students. However, through this transformation the very crucial differentiation concerning exchange agreement could not have been taken into account. As variables are highly related (degree-seeking students cannot have a university agreement), an inclusion of both binary variables in the same model is not possible. Therefore, it was decided to incorporate only the dichotomous variable that refers to exchange agreement.

<u>Table 7: Variables of the model explaining the choice of Colombia as the favorite study</u> <u>destination</u>

	Name of variable/index	Value	Value label
Dependent	Colombia/Latin America and	0	No
variable	the Caribbean first choice	1	Yes
	Gender	0	Female
		1	Male
	State of studies	0	Undergraduate studies
		1	Postgraduate studies
Casia	Region of nationality	0	Latin America/the Caribbean
Socio- demographic		1	Europe and other regions
characteristics		D1 ⁹⁷ D2	
Characteristics	Field of study	0 0	Social studies (category of reference)
		1 0	Business and administrative studies
		0 1	Other fields
	Social background	1 - 5	Low - High
	Education and career in general	0 - 1	Index
Active	Education and career related to development/conflict	0 - 1	Index
components	Pleasant living environment	0 - 1	Index
	Personal development	0 - 1	Index
Active	Spanish-speaking country	0 - 1	Not at all important - Very important
Letent	Country image	0	No country image/negative country image
		1	Positive country image
components	Dream	0	No
		1	Yes
	Local social network	0	No
		1	Yes
	Recommendation	0	No
External		1	Yes
components	Scholarship	0	No
-		1	Yes
	Exchange agreement	0	No
		1	Yes
		'	100

Source: Author's own table, data set of international students in Colombia.

For conducting binary logistic regression, the number of cases in each group of the dependent variable should amount at least 25. Moreover, multicollinearity between independent variables should be avoided (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 480).

⁹⁷ Categorical independent variables with more than two categories have to be transformed in new binary variables. Nevertheless, one dichotomous variable less than the overall number of categories from the categorical variable have to be constructed because one category, known as the category of reference, holds the value 0 for all other binary variables (Rohrlack, 2009, p. 269).

Multicollinearity signifies that variables are highly correlated, making it impossible to lead effects clearly back to individual variables. An adequate measure for detecting multicollinearity is tolerance (Backhaus et al., 2006, pp. 90-91).

With reference to the minimum number of cases, no problems occur. There are 52 students who named Colombia⁹⁸ as their first choice and 62 who gave another first favorite destination.⁹⁹ Concerning the second recommendation, Menard (2002, p. 76) points out that it has to be taken into account that it is not possible to test multicollinearity for logistic regression in SPSS. Hence, the calculations were carried out by using linear regression in SPSS; this has been possible because it was solely focused on independent variables and their relationship, while the remaining information of the model was rendered unimportant. Values of the coefficient of tolerance below 0.2 are regarded as critical (Menard, 2002, p. 76). In Appendix C 18, a table with coefficients of tolerance is provided. The lowest value amounts to 0.539 for field of study 2 (other fields). Thus, all values clearly lay above 0.2, which implies that no variable has to be removed from the model.

7.3.3.2 Results of Binary Logistic Regression

As it is the purpose to include all previously mentioned variables in binary logistic regression, the simultaneous method was preferred over the stepwise method. The latter method is exclusively based on statistical criteria. In every step, it is tested which new variable should be incorporated in the model and which of the variables that were included in the model previously have to be excluded (Bühl, 2014, p. 465). The model explaining the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination should contain all variables that are important because of theoretical considerations, even if they might not have statistically significant effects. Hence, the simultaneous method is adequate. As there are four types of variables (socio-demographic characteristics, active components, latent components, external components); they were entered block by block, resulting in four consecutive models.

⁹⁸ Regarding binary logistic regression, when it is referred to Colombia as the dependent variable, the region Latin America/the Caribbean as the first favorite study destination is included, too.

⁹⁹ The total number of students included in the model decreased from 127 to 114 due to missing values in some variables.

Table 8: Nagelkerke R²

Model	1	2	3	4
Nagelkerke R ²	0.360	0.408	0.420	0.473

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia

Concerning the examination of the quality of the overall model, Backhaus et al. (2006, p. 449) recommend the use of Nagelkerke R². According to Backhaus et al. (2006, p. 456), values above 0.2 are considered as acceptable, values from 0.4 are perceived as good, and values from 0.5 are regarded as very good. Against this background, the first model is regarded as acceptable and the remaining three models even as good (see Table 8).

The following paragraphs detail the effects of statistically significant variables. Odds ratios¹⁰⁰ are referred to in this context as they provide information about both the direction of the effects and their intensity (Backhaus et al., 2006, p. 444).

¹⁰⁰ With odds ratios it is possible to analyze the chances that Colombia is the first favorite study destination in international higher education, in contrast to the chances that Colombia is not the first favorite target country (see e.g., Rudolf & Müller, 2012, pp. 187-188). The impact of the change of one unit of the independent variable on the chances that Colombia is the first study destination can be determined with odds ratios (Urban & Mayerl, 2011, p. 343). Odds ratios of 1 signify same chances, odds ratios below 1 decreasing chances, and odds ratios above 1 increasing chances (Rudolf & Müller, 2012, p. 188).

<u>Table 9:</u>	Results	of	binary	logistic	regression	(odds	ratios),	dependent	variable:
Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean first choice									

	Independent variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	Gender (male)	0.826	0.846	0.872	0.788
Casia	State of studies (postgraduate studies)	0.826	0.834	0.849	1.165
demographic characteristics	Region of nationality (Europe and other regions) ¹⁰¹	11.595***	6.513***	6.718***	7.012***
	Field of study 1 (business studies) ¹⁰²	2.236	2.895	3.500	3.617
	Field of study 2 (other fields) ¹⁰³	1.305	1.469	1.481	1.763
	Social background	0.867	0.817	0.822	0.993
	Education and career in general		0.410	0.347	0.410
Active components	Education and career related to development/conflict		0.864	0.877	0.731
characteristics	Pleasant living environment		2.785	2.005	1.781
	Personal development		1.003	1.239	0.892
	Spanish-speaking country		4.202**	4.588**	6.327**
	Country image (positive image) ¹⁰⁴			1.831	1.813
components	Dream			1.105	1.210
	Local social network				0.487
External	Recommendation				1.494
components Latent components External	Scholarship				2.556*
	Exchange agreement				2.757*

Note: N = 114

* Significant at α = 0.1

** Significant at α = 0.05

*** Significant at α = 0.01

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

There are four variables with statistically significant effects in Model 4.¹⁰⁵ Concerning socio-demographic characteristics, it was uncovered that stemming from Europe and other regions raises chances to opt for Colombia in the first place for seven times in comparison with coming from Latin America/the Caribbean (Model 4). The effect of *region of nationality* is statistically significant on a 1% level throughout the four models.

¹⁰¹ Group of reference: Latin America/the Caribbean.

¹⁰² Group of reference: social studies.

¹⁰³ Group of reference: social studies.

¹⁰⁴ Group of reference: no country image/negative country image.

¹⁰⁵ In calculations before binary logistic regression, it was only referred to 1% and 5% statistically significant results, as these are usual values (Bortz, 2005, p. 11). However, as there are not many statistically significant results on these levels in the binary logistic regression model, it was decided to extend the level of significance to 10%. The decision was made because this kind of analysis in the context of international student mobility is new and creating hypotheses for future research belongs to the objectives of this study. According to Bortz (2005, p. 123), an extension to the 10% level is acceptable for new fields that intend to stimulate following research.

There are three variables that go beyond an explanation through the variable *region of nationality*, namely *Spanish-speaking country*, *scholarship*, and *exchange agreement*. With reference to active components, it was supposed that *Spanish-speaking country* has a positive effect (see Chapter 6.4.3). Empirical results match with this hypothesis; chances to opt for Colombia in the first place increase for more than six times when moving from the beginning to the end of the scale of this variable (Model 4)¹⁰⁶. The effect is statistically significant on a 5% level throughout the three models.

Concerning external components, the effects of *scholarship* and *exchange agreement* are positive and thus coincide with the hypotheses made in Chapter 6.4.3. An *exchange agreement* between the home university and the Colombian university raises chances to opt for Colombia in the first place more than twice. The same applies to receiving a *scholarship* for studying in Colombia, in comparison with not obtaining this kind of financial support. Both effects are statistically significant on a 10% level.

Summing up the empirical findings, it can be stated that a handful variables from three blocks show statistically significant results: *region of nationality* (socio-demographic characteristics), *Spanish-speaking country* (active components), *scholarship* and *exchange agreement* (both external components). However, no statistically significant result was uncovered for any variable of the latent components. As *region of nationality* holds a very crucial impact, it is suggested that future research should divide the model into regional groups if the number of respondents is high enough. In this project, it was not possible to consider this recommendation due to a limited number of participants. The regional distribution of students who opted for Colombia in the first place and not in the first place is not equal at all. The number of respondents who gave Colombia as their first favorite study destination is very high in the group Europe and other regions (41 vs. 16) but very low in the group Latin America/the Caribbean (11 vs. 46)¹⁰⁷. Consequently, the requirement of at least 25 cases in each category of the dependent variable (see Chapter 7.3.3.1) cannot be met.

¹⁰⁶ When calculating the model with the variable *Spanish-speaking country* with a scale from 1 to 5 (with steps of 1), instead of the scale 0 to 1 (with steps of 0.25), the odds ratios for Model 4 are 1.586. It means that chances to opt for Colombia in the first place increase one and a half times with each additional point on the five-point scale of this variable.

¹⁰⁷ These numbers were already adapted to the missing values from the binary logistic regression model. Originally, regarding students from Latin America/the Caribbean, 13 gave Colombia as their first choice and 54 mentioned another study destination.

7.4 Summary and Discussion of Empirical Findings

Altogether, the information of 127 respondents was used for analysis. Nearly 60% of them were female. Most of them had a nationality from Latin America/the Caribbean (53%) or from Europe (41%). More than two-thirds of them pursued undergraduate studies; the remaining participants were registered in postgraduate studies (excluding doctoral studies). With reference to the type of studies in Colombia, almost 80% were non-degree-seeking students, while the others were degree-seeking students.

Regarding external factors, it was uncovered that more than two-thirds of the participants either received a recommendation for Colombia in general or a specific Colombian university in particular. However, only one-fifth of them possessed local social networks in Colombia. With reference to structural issues, somewhat more than half of the respondents got a scholarship for financing their studies in Colombia. Having a closer look at the non-degree-seeking students, it was revealed that nearly 90% of them came within a university convention between their home university and the Colombian university.

As international students in most cases have not only one reason for choosing a studyabroad destination, a typology of participants was created where students were grouped based on internal motivations that were most crucial for their decision to study in Colombia. Using hierarchical cluster analysis, five types of students were identified: social analysts, language-oriented, self-actualizers, pragmatists, and experienceseekers. In this context, it is interesting to note that the first type (social analysts) has a relatively high mean of 0.88 for the index *education and career related to development/ conflict*, which differs from the four other types in a statistically significant manner. Moreover, with 30 out of 121 respondents, this group is the largest concerning the number of students. Hence, this newly uncovered motivation was rather crucial for the decision of many participants to study in Colombia.

Next, it was analyzed if the five internal motivations differ according to the following six socio-demographic characteristics: gender, state of studies, type of studies in Colombia, region of nationality, field of study, social background. It was revealed that *region of nationality* (Latin America/the Caribbean vs. Europe and other regions) is responsible for statistically significant differences on a 1% level concerning the three categories *education and career in general, personal development,* and *Spanish-speaking country*. Relating to further socio-demographic characteristics, divergences were found for *field of study* (social studies vs. business and administrative studies/other fields) concerning the index *education and career related to development/conflict*.

When analyzing the country image of Colombia that respondents possessed before their studies, it was found that only around one-fourth held a clear country image, while two-thirds had a vague image and a few participants even did not possess any image of Colombia at all. Concerning negative and positive aspects, the country image in general was quite balanced. With regard to the differentiation in the two groups—students with a clear image and students with a vague one—only a few divergences were found. One noteworthy result was that participants with a vague country image associated Colombia more with negative aspects and with the idea of a developing country than respondents with a clear country image when analyzing single items. Additionally, it was investigated which information sources contributed to a more positive or more negative country image. Out of the seven information sources examined, only one showed statistically significant results. Students who used reports from other students about studying in Colombia had a more positive country image than those who did not consult this information source. Concerning regional background and previous visits, no statistically significant differences were found.

Up to this point, all respondents were included in calculations, not distinguishing between those who gave Colombia as their first favorite study destination and those who did not. The overall motivation for studying in Colombia is high for both groups and does not vary in a statistically significant manner. In order to find out which factors were decisive for international students to opt for Colombia in the first place, variables based on the models developed by Krzaklewska (2008) and Murphy-Lejeune (2002) as well as on the findings from the pilot study and prior studies from other authors were used for binary logistic regression. Four blocks of variables were included one after another in the model, explaining the choice of Colombia as the favorite study destination (socio-demographic characteristics, active components, latent components, external components).

In three of the four blocks there are variables with a statistically significant effect on the decision to opt for Colombia in the first place. These variables have a positive impact and are as follows: *region of nationality* (Europe and other regions from sociodemographic characteristics), *Spanish-speaking country* (active components), *scholarship* and *exchange agreement* (both external components). The quality of the overall model with a Nagelkerke R² of 0.473 is regarded as good. Hence, the model is useful in providing information about factors that were crucial for international students for choosing Colombia as the first favorite study destination. A number of variables do not show statistically significant effects. However, it is recommended to include them in future research, especially if the sample is big enough as a low number of statistically significant results could be due to a low number of cases (Bortz, 2005, p. 11). 123 Nevertheless, it has to be considered if an alternative operationalization of some variables would be more adequate (e.g., internal motivations as discussed in Chapter 6.5). Furthermore, it is proposed to divide the model in future research into regional groups as it was uncovered that *region of nationality* has a strong impact. It can be assumed that factors influencing the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination are possibly not completely identical for students from Latin America/the Caribbean as for students from Europe and other regions. In this doctoral project this suggestion was not realized due to a limited number of respondents.

PART III: BRAZIL

8. International Students in Brazil

This chapter consists of two main topics: background information on higher education in Brazil, including international aspects, and empirical results of qualitative interviews with international students enrolled at a Brazilian university. The presentation of the first issue is divided into two sections: a description of the Brazilian higher education system and information on the internationalization of higher education in Brazil. Concerning the second topic, findings from face-to-face interviews in Brazil are presented as follows: data collection, description of interviewees, internal motivations, external factors, country image and information sources, and Brazil and alternative study destinations. Even though the main purpose is to find out if the reasons for choosing Brazil as a host country in international higher education are different to motivations for selecting Colombia as a study destination, links between the findings from the case studies in Colombia and Brazil are only partly provided at this point. It is elaborated more on them in the conclusion of the thesis, where the Colombian models were adapted to the Brazilian context.

8.1 Background Information on Brazil

8.1.1 Brazilian System of Higher Education

As the 19th century started, institutions of higher education were founded in Brazil. In comparison with most other Latin American countries, this occurred at a late point in time (Leite & Cunha, 1992 as cited in Laus & Morosini, 2005, p. 111).¹⁰⁸ In 2013, there were 2,391 of such institutions in Brazil, the vast majority of them private (87%), and only a few public (13%) (MEC & INEP, 2014, Quadro resumo). The number of higher education institutions varies a lot throughout the different geographical regions of the country. On the one hand, more than 50% of the institutions are located in the southeast of Brazil. This region possesses a noteworthy degree of development. On the other hand, only around 5% of the institutions are situated in the northern part that has a lower degree of development (Laus & Morosini, 2005, p. 114). Public spending for education amounted to 6.1% of GDP in 2011 (OECD, n.d., para. 1). Brazil invested between 15.9% and 20.4% of its total public expenditures for education in the higher

¹⁰⁸ For a detailed overview of the history of institutions of higher education in Brazil, refer to Fritsche (2003, pp. 23-47).

education sector from 2000 to 2013. The share was 18.2% in 2013 (INEP & MEC, n.d.).

Laus and Morosini (2005, pp. 113-114) and Morosini (2006, pp. 273-276) present the six different kinds of higher education institutions that exist in Brazil: universities, university centers, integrated faculties, faculties, higher institutions of education, and federal centers for technological education.¹⁰⁹ Universities offer a wide range of disciplines, and consider research and teaching as intrinsically tied to each other. There are two important characteristics of universities: not less than one-third of the staff that is involved in teaching is full-time employed, while not less than one-third holds a master's or doctoral degree. All five other types of higher education institutions are only engaged in teaching and not with research. University centers and integrated faculties provide education in various areas of knowledge, while faculties offer education only in one area. Higher institutions of education give teachers' training for primary education. Federal centers for technological education focus on the training of technological experts.

Concerning access to higher education, most institutions use the "National High School Exam" (Portal Brasil, 2011, para. 1; own translation, original in Portuguese: Exame Nacional do Ensino Médio), a test that students complete when finishing high school. In general, only around one-tenth of high school graduates applying for public higher education institutions get approval (Knobel, 2014, p. 12). At the best universities of the country, there are between 30 and 100 applicants per university place, making access to disciplines with high demand a highly competitive procedure (Müller, 2013b, p. 52; Knobel, 2014, p. 13). Owing to good quality and low tuition fees, public institutions attract much more applications from high school graduates than private institutions. Private institutions charge about 175 euros per month, in a few cases even up to monthly 590 euros. Semester fees at a public institution amount to approximately 60 euros (Fritsche, 2003, pp. 64-65).

In 2013, around 7.5 million students were enrolled in higher education in Brazil: 7.3 million in undergraduate programs and about 200,000 in postgraduate programs (MEC & INEP, 2014, Quadro resumo). Even though matriculation rose during the last years, the enrollment rate in undergraduate education in Brazil for people aged between 18 to 24 years is still rather low. In 2012, this rate in Brazil reached 15%, whereas the OECD average amounted to 34% (Knobel, 2014, p. 13). Nevertheless, total enrollment numbers and the immense amount of higher education institutions ensure that Brazil

¹⁰⁹ After this paragraph, it is not distinguished between the six types of tertiary education institutions, as most sources do not allow such a differentiation. Hence, when the term university is mentioned, it is not specifically referred to this type of institution but to institutions of higher education in general.

has the largest tertiary education system in the Latin American region (Laus, 2012, p. 475).

The Brazilian Ministry of Education implemented the "National System of Higher Education Assessment" (Pedrosa, 2011, p. 25) in 2004 in order to evaluate the quality of Brazilian undergraduate education.¹¹⁰ Since 2010, all students at the beginning and at the end of their study programs are obligated to participate in an exam. The results of this test are included together with two other components—the evaluation of both the institutions and their programs—in the quality analysis. Afterward, one final score is calculated for every program on the basis of the outcomes from the three elements (Pedrosa, 2011, p. 25). The evaluation of postgraduate programs is carried out by the Coordinating Agency for Graduate Education (Knobel, 2014, p. 13). On the basis of an external assessment model introduced in 1998, postgraduate programs and institutions offering these programs are monitored. Grades range between 1 and 7, and scores of 6 and 7 signify "international level" (Laus & Morosini, 2005, p. 127). Both assessments for undergraduate and postgraduate programs take place every three years (De Brito Meyer, 2011, p. 9; Knobel, 2014, p. 13). With reference to the academic qualification of the teaching staff in Brazil, the percentage of those holding a master's or doctoral degree remarkably rose during the last 10 years. In 2013, 39.7% held a master's title (2003: 35.1%) and 33.0% a doctor's title (2003: 21.4%) (MEC & INEP, 2014, Distribuição de funções docentes na educação superior - Brasil).

Rankings of higher educational institutions have gained in importance in Brazil. Big institutions often refer to the Latin American QS Ranking when positioning themselves in the regional higher education sector (Müller, 2013b, p. 53). In the global Times Higher Education Rankings 2014-2015, there are two Brazilian universities among the top 400, namely the Universidade de São Paulo (rank 201–225), and the Universidade Estadual de Campinas (rank 301–350) (Times Higher Education, n.d.). Three Brazilian universities appear in the top 400 of the QS World University Rankings 2014–2015: the two previously mentioned institutions (Universidade de São Paulo placed 132, Universidade Estadual de Campinas placed 206) and the Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro (Positon 271) (Top Universities, n.d. b). There are 24 Brazilian institutions among the top 100 in the QS Latin American regional ranking of 2014 (Top Universities, n.d. a). Thus, Brazil by far possesses the highest number of universities in the top 100 compared to all other Latin American countries.

¹¹⁰ A former version of the program was already introduced in 1996 (Pedrosa, 2011, p. 25).

8.1.2 Internationalization of Higher Education in Brazil

Laus and Morosini (2005, pp. 120-121) give an overview of the historical development of the internationalization of Brazilian higher education, which has been outlined in this paragraph. The first official endeavors of international cooperation in Brazilian higher education emerged in the 1930s. Brazilian institutions of higher education cooperated with foreign institutions in order to advance the country's development via the education of experts. This model of collaboration, often on an unequal basis, prevailed until the end of the 1960s. A new phase of internationalization started after the Second World War through the establishment of academic agreements with a number of countries such as Portugal, France, and Germany. In the 1970s efforts to internationalize Brazilian higher education were reinforced through the creation of national and joint programs (e.g., offering scholarships for postgraduate mobility). The intention of the Brazilian government was to support the development of postgraduate education and foster academic exchange of people and knowledge. However, cooperation with foreign universities mostly was not based on any strategy, but it was rather an outcome of prevailing tendencies of the market.

For a long time, the internationalization of higher education in Brazil focused on the attainment of doctoral degrees from institutions in Europe and North America. However, more and more Brazilians obtained a doctoral degree from within the country in the few last years, not having spent any part of their entire studies abroad. Government strategies regarding international academic mobility changed in 2011 owing to low international experiences of academic staff (Müller, 2013a, pp. 54-55). With the program "Science without Borders" (Müller, 2011, p. 76; original in Portuguese: Ciências sem Fronteiras), a large number of scholarships have been provided mainly for outgoing mobility of undergraduate students, doctoral students, and postdoctoral researchers enrolled in natural sciences and engineering (Müller, 2011, p. 76; Müller, 2013a, pp. 56-57). The aim of the program is to educate highly qualified people with intercultural competences and an international level of knowledge, for instance, for technology development. Science without Borders belongs to the most extensive programs for academic mobility around the globe. Concerning the support for doctoral students, it even surpasses the program from the Chinese government (Müller, 2013a, pp. 55-57). Against this background, it can be asserted that Brazil aims at becoming part of the "leading nations in politics and economy" (Müller, 2013a, p. 57; own translation). With reference to the concept of Knight, as presented in Chapter 4.2, the main rationale driving internationalization on the national level is human resources

*development*¹¹¹ through which Brazil is supposed to reach a leading position. Consequently, the principal rationale for the internationalization in Colombia (see Chapter 4.3) and Brazil is identical on the national level.

In 2008, a survey with 17 Brazilian higher education institutions was conducted to address several elements of internationalization (Correia Lima & Betioli Contel, 2008, 2. Esclarecimentos metodológicos). The importance of internationalization in general was assessed to be high by five institutions, average by nine, low by two, and not at all important by one institution. With reference to rationales for internationalization, strengthening of academic quality was mentioned by the majority of the institutions, followed by promotion of intercultural competence as well as enhancement of research capacity. Rising international reputation only was named by around one-third of the total institutions and generating income by only one institution. The prioritized aspects in the internationalization strategies of nearly all institutions are the creation of university agreements and the increasing outgoing academic mobility. Including international elements in the curriculum and recruiting international students were only given preference by around one-third of the institutions (Correia Lima & Betioli Contel, 2008, 3. Descrição, interpretação e análise dos dados). Connecting these results with the concept of rationales driving internationalization, developed by Knight (see Chapter 4.2), it is seen that, with the exception of international branding and profile, Brazilian institutions give priority to the same rationales as Colombian institutions (see Chapter 4.3), namely knowledge production, student development and strategic alliances.

For a long time, Brazil's main partners were the USA and European countries. Since the beginning of the 21st century, Brazil has begun to invest in academic collaboration with countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia (Laus & Morosini, 2005, pp. 138-140). This new south-south orientation is visible, for example, in the Exchange Program for Undergraduate Students (PEC-G) and the Exchange Program for Postgraduate Students (PEC-PG) offered by the Brazilian government.¹¹² Through these programs the enhancement of academic qualifications of students from cooperating countries is supported (Liberato, 2012, p. 7; Morosini, 2011, p. 99). Students from a number of countries in the three previously mentioned regions can apply for a scholarship for studies in Brazil. In 2015, 523 students were selected for this scholarship program on the undergraduate level (68.3% African, 31.0% Latin American/Caribbean, 0.7% Asian). In 2013, 286 students were chosen to participate in the program on the postgraduate level (72.7% African, 26.6% Latin American/Caribbean, 0.7% Asian).

¹¹¹ The words in italics in the present and the following paragraph refer to the keywords developed by Knight (see Chapter 4.2).

¹¹² For more detailed information on the programs PEC-G and PEC-PG, refer to Liberato (2012, pp. 7-8).

These numbers show a strong focus on Africa. When considering the nationalities of African students who were awarded the scholarships, it turns out that most of them stem from countries with Portuguese as official language, mainly Cape Verde, Mozambique, and Angola (MRE, n.d. a; MRE, n.d. b). Besides PEC-G and PEC-PG, there are a number of other programs for cooperation in higher education involving mainly Portuguese-speaking African countries, Latin American countries, China and India (Laus & Morosini, 2005, pp. 138-140).

<u>·····································</u>				
Country of origin	Number of students			
Angola	1,675			
Guinea-Bissau	819			
Argentina	776			
Paraguay	772			
Cape Verde	696			
Portugal	661			
Peru	615			
USA	523			
Uruguay	491			
Bolivia	427			

<u> Table 10: To</u>	<u>p sending</u>	countries 2012	

Less than 0.5% of all students enrolled at Brazilian higher education institutions are international students (OECD, n.d., Other findings, para. 2). According to UNESCO, the total number of foreign degree-seeking students in 2012 was 15,221. In Table 10, which provides information on the top sending countries, it can be seen that the majority of the students came from Portuguese-speaking African countries as from Latin well America as (UNESCO, 2016).

Note: Only top ten countries of original table included and design slightly modified. Source: UNESCO (2016).

With reference to the distribution of non-degree-seeking students across Brazilian institutions of higher education, there is a huge imbalance. The Universidade de São Paulo received 2,320 exchange students in 2012, who mainly came from Europe and Latin America (O Globo, 2013, para. 3-4). The Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio de Janeiro approximately hosts 1,000 non-degree-seeking students per year, who mostly stem from the USA and Europe. However, there are only very few non-degree-seeking international student or even none at all in the majority of the Brazilian universities (De Brito Meyer, 2011, p. 10).

There are a number of obstacles that hinder international student mobility toward Brazil. These include shortcomings within institutions of higher education—for instance, lack of strategies to increase inbound mobility and scare presence at international education fairs (Müller, 2013a, p. 60). Moreover, one of the most considerable barriers is that the language of instruction in Brazilian higher education almost exclusively is Portuguese (Downie, 2010, Language barrier, para. 5; Vergani, 2013, para. 7). Hence,

it is not astonishing that a greater part of foreign students enrolled at Brazilian universities comes from countries where Portuguese is the national language (OECD, n.d., Other findings, para. 2). Additionally, the bureaucratic tangles related to various aspects connected with incoming academic mobility are problematic (e.g., visa issues, apartment rental, opening of bank account) (Knobel, 2011, p. 5).

8.2 Empirical Results of Qualitative Interviews

Regarding motivations for studying in Brazil, three studies were already identified while reviewing the literature (see Chapter 1.2). However, two of the publications only marginally touch on the present topic at all. Moreover, all works include only students that pursue particular programs or stem from Portuguese-speaking African countries (see Chapter 1.6).¹¹³ In order to adapt the Colombian models to Brazil, it is necessary to have data that focuses on the same aspects and is gathered in a similar way.

8.2.1 Data Collection

As a result of the good feedback from international students who participated in the pilot study in Colombia, the interviews in Brazil were realized under similar conditions.¹¹⁴ Hence, face-to-face interviews were carried out using the guideline that was developed for the pilot study. The language of the guideline for the interviews in Colombia was English, Spanish, and German. Against this background, the guideline was translated into Portuguese, the official language of Brazil.

In July and August 2013, seven interviews were carried out with international students who were enrolled at the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul at that point in time. This public university is located in Porto Alegre, the capital of the state Rio Grande do Sul in southern Brazil. The Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul was chosen for the realization of the interviews because it was assumed that this university possesses a high number of foreign students, as the homepage of the international office with information for incoming students is available in six languages (UFRGS, n.d.). A considerable number of international students enrolled was deemed crucial in

¹¹³ Empirical findings from Liberato (2012) were included in the literature review. Therefore, it is not elaborated more on them at this point. Publications by Subuhana (2007) and Moriguchi and Rodrigues (2011) solely reveal few other motivations, apart from those presented in Chapters 1, 5, 7, and 8. Further reasons are "[advantages due to participation in the PEC-G program such as] exemption from the obligation of the vestibular [note: university entrance exam] [...] the 'political system' is appealing - government of Lula [...] more technologically developed than their country of origin" (Moriguchi & Rodrigues, 2011, pp. 84-85; own translation) and "friendship [between Mozambique and Brazil regarding] historical, social, economic and educational characteristics" (Subuhana, 2007, p. 325; own translation).

¹¹⁴ For more information on the content of the guideline and the realization of the interviews in Colombia, refer to Chapters 5.1 and 5.7.

order to get enough interviewees from different regional and educational backgrounds (see Chapter 3.4). Furthermore, the choice of this university was reinforced due to practical reasons because I was staying there as a visiting researcher. As Brazil is not the main case study of my doctoral project, it was decided that conducting interviews at one institution of higher education in Brazil would be sufficient.

A few interviews were completed at the end of the first semester in 2013. However, the majority of the interviews were conducted at the beginning of the second semester 2013. During the pilot study in Colombia it turned out that the most effective way to make students interested in participation in the interview was via personal contact (see Chapter 5.7). Thus, foreign students were not addressed initially via an email sent by the international office but on personal terms with the help of the gatekeeper. Some respondents I got to know through researchers from the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul as well as through international students who had already participated in my interview. Contact to further interviewees was made during an informative meeting for international students, organized by the international office, at the beginning of the second semester in 2013.

The interviews were realized in Portuguese, Spanish, and German, with five of them in the participants' mother tongue. The two respondents who possessed another native language chose Portuguese. Most interviews took place in a café on campus. For one interview, I was invited to the apartment of a respondent. The interviews had an average duration of 38 minutes.

8.2.2 Description of Interviewees

All international students who participated in the interviews began their studies in Brazil in 2012 or 2013, with the exception of one respondent who had started undergraduate studies in Brazil a couple of years ago and continued postgraduate studies at the same university. Two interviewees were female and five male; they were between 20 and 34 years, with an average of 25 years. The respondents pursued either undergraduate studies or postgraduate studies (excluding doctoral studies) and were enrolled in different fields of study. Two participants were degree-seeking students and four were non-degree-seeking students who in most cases stayed for one year. However, one participant already finished undergraduate studies in the home country and was registered in a Portuguese language course at the respective Brazilian university at the time of the interview. Generally, foreign students who exclusively participate in such language classes do not belong to the target group of this study. However, as this student, already before the beginning of the language course, was planning to apply for

a master's program in Brazil after completing the language course, this student was considered for participation in the interview. Concerning the region of origin, two interviewees came from Latin America (Mexico, Venezuela), two from Africa (Guinea-Bissau, Togo), and three from Europe (France, Germany).

8.2.3 Internal Motivations

Nearly all participants mentioned motivations related to education or professional career. Concerning general educational motivations, some of the respondents pointed to study programs with topics that were not available in their home country. A change of the academic perspective during studies abroad was named as well. In some interviews an emphasis on the quality of the Brazilian higher education system came up. A couple of students stated that they knew about the good quality of universities in the south of Brazil, where the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul is located. One of the interviewees added that this university belongs to the top universities in Brazil. However, there were a few participants who were of the opinion that the teaching standard is not very high in Brazil.

Furthermore, an academic motivation that was referred to neither in the literature review nor in the pilot study in Colombia appeared in this context. A student enrolled in international development studies considered Brazil interesting because it is "a controversial country, an aspiring emerging economy or rather more than that but still with incredible internal problems. [...] the political but also the social situation in Brazil [is] perfect for [my] field of study." In this case, Brazil was attractive for educational reasons because it was perceived as an ambitious emerging economy that still struggles with various problems.

With reference to motivations related to professional career, some students were of the opinion that by studying in Brazil, they would considerably increase the probability of getting their favorite job. They explained why having this country as a study-abroad destination in the curriculum vitae is beneficial: because Brazil's economy is growing and consequently this country was regarded as important in the future. With respect to the plans for their career, one of the interviewees stated that he intends to work abroad, while another respondent could imagine working in Brazil, and the third participant—who already lived for one year in a Spanish-speaking country in South America during high school—aimed at becoming an expert on Latin America. Thus, these students wanted to distinguish themselves from potential future job competitors by having studied at a Brazilian university. Similar to the academic interest of studying in Brazil because it is an emerging economy, the motivation to enhance job

opportunities due to Brazil's status as an emergent nation and its expected future significance is a result that was referred to neither in any study from the literature review nor in the pilot study in Colombia.¹¹⁵

Regarding the living environment, the motivations which were most often referred to were: getting to know the city, going out, and enjoying the nice climate. Moreover, many participants were interested in living in a culture that is different from their own. One interviewee already visited other countries of the continent where the home country is located and stated: "I wanted to see something else, another vision of the world." However, there is a student who wished to spend his studies abroad in a culture that is not too different from his own. In this context, he explained that he was afraid of "too much culture shock." In addition, he was lucky that in Brazil "as European [I do not] attract much attention, at least perhaps at first glance [...] maybe in yes in Mozambique I would be recognized [as foreigner] form a distance of 100 meters." Hence, cultural and physical similarity can also be crucial for choosing Brazil as an international study destination. Additionally, nearly all students stated that they intend to get to know other geographical parts of Brazil. Some even had concrete plans to visit friends in a neighboring country. One participant explained that he decided to study for one full year in Brazil because he could use the university vacation between the two semesters for traveling. Hence, traveling within the country as well to neighboring countries can be an important motivation for selecting Brazil as the target country.

Concerning personal development, the interviewees mainly mentioned getting to know new people, and becoming more mature and open. One of the European participants who already spent a long-term stay abroad said: "[I wanted to have] further personal development [...] accepting a big challenge and overcoming it somehow in order to grow up. [...] Portugal not because [it is] in Europe and [it is] too close [to my home country] and perhaps also too less adventurous [...] Brazil is a much bigger challenge for me than Portugal." Hence, for this respondent, personal development was compulsorily connected with a study destination outside Europe, which is located far away from the students' home country.

Improvement of Portuguese language skills was mentioned by nearly all interviewees with a different mother tongue. Many of them mainly considered Portuguese-speaking countries when choosing an international study destination. They either wanted to

¹¹⁵ Only Son (2011, p. 65) points to similar factors among the top motivations in choosing South Korea as an international study destination. "Perceived as economically advanced country" is the second most important reason for choosing South Korea. However, there is no indication that this item is connected explicitly with motivations related to education or career, as in the interviews from Brazil. The item is part of the category "the characteristics of South Korea" (Son, 2011, p. 69) and is linked to the positive image of this country (Son, 2011, pp. 65, 91-92).

enhance their command of Portuguese or did not possess language skills for other destinations for which they were interested, for instance Spanish for other countries in Latin America.¹¹⁶ A student who wanted to work abroad later on cited proficiency in Portuguese as an advantage for applications for his dream job.

8.2.4 External Factors

Regarding social networks, many students said that other people aroused their interest in studying in Brazil. In one case, a professor of the interviewee's home university told the student about important universities in Brazil. In other cases, the participants knew Brazilians or people who have been to Brazil and learned from them about the country and opportunities for studying there. However, no respondent went to Brazil because of friends or relatives living there. Furthermore, no interviewee even mentioned any friend, relative, etc. who would be staying in Brazil at the same time. Hence, recommendations but not local social networks were important for the decision to study in Brazil.

With reference to structural issues, some of the interviewees stated that financing was important for their decision about the international study destination. In that connection, reference was made to possibilities for foreign students to apply for scholarships for a full degree in Brazil. Some respondents said such financial assistance is seldom offered for studies in other target countries. One of the participants explained that he initially preferred to study in another country and not in Brazil. However, as studying there would be too expensive, he excluded the other country from his options of potential study destinations. Scholarships that interviewees received stemmed from different providers-e.g., the Brazilian government, home country, and home university. Additional to financial issues, a few students pointed at the advantages of having an exchange agreement between their home university and the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, which includes low effort in the organization of studies abroad. They emphasized that they only took those universities into consideration that have exchange agreements with their home university. Consequently, the decision about their study destination relating to international higher education was limited to particular countries.

¹¹⁶ Brazil is the only Portuguese-speaking country in Latin America. Hence, regarding the national language, there is not any alternative study destination available in the region.

8.2.5 Country Image and Information Sources

As described in Chapter 2.4, the image of a country can influence the choice of a study destination in international higher education. In Chapter 1.3 two detailed studies on the country image of Brazil by Awuah and Reinert (2011) and Rezende-Parker et al. (2003) were presented. These studies mainly consisted of closed questions but also included a few open questions. Concerning the answers to closed questions, my findings from the interviews carried out for this doctoral project in several points differ from the results of the two previous studies. However, regarding open questions, a number of similarities were found. In this sub-chapter, first of all, the country image of Brazil from interviewees enrolled at the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul is portrayed. Afterward, information on the consulted information sources is given.

The country image of Brazil did not differ very much among the respondents. In almost all cases it was linked to stereotypes with positive associations such as samba, soccer, beaches, nice weather, happiness, and carnival. Additionally, some participants also mentioned stereotypes that are connected with negative aspects like crime, drugs, and poverty. As it was explained by one student, a number of these stereotypes are linked to the city of Rio de Janeiro. Regarding the security situation of Brazil, most interviewees were not afraid. For example, some respondents stated that they were not concerned about their personal safety, as they would keep away from problems. A couple of participants were of the opinion that the level of violence in Brazil is not higher than in their home country; they stated that security is a global topic and not solely related to countries such as Brazil. Taken as a whole, Brazil was regarded as an attractive study destination by the interviewees. As one student puts it, "There is a lot to do and to see [...] Brazil is attractive ... even the name is attractive."

One of the interviewees stated that he had a critical attitude toward his image of Brazil because he was aware that his country image was shaped by stereotypes. In order to try to "pull [these clichés] out of my head [...] and approach [the stay abroad] with as few clichés as possible," he gathered information through reports from other international students who had studied in Brazil before. Nevertheless, this student still felt that he did not possess much knowledge about this country. Altogether, this student was the only respondent who explicitly explained that he did not know a lot about Brazil.

A couple of students held an image of Brazil that goes beyond the previously mentioned stereotypes. They learned about Brazil at high school or university in their home country and therefore their country image was more differentiated. For example, some interviewees said that Brazil has an important economic position. One of these respondents also pointed out the historical relation between Brazil and some African countries. Another participant said the living standard in Brazil is higher than in other Latin American countries. Moreover, this student was aware that there are regional differences—e.g., concerning cultural aspects— within Brazil due to the country's huge size.

Like in the pilot study in Colombia, there was one interviewee who had since childhood been interested in getting to know the country where he was studying. Two respondents had visited Brazil before their studies. One of them had spent a short holiday there and lived with friends from the "sheltered upper class;" therefore, this student did not notice anything related to poverty, although he had known about such issues before. The other interviewee had opted for a short visit to Brazil some years ago. A few years later, the same student also spent a few months in Brazil to participate in a Portuguese language course. During the second stay this participant heard about the opportunities for international students in Brazil—e.g., concerning financing of studies—and thus got interested in pursuing a master's degree there. Despite their previous visits to Brazil, the country image possessed by these students contained a number of the stereotypes that were mentioned previously in this chapter.

The creation of a country image is formed through information sources (see Chapter 2.4). Most interviewees consulted different kinds of sources. The information source mostly referred to was the Internet (e.g., homepages of Brazilian universities, Wikipedia). Other sources that were named less frequently were Brazilians, friends or relatives who have been to Brazil, and field reports from other foreign students about studying in Brazil.

8.2.6 Brazil and Alternative Study Destinations

Regarding the order of the desired target countries, four out of the seven students said that they opted for Brazil in the first place. The rest referred to Brazil as an attractive study destination but not as their first choice; other countries or continents were their first option. The attitude that studying abroad is generally more important than the choice of a particular host country did not appear in any of the interviews conducted in Brazil.

8.3 Summary

With the beginning of the 19th century, the first institutions of higher education were established in Brazil. There are currently more than 2,000 such institutions in the country, with most of them being located in the southeast of the country. In order to control the quality of higher education, undergraduate and postgraduate programs are evaluated on a frequent basis. Only a handful of Brazilian universities appear in global rankings. However Brazil is the leading country concerning the amount of institutions in the top 100, according to the QS Latin American regional ranking of 2014.

Since the 1930s, Brazil has been involved in international academic cooperation. The Brazilian government now focuses on the development of human resources, for example, through the program Science without Borders, to become a leading country in economy and politics. According to a survey conducted in 2008 with 17 institutions of higher education in Brazil, enhancement of academic quality was the most crucial rationale for internationalization. The activities of the respective institutions mainly concentrated on internationalization abroad and not very much on internationalization at home. Traditionally, Europe and the USA have been Brazil's main partners for academic collaboration. However, this cooperation has been extended to countries in Africa, Latin America, and Asia over the last few years. In 2012, around 15,000 foreign degree-seeking students were enrolled in Brazilian higher education.

Concerning my empirical study in Brazil, seven face-to-face interviews were carried out with foreign students at the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul in Porto Alegre in July and August 2013. The respondents came from Africa, Europe, and Latin America; of them, five were male and two female. Two students completed their whole degree in Brazil, while four students were staying for a part of their degree in Brazil and one participant was enrolled in a Portuguese language course.

With reference to topics that came up in the interviews, the reasons from four of the five categories of internal motivations for studying in Colombia (see Chapter 6.3.5) were uncovered in the face-to-face interviews in Brazil. These are: *education and career in general, pleasant living environment, personal development,* and *Portuguese-speaking country*. However, the category *education and career related to development/ conflict* did not appear. Concerning external factors, social networks (recommendation) and structural issues (scholarship, exchange agreement) were mentioned. Relating these findings to those from Colombia, the Brazilian case study did not refer to local social networks.

As many different motivations emerged in the interviews, only those that were neither mentioned in prior studies nor in the Colombian case study are detailed at this point.

Altogether, there are two new kinds of motivations that are connected with Brazil as an emerging economy. First, Brazil was considered as an interesting study destination for educational reasons by an interviewee pursuing international development studies: this student regarded the country as important for the own field of study due to its social and political circumstances. Second, a number of students were of the opinion that studying in Brazil improves their future career opportunities. As the country's economy is growing, the respondents pointed out that Brazil would play a crucial role in the future. In these cases, Brazil was seen as an attractive target country in international higher education for motivations connected with professional career, which focus on particular economic characteristics of the country.

Most interviewees held a similar country image of Brazil—principally connected with stereotypes such as beaches, samba, carnival, and crime. Information about Brazil was mainly obtained from the Internet and to a lower extent from people who knew Brazil as well as from field reports of other foreign students. Around half of the respondents chose Brazil as their first favorite target country. The remaining interviewees explained that Brazil was among their top study destinations, although not the first choice for higher education abroad.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

starting point of my dissertation was the increasing importance of The internationalization of higher education and the recent growth of international student mobility in nontraditional host countries, particularly in Latin America. Furthermore, a notable research gap on foreign students' motivations for choosing these study destinations was uncovered. Colombia as an evolving target country that has invested considerably in internationalization of its higher education system and aims at raising the number of incoming students was chosen as the main case study. In order to broaden the scope of this project and provide suggestions for future research, Brazil was included as an additional Latin American case study. Consequently, the main research question of this doctoral project is: Which motivations and other factors have been crucial for the decision of international students to study in Colombia/Brazil? As shown, improving Spanish language skills has been a crucial reason for several interviewees from the pilot study for choosing Colombia as the host country. Against this background, the following research question was further asked with reference to Brazil: Has the improvement of Portuguese language skills been important for choosing Brazil as an international study destination?

To answer these questions, I collected empirical data in the two countries. In Colombia, 16 face-to-face interviews plus one written interview were carried out with foreign students from Latin America, North America, and Europe in 2012 (first empirical phase). In 2013, an online survey was conducted with 127 international students enrolled at various institutions of higher education in Colombia (second empirical phase). These students principally came from Latin America and Europe; they were enrolled in various fields of study. The respondents mainly were female (60%), non-degree-seeking students (78%), and pursuing undergraduate studies (70%). In Brazil, face-to-face interviews with seven international students from Latin America, Africa, and Europe were conducted in 2013 (third empirical phase).

The main contributions of my doctoral project are depicted in the following paragraphs. First, this study adds to the body of existing literature on the choice of a particular target country in international higher education. In particular, the focus on Latin America has to be emphasized as hardly any research on the subject has concentrated on this region so far. Second, in contrast to most other publications on nontraditional study destinations, this work does not exclusively rely on quantitative research. Rather, the survey was developed on the basis of a qualitative pilot study. This methodological approach allowed a tailored development of the standardized questionnaire and consequently provided a more profound understanding of the topic. Third, in opposition to several prior studies, the empirical results of the survey are not solely provided for the entire sample or for subsamples according to one criterion. Instead, various sociodemographic characteristics such as gender, region of origin and social background were taken into account when analyzing motivations. In this context, it was revealed that the meaning of single reasons for the decision to study in Colombia differed between groups, especially regarding the regional background of the participants. On the one hand, motivations connected with education and career as well as with personal development were more important for students from Latin America/the Caribbean than for those from Europe and other regions in their choice of Colombia as the study destination. On the other hand, the fact that Colombia is a Spanish-speaking country was more decisive for respondents from Europe and other regions than for participants from Latin America/the Caribbean.

Next, the project contains theoretical value because two models of motivations for choosing Colombia as the international study destination were developed. As a first step, a model of internal motivations for studying in Colombia was created (see Chapter 6.3.5). This model was based on the theoretical considerations in the European context developed by Krzaklewska (2008), findings from the literature review, and results from the first and second empirical phases of this project. The model comprises three dimensions: career dimension, experimental dimension, and linguistic dimension. The career dimension contains two categories. The first one deals with benefits of studying in Colombia for education and career in general-e.g., getting to know different academic perspectives and getting to know people who could be helpful for finding a job in the future. The second category is about advantages for education and career because Colombia is a developing country with an internal conflict—e.g., studying in a country with an internal conflict improves job opportunities because it proves the capability of living in a challenging environment. Likewise, the experimental dimension comprises two categories. The first category covers the motivations related to a pleasant living environment in Colombia—e.g., comfortable climate and interesting free time activities such as salsa dancing. The second category is about personal development—e.g., becoming more independent and mature. The linguistic dimension consists of one category that measures the importance of the fact that Colombia is a Spanish-speaking country for the decision to study in Colombia.

These findings show that the assumptions from the theory of individualization that was applied by King and Ruiz-Gelices to international students were identified in the Colombian case study. Two of the five categories of internal motivations include reasons connected to the improvement of career opportunities, represented in the career dimension. Additionally, the assumption by King and other authors can be supported, since there is a variety of motivations going beyond the increase in career options, included in the three remaining categories from the experimental dimension and the linguistic dimension.

Among other things, the model of internal motivations was used to create a typology of international students, where participants were grouped according to those motivations on which they attached the most importance when deciding about studying in Colombia (see Chapter 7.2). In this connection, data from the online survey and the five categories of internal motivations described in the preceding paragraph were used for cluster analysis. Five types of foreign students were found: social analysts who are career-oriented and put much weight on the characteristic of Colombia as a developing country with an internal conflict; language-oriented students who concentrated on the fact that Colombia is a Spanish-speaking country; self-actualizers who were guided by interest in personal development; pragmatists who were moderately motivated by different aspects; and experience-seekers who focused mainly on motivations from the experimental dimension.

As a second step, a model explaining the choice of Colombia as the favorite study destination was developed on the basis of the model of internal motivations, theoretical considerations in the European context developed by Murphy-Lejeune (2002), and further results from previous research and the qualitative pilot study in Colombia. In the pilot study and in some publications from the literature review it was uncovered that the actual study destination in a number of cases was not the first option. Thus, with the help of the online survey data, it was analyzed which factors were crucial for the decision of international students to choose Colombia as the first favorite host country for their studies abroad. As illustrated in Table 11, the model comprises four blocks: socio-demographic characteristics, active components, latent components, and external components. Regarding socio-demographic characteristics, several aspects such as gender and social background were considered. Active components correspond to the five internal motivations. With reference to latent components, the country image of Colombia and the dream of getting to know Colombia since a long time were incorporated. Concerning external components, four elements were included by considering the availability of a local social network, recommendations of Colombia or a particular Colombian university, scholarships for studies in Colombia, and exchange agreements between the home university and the Colombian university (see Chapter 6.4.3).

Dependent variable	Colombia/Latin America/the Caribbean first choice				
•					
	Gender				
	State of studies				
Socio-demographic	Region of nationality***				
characteristics	Field of study				
	Social background				
	Education and career in general				
	Education and career related to development/conflict				
Active components	Pleasant living environment				
	Personal development				
	Spanish-speaking country**				
Latant componente	Country image				
Latent components	Dream				
	Local social network				
External components	Recommendation				
	Scholarship*				
	Exchange agreement*				

Table 11: Model explaining the choice of Colombia as the favorite study destination

Note: N = 114, variables in bold print are statistically significant.

* Significant at α = 0.1

** Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

*** Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

Source: Author's own table, data set of international students in Colombia.

Using binary logistic regression, it was investigated which of the variables from the four blocks influenced the choice of Colombia as the first favorite study destination. Four variables turned out to have statistically significant effects: *region of nationality, Spanish-speaking country, scholarship,* and *exchange agreement*. It means that coming from Europe and other regions increases the chances to opt for Colombia in the first place, in comparison with being a national of Latin America/the Caribbean. Moreover, attaching importance to the fact that Colombia is a Spanish-speaking country also raises the chances to choose Colombia as the first option. Likewise, getting a scholarship for studies in Colombia as well as the existence of an exchange agreement between the Colombian university and the home university increases the chances to opt for Colombia in the first place (see Chapter 7.3.3.2).

In the following, it is explained how the two Colombian models were adapted with the help of the findings from the third empirical phase to the Brazilian context. In this connection, suggestions for future research on international student mobility in the region are given. According to Cantwell et al. (2009), flexible theoretical approaches fitting different contexts—e.g., to study destinations in developing regions—ought to be

created. Against this background, the contribution of this project regarding the potential applicability of the models is further emphasized.

The reasons from four out of the five categories of the model of internal motivations for studying in Colombia also appeared in the face-to-face interviews that were conducted in Brazil (education and career in general, pleasant living environment, personal development, Portuguese-speaking country). Only the category education and career related to development/conflict did not emerge. Instead, new motivations that address advantages for education and career owing to Brazil's being an emerging economy came up-for instance, increasing career opportunities by studying in Brazil because its economy is growing and therefore this country is regarded as important in the future (see Chapter 8.2.3). Taken as a whole, these findings show that internal motivations for the decision to study in Brazil differ only slightly from those for choosing Colombia as the host country. Consequently, it was not difficult to adapt the Colombian model to the Brazilian context. Hence, the category education and career related to development/ conflict was replaced with the category education and career related to emerging economy. Against this background, it was concluded that specific economic, political, and social characteristics of the two countries can be crucial motivations for their selection as international study destinations. In the Colombian case, these aspects are connected with development and internal conflict, while, in the Brazilian case, they are connected with an emerging economy. With reference to the research question on the enhancement of Portuguese language skills, it was found that almost all interviewees with another mother tongue referred to this motivation, as outlined in Chapter 8.2.3. Thus, for a number of students, the improvement of Portuguese language skills was an important motivation for choosing Brazil as an international study destination.

Likewise, the second Colombian model—including aspects that are important for the choice of this country as the first favorite study destination—was adjusted to the Brazilian context. The five categories of internal motivations, as described in the preceding paragraph, correspond to active components. Regarding latent components, the country image of Brazil as well as the desire to get to know Brazil since childhood also emerged in the face-to-face interviews (see Chapter 8.2.5). With reference to external components, three out of the four external factors that turned up in Colombia were also mentioned in the qualitative interviews in Brazil (recommendation, scholarship, exchange agreement), with the exception of local social network (see Chapter 8.2.4).

After the above-described adaptation of the Colombian models to Brazilian models, the last open point is the provision of recommendations for future research on international

student mobility in Latin America. In the next step, the Brazilian models should be tested with quantitative data. For this purpose, a survey with foreign students in Brazil has to be carried out. Based on this new data set, similar research questions for Brazil can be analyzed—as it was done in this project for Colombia. For example, it is possible to examine the meaning of single internal motivations for choosing Brazil as a study destination according to socio-demographic characteristics (analogous to Chapter 7.3.1) and to create a typology of international students in Brazil based on internal motivations (analogous to Chapter 7.2).

In this respect, it is essential to test the model that explains the choice of Brazil as the first favorite study destination, containing four blocks of variables (socio-demographic characteristics, active components, latent components, external components). As mentioned earlier, local social networks did not appear in the face-to-face interviews in Brazil. Nevertheless, this aspect should not be excluded because it could be important in a bigger sample. In the Colombian model, not all variables have statistically significant effects. However, the entire model of choosing Brazil as the favorite study destination should be tested in future research, as it was developed on the basis of previous works from other authors and the findings from the two qualitative phases of this project. As outlined in Chapter 7.4, the few statistically significant effects could be explained with the fact that the number of respondents in the online survey in Colombia was not very high. Thus, a sample of considerable size is crucial when applying this model to Brazil. Moreover, further recommendations given in Chapter 7.4, such as dividing the sample according to regional groups, should be taken into consideration.

If the survey on international students in Brazil provides promising results, the models could be used for other countries in Latin America with similar conditions. For this purpose, the political, economic, and social situation of the respective country should be examined carefully with reference to advantages for education and career opportunities. If the country is considered as developing, items from the Colombian model addressing this issue can be included. If the country holds an internal conflict, variables from the Colombian model referring to this topic can be incorporated. If the country is an emerging economy, these aspects of the Brazilian model can be introduced. When making use of the model on the choice of a specific host country as the favorite study destination, some aspects have to be taken into consideration, as described in the following. Whether the effects of active components are positive or negative has to be determined individually for every category for each country, as the direction of such effects depends on particular characteristics of the country and perhaps also on the sample. Concerning all variables from both latent components and

external components, the effects are expected to be positive, no matter for which country the model is applied.

As the importance of internationalization of higher education and the mobility of international students toward more varied study destinations have increased remarkably, more research on the topic is essential. The results from my doctoral project and the proposed procedures for subsequent studies provide a pathway for future research on international student mobility in the region. However, only further empirical studies can reveal if the models presented are suitable for other countries in Latin America.

Bibliography

- Aires Barroso, G., & Nicolau Mota, K. C. (2010). Marketing turístico internacional: La marca Brasil. *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo, 19*(2), 241–267.
- Alberts, H. C., & Hazen, H. D. (2005). "There are always two voices...": International students` intentions to stay in the United States or return to their home countries. *International Migration, 43*(3), 131–154.
- Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2011). Higher education's landscape of internationalization. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.), *Leadership for world-class universities. Challenges for developing countries* (pp. 108–127). New York: Routledge.
- Anderson, R. D. (2004). *European universities from the Enlightenment to 1914*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- ASCUN & RCI. (2007). Informe final estudio estado del arte de la internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia. Bogotá. Retrieved from http://ceri.udistrital.edu.co/archivos/estadoArteInternal/2-%20ESTUDIO%20ESTADO%20DEL%20ARTE%20DE%20LA%20INTERNACIONALIZ ACI%C3%93N%20DE%20LA%20ED.%20SUPERIOR%20EN%20COLOMBIA.2007.pdf [March 19, 2016].
- Awuah, G. B., & Reinert, V. (2011). Potential tourists' image of a tourist destination: The case of Brazil. In S.-Å. Hörte (Ed.), Research on technology, innovation and marketing management 2009-2011. Introducing the research area of innovation science (pp. 135–148). Halmstad: Högskolan i Halmstad.
- Backhaus, K., Erichson, B., Plinke, W., & Weiber, R. (2006). Multivariate Analysemethoden: Eine anwendungsorientierte Einführung (11th ed.). Berlin: Springer.
- Baharun, R., Awang, Z., & Padlee, S. F. (2011). International students choice criteria for selection of higher learning in Malaysian private universities. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(12), 4704–4714.
- Baláž, V., & Williams, A. M. (2004). "Been there, done that": International student migration and human capital transfers from the UK to Slovakia. *Population, Space and Place,* 10(3), 217–237.
- Banks, M., & Bhandari, R. (2012). Global student mobility. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 379–397). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Beck, U. (1983). Jenseits von Klasse und Stand? Soziale Ungleichheit, gesellschaftliche Individualisierungsprozesse und die Entstehung neuer sozialer Formationen und Identitäten. In R. Kreckel (Ed.), Soziale Ungleichheiten (pp. 35–74). Göttingen: Verlag Otto Schwartz & Co.
- Beck, U. (1986). *Risikogesellschaft: Auf dem Weg in eine andere Moderne*. Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp.
- Beck, U. (1992). Risk society: Towards a new modernity. London: Sage Publications.
- Beck, U., & Beck-Gernsheim, E. (1993). Nicht Autonomie, sondern Bastelbiographie: Anmerkungen zur Individualisierungsdiskussion am Beispiel des Aufsatzes von Günter Burkart. Zeitschrift für Soziologie, 22(3), 178–187.
- Beck, U., & Beck-Gernsheim, E. (2002). *Individualization: Institutionalized individualism* and its social and political consequences. London: Sage Publications.

- Beck-Gernsheim, E. (1994). Individualisierungstheorie: Veränderungen des Lebenslaufs in der Moderne. In H. Keupp (Ed.), Zugänge zum Subjekt. Perspektiven einer reflexiven Sozialpsychologie (pp. 125–146). Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp.
- Beck-Gernsheim, E. (1996). Life as a planning project. In S. Lash, B. Szerszynski, & B.
 Wynne (Eds.), *Risk, environment and modernity. Towards a new ecology* (pp. 139–153).
 London: Sage Publications.
- Beech, S. E. (2015). International student mobility: The role of social networks. *Social & Cultural Geography, 16*(3), 332–350.
- Benet-Martínez, V., & John, O. P. (1998). Los cinco grandes: Across cultures and ethnic groups: Multitrait multimethod analyses of the Big Five in Spanish and English. *Journal* of Personality and Social Psychology, 75(3), 729–750.
- Berriane, J. (2009). Studierende aus dem subsaharischen Afrika in Marokko: Motive, Alltag und Zukunftspläne einer Bildungsmigration. (Diskussionspapiere Freie Universität Berlin, Fachbereich Wirtschaftswissenschaft, Fachgebiet Volkswirtschaft des Vorderen Orients). Berlin: Klaus Schwarz Verlag.
- Bessey, D. (2012). International student migration to Germany. *Empirical Economics*, 42(1), 345–361.
- Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (2011). Global student mobility and the twenty-first century silk road: National trends and new directions. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education. National trends and new directions* (pp. 1–23). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bilecen, B. (2014). *International student mobility and transnational friendships*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Boniface, B. G., Cooper, C., & Cooper, R. (2012). *Worldwide destinations: The geography of travel and tourism* (6th ed.). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Bortz, J. (2005). *Statistik für Human- und Sozialwissenschaftler* (6th ed.). Heidelberg: Springer.
- Bourke, A. (2000). A model of the determinants of international trade in higher education. *The Service Industries Journal, 20*(1), 110–138.
- Brigard Perdomo, C. (2008). Medición de la imagen destino de Colombia en estudiantes internacionales (Final project of undergraduate studies). Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá. Retrieved from http://biblioteca.uniandes.edu.co/Tesis_22009_primer_semestre/563.pdf [March 22, 2016].
- Brosius, F. (2013). SPSS 21. Heidelberg: Mitp Verlags GmbH & Co. KG.
- Bühl, A. (2014). SPSS 22: Einführung in die moderne Datenanalyse (14th ed.). Hallbergmoos: Pearson.
- Campo Saavedra, M. F. (2014). Prólogo. In C. M. Nupia (Ed.), *Reflexiones para la política de internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia* (pp. 9–11). Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional; Observatorio Colombiano de Ciencia y Tecnología.
- Cancillería. (n.d.). Scholarships in Colombia for foreigners. Retrieved from www.cancilleria.gov.co/sites/default/files/Scholarships%20in%20Colombia%20for%20for eigners.pdf [March 24, 2016].
- Cantwell, B., Luca, S. G., & Lee, J. J. (2009). Exploring the orientations of international students in Mexico: Differences by region of origin. *Higher Education*, *57*(3), 335–354.

- Caudery, T., Petersen, M., & Shaw, P. (2008). The motivations of exchange students at Scandinavian universities. In M. Byram & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Students, staff and academic mobility in higher education* (pp. 114–130). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- CCYK. (n.d. a). Colombia: A great place to learn Spanish. Retrieved from www.challengeyourknowledge.edu.co/developer/directorio1.php?ids=21 [March 24, 2016].
- CCYK. (n.d. b). Downloadable materials/free cards. Retrieved from www.challengeyourknowledge.edu.co/developer/directorio4.php?id=7&ids=19 [March 24, 2016].
- CCYK. (n.d. c). What is Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge. Retrieved from www.challengeyourknowledge.edu.co/developer/directorio1.php?ids=49 [March 24, 2016].
- Chen, L.-H. (2007). Choosing Canadian graduate schools from afar: East Asian students' perspectives. *Higher Education, 54*(5), 759–780.
- Chew, A., & Croy, W. G. (2011). International education exchanges: Exploratory case study of Australian-based tertiary students' incentives and barriers. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 11*(3), 253–270.
- Choudaha, R., Orosz, K., & Chang, L. (2012). Not all international students are the same: Understanding segments, mapping behavior. *World Education News & Reviews, 25*(7).
- Correia Lima, M., & Betioli Contel, F. (2008). Características atuais das políticas de internacionalização das instituições de educação superior no Brasil. *Revista E-Curriculum, 3*(2).
- Cubillo, J. M., Sánchez, J., & Cerviño, J. (2006). International students` decision-making process. *International Journal of Educational Management, 20*(2), 101–115.
- DAAD. (n.d.). Info für Deutsche. Retrieved from www.daad.co/de/14152/index.html [March 21, 2016].
- Danckwortt, D. (1984). Auslandsstudium als Gegenstand der Forschung: Eine Literaturübersicht (Werkstattberichte - Band 11). Kassel. Retrieved from http://nbnresolving.de/urn:nbn:de:hebis:34-2006052212145 [March 21, 2016].
- De Brito Meyer, R. M. (2011). The internationalisation of higher education in Brazil. AngloHigher The Magazine of Global English Speaking Higher Education, 3(2), 9–10.
- De Wit, H. (2014). Las dinámicas de la internacionalización a través de la movilidad académica. In C. M. Nupia (Ed.), *Reflexiones para la política de internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia* (pp. 135–157). Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional; Observatorio Colombiano de Ciencia y Tecnología.
- Deardorff, D. K., de Wit, H., & Heyl, J. D. (2012). Bridges to the future: The global landscape of international higher education. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 457–485). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Dervin, F., & Lopes Rosa, E. (2006). *Research on academic mobility: An overview, list of researchers and bibliography*. Turku: The University of Turku, Department of French Studies 7.
- Dervin, F., & Machart, R. (2015). Introduction: Global academic mobility and migration between reality and fantasy. In F. Dervin & R. Machart (Eds.), *The new politics of global academic mobility and migration* (pp. 7–18). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH.
- Didelon, C., & Richard, Y. (2012). The European Union in the flows of international students: Attractiveness and inconsistency. *International Review of Sociology*, 22(2), 229–244.

- Downie, A. (2010). The chronicle of higher education: Brazilian universities find challenges in internationalization. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com/article/Brazilian-Universities-Find/124312 [March 24, 2016].
- Echeverri, L. M., Rosker, E., & Restrepo, M. L. (2010). Los orígenes de la marca país Colombia es pasión. *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo, 19*(3), 409–421.
- Eder, J., Smith, W. W., & Pitts, R. E. (2010). Exploring factors influencing student study abroad destination choice. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 10*(3), 232–250.
- Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2010). *Internationalization of higher education: Global trends, regional perspectives: IAU 3rd global survey report*. Paris: International Association of Universities.
- Faist, T. (2000). *The volume and dynamics of international migration and transnational social spaces*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Faist, T. (2004). The border-crossing expansion of social space: Concepts, questions and topics. In T. Faist & E. Özveren (Eds.), *Transnational social spaces. Agents, networks,* and institutions (pp. 1–34). Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Findlay, A., King, R., Stam, A., & Ruiz-Gelices, E. (2006). Ever reluctant Europeans: The changing geographies of UK students studying and working abroad. *European Urban* and Regional Studies, 13(4), 291–318.
- Findlay, A. M., & King, R. (2010). Motivations and experiences of UK students studying abroad (BIS Research Paper No. 8). Dundee. Retrieved from www.researchgate.net/publication/225083570_Motivations_and_Experiences_of_UK_St udents_Studying_Abroad [February 19, 2016].
- Findlay, A. M., Stam, A., & King, R. (2005). International opportunities: Searching for the meaning of student migration. *Geographica Helvetica, 60*(3), 192–200.
- Fritsche, M. (2003). *Bildungspolitik und wirtschaftliches Wachstum in Brasilien*. Marburg: Tectum Verlag.
- Gacel-Ávila, J. (2012). Comprehensive internationalisation in Latin America. *Higher Education Policy, 25*(4), 493–510.
- Gacel-Ávila, J., Jaramillo, I. C., Knight, J., & de Wit, H. (2005). The Latin American way: Trends, issues, and directions. In H. de Wit, I. C. Jaramillo, J. Gacel-Ávila, & J. Knight (Eds.), *Higher education in Latin America. The international dimension* (pp. 341–368). Washington: The World Bank.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1971). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research* (4th ed.). Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Glover, P. (2011). International students: Linking education and travel. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *28*(2), 180–195.
- Gräf, L. (2010). Online-Befragung: Eine praktische Einführung für Anfänger. Berlin: Lit Verlag.
- Green, M. F., Marmolejo, F., & Egron-Polak, E. (2012). The internationalization of higher education: Future prospects. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 439–455). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Guilland, M.-L. (2012). "Colombia, the only risk is wanting to stay": From national tourism promotions to travelling in the Sierra Nevada: Uses and refutations of risk. *Via* @ *Tourist imaginaries*, *1*(1), 1–11.
- Helfferich, C. (2009). *Die Qualität qualitativer Daten: Manual für die Durchführung qualitativer Interviews* (3rd ed.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

- Hickling-Hudson, A., & Arnove, R. F. (2014). Higher education and international student mobility: The extraordinary case of Cuba. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 209–228). Oxford: Symposium Books.
- Higher Education Statistics Agency. (n.d. a). Joint Academic Coding System (JACS) Version 3.0. Retrieved from www.hesa.ac.uk/content/view/1776/649/ [March 24, 2016].
- Higher Education Statistics Agency. (n.d. b). Student record 2007/08: JACS2 full listing. Retrieved from www.hesa.ac.uk/C07051/jacs2 [March 24, 2016].
- Hochschule Luzern. (n.d.). Kruskal-Wallis-Test. Retrieved from www.empiricalmethods.hslu.ch/h-kruskal-wallis.htm [February 10, 2015].
- Holm-Nielsen, L. B., Thorn, K., Brunner, J. J., & Balán J. (2005). Regional and international challenges to higher education in Latin America. In H. de Wit, I. C. Jaramillo, J. Gacel-Ávila, & J. Knight (Eds.), *Higher education in Latin America. The international dimension* (pp. 39–69). Washington: The World Bank.
- IBM. (n.d. a). Exploratory factor analysis with categorical variables. Retrieved from www-01.ibm.com/support/docview.wss?uid=swg21477550 [March 24, 2016].
- IBM. (n.d. b). Kategoriale Hauptkomponentenanalyse (CATPCA). Retrieved from www.ibm.com/support/knowledgecenter/SSLVMB_22.0.0/com.ibm.spss.statistics.help/s pss/categories/idh_cpca.htm?lang=de [March 24, 2016].
- IBM. (n.d. c). Number of dimensions. Retrieved from www.ibm.com/support/knowledgecenter/SSLVMB_22.0.0/com.ibm.spss.statistics.cs/sps s/tutorials/catpca_guttman_dim.htm [March 24, 2016].
- ILO. (2004). ISCO International standard classification of occupations: Summary of major groups. Retrieved from www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco88/publ4.htm [March 30, 2016].
- INEP & MEC. (n.d.). Tabela 4.2: Estimativa da proporção relativa do investimento público total em educação, por nível de ensino - Brasil 2000-2013. Retrieved from http://download.inep.gov.br/informacoes_estatisticas/investimentos_publicos_em_educa cao/indicadores_financeiros_educacionais/proporcao_relativa_investimento_publico_tot al_educacao_nivel_ensino_2000-2013.xlsx [March 14, 2016].
- Isserstedt, W., & Link, J. (2008). Internationalisierung des Studiums Ausländische Studierende in Deutschland – Deutsche Studierende im Ausland: Ergebnisse der 18. Sozialerhebung des Deutschen Studentenwerks durchgeführt durch HIS Hochschul-Informations-System. Berlin. Retrieved from www.sozialerhebung.de/download/18/Soz18_Internat_Internet_180308.pdf [March 21, 2016].
- Jansen, D. (2006). *Einführung in die Netzwerkanalyse: Grundlagen, Methoden, Forschungsbeispiele* (3rd ed.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Jaramillo, I. C. (2003). La internacionalización de la educación superior y su dinámica en Colombia (LCSHD Paper Series No. 82). Washington. Retrieved from wwwwds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2005/07/07/000011823_20050 707121556/Rendered/PDF/324320LCSHD0PAPER0SERIES08201Type0LHSD1.pdf [March 21, 2016].
- Jaramillo, I. C., & de Wit, H. (2011). Student mobility trends in Latin America. In R. Bhandari & P. Blumenthal (Eds.), *International students and global mobility in higher education. National trends and new directions* (pp. 129–141). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Jones, P. (2006). Understanding the international students' innovation decision process with particular reference to international higher education service in Australia and in Thailand (Doctoral dissertation). Victoria University, Melbourne. Retrieved from http://eprints.vu.edu.au/518/1/518contents.pdf [March 22, 2016].
- King, R. (2002). Towards a new map of European migration. *International Journal of Population Geography*, *8*(2), 89–106.
- King, R. (2003). International student migration in Europe and the institutionalization of identity as "Young Europeans". In J. Doomernik & H. Knippenberg (Eds.), *Migration and immigrants. Between policy and reality. A volume in honor of Hans van Amersfoort* (pp. 155–179). Amsterdam: Aksant Academic Publishers.
- King, R., Findlay, A., & Ahrens, J. (2010). *International student mobility literature review: Report to HEFCE, and co-funded by the British Council, UK National Agency for Erasmus.* Bristol: HEFCE.
- King, R., & Raghuram, P. (2013). International student migration: Mapping the field and new research agendas. *Population, Space and Place, 19*(2), 127–137.
- King, R., & Ruiz-Gelices, E. (2003). International student migration and the European "Year Abroad": Effects on European identity and subsequent migration behaviour. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 9(3), 229–252.
- Kirchhoff, S., Kuhnt, S., Lipp, P., & Schlawin, S. (2006). Der Fragebogen: Datenbasis, Konstruktion und Auswertung (3rd ed.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Kluge, S. (1999). Empirisch begründete Typenbildung: Zur Konstruktion von Typen und Typologien in der qualitativen Sozialforschung. Opladen: Leske und Budrich.
- Kluge, S. (2000). Empirisch begründete Typenbildung in der qualitativen Sozialforschung. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung, 1*(1), Art. 14.
- Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 8*(1), 5–31.
- Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 27–42). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Knobel, M. (2011). Internationalizing Brazil's universities. Creating coherent national policies must be a priority (Research & Occasional Paper Series). University of California, Berkeley. Retrieved from www.cshe.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/shared/publications/docs/ROPS.Knobel.Brazil SciencePolicy.6.22.11.a.pdf [March 15, 2016].

- Knobel, M. (2014). Overview of the Brazilian higher education system. *International Briefs* for Higher Education Leaders, (4), 12–14.
- Kondakci, Y. (2011). Student mobility reviewed: Attraction and satisfaction of international students in Turkey. *Higher Education, 62*(5), 573–592.
- Krzaklewska, E. (2008). Why study abroad? An analysis of Erasmus students` motivations.
 In M. Byram & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Students, staff and academic mobility in higher education* (pp. 82–98). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Krzaklewska, E. (2013). Erasmus students between youth and adulthood: Analysis of the biographical experience. In B. Feyen & E. Krzaklewska (Eds.), *The Erasmus phenomenon. Symbol of a new European generation?* (pp. 79–96). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH.

- Kurtenbach, S. (1997). Guerillabewegungen in Kolumbien. In W. Altmann, T. Fischer, & K. Zimmermann (Eds.), *Kolumbien heute. Politik Wirtschaft Kultur* (pp. 235–254). Frankfurt am Main: Vervuert Verlag.
- Laus, S. P. (2012). Box 25.6 Internationalization of higher education in Brazil: Now and in the future. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 475–477). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Laus, S. P., & Morosini, M. C. (2005). Internationalization of higher education in Brazil. In H. de Wit, I. C. Jaramillo, J. Gacel-Ávila, & J. Knight (Eds.), *Higher education in Latin America. The international dimension* (pp. 111–147). Washington: The World Bank.
- Lee, J. J. (2008). Beyond borders: International student pathways to the United States. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 12*(3), 308–327.
- Li, M., & Bray, M. (2007). Cross-border flows of students for higher education: Push–pull factors and motivations of mainland Chinese students in Hong Kong and Macau. *Higher Education*, *53*(6), 791–818.
- Liberato, E. (2012). A formação de quadros angolanos no exterior: Estudantes angolanos em Portugal e no Brasil. *Cadernos de Estudos Africanos, 23,* 1-15.
- Lim, Y. M., Yap, C. S., & Lee, T. H. (2011). Destination choice, service quality, satisfaction, and consumerism: International students in Malaysian institutions of higher education. *African Journal of Business Management*, *5*(5), 1691–1702.
- Liu, N. C., & Cheng, Y. (2011). Global university rankings and their impact. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.), *Leadership for world-class universities. Challenges for developing countries* (pp. 145–158). New York: Routledge.
- Llewellyn-Smith, C., & McCabe, V. S. (2008). What is the attraction for exchange students: the host destination or host university? Empirical evidence from a study of an Australian university. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *10*(6), 593–607.
- Maindok, H. (1996). Professionelle Interviewführung in der Sozialforschung: Interviewtraining: Bedarf, Stand und Perspektiven. Pfaffenweiler: Centaurus-Verlagsgesellschaft.
- Maldonado-Maldonado, A. (2012). Box 1.4 A view from Latin America. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 20–21). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Maringe, F., & Carter, S. (2007). International students` motivations for studying in UK HE: Insights into the choice and decision making of African students. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(6), 459–475.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review, 50*(4), 370–396.
- Mason, P. (2002). The big OE: New Zealanders` overseas experiences in Britain. In M. C. Hall & A. M. Williams (Eds.), *Tourism and migration. New relationships between production and consumption* (pp. 87–101). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- MEC & INEP. (2014). Censo da educação superior 2013. Retrieved from http://download.inep.gov.br/educacao_superior/censo_superior/apresentacao/2014/colet iva_censo_superior_2013.pdf [March 15, 2016].
- MEN & CCYK. (2013). Estudio sobre la internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia y modernización de indicadores de internacionalización del sisetema nacional de información de la educación superior: Informe final. Bogotá. Retrieved from www.colombiaaprende.edu.co/html/micrositios/1752/articles-316935_informefinal.pdf [March 15, 2016].

- Menard, S. (2002). *Applied logistic regression analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Michael, I., Armstrong, A., & King, B. (2003). The travel behaviour of international students: The relationship between studying abroad and their choice of tourist destinations. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(1), 57–66.
- Moriguchi, S. N., & Rodrigues, V. S. N. (2011). Valores pessoais do estudante estrangeiro: Aumentando a participação e a visibilidade do Brasil no cenário mundial. *FACEF Pesquisa, 14*(1), 80–89.
- Morosini, M. C. (2006). *Enciclopédia de pedagogia universitária: Glossário vol.* 2. Brasília. Retrieved from www.publicacoes.inep.gov.br/portal/download/483 [March 16, 2016].
- Morosini, M. C. (2011). Internacionalização na produção de conhecimento em IES brasileiras: Cooperação internacional tradicional e cooperação internacional horizontal. *Educação em Revista, 27*(1), 93–112.
- Mpinganjira, M. (2011). Why choose South Africa? Insights from international undergraduate students. African Journal of Business Management, 5(6), 2180–2188.
- Mpinganjira, M. (2012). Factors influencing African postgraduate international students' choice of South Africa as a study destination. *Educational Research and Reviews*, *7*(11), 261–269.
- MRE. (n.d. a). Histórico do PEC-PG. Retrieved from www.dce.mre.gov.br/PEC/PG/historico.html [March 24, 2016].
- MRE. (n.d. b). PEC-G: Histórico do programa. Retrieved from www.dce.mre.gov.br/PEC/G/historico.php [March 24, 2016].
- Müller, C. (2011). Eine Präsidentin bringt Brasilien auf internationalen Kurs. In DAAD (Ed.), Berichte der Außenstellen 2011 (pp. 70–82). Bonn.
- Müller, C. (2013a). Brasilien: Auf dem Weg zur "Wissenschaft ohne Grenzen"? In DAAD (Ed.), *Die Internationale Hochschule. Strategien anderer Länder* (pp. 52–61). Bielefeld: Bertelsmann.
- Müller, C. (2013b). Brasiliens Gesellschaft: Auf der Suche nach Konsens und Identität. In DAAD (Ed.), *Berichte der Außenstellen 2013* (pp. 50–58). Bonn.
- Murphy-Lejeune, E. (2002). *Student mobility and narrative in Europe: The new strangers*. London: Routledge.
- Murphy-Lejeune, E. (2008). The student experience of mobility, a contrasting score. In M. Byram & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Students, staff and academic mobility in higher education* (pp. 12–30). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Nagashima, A. (1970). A comparison of Japanese and U.S. attitudes toward foreign products. *Journal of Marketing*, *34*(1), 68–74.
- O Globo. (2013). Ciências humanas é preferência entre intercambistas estrangeiros da USP: Pesquisa da SPTuris aponta perfil dos estudantes de outros países. Maioria vem da Europa e América Latina, segundo o estudo. Retrieved from http://g1.globo.com/educacao/noticia/2013/08/ciencias-humanas-e-preferencia-entre-intercambistas-estrangeiros-da-usp.html [March 24, 2016].
- OECD. (n.d.). Education at a glance 2014: Brazil. Retrieved from www.oecd.org/edu/Brazil-EAG2014-Country-Note.pdf [March 16, 2016].
- OECD, IBRD & The World Bank. (2012). *Reviews of national policies for education: Tertiary education in Colombia 2012*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Pedrosa, R. H. L. (2011). Assessing higher education outcomes in Brazil. *International Higher Education*, (63), 25–26.

- Perkins, R., & Neumayer, E. (2014). Geographies of educational mobilities: Exploring the uneven flows of international students. *The Geographical Journal, 180*(3), 246–259.
- Porst, R. (2011). *Fragebogen: Ein Arbeitsbuch* (3rd ed.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Portal Brasil. (2011). Educação: Universidades utilizam Enem para selecionar estudantes. Retrieved from www.brasil.gov.br/educacao/2011/08/universidades-utilizam-enem-paraselecionar-estudantes [March 24, 2016].
- Promberger, M. (2011). *Typenbildung mit quantitativen und qualitativen Daten: Methodologische Überlegungen* (IAB-Discussion Paper). Retrieved from http://doku.iab.de/discussionpapers/2011/dp1211.pdf [March 30, 2016].
- Puerto Rico Herald. (n.d.). Understanding citizenship issues: The citizens educational foundation. Retrieved from www.puertorico-herald.org/issues/vol3n24/Citizenship-en.html [March 24, 2016].

QuestBack GmbH. (2014). Enterprise feedback suite: EFS survey. Köln.

Rammstedt, B., Kemper, C. J., Klein, M. C., Beierlein, C., & Kovaleva, A. (2012). Eine kurze Skala zur Messung der fünf Dimensionen der Persönlichkeit: Big-Five-Inventory-10 (BFI-10) (GESIS-Working Papers). Retrieved from www.gesis.org/fileadmin/kurzskalen/working_papers/BFI10_Workingpaper.pdf [March 30, 2016].

RCI. (2006). El papel de la educación superior colombiana ante la internacionalización: Cómo adaptarse competitivamente a las exigencias de la globalización. Bogotá. Retrieved from http://ceri.udistrital.edu.co/archivos/estadoArteInternal/EL_PAPEL_DE_LA_EDUCACIN SUPERIOR_COLOMBIANA_ANTE_LA_INTERNACIONALIZACIN_2006 pdf [March]

_SUPERIOR_COLOMBIANA_ANTE_LA_INTERNACIONALIZACIN_2006.pdf [March 16, 2016].

- Reinders, H. (2005). *Qualitative Interviews mit Jugendlichen führen: Ein Leitfaden.* München: Oldenbourg Wissenschaftsverlag GmbH.
- Rezende-Parker, A. M., Morrison, A. M., & Ismail, J. A. (2003). Dazed and confused? An exploratory study of the image of Brazil as a travel destination. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 9(3), 243–259.
- Rippl, S., & Seipel, C. (2008). *Methoden kulturvergleichender Sozialforschung: Eine Einführung*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Rodríguez González, C., Bustillo Mesanza, R., & Mariel, P. (2011). The determinants of international student mobility flows: An empirical study on the Erasmus programme. *Higher Education*, 62(4), 413–430.
- Rohrlack, C. (2009). Logistische und ordinale Regression. In S. Albers, D. Klapper, U. Konradt, A. Walter, & J. Wolf (Eds.), *Methodik der empirischen Forschung* (3rd ed., pp. 267–282). Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien.
- Rudolf, M., & Müller, J. (2012). *Multivariate Verfahren: Eine praxisorientierte Einführung mit Anwendungsbeispielen in SPSS* (2nd ed.). Göttingen: Hogrefe.
- Rumbley, L. E., Altbach, P. G., & Reisberg, L. (2012). Internationalization within the higher education context. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 3–26). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Salmi, J. (2014). El desafío de pensar una política de internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia. In C. M. Nupia (Ed.), *Reflexiones para la política de internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia* (pp. 17–25). Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional; Observatorio Colombiano de Ciencia y Tecnología.

- Son, D. (2011). International student mobility towards South Korea. Motivations for choosing South Korea as a study abroad destination (Master thesis). University of Tampere, Tampere. Retrieved from http://tampub.uta.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/82746/gradu05235.pdf?sequence=1 [March 16, 2016].
- Sondhi, G. (2013). Gendering international student mobility. An Indian case study (Doctoral dissertation). University of Sussex, Falmer. Retrieved from http://sro.sussex.ac.uk/46066/1/Sondhi%2C Gunjan.pdf [March 16, 2016].
- Spörndli, M. (2004). Diskurs und Entscheidung: Eine empirische Analyse kommunikativen Handelns im deutschen Vermittlungsausschuss. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Srikatanyoo, N., & Gnoth, J. (2002). Country image and international tertiary education. *Journal of Brand Management, 10*(2), 139–146.
- Staniscia, B. (2012). Mobility of students and attractiveness of universities: The case of Sapienza University of Rome. *International Review of Sociology*, 22(2), 245–258.
- Stockmann, R. (1989). Die neue Violencia: Kolumbien in der Tradition der Gewalt. *Ibero-Amerikanisches Archiv, 15*(3), 351–369.
- Subuhana, C. (2007). Estudantes moçambicanos no Rio de Janeiro, Brasil: Sociabilidade e redes sociais. *Imaginário, 13*(14), 321–355.
- Teichler, U. (1996). Research on academic mobility and international cooperation in higher education: An agenda for the future. In P. Blumenthal, C. Goodwin, A. Smith, & U. Teichler (Eds.), Academic mobility in a changing world. Regional and global trends (pp. 338–358). London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Téllez Mendivelso, F., & Langebaek Rueda, C. H. (2014). Internacionalización y calidad en Colombia: El rol estratégico de la acreditación en el fortalecimiento de los procesos de internacionalización de la educación superior. In C. M. Nupia (Ed.), *Reflexiones para la política de internacionalización de la educación superior en Colombia* (pp. 75–97). Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional; Observatorio Colombiano de Ciencia y Tecnología.
- Theobald, A. (2007). Zur Gestaltung von Online-Fragebögen. In M. Welker & O. Wenzel (Eds.), *Online-Forschung 2007. Grundlagen und Fallstudien* (pp. 103–118). Köln: Herbert von Halem Verlag.
- Times Higher Education. (n.d.). World university rankings 2014-15. Retrieved from www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/2015/world-ranking#!/page/0/length/25 [March 24, 2016].
- Top Universities. (n.d. a). QS university rankings: Latin America 2014. Retrieved from www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/latin-american-university-rankings/2014#sorting=rank+region=+country=+faculty=+stars=false+search= [March 24, 2016].
- Top Universities. (n.d. b). QS world university rankings 2014/15. Retrieved from www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2014#sorting=rank+region=349+country=+faculty=+stars=false+search= [March 24, 2016].
- UFRGS. (n.d.). Secretaria de relações internacionais: Campus internacional. Retrieved from www.ufrgs.br/relinter/portugues [March 30, 2016].
- UNESCO. (2008). *Global education digest 2008: Comparing education statistics across the world*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

- UNESCO. (2009). *Global education digest 2009: Comparing education statistics across the world*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- UNESCO. (2010). *Global education digest 2010: Comparing education statistics across the world*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- UNESCO. (2011). Global education digest 2011: Comparing education statistics across the *world*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- UNESCO. (2012). Global education digest 2012: Opportunities lost: The impact of grade repetition and early school leaving. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- UNESCO. (2016). Global flow of tertiary-level students. Retrieved from www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/international-student-flow-viz.aspx [March 24, 2016].
- Universität Zürich. (2010). Methodenberatung: Kruskal-Wallis-Test. Retrieved from www.methodenberatung.uzh.ch/datenanalyse/unterschiede/zentral/kruskal.html [March 24, 2016].
- Urban, D., & Mayerl, J. (2011). *Regressionsanalyse: Theorie, Technik und Anwendung* (4th ed.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Van Mol, C. (2015). Why do students move? An analysis of mobility determinants among Italian students. In F. Dervin & R. Machart (Eds.), *The new politics of global academic mobility and migration* (pp. 19–39). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH.
- Van Mol, C., & Timmerman, C. (2014). Should I stay or should I go? An analysis of the determinants of intra-European student mobility. *Population, Space and Place, 20*(5), 465–479.
- Vergani, C. E. (2013). UN chronicle: The magazine of the United Nations. International mobility of students in Brazil. Retrieved from http://unchronicle.un.org/article/international-mobility-students-brazil/ [March 24, 2016].
- Waters, J., & Brooks, R. (2010). Accidental achievers? International higher education, class reproduction and privilege in the experience of UK students overseas. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 31(2), 217–228.
- Wei, H. (2013). An empirical study on the determinants of international student mobility: A global perspective. *Higher Education, 66*(1), 105–122.
- Welch, A. (2008). Myths and modes of mobility: The changing face of academic mobility in the global area. In M. Byram & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Students, staff and academic mobility in higher education* (pp. 292–311). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Witzel, A. (2000). Das problemzentrierte Interview. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung, 1*(1), Art. 22.
- Zuckerman, M. (1971). Dimensions of sensation seeking. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *36*(1), 45–52.

Appendix A: Qualitative Pilot Study

Appendix A 1: Guideline for the face-to-face interviews

A) First impression of Colombia

- 1. In which situation did you for the first time think about studying in Colombia? [Please describe this situation.]¹¹⁷
- 2. Before studying in Colombia, what was your image of the country? Please describe it. [Which key words did you have in mind when thinking about the country?]
- 3. Before coming to Colombia, how did you inform yourself about Colombia? [Where did you get the information (e.g. about life, universities, formalities (e.g. visa)) from, whom did you ask?]
- 4. **Only for exchange students:** Does your home university promote academic exchange in general and with regard to Colombia? How?

B) Motivations for choosing Colombia

5. Why did you decide to study in Colombia?

a) Please tell me about your reasons and motivations that have influenced your decision to study in Colombia. **If only educational motivations mentioned:** Did you have other motivations beyond educational reasons?

b) What were your expectations about this stay abroad?

c) Were there some things that did appear attractive for you regarding living in Colombia? Which?

d) Which new experiences did you want to have in Colombia? [What did you think would be different to your country of origin?]

6. Before departure to Colombia, what impact did you think this stay abroad would have on you and your future? [e.g. personally, academically, professionally]

Career opportunities mentioned: What exactly are the skills and qualifications that you thought you would gain in Colombia? Why did you decide not to study in a university in Europe, the US etc.?

- 7. Before coming to Colombia, how did you think you would spend your free time there? [Which activities? After classes, at the weekends, during holidays]
- 8. Is this your first stay in Colombia or Latin America?
 - **No:** which countries?
 - what kind of stay(s) abroad? [holidays, school exchange, internship etc.]
 - duration?
 - with whom? [alone, friends, family etc.]

¹¹⁷ Questions in these brackets [...] give some additional information on the preceding question. It was only asked if the interviewee did not understand the preceding question or if the answer was very short in order to stimulate a more detailed answer.

- 9. Is there somebody who influenced you in your decision for studying in Colombia?
 - Who and why? (persons in country of origin **and** in Colombia)
 - [Do you have family or friends who are currently staying or have stayed in Colombia before?]
- 10.a) Before coming to Colombia, what did you think about the security situation of this country? [What did you know about the security situation? What was your opinion about it?]

b) Did your knowledge about the security situation influence your decision for studying in Colombia?

Yes: How?

No: Why not?

11. Why did you choose to study in Bogotá / Barranquilla and not in another city in Colombia?

C) Alternative study destinations

12. As you decided to study at a foreign university, what country immediately came to your mind as an attractive study destination?

a 1) Colombia first choice: At that time, did you think of any other interesting countries for studying besides Colombia?

Yes: Which countries (order) and why? Why weren't these countries your first choice?

No: Why did you want to study exclusively in Colombia?

a 2) Colombia not first choice: Why was this country your first choice? At that time, did you think of any other countries for studying besides the country already mentioned that would have been more interesting for you than Colombia? (order) Why?

b) Countries in Latin America mentioned: In your opinion, what is different between Colombia and those countries? [What is special about Colombia with regard to the other countries?]

c) Language motive mentioned: Why did you not decide to go to Spain or to another Spanish speaking country?

13. Alternative study destinations mentioned: Do you think your expectations about this stay abroad could be fulfilled in the same way as in the other countries that you mentioned?

If yes: In which countries and why?

If no: Why not?

D) International Experience in general

- 14. Before coming to Colombia, did you ever travel or live abroad? If been in LA... outside of Latin America?
 - Yes: which countries?
 - what kind of stay abroad? [holidays, school exchange, internship etc.]
 - duration?
 - with whom? [alone, friends, family etc.]

No: why not?

15. Do any of your family members have or have had experiences in travelling or living outside their country of origin before? [Such as migration background, experience of living or working abroad etc.; parents, brothers / sisters, spouse, cousins etc.]

Yes: what kind of international contacts or experiences do they have?

16. Have you already travelled or do you plan to travel to other places in Colombia or Latin America besides Bogotá / Barranquilla during this stay abroad?

Yes: which places and for how long?

No: why not?

E) Further question

- 17. Are there any differences in your assumptions about the country that you had before your studies in Colombia and you have today? [e.g. about life, university] Which?
- 18. Do you have something that you would like to mention? Did I forget any important aspect?

Appendix A 2: Short form before the interview

Demographic information				
Gender	🗖 male			J female
Age:				
Country of origin:				
Mother tongue(s):				
<u>Stay in Colombia</u>				
Name of university in Colon	nbia [.]			
Length of stay in Colombia		Begin:	Estima	ated end:
Type of stay abroad				
□ 1 semester	🗖 1 year	r	full degree in	n
			Colombia	
Only for students staying for	or 1 semester o	r 1 year:		
Country of home university:	-			
Is there a university agreen the university in Colombia a			☐ yes	🗖 no
Field of study/-ies at home	university: _			
Only for full degree student	s in Colombia:			

Agreement about the interview

This interview is realized in the context of the doctoral project of Alexandra Nitz who is enrolled as a Ph.D. student at Bielefeld University in Germany. The topic of this project is the mobility of international students in Colombia. The main objective is to get to know the motivations for their decision to study in Colombia. Therefore, international students who are enrolled at Colombian universities will be interviewed. This project serves only for academic purposes.

The participation in the interview is voluntary and the interviewee is not obliged to answer every question. The interview will be recorded, typed and analyzed. The data will be anonymized, for example through the use of a pseudonym instead of the real name.

I have read and understood this information about the Ph.D. project of Alexandra Nitz. I comprehend that my participation is voluntary and I agree that the interview will be recorded and the data will be used in an anonymous form.

City:

Date:

Signature:

Education						
Current degree	program	Undergradua	-		duate deg ⁄laster ²h.D.)thers =>	-
Expected time li (number of seme		ourse of study:				
Enrolled in this of	course of stud	dy since:				
Previous qualifi (several answer		 □ None Undergraduat □ Bachelor □ Others => y 	-	Gra □ N □ F	∕ocational duate deo laster Ph.D.)thers =>	-
Language skills	<u>6</u>					
Language skills	in Spanish a	at the beginning	of your stay	/ in Co	lombia:	
Speaking		ned? (e.g. scho				
Writing	1 (none) Where lear	earned? 2 3 ned? (e.g. scho earned?	4 ol)	5	6	7 (fluent)
If certificate(s)						
Further foreign Name of langua						
Speaking	-	7, see above)				
opeaning	Where lear	,				
	How long le					
Writing	-	7, see above)				
J	Where lear	,				
	How long le	earned?				
If certificate(s)	Which?					

Appendix A 4: Short form after the interview

163

Language of s	eminars and furthe	er course	s attendin	g at the	Colombian	university	
(several answe	ers possible)						
Language	Spanish	English		Other	Other language(s) => which?		
Number of	□ 1	□ 1		□ 1			
courses since student	□ 1-3	🗖 1-3		🗖 1-3	□ 1-3		
in Colombia	☐ More than 3	More	e than 3	🗖 Mor	e than 3		
Financing of y	<u>your stay in Colo</u>	<u>mbia</u> (se	veral ansv	vers pos	sible)		
C Scholarship	=> where from? _		🗖 P	ersonal	savings		
□ Support from	n family			ob in Co	lombia		
□ Others => w	/hat?						
Tuition fees	□ No	□ Yes		a)Colo b)or Eເ		ester in os	
<u>Family</u>			Mother		ather	If married: spouse	
Country of orig	in:		Mother		alliei	n marned, spouse	
Highest educa	ational level comp	leted*:					
* Legend highest of 1 = None 2 = Primary education 3 = Secondary ed 4 = Vocational education 5 = Undergraduate 6 = Graduate univol 7 = Doctoral degra 8 = Other => what	ation ucation ucation e university degree rersity degree ee						

Current occupation*:	Mother	Father	If married: spouse

<u>* Legend current occupation¹¹⁸</u> 1 = Legislators, senior officials and managers

- 2 = Professionals
- 3 = Technicians and associate professionals
- 4 = Clerks

5 = Service workers and shop and market sales workers

- 6 = Skill agricultural and fishery workers
- 7 = Craft and related workers
- 8 = Plant and machine operators and assemblers
- 9 = Elementary occupations
- 10 = Armed forces

¹¹⁸ Categories for current occupation were derived from ISCO-88 International Standard Classification of Occupations (ILO, 2004).

Appendix A 5: Email to invite participants to the face-to-face interview

Why did you come to Colombia?

Dear international students,

My name is Alexandra Nitz and I am a Ph.D. student from Bielefeld University in Germany. I am writing my doctoral thesis in Sociology on the motivations of international students who have decided to study at Colombian universities. My project is about why international students chose Colombia, what their expectations were etc. Therefore, I would like to conduct some interviews with international students who are currently enrolled at the Universidad XX [name of university].

I would be very happy to invite you for coffee and sweets and hear about your personal reasons for deciding to study in Colombia. The interview will take place here at the university or in a place nearby, it will last between 30 and 45 minutes, and will be in English, Spanish or German as you prefer. If you would like to participate or have any questions, please write an email until the **31st of January** to: alexandra.nitz@uni-bielefeld.de, so that we can discuss the details.

Thanks in advance. Kind regards Alexandra

Appendix B: Online Survey

Appendix B 1: Online questionnaire (English)

Por favor elija el idioma Please select the language

- español
- English

International Students in Colombia

Thank you very much for your interest in participating in the online survey for my doctoral project. As there is little known about the motivations of international students for studying in Colombia, I am interested in getting to know the personal reasons that influenced your decision to study in this country.

My project addresses **international students who are currently studying in Colombia**. However, the study does **not include** doctoral students, students who exclusively do Spanish language classes or exclusively research in Colombia. If you belong to one of these three categories, please do not participate in the study.

There are neither right nor wrong answers; what matters is **your opinion**. Most of the questions refer to the time **before** your arrival in Colombia. The survey is anonymous and all information will be used exclusively for my doctoral project.

Alexandra Nitz | Doctoral Researcher in Sociology Bielefeld Graduate School in History and Sociology Bielefeld University | alexandra.nitz@uni-bielefeld.de P.O. Box 10 01 31 | 33501 Bielefeld | Germany

Image of Colombia

Before studying in Colombia, did you have an image of this country?

- □ yes, a clear image
- yes, a vague image
- no, no image at all

Before studying in Colombia, did you associate the following aspects with Colombia?

	yes	no
friendly people		
interesting culture		
partying, dancing (e.g. Salsa)		
Colombian celebrities (e.g. Shakira, Gabriel García Márquez)		
beautiful nature		
nice weather		
tasty food		
famous universities		
developed country		
developing country		
low living expenses		
unsafe country		
crime		
drugs		

Before studying in Colombia, did you search for information about Colombia (e.g. about the country in general, about universities)?

□ yes

🗖 no

Did you use the following sources to get information about Colombia?

	yes	no
internet		
television		
international office of home university		
international office of Colombian university		
informative meeting / education fair about studying abroad		
reports from other students about studying in Colombia		
personal contact with Colombians		
personal contact with people (not Colombians) who are / have been in		
Colombia		

Was it easy to get reliable information about Colombia?

yes		no

Had you been to Colombia before your studies?

- 🗖 no
- □ yes, one time
- □ yes, two times
- yes, three times or more

Gender

- □ female
- □ male

Age in years



Region of birth

- Africa
- Asia
- Australia / Oceania
- Europe
- Latin America / the Caribbean
- **D** North America (Canada, USA, including commonwealths e.g. Puerto Rico)

Nationality/ies

Mother tongue(s)

- Spanish
- □ other (please specify):.....

Current state of studies

- undergraduate studies (e.g. Bachelor)
- graduate studies (e.g. Master, **not** considering PhD / doctoral studies)
- PhD / doctoral studies
- exclusively for Spanish language classes
- exclusively for research

Type of studies you are doing in Colombia

- partial studies in Colombia (e.g. one semester)
 country of your home university:
- complete studies in Colombia
 country where you lived before the beginning of your studies in
 Colombia:

Beginning of your studies in Colombia

Please choose semester and insert year

- first semester of the year.....
- second semester of the year.....

Number of semesters altogether you study in Colombia (counting from the beginning until the estimated end)

Please insert number of semesters

Colombia and Alternative Study Destinations

Before studying in Colombia, did any of the following aspects apply to you?

	yes	no
For a long time I had the dream to live abroad.		
For a long time I had the dream to get to know Latin America / the Caribbean.		
For a long time I had the dream to get to know Colombia.		
I could imagine to migrate later to Colombia.		

When you decided to study in Colombia, did you consider the following motivations in your decision? If yes, how important were the considered motivations?

	no	yes, not at all important		yes, very important
studying in Colombia because I had already been in Colombia before				
studying in Colombia because I had not been in Colombia before				
studying in Colombia because Spanish is spoken				

After deciding to study abroad, did you want to study in a **particular** country or continent?

- yes, in particular country/-ies
- yes, in particular continent(s)
- no, not in any particular country or continent

Please name the country/-ies you wanted to study in. In case you mention more than one country, please rank them according to your preference.

Country of first choice Country of second choice Country of third choice

Please give the continent(s) you wanted to study in. In case you mention more than one continent, please rank them according to your preference.

Continent of first choice	Please choose continent Africa Asia Australia / Oceania Europe Latin America / the Caribbean North America (Canada, USA, including commonwealths e.g. Puerto Rico)
Continent of second choice	Please choose continent Africa Asia Australia / Oceania Europe Latin America / the Caribbean North America (Canada, USA, including commonwealths e.g. Puerto Rico)
Continent of third choice	Please choose continent Africa Asia Australia / Oceania Europe Latin America / the Caribbean North America (Canada, USA, including commonwealths e.g. Puerto Rico)

Motivations for Choosing Colombia

General motivations

Before studying in Colombia, would you have agreed with the following statements?

	disagree strongly		agree strongly
I will never be able to get to know a country in the same way as a student.			
Studying abroad is a good possibility to extend my life as a student.			
Academic achievements are not the main aim but an additional benefit of my studies abroad.			

Before studying in Colombia, how motivated were you in general to study in this country?

very unmotivated		very motivated

Motivations related to education

When you decided to study in Colombia, were the following motivations important for your decision to study in Colombia?

	yes	no
improving Spanish skills		
studying at a foreign university with a good reputation		
participating in specific courses offered on topics that are not available at my home university		
participating in a specific study program offered on topics that are not available in my home country		
getting to know different academic perspectives		
getting to know everyday life at a foreign university		
getting to know academics for establishing academic cooperation		
collecting data for my thesis (e.g. interviews)		
getting a university degree awarded from two universities		
doing practical training / internship		
studying in a developing country because the topic development is an important issue in my studies		
studying in a country with internal conflict in order to observe how this country is dealing with conflict		

Motivations related to professional career

When you decided to study in Colombia, were the following motivations important for your decision to study in Colombia?

	yes	no
improving job opportunities through skills gained during studies abroad (e.g. language, intercultural competence)		
improving job opportunities through studying in an unconventional country where only few students from my home country study		
improving job opportunities through studying in a country with an internal conflict because it proves my capability of living in a challenging environment		
getting to know people who could be helpful for finding a job in the future		
working in the future in a job related to Colombia		

Did you use motivations related to education or professional career as argument to convince others (e.g. parents) to study in Colombia?

- □ yes
- 🗖 no

Motivations related to living environment

When you decided to study in Colombia, were the following motivations important for your decision to study in Colombia?

	yes	no
comfortable climate		
interesting free time activities (e.g. sightseeing, salsa dancing)		
low costs (e.g. for apartment, flight ticket, tuition fees)		
getting to know local specialities (e.g. food, music)		
living in a foreign culture		
travelling in Colombia		
travelling to neighboring countries		
culture is close to my own culture		
culture is different from my own culture		
Colombia is geographically close to my home country		
Colombia is geographically far away from my home country		

Motivations related to personal development

When you decided to study in Colombia, were the following motivations important for your decision to study in Colombia?

	yes	no
getting to know new people and other perspectives		
becoming more independent and mature		
getting to know more about myself		
change of social environment		

Impact of Social Environment

When you decided to study in Colombia, were the following motivations important for your decision to study in Colombia?

	yes	no
studying in Colombia because this country is recommended by people who have been there		
studying in Colombia because my partner would be living in Colombia during my stay there		
studying in Colombia because relatives would be living in Colombia during my stay there		
studying in Colombia because friends would be living in Colombia during my stay there		
studying at a university that is recommended by people who have studied at this university		

When you decided to study in Colombia, did any of the following aspects apply? *Several answers possible*

- people I know have been to Colombia and recommended the country
- **my partner** would be living in Colombia during my stay there
- **relatives** would be living in Colombia during my stay there
- **friends** would be living in Colombia during my stay there
- people I know have studied at the same university where I am currently enrolled and recommended studying at this university

When you decided to study in Colombia, how important were the following aspects for your decision to study in Colombia?

	aspect not considered	not at all important		very important
spending time with my partner				
my partner can help me before my stay				
my partner can help me during my stay				

When you decided to study in Colombia, how important were the following aspects for your decision to study in Colombia?

	aspect not considered			very important
spending time with my relatives				
my relatives can help me before my stay				
my relatives can help me during my stay				

When you decided to study in Colombia, how important were the following aspects for your decision to study in Colombia?

spending time with my friends	aspect not considered □	not at all important □		very important □
my friends can help me before my stay				
my friends can help me during my stay				

Would you have chosen Colombia as a study destination if...

	yes		no
Colombia had not been recommended by people who have been there?			
your partner had not lived in Colombia at the same time?			
your relatives had not lived in Colombia at the same time?			
your friends had not lived in Colombia at the same time?			
the university had not been recommended by people who have studied at this university?			

Impact of Organizational Aspects

Are the following aspects an obligatory part of your studies at your home university?

	yes	no
studying abroad		
studying in a Spanish speaking country		
studying in a country in Latin America / the Caribbean		

When deciding about the country for your studies abroad, which of the following aspects regarding agreements / partnerships between your home university and foreign universities did you consider?

- I considered only countries **with** agreements
- I considered only countries without agreements
- I considered countries both with and without agreements
- □ I did not care if there are agreements
- my home university does not have agreements

Does the Colombian university where you are currently enrolled have an agreement / partnership with your home university?

□ yes □ no

Does your home university promote academic exchange with Colombia?

not at all		very much	l do not know

When you decided to study in Colombia, were the following motivations important for your decision to study in Colombia?

	yes	no
existence of agreement / partnership with my home university		
high chances of getting a place as university student		
availability of financial assistance (e.g. scholarship, job)		
ease of getting a visa		

Would you have chosen Colombia as a study destination if ...

	yes		no
there had not existed an agreement / partnership with your home university?			
the chances of getting a place as university student had been very low ?			
there had not been any possibility of financial assistance?			
the conditions to get a visa had been very difficult ?			

International Experience in General

Before studying in Colombia, had you ever been to any country outside your country of birth?

- □ yes
- 🗖 no

In which of the following regions had you been before your studies in Colombia? *Several answers possible*

- Africa
- Asia
- Australia / Oceania
- Europe
- Latin America / the Caribbean
- □ North America (Canada, USA, including commonwealths e.g. Puerto Rico)

During these stays abroad, were you with or without your close family (parents / brothers / sisters)?

always without family		always with family

Before studying in Colombia, had you ever **lived** abroad? Please **only** consider stays that lasted at least for one month and count the total length of these stays.

- no, I had not lived abroad before for a stay that lasted at least one month
- yes, 1 to 3 months
- yes, 4 to 8 months
- yes, 9 to 11 months
- J yes, 1 to 2 years
- yes, more than 2 years => please specify number of years:

Had your close family members ever **lived** abroad? Please **only** consider stays that lasted at least for one month. If you do not have brothers or sisters please do not fill out the respective space. If you have more than one sister / brother, please consider only your **oldest** sister / brother.

	yes	no	l do not know
mother			
father			
brother			
sister			

If you have brothers / sisters please specify the age of the **oldest** brother / sister.

age of brother	
age of sister	

Additional Information

Studies

Please choose your **main** field of study at your home university. If you have more than one main field of study, please choose **every** main field of study.

- Architecture, Building and Planning
- Biological Sciences (e.g. Biology, Psychology)
- Business and Administrative studies (e.g. Accounting, Marketing, Tourism)
- Communication studies and Documentation
- Creative Arts and Design (e.g. Drama, Photography)
- Education
- **D** Engineering (e.g. Civil Engineering, Electronic Engineering)
- Historical and Philosophical studies (e.g. History, Theology)
- □ Languages, Literature and related subjects
- Law
- Linguistics and related subjects
- Mathematical and Computer Sciences
- Medicine and Dentistry
- D Physical Sciences (e.g. Chemistry, Physics, Geology)
- Social studies (e.g. Sociology, Politics, Social Work)
- Subjects related to Medicine (e.g. Pharmacy, Nursing)
- Technologies (e.g. Metallurgy, Materials Technology)
- □ Veterinary Sciences, Agriculture and related subjects
- Other (please specify):....

Additional Information

Studies

Please choose your **main** field of study. If you have more than one main field of study, please choose **every** main field of study.

- Architecture, Building and Planning
- Biological Sciences (e.g. Biology, Psychology)
- Business and Administrative studies (e.g. Accounting, Marketing, Tourism)
- Communication studies and Documentation
- Creative Arts and Design (e.g. Drama, Photography)
- Education
- **D** Engineering (e.g. Civil Engineering, Electronic Engineering)
- Historical and Philosophical studies (e.g. History, Theology)
- □ Languages, Literature and related subjects
- Law
- Linguistics and related subjects
- Mathematical and Computer Sciences
- Medicine and Dentistry
- D Physical Sciences (e.g. Chemistry, Physics, Geology)
- Social studies (e.g. Sociology, Politics, Social Work)
- □ Subjects related to Medicine (e.g. Pharmacy, Nursing)
- Technologies (e.g. Metallurgy, Materials Technology)
- □ Veterinary Sciences, Agriculture and related subjects
- Other (please specify):.....

The university in Colombia where you are enrolled is....

public		private
located in Bogotá		located in a region outside of Bogotá

Please specify the level of your foreign languages skills **at the beginning** of your studies in Colombia. The levels range from 1 (low) to 5 (excellent).

	name of language	level
1. foreign language		
2. foreign language		
3. foreign language		
4. foreign language		

How do you finance your studies?

Several answers possible

	in Colombia	at home university
personal savings		
support from family		
job		
scholarship		
credit (e.g. from a bank)		

Personality¹¹⁹

How well do the following statements describe your personality? I see myself as someone who...

	disagree strongly		agree strongly
is reserved			
is generally trusting			
tends to be lazy			
is relaxed, handles stress well			
has few artistic interests			
is outgoing, sociable			
tends to find fault with others			
does an accurate job			
gets nervous easily			
has an active imagination			

Social environment

Are you married?

□ yes

🗖 no

¹¹⁹ Question and items for personality are derived from the concept of the Big Five (Rammstedt et al., 2012, p. 31). The names of some items were changed slightly for easier understanding.

Do you have any Colombian relatives?

no
yes, in Colombia
yes, outside Colombia
yes, in and outside Colombia

Your parents' nationality/-ies

mother	father	

Your parents' highest educational level completed successfully

	no formal education	primary school	secondary school	university	doctoral degree/PhD
mother					
father					

Following, you can find a scale about social positions in the society where your parents live. Please specify the appropriate position of your parents concerning aspects such as income, property, job etc.

	low		high
mother			
father			

Thank you very much for your participation. If you would like to continue directly with the summary / lottery please click on "continue". If you would like to mention something else that could be interesting for my study, please use the following space before continuing:

If you would like to participate in the lottery or receive a summary of the results please click here: summary/lottery

Appendix B 2: Online questionnaire (Spanish)

Por favor elija el idioma Please select the language

- español
- English

Estudiantes Internacionales en Colombia

Estudiantes Internacionales en Colombia Muchas gracias por su interés en participar en la encuesta online para mi projecto de doctorado. Como se sabe poco sobre las motivaciones de estudiantes extranjeros para estudiar en Colombia, estoy interesada en conocer las razones personales que influyeron en su decisión de estudiar en ese país.

Mi proyecto está dirigido a **estudiantes internacionales que actualmente están estudiando en Colombia**. Sin embargo, el estudio **no incluye** estudiantes de doctorado, estudiantes que exclusivamente hacen cursos del idioma español o exclusivamente investigación en Colombia. Si pertenece a una de esas tres categorías por favor no participe en el estudio.

No hay respuestas ni correctas ni incorrectas; lo que importa es **su opinión**. La mayoría de las preguntas se refiere al tiempo **antes** de su llegada a Colombia. La encuesta es anónima y toda información será usada exclusivamente para mi proyecto de doctorado.

Alexandra Nitz | Doctoral Researcher in Sociology Bielefeld Graduate School in History and Sociology Bielefeld University | alexandra.nitz@uni-bielefeld.de P.O. Box 10 01 31 | 33501 Bielefeld | Germany

Imagen de Colombia

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿tuvo una imagen de ese país?

- sí, una imagen clara
- sí, una imagen imprecisa
- no, ninguna imagen

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿relacionó los siguientes aspectos con Colombia?

	SÍ	no
personas amables		
cultura interesante		
ir de fiesta, bailar (p.ej. Salsa)		
personajes colombianos (p.ej. Shakira, Gabriel García Márquez)		
naturaleza maravillosa		
clima agradable		
comida rica		
universidades famosas		
país desarrollado		
país en desarrollo		
bajo costo de vida		
país inseguro		
delincuencia		
drogas		

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿buscó información sobre Colombia (p.ej. sobre el país en general, sobre universidades)?

🗖 sí

🗖 no

¿Usó las siguientes fuentes para obtener información sobre Colombia?

	SI	no
internet		
televisión		
oficina internacional de la universidad de origen		
oficina internacional de la universidad colombiana		
reunión informativa / feria educativa sobre estudiar en el extranjero		
informe de otros estudiantes sobre estudiar en Colombia		
contacto personal con colombianos		
contacto personal con personas (no colombianas) que están / han estado en Colombia		

¿Fue fácil obtener informacion confiable sobre Colombia?

SÍ		no

¿Había estado en Colombia antes de sus estudios?

- 🗖 no
- sí, una vez
- □ sí, dos veces
- sí, tres veces o más

Sexo

- **d** femenino
- masculino

Edad en años



Región de nacimiento

- □ África
- Asia
- Australia / Oceanía
- Europa
- América Latina / El Caribe
- América del Norte (Canadá, Estados Unidos, incluyendo territorios adjuntos p.ej. Puerto Rico)

Nacionalidad(es)

Lengua(s) materna(s)

- español
- d otros (por favor especifique):.....

Estado actual de estudios

- pregrado (p.ej. licenciatura)
- posgrado (p.ej. maestría, **no** considerando estudios de doctorado)
- estudios de doctorado
- exclusivamente para curso del idioma español
- exclusivamente para investigación

Tipo de estudios que está haciendo en Colombia

- estudio universitario parcial en Colombia (p. ej. un semestre) país de su universidad de origen:.....
- estudio universitario completo en Colombia
 país donde vivió antes del comienzo de sus estudios en Colombia:.....

Comienzo de sus estudios en Colombia

Por favor elija el semestre y inserte el año

- primer semestre del año.....
- segundo semestre del año.....

Número de semestres en total que estudia en Colombia (contando desde el principio hasta el final estimado)

Por favor inserte el número de semestres

Colombia y Destinos Alternativos para Estudiar

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿se aplicaron a su caso algunos de los siguientes aspectos?

	SÍ	no
Desde hace mucho tiempo tuve el sueño de vivir en el extranjero.		
Desde hace mucho tiempo tuve el sueño de conocer América Latina / el Caribe.		
Desde hace mucho tiempo tuve el sueño de conocer Colombia.		
Podía imaginar emigrar más tarde a Colombia.		

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿consideró las siguientes motivaciones al tomar su decisión? En caso que sí, qué importancia tuvieron las motivaciones consideradas?

	no	sí, nada importante		sí, muy importante
estudiar en Colombia porque ya había estado en Colombia antes				
estudiar en Colombia porque no había estado en Colombia antes				
estudiar en Colombia porque se habla				

Después de decidir estudiar en el extranjero, ¿quiso estudiar en un país o continente **particular**?

- □ sí, en país(es) particular(es)
- □ sí, en continente(s) particular(es)
- no, en ningún país o continente particular

Por favor, nombre el / los país(es) donde quiso estudiar. En caso de mencione más de un país, por favor clasifíquelos conforme a su preferencia.

País de primera elección País de segunda elección País de tercera elección

Por favor, dé el / los continente(s) donde quiso estudiar. En caso de mencione más de un continente, por favor clasifíquelos conforme a su preferencia.

Continente de primera elección	Por favor elija el continente África Asia Australia / Oceanía Europa América Latina / el Caribe América del Norte (Canadá, Estados Unidos, incluyendo territorios adjuntos p. ej. Puerto Rico)
Continente de segunda elección	Por favor elija el continente África Asia Australia / Oceanía Europa América Latina / el Caribe América del Norte (Canadá, Estados Unidos, incluyendo territorios adjuntos p. ej. Puerto Rico)
Continente de tercera elección	Por favor elija el continente África Asia Australia / Oceanía Europa América Latina / el Caribe América del Norte (Canadá, Estados Unidos, incluyendo territorios adjuntos p. ej. Puerto Rico)

Motivaciones para Escoger Colombia

Motivaciones generales

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿habría estado de acuerdo con las siguientes expresiones?

	muy en desacuerdo		muy de acuerdo
Nunca seré capaz de conocer un país de la misma manera como un estudiante.			
Estudiar en el extranjero es una buena posibilidad de prolongar mi vida como estudiante.			
Los logros académicos no son el objetivo principal sino una ventaja adicional de mis estudios en el extranjero.			

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿cómo de motivado estuvo en general por estudiar en ese país?

muy desmotivado		muy motivado

Motivaciones relacionadas con la educación

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿fueron las siguientes motivaciones importantes para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	SÍ	no
mejorar mis conocimientos del español		
estudiar en una universidad extranjera con buena reputación		
participar en cursos específicos sobre temas que no están disponibles en mi universidad de origen		
participar en un programa de estudios específico sobre temas que no están disponibles en mi país de origen		
conocer perspectivas académicas diferentes		
conocer la vida cotidiana en una universidad extranjera		
conocer académicos para establecer una cooperación académica		
recolectar datos para mi tesis (p. ej. entrevistas)		
conseguir un título universitário conferido por dos universidades		
hacer prácticas		
estudiar en un país en desarrollo porque el tema de desarrollo es un asunto importante en mis estudios		
estudiar en un país con un conflicto interno con el fin de observar cómo ese país está manejando conflicto		

Motivaciones relacionadas con la carrera profesional

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿fueron las siguientes motivaciones importantes para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	SÍ	no
mejorar las oportunidades de trabajo por competencias adquiridas durante los estudios en el extranjero (p.ej. idioma, competencia intercultural)		
mejorar las oportunidades de trabajo por estudiar en un país poco convencional donde solamente pocos estudiantes de mi país de origen estudian		
mejorar las oportunidades de trabajo por estudiar en un país con un conflicto interno porque muestra mi capacidad de vivir en un entorno que supone un desafío		
conocer personas que podrían ser útiles para encontrar trabajo en el futuro		
trabajar en el futuro en una ocupación relacionada con Colombia		

¿Usó motivaciones relacionadas con la educación o la carrera profesional como argumento para convencer a otros (p.ej. padres) de estudiar en Colombia?

□ sí □ no

Motivaciones relacionadas con el entorno de vida

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿fueron las siguientes motivaciones importantes para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	SÍ	no
clima agradable		
actividades de tiempo libre interesantes (p.ej. hacer turismo, bailar salsa)		
costos bajos (p.ej. para apartamento, billete de avión, tasa universitaria)		
conocer especialidades locales (p.ej. comida, música)		
vivir en una cultura extranjera		
viajar en Colombia		
viajar a países vecinos		
cultura es cercana a mi propia cultura		
cultura es diferente de mi propia cultura		
Colombia está geográficamente cerca de mi país de origen		
Colombia está geográficamente lejos de mi país de origen		

Motivationes relacionadas con el desarrollo personal

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿fueron las siguientes motivaciones importantes para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	sí	no
conocer nuevas personas y otras perspectivas		
hacerme más independiente y maduro		
conocer más sobre mí		
cambio del entorno social		

Impacto del Entorno Social

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿fueron las siguientes motivaciones importantes para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	SÍ	no
estudiar en Colombia porque ese país es recomendado por personas que han estado ahí		
estudiar en Colombia porque mi pareja viviría en Colombia durante mi estancia ahí		
estudiar en Colombia porque parientes vivirían en Colombia durante mi estancia ahí		
estudiar en Colombia porque amigos vivirían en Colombia durante mi estancia ahí		
estudiar en una universidad que es recomendada por personas que han estudiado en esa universidad		

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿se aplicaron algunos de los siguientes aspectos? *Varias respuestas son posibles*

- personas que conozco han estado en Colombia y me recomendaron el país
- **mi pareja** viviría en Colombia durante mi estancia ahí
- **parientes** vivirían en Colombia durante mi estancia ahí
- **amigos** vivirían en Colombia durante mi estancia ahí
- personas que conozco han estudiado en la misma universidad donde estoy matriculado actualmente y recomendaron estudiar en esa universidad

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿qué importancia tuvieron los siguientes aspectos para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	aspecto no considerado	nada importante		muy importante
pasar tiempo con mi pareja				
mi pareja me puede ayudar antes de mi estancia				
mi pareja me puede ayudar durante mi estancia				

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿qué importancia tuvieron los siguientes aspectos para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

pasar tiempo con mis parientes	aspecto no considerado	nada importante □	0	muy importante □
mis parientes me pueden ayudar antes de mi estancia				
mis parientes me pueden ayudar durante mi estancia				

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿qué importancia tuvieron los siguientes aspectos para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

pasar tiempo con mis amigos	aspecto no considerado □	nada importante □		muy importante □
mis amigos me pueden ayudar antes de mi estancia				
mis amigos me pueden ayudar durante mi estancia				

¿Habría escogido Colombia como destino de estudios si....

	SÍ		no
… Colombia no hubiera sido recomendado por personas que han estado ahí?			
su pareja no hubiera vivido en Colombia al mismo tiempo?			
sus parientes no hubieran vivido en Colombia al mismo tiempo?			
sus amigos no hubieran vivido en Colombia al mismo tiempo?			
la universidad no hubiera sido recomendado por personas que han estudiado en esa universidad?			

Impacto de Aspectos Organizadores

¿Son los aspectos siguientes una parte **obligatoria** de sus estudios en su universidad de origen?

	SÍ	no
estudiar en el extranjero		
estudiar en un país donde se habla español		
estudiar en un país en América Latina / el Caribe		

Cuándo decidió sobre el país de sus estudios en el extranjero, ¿cuáles de los siguientes aspectos referente a convenios / acuerdos entre su universidad de origen y universidades extranjeras consideró?

- consideré solamente países **con** convenios
- consideré solamente países **sin** convenios
- consideré países ambos **con y sin** convenios
- no me importó si hay convenios
- mi universidad de origen no tiene convenios

¿Tiene la universidad colombiana donde está matriculado actualmente convenios / acuerdos con su universidad de origen?

- 🗖 sí
- 🗖 no

¿Promueve su universidad de origen intercambio académico con Colombia?

nada		mucho	no lo sé

Cuando decidió estudiar en Colombia, ¿fueron las siguientes motivaciones importantes para su decisión de estudiar en Colombia?

	SÍ	no
existencia de convenio / acuerdo con mi universidad de origen		
posibilidades altas de conseguir un puesto como estudiante universitario		
disponibilidad de apoyo financiero (p. ej. beca, trabajo)		
facilidad de recibir un visado		

¿Habría escogido Colombia como destino de estudios si....

	SÍ		no
no hubiera existido un convenio / acuerdo con su universidad de origen?			
las posibilidades de conseguir un puesto como estudiante universitario hubieran sido			
muy bajas ? no hubiera habido ninguna posibilidad de apoyo financiero?			
las condiciones de recibir un visado hubieran sido muy difícil ?			

Experiencia Internacional en General

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿había estado alguna vez en algún país fuera de su país de nacimiento?

□ sí □ no

¿En cuáles de las siguientes regiones ya había estado antes de sus estudios en Colombia? *Varias respuestas son posibles*

- □ África
- Asia
- Australia / Oceanía
- Europa
- América Latina / el Caribe
- América del Norte (Canadá, Estados Unidos, incluyendo los territorios adjuntos p.ej. Puerto Rico)

Durante esas estancias en el extranjero, ¿estuvo con o sin su familia cercana (padres / hermanos / hermanas)?

siempre sin familia			siempre con familia

Antes de estudiar en Colombia, ¿había **vivido** alguna vez en el extranjero? Por favor, **solamente** considere estancias que duraron por lo menos un mes y cuente la duración completa de esas estancias.

- no, no había vivdo antes en el extranjero por una estancia que duró por lo menos un mes
- □ sí, de 1 a 3 meses
- sí, de 4 a 8 meses
- sí, de 9 a 11 meses
- sí, de 1 a 2 años
- sí, más que 2 años => por favor especifique el número de los años:.....

¿Habían **vivido** los miembros de su familia cercana alguna vez en el extranjero? Por favor, **solamente** considere estancias que duraron por lo menos un mes.

Si no tiene hermanos o hermanas por favor no rellene el espacio respectivo. Si tiene más que una hermana / un hermano, por favor solamente considere la hermana / el hermano **mayor**.

	SÍ	no	no lo sé
madre			
padre			
hermano			
hermana			

Si tiene hermanos / hermanas, por favor especifique la edad del hermano / de la hermana **mayor**.

edad del hermano ______ edad de la hermana _____

Información Adicional

Estudios

Por favor elija su disciplina de estudios **principal** en su universidad de origen. Si tiene más que una disciplina de estudios principal, por favor elija **cada** disciplina de estudios principal.

- Arquitectura, construcción y planificación
- Ciencias biológicas (p.ej. biología, psicología)
- Estudios empresariales y administrativos (p.ej. contabilidad, marketing, turismo)
- Estuidos de la comunicación y documentación
- Artes creativas y diseño (p.ej. drama, fotografía)
- Educación / pedagogía
- Ingeniería (p.ej. ingeniería civil, ingeniería electrónica)
- Estudios históricos y filosóficos (p.ej. historia, teología)
- Lenguas, literatura y asignaturas relacionadas
- Derecho
- Lingüística y asignaturas relacionadas
- Ciencias matemáticas y informáticas
- Medicina y odontología
- Ciencias físicas (p.ej. química, física, geología)
- Estudios sociales (p.ej. sociología, política, trabajo social)
- Asignaturas relacionadas con medicina (p.ej. farmacia, enfermería)
- Tecnología (p.ej. metalugria, tecnología de materiales)
- Ciencias veterinarias, agricultura y asignaturas relacionadas
- Otro (por favor especifique):.....

Información Adicional

Estudios

Por favor elija su disciplina de estudios **principal**. Si tiene más que una disciplina de estudios principal, por favor elija **cada** disciplina de estudios principal.

- Arquitectura, construcción y planificación
- Ciencias biológicas (p.ej. biología, psicología)
- **Estudios empresariales y administrativos (p.ej. contabilidad, marketing, turismo)**
- Estuidos de la comunicación y documentación
- Artes creativas y diseño (p.ej. drama, fotografía)
- Educación / pedagogía
- Ingeniería (p.ej. ingeniería civil, ingeniería electrónica)
- Estudios históricos y filosóficos (p.ej. historia, teología)
- Lenguas, literatura y asignaturas relacionadas
- Derecho
- Lingüística y asignaturas relacionadas
- Ciencias matemáticas y informáticas
- Medicina y odontología
- Ciencias físicas (p.ej. química, física, geología)
- Estudios sociales (p.ej. sociología, política, trabajo social)
- Asignaturas relacionadas con medicina (p.ej. farmacia, enfermería)
- Tecnología (p.ej. metalugria, tecnología de materiales)
- Ciencias veterinarias, agricultura y asignaturas relacionadas
- Otro (por favor especifique):.....

La universidad colombiana donde está matriculado es...

pública		privada
situada en Bogotá		situada en una region fuera de Bogotá

Por favor especifique el nivel de sus conocimientos de idiomas extranjeros **al principio** de sus estudios en Colombia. Los niveles se encuentran entre 1 (poco) y 5 (excelente).

nombre del idioma

nivel

 1. idioma extranjero

 2. idioma extranjero

3. idioma extranjero

4. idioma extranjero

1
1
]
1

¿Cómo financia sus estudios?

Varias respuestas son posibles

	en Colombia	en la universidad de origen
ahorros personales		
apoyo de la familila		
trabajo		
beca		
crédito (p. ej. de un banco)		

Personalidad¹²⁰

¿Cómo de bien describen su personalidad las siguientes expresiones? Me veo a mi mismo/-a como alguien que...

	muy en desacuerdo		muy de acuerdo
es reservado			
es generalmente confiado			
tiende a ser flojo, vago			
es relajado, controla bien el estrés			
tiene pocos intereses artísticos			
es extrovertido, sociable			
tiende a criticar a otros			
es exacto en el trabajo			
se pone nervioso con facilidad			
tiene una imaginación activa			

Entorno social

¿Está casado?

□ sí □ no

¹²⁰ Question and items for personality are derived from the concept of the Big Five (Benet-Martínez & John, 1998, p. 738-739). The names of some items were changed slightly for easier understanding.

¿Tiene algún pariente colombiano?

no
sí, en Colombia
sí, fuera de Colombia
sí, en y fuera de Colombia

Nacionalidad(es) de sus padres

madre	padre	

Nivel educativo más alto terminado con éxito de sus padres

	ninguna educación	escuela primaria	escuela secundaria	universidad	doctorado
madre					
padre					

En lo que sigue puede encontrar una escala sobre posiciones sociales en la sociedad donde viven sus padres. Por favor especifique la posición adecuada de sus padres con relación a aspectos como renta, propiedad, profesíon etc.

	bajo		alto
madre			
padre			

Muchas gracias por su participación. Si quisiera continuar directamente con el resumen / sorteo por favor haga clic en "continuar". Si quisiera mencionar algo más que pudiera ser interesante para mi estudio por favor use el siguiente espacio antes de continuar:

Si quisiera participar en el sorteo o recibir un resumen de los resultados por favor haga clic aqui: resumen/sorteo

Why did you come to Colombia?

Dear international students,

My name is Alexandra Nitz and I am a doctoral student from Bielefeld University in Germany. I am writing my doctoral thesis in Sociology on the motivations of international students who decide to study at Colombian universities. This project is about reasons why international students choose Colombia, what their expectations are, etc. I am interested in getting to know the personal motivations that influenced your decision to study in Colombia. Therefore, I invite you to participate in my online survey. As I need a lot of participants for the study, I would be very happy if you - as an international student who is currently studying in Colombia – would participate in this survey.

The questionnaire is available in English and Spanish and you need around 15 minutes to fill out. The survey is anonymous, you will not be asked to give your name. All information will be treated confidentially and will be used exclusively for my doctoral project. If you want to know the results of the study, you can get a summary after the completion of my doctoral thesis. As a thank-you for having filled out the questionnaire, you can participate in the lottery of five gift coupons from "Amazon" or "Librería Nacional" for 50 USD each.

You can find the online questionnaire at: http://ww2.unipark.de/uc/EstudiantesInternacionales/?a=

Thank you very much in advance. Kind regards Alexandra Nitz

If you have any questions, please write an email to: alexandra.nitz@uni-bielefeld.de

Appendix C: Empirical Findings from Online Survey

category	variable		N total	percent
	improving Spanish skills	53	56 ¹²²	41.7%
	studying at a foreign university with a good reputation	84	127	66.1%
	participating in specific courses offered on topics that are not available at my home university	61	99 ¹²³	48.0%
	participating in a specific study program offered on topics that are not available in my home country	14	28 ¹²⁴	11.0%
	getting to know different academic perspectives	113	127	89.0%
	getting to know everyday life at a foreign university	110	127	86.6%
education	getting to know academics for establishing academic cooperation	67	127	52.8%
	collecting data for my thesis (e.g. interviews)	38	126	29.9%
	getting a university degree awarded from two universities	30	127	23.6%
	doing practical training/internship	44	126	34.6%
	studying in a developing country because the topic development is an important issue in my studies	52	126	40.9%
	studying in a country with internal conflict in order to observe how this country is dealing with conflict	59	127	46.5%
professional career	improving job opportunities through skills gained during studies abroad (e.g. language, intercultural competence)	110	127	86.6%
	improving job opportunities through studying in an unconventional country where only few students from my home country study	83	127	65.4%
	improving job opportunities through studying in a country with an internal conflict because it proves my capability of living in a challenging environment	50	127	39.4%
	getting to know people who could be helpful for finding a job in the future	76	127	59.8%
	working in the future in a job related to Colombia	72	126	56.7%
	comfortable climate	62	127	48.8%
	interesting free time activities (e.g. sightseeing, salsa dancing)	95	127	74.8%
	low costs (e.g. for apartment, flight ticket, tuition fees)	72	127	56.7%
	getting to know local specialities (e.g. food, music)	103	127	81.1%
	living in a foreign culture	124	127	97.6%
living	traveling in Colombia	115	127	90.6%
environment	traveling to neighboring countries	81	127	63.8%
	culture is close to my own culture	52	127	40.9%
	culture is different from my own culture	77	125	60.6%
	Colombia is geographically close to my home country Colombia is geographically far away from my home	35 67	127 127	27.6% 52.8%
	country			
_	getting to know new people and other perspectives	126	127	99.2%
personal	becoming more independent and mature	104	127	81.9%
development	getting to know more about myself	105	127	82.7%
	change of social environment	113	126	89.0%

Appendix C 1: Frequencies of internal motivations derived from the online questionnaire

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

 ¹²¹ Percentages in this table always refer to the whole sample of N = 127.
 ¹²² Filter question (exclusively for students with a mother tongue other than Spanish).
 ¹²³ Filter question (exclusively for non-degree-seeking students).
 ¹²⁴ Filter question (exclusively for degree-seeking students).

Appendix C 2: Frequencies of variables related to country image

a) Students with clear and vague country image

item	Ν	N total ¹²⁵	percent
friendly people	101	116	87.1%
interesting culture	101	115	87.1%
partying, dancing (e.g. Salsa)	94	116	81.0%
Colombian celebrities (e.g. Shakira, Gabriel García Márquez)	74	114	63.8%
beautiful nature	102	116	87.9%
nice weather	81	116	69.8%
tasty food	37	116	31.9%
famous universities	20	116	17.2%
developed country	6	116	5.2%
developing country	101	116	87.1%
low living expenses	66	115	56.9%
unsafe country	88	116	75.9%
crime	85	116	73.3%
drugs	98	116	84.5%

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

b) Only students with clear country image

item	Ν	N total ¹²⁶	percent
friendly people	27	31	87.1%
interesting culture	26	31	83.9%
partying, dancing (e.g. Salsa)	26	31	83.9%
Colombian celebrities (e.g. Shakira, Gabriel García Márquez)	18	30	58.1%
beautiful nature	27	31	87.1%
nice weather	21	31	67.7%
tasty food	7	31	22.6%
famous universities	6	31	19.4%
developed country	4	31	12.9%
developing country	19	31	61.3%
low living expenses	13	31	41.9%
unsafe country	17	31	54.8%
crime	17	31	54.8%
drugs	20	31	64.5%

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

 ¹²⁵ Eleven students indicated that they did not possess any country image of Colombia before their studies.
 Hence, the total N in this table could reach a maximal of 116 and not 127.
 ¹²⁶ Only students with a clear country image were considered. Hence, the total N in this table could reach a

maximal of 31.

c) Only students with vague country image

item	Ν	N total ¹²⁷	percent
friendly people	74	85	87.1%
interesting culture	75	84	88.2%
partying, dancing (e.g. Salsa)	68	85	80.0%
Colombian celebrities (e.g. Shakira, Gabriel García Márquez)	56	84	65.9%
beautiful nature	75	85	88.2%
nice weather	60	85	70.6%
tasty food	30	85	35.3%
famous universities	14	85	16.5%
developed country	2	85	2.4%
developing country	82	85	96.5%
low living expenses	53	84	62.4%
unsafe country	71	85	83.5%
crime	68	85	80.0%
drugs	78	85	91.8%

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

¹²⁷ Only students with a vague country image were considered. Hence, the total N in this table could reach a maximal of 85.

	name of variable ¹²⁸	value	value label
dependent	favorite study destination ¹²⁹	1	particular country/-ies
variable		2	particular continent(s)
		3	not any particular country or continent
	gender	0	female
		1	male
	state of studies	0	undergraduate studies
socio-		1	postgraduate studies
demographic	region of nationality	0	Latin America/the Caribbean
characteristics		1	Europe and other regions
	field of study	1	social studies
		2	business and administrative studies
		3	other fields
	social background	1 - 5	low - high
	education and career in general	0 - 1	index
	education and career related to	0 - 1	index
active	development/conflict		
components	pleasant living environment	0 - 1	index
	personal development	0 - 1	index
	Spanish-speaking country	0 - 1	not at all important - very important
latent	country image of Colombia ¹³⁰	0 - 9	index
components	dream of getting to know Colombia ¹³¹	0	no
•	Colombia	1	yes
	partner in Colombia at same time	0	not quoted
		1	quoted
	relatives in Colombia at same	0	not quoted
	time	1	quoted
		0	not quoted
	friends in Colombia at same time	1	guoted
external	recommendation of Colombia	0	not quoted
components		1	quoted
	recommendation of specific	0	not quoted
	Colombian university	1	quoted
	scholarship in Colombia	0	not quoted
		1	guoted
	type of studies in Colombia	0	partial studies in Colombia (e.g. one semester)
		1	complete studies in Colombia
	exchange agreement between	0	no
	Colombian and home university	1	yes

Appendix C 3: Variables from the model explaining the choice of Colombia as favorite study destination before transformation

Source: Author's own table, data set of international students in Colombia.

¹²⁸ Variables in italics were transformed before they were included in binary logistic regression as described in

chapter 7.3.3.1. ¹²⁹ This is a filter item. Participants who gave the value 1, where requested to name the country/countries they wanted to study in. They could give up to three options and rank them according to their preference. Respondents with the value 2 could give up to three continents and rank them according to their preference. For logical reasons, participants with the value 3 could not give any countries or continents. ¹³⁰ This index was constructed based on a filter variable. For logical reasons, only students who stated that they

possessed a country image of Colombia before their studies were asked about details of this image. ¹³¹ This item is a filter variable that was only asked for students who had not been to Colombia before.

nationality	frequencies	percent		
Argentinian	9	7.1		
Australian	3	2.4		
Austrian	1	0.8		
Belgian	2	1.6		
Bolivian	2	1.6		
Brazilian	3	2.4		
Chilean	4	3.1		
Chinese	1	0.8		
Costa Rican	3	2.4		
Cuban	1	0.8		
Dutch, Belgian	1	0.8		
Ecuadorean	1	0.8		
French	20	15.7		
German	18	14.2		
Italian	1	0.8		
Jamaican	1	0.8		
Mexican	41	32.3		
Peruvian	1	0.8		
Spanish	7	5.5		
Spanish, German	1	0.8		
Swiss	1	0.8		
US	1	0.8		
Venezuelan	1	0.8		
missing values	3	2.4		
total	127	100.0		

Appendix C 4: Nationalities of participants

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 5: Function of local social networks

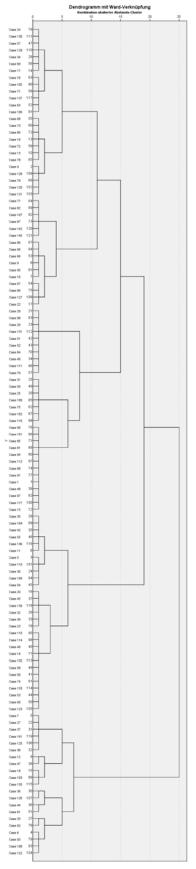
	my partner N = 12	my relatives N = 7	my friends N = 16
spending time with	2.92	2.29	1.38
can help me before my stay	2.17	2.86	1.25
can help me during my stay	2.67	2.86	1.56

Note: Means of variable ranging from 0 (aspect not considered/not at all important) to 4 (very important). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 6: Correlation of internal motivations

	education and career in general	education and career related to development/ conflict	pleasant living environment	personal development
education and career related	0.193*			
to development/conflict	127			
pleasant living environment	0.114	0.140		
	127	127		
personal development	0.304**	0.149	0.156	
	127	127	127	
Spanish-speaking country	0.026	0.147	0.033	-0.050
	121	121	121	121

Note: First number = Pearson coefficient including significance (two-sided), second number = N. * Significant at α = 0.05 ** Significant at α = 0.01 Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.



Appendix C 7: Dendrogram of cluster analysis

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

catogory	variable		total				
category		1	2	type 3	4	5	total
	getting to know people who could be helpful for finding a job in the future	26 86.7%	17 68.0%	21 72.4%	7 33.3%	2 12.5%	73 60.3%
	getting to know academics for establishing academic cooperation	20 66.7%	16 64.0%	18 62.1%	6 28.6%	2 12.5%	62 51.2%
education and career in	working in the future in a job related to Colombia	25 83.3% ¹³²	18 72.0%	13 44.8%	10 47.6%	4 25.0%	70 57.9% ¹³³
general	getting to know different academic perspectives	29 96.7%	24 96.0%	26 89.7%	17 81.0%	11 68.8%	107 88.4%
	studying at a foreign university with a good reputation	22 73.3%	23 92.0%	21 72.4%	11 52.4%	4 25.0%	81 66.9%
	improving job opportunities through skills gained during studies abroad (e.g. language, intercultural competence)	30 100.0%	24 96.0%	26 89.7%	16 76.2%	9 56.3%	105 86.8%
education and career	improving job opportunities through studying in a country with an internal conflict because it proves my capability of living in a challenging environment	28 93.3%	4 16.0%	2 6.9%	7 33.3%	7 43.8%	48 39.7%
and career related to development/ conflict	studying in a country with internal conflict in order to observe how this country is dealing with conflict	26 86.7%	2 8.0%	8 27.6%	11 52.4%	10 62.5%	57 47.1%
	studying in a developing country because the topic development is an important issue in my studies	25 83.3%	9 36.0%	4 13.8% ₁₃₄	7 33.3%	6 37.5%	51 42.1% ¹³⁵
	interesting free time activities (e.g. sightseeing, salsa dancing)	24 80.0%	15 60.0%	24 82.8%	12 57.1%	14 87.5%	89 73.6%
pleasant	comfortable climate	18 60.0%	13 52.0%	9 31.0%	10 47.6%	9 56.3%	59 48.8%
living environment	getting to know local specialities (e.g. food, music)	25 83.3%	19 76.0%	23 79.3%	15 71.4%	15 93.8%	97 80.2%
	traveling in Colombia	29 96.7%	23 92.0%	27 93.1%	15 71.4%	15 93.8%	109 90.1%
	becoming more independent and mature	30 100.0%	23 92.0%	29 100.0%	5 23.8%	13 81.3%	100 82.6%
personal development	getting to know more about myself	29 96.7%	23 92.0%	29 100.0%	3 14.3%	15 93.8%	99 81.8%
asterophont	change of social environment	30 100.0%	24 96.0%	28 96.6% ¹³⁶	13 61.9%	13 81.3%	108 89.3% ¹³⁷

Appendix C 8: Description of 5 types regarding original binary variables

Note: First row: frequency of participants who answered affirmatively, second row: percentages of participants who answered affirmatively.

¹³² 1 missing value, the total value for this variable is 96.7%.
¹³³ 1 missing value, the total value for this variable is 99.2%.
¹³⁴ 1 missing value, the total value for this variable is 96.6%.
¹³⁵ 1 missing value, the total value for this variable is 99.2%.
¹³⁶ 1 missing value, the total value for this variable is 96.6%.
¹³⁷ 1 missing value, the total value for this variable is 99.2%.

		type								atal			
variable ¹³⁸	value label		1		2		3		4		5	1	otal
		Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%
			column		column		column		column		column		column
	female	18	60.0%	16	64.0%	17	58.6%	8	38.1%	12	75.0%	71	58.0%
gender	male	12	40.0%	9	36.0%	12	41.4%	13	61.9%	4	25.0%	50	42.0%
0	total value	30	100.0%	25	100.0%	29	100.0%	21	100.0%	16	100.0%	121	100.0%
	undergraduate	23	76.7%	15	60.0%	19	65.5%	13	61.9%	12	75.0%	82	67.8%
state of	postgraduate	7	23.3%	10	40.0%	10	34.5%	8	38.1%	4	25.0%	39	32.2%
studies	total value	30	100.0%	25	100.0%	29	100.0%	21	100.0%	16	100.0%	121	100.0%
type of	degree- seeking stud.	6	20.0%	5	20.0%	10	34.5%	5	23.8%	2	12.5%	28	23.1%
studies in Colombia	non-degree- seeking stud.	24	80.0%	20	80.0%	19	65.5%	16	76.2%	14	87.5%	93	76.9%
-	total value	30	100.0%	25	100.0%	29	100.0%	21	100.0%	16	100.0%	121	100.0%
region of	Latin America/ the Caribbean	17	56.7%	13	52.0%	23	20.7%	7	33.3%	1	6.3%	61	50.4%
nationality	Europe and other regions	12	40.0%	11	44.0%	6	79.3%	13	61.9%	15	93.8%	57	47.1%
	total value	29	96.7%	24	96.0%	29	100.0%	20	95.2%	16	100.0%	118	97.5%
	business stud.	7	23.3%	5	20.0%	7	24.1%	6	28.6%	3	18.8%	28	23.1%
field of	social studies	12	40.0%	4	16.0%	3	10.3%	4	19.0%	4	25.0%	27	22.3%
study	other fields	11	36.7%	16	64.0%	19	65.5%	11	52.4%	9	56.3%	66	54.5%
	total value	30	100.0%	25	100.0%	29	100.0%	21	100.0%	16	100.0%	121	100.0%
social	low position	7	23.3%	3	12.0%	4	13.8%	3	14.3%	1	6.3%	18	14.9%
back-	middle position	14	46.7%	12	48.0%	15	51.7%	12	57.1%	10	62.5%	63	52.1%
ground	high position	9	30.0%	8	32.0%	10	34.5%	6	28.6%	5	31.3%	38	31.4%
9.00110	total value	30	100.0%	23	92.0%	29	100.0%	21	100.0%	16	100.0%	119	98.4%
Colombia/	yes	12	40.0%	13	52.0%	5	17.2%	10	47.6%	14	87.5%	54	44.6%
Latin	no	18	60.0%	12	48.0%	24	82.8%	11	52.4%	2	12.5%	67	55.4%
America first choice	total value	30	100.0%	25	100.0%	29	100.0%	21	100.0%	16	100.0%	121	100.0%

Appendix C 9: Description of 5 types regarding socio-demographic characteristics

¹³⁸ The variables "region of nationality" and "social background" have missing values. Hence, the total value of some types cannot reach 100.0%.

<u>Appendix C 10: Motivations according to socio-demographic characteristics,</u> <u>nonparametric tests¹³⁹ (two-sided)</u>

a) Education and career in general

variable	value label	Ν	mean rank	grouped
gender	female	76	62.45	0.71
	male	51	66.31	0.73
state of studies	undergraduate studies	88	65.27	0.72
	postgraduate studies	39	61.13	0.71
type of studies in	degree-seeking students	28	68.80	0.77
Colombia	non-degree-seeking students	99	62.64	0.71
region of	Latin America/the Caribbean	67	73.93	0.81
nationality**	Europe and other regions	57	49.06	0.62
field of study	business studies	28	64.52	0.74
	social studies	28	59.21	0.70
	other fields	71	65.68	0.72
social background	low social position	19	71.29	0.79
-	middle social position	65	61.50	0.69
	high social position	41	61.54	0.71

Note: ** Significant at α = 0.01 Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

¹³⁹ For groups with two categories, Mann-Whitney tests were used and for groups with more than two groups

Kruskal-Wallis tests. ¹⁴⁰ For grouped values, such as income categories, the median is the so-called grouped median (Brosius, 2013, p. 472). For information on the interpretation of mean ranks, refer to Bühl (2014, p. 375).

variable	value label	Ν	mean rank	grouped median
gender	female	76	66.61	0.38
	male	51	60.11	0.35
state of studies	undergraduate studies	88	64.66	0.38
	postgraduate studies	39	62.51	0.37
type of studies in	degree-seeking students	28	64.09	0.40
Colombia	non-degree-seeking students	99	63.97	0.36
region of	Latin America/the Caribbean	67	59.35	0.32
nationality	Europe and other regions	57	66.20	0.43
field of study**	business studies	28	60.98	0.32
	social studies	28	83.68	0.63
	other fields	71	57.43	0.28
social	low social position	19	67.45	0.47
background	middle social position	65	61.44	0.36
	high social position	41	63.41	0.40

Note: ** Significant at α = 0.01

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Post hoc tests (one-way ANOVA by Kruskal-Wallis test, pairwise comparison)¹⁴¹

number test	samples	significance	adjusted significance
1	other fields - business studies	0.653	1.000
2	other fields - social studies	0.001	0.003
3	business studies - social studies	0.017	0.050

¹⁴¹ In order to find out which of the three groups differ pairwise significantly from each other, post hoc tests were carried out (Hochschule Luzern, n.d., 2.4 Post Hoc Test, para. 1). For every pair, SPSS realized Mann-Whitney tests. However, due to repeated tests, the level of significance had to be adapted. Thus, not values of significance but values of adjusted significance were considered for interpretation (Universität Zürich, 2010, 2.4 Post-Hoc-Test, para. 3-4).

c) Pleasant living environment

variable	value label	Ν	mean rank	grouped median
gender	female	76	63.91	0.77
	male	51	64.14	0.79
state of studies	undergraduate studies	88	64.63	0.78
	postgraduate studies	39	62.58	0.77
type of studies in	degree-seeking students	28	55.70	0.70
Colombia	non-degree-seeking students	99	66.35	0.80
region of	Latin America/the Caribbean	67	59.50	0.76
nationality	Europe and other regions	57	66.03	0.80
field of study	business studies	28	71.91	0.84
	social studies	28	57.02	0.71
	other fields	71	63.63	0.78
social background	low social position	19	57.29	0.73
	middle social position	65	63.37	0.78
	high social position	41	65.06	0.79

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

d) Personal development

variable	value label	Ν	mean rank	grouped median
gender	female	76	67.30	0.92
	male	51	59.09	0.86
state of studies	undergraduate studies	88	66.59	0.91
	postgraduate studies	39	58.17	0.85
type of studies in	degree-seeking students	28	62.61	0.88
Colombia	non-degree-seeking students	99	64.39	0.90
region of	Latin America/the Caribbean	67	70.16	0.95
nationality**	Europe and other regions	57	53.50	0.82
field of study	business studies	28	60.77	0.86
	social studies	28	67.25	0.92
	other fields	71	63.99	0.89
social background	low social position	19	68.71	0.88
	middle social position	65	59.44	0.86
	high social position	41	65.99	0.91

Note: ** Significant at α = 0.01 Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

e) Spanish-speaking country

variable	value label	Ν	mean rank	grouped median
gender	female	71	62.25	0.71
	male	50	59.23	0.66
state of studies	undergraduate studies	82	60.83	0.68
	postgraduate studies	39	61.36	0.71
type of studies in	degree-seeking students	28	54.79	0.53
Colombia	non-degree-seeking students	93	62.87	0.35
region of	Latin America/the Caribbean	61	46.77	0.29
nationality**	Europe and other regions	57	73.12	0.84
field of study	business studies	28	57.63	0.65
	social studies	27	70.26	0.80
	other fields	66	58.64	0.58
social background	low social position	18	61.44	0.68
	middle social position	63	57.56	0.60
	high social position	38	63.36	0.78

Note: ** Significant at α = 0.01 Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 11: Country image

a) Frequencies of country image index

country image index	frequencies	percent
0	1	0.8%
1	2	1.6%
2	8	6.3%
3	17	13.4%
4	32	25.2%
5	28	22.0%
6	16	12.6%
7	7	5.5%
8	3	2.4%
9	1	0.8%
total	115	90.6%
no country image	11	8.7%
missing values	1	0.8%
total	127	100.0%

Note: Index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

b) Country image index and clear/vague country image, Mann-Whitney test (two-sided)

Country image	N ¹⁴²	mean rank	grouped median
Clear country image	31	66.15	4.79
Vague country image	84	54.99	4.35

Note: Index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

c) Information sources index and clear/vague country image, Mann-Whitney test (onesided)

Country image	N ¹⁴³	mean rank	grouped median	
Clear country image	26	45.27	3.88	
Vague country image	73	51.68	4.20	

Note: Index ranging from 0 (no information source consulted) to 8 (8 information sources consulted). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 12: Frequencies of information sources consulted

a) All students who searched for information

item	Ν	N total ¹⁴⁴	percent
internet	112	112	100.00%
television	31	109	27.7%
international office of home university	39	109	34.8%
international office of Colombian university	40	109	35.7%
informative meeting/education fair about studying abroad	22	109	19.6%
reports from other students about studying in Colombia	67	110	59.8%
personal contact with Colombians	68	109	60.7%
personal contact with people (not Colombians) who	74	109	66.1%
are/have been in Colombia			

¹⁴² Eleven students indicated that they did not possess any country image of Colombia before their studies. Hence, the total N in this table could reach a maximal of 116 and not 127.

¹⁴³ 104 respondents stated they had a country image of Colombia and searched for information about this country. Hence, N could reach a maximal of 104 and not 127.

¹⁴⁴ 15 students indicated that they did not search for information about Colombia before their studies. Hence, the total N in this table could reach a maximal of 112 and not 127.

b) Only students with clear and vague country image

item	Ν	N total ¹⁴⁵	percent
internet	104	104	100.0%
television	28	102	26.9%
international office of home university	37	102	35.6%
international office of Colombian university	38	102	36.5%
informative meeting/education fair about studying abroad	20	102	19.2%
reports from other students about studying in Colombia	64	103	61.5%
personal contact with Colombians	64	102	61.5%
personal contact with people (not Colombians) who	70	102	67.3%
are/have been in Colombia			

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

c) Only students with clear country image

item	Ν	N total ¹⁴⁶	percent
internet	28	28	100.0%
television	8	28	28.6%
international office of home university	8	28	28.6%
international office of Colombian university	7	28	25.0%
informative meeting/education fair about studying abroad	5	28	17.9%
reports from other students about studying in Colombia	16	27	57.1%
personal contact with Colombians	20	28	71.4%
personal contact with people (not Colombians) who	16	27	57.1%
are/have been in Colombia			

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

d) Only students with vague country image

item	Ν	N total ¹⁴⁷	percent
internet	76	76	100.0%
television	20	74	26.3%
international office of home university	29	74	38.2%
international office of Colombian university	31	74	40.8%
informative meeting/education fair about studying abroad	15	74	19.7%
reports from other students about studying in Colombia	48	76	63.2%
personal contact with Colombians	44	74	57.9%
personal contact with people (not Colombians) who	54	75	71.1%
are/have been in Colombia			

¹⁴⁵ 104 respondents stated they had a country image of Colombia and searched for information about this country. Hence, the total N in this table could reach a maximal of 104. ¹⁴⁶ Only students with a clear country image who searched for information were considered. Hence, the total N in

this table could reach a maximal of 28. ¹⁴⁷ Only students with a vague country image who searched for information were considered. Hence, the total N in

this table could reach a maximal of 76.

Appendix C 13: Country image and information sources consulted

variable	value label	N 148	mean rank	grouped median
television	no	74	50.21	4.32
	yes	27	53.17	4.57
international office of home university	no yes	64 37	47.71 56.69	4.22 4.80
international office of Colombian		64	51.03	4.41
university	no yes	37	50.95	4.41
informative meeting/education fair about studying abroad	no yes	81 20	52.04 46.78	4.43 4.22

a) Mann-Whitney tests (one-sided)

Note: Index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

b) Mann-Whitney tests (two-sided)

variable	value label	Ν	mean rank	grouped median
reports from other students about	no	39	43.78	3.90
studying in Colombia*	yes	63	56.28	4.61
personal contact with Colombians	no	38	51.76	4.44
	yes	63	50.54	4.39
personal contact with people (not	no	32	48.78	4.35
Colombians) who are/have been in Colombia	yes	69	52.03	4.40

Note: Index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image).

* Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

¹⁴⁸ 104 respondents stated that they had a country image of Colombia and searched for information about this country. Hence, N could reach a maximal of 104 and not 127.

Appendix C 14: Country image and impact of regional background, Mann-Whitney test (one-sided)

region of origin	N ¹⁴⁹	mean rank	grouped median
Latin America	53	56.91	4.54
Europe and other regions (including Brazil and the Caribbean)	59	56.14	4.40

Note: Index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 15: Country image and impact of previous visits, Mann-Whitney test (one-sided)

previous visits	N ¹⁵⁰	mean rank	grouped median
no previous visits to Colombia	91	56.10	4.36
previous visits to Colombia	24	65.19	4.77

Note: Index ranging from 0 (very negative country image) to 9 (very positive country image). Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 16: Favorite study destination: frequencies of countries of first choice

country	frequencies	percent
Argentina	2	1.6%
Brazil	4	3.1%
Canada	1	0.8%
Chile	2	1.6%
Colombia	20	15.7%
Ecuador	1	0.8%
France	1	0.8%
Germany	2	1.6%
UK	1	0.8%
India	1	0.8%
South Africa	1	0.8%
Spain	8	6.3%
Uruguay	1	0.8%
USA	2	1.6%
total	47	37.0%

¹⁴⁹ 113 participants had a country image of Colombia and provided information about their nationality. Thus, N could reach a maximal of 113 and not 127. ¹⁵⁰ As solely 116 participants had a country image of Colombia, N could reach a maximal of 116 and not 127.

Appendix C 17: Favorite study destination: frequencies of continent of first choice

continent	frequencies	percent
Africa	1	0.8%
Asia	1	0.8%
Europe	9	7.1%
Latin America/the Caribbean	35	27.6%
North America (Canada, USA, including commonwealths e.g. Puerto Rico)	5	3.9%
total	51	40.2%

Source: Author's own calculations, data set of international students in Colombia.

Appendix C 18: Coefficients of tolerance

block	independent variables	coefficient of tolerance
	aender (mele)	0.850
	gender (male) state of studies (postgraduate studies)	0.633
socio-	region of nationality (Europe and other regions) ¹⁵¹	0.583
demographic		0.547
characteristics	field of study 1 (business and administrative studies) ¹⁵²	0.547
	field of study 2 (other fields) ¹⁵³	0.539
	social background	0.771
	education and career in general	0.704
active	education and career related to development/conflict	0.828
components	pleasant living environment	0.773
p	personal development	0.733
	Spanish-speaking country	0.718
latent	country image (positive country image) ¹⁵⁴	0.788
components	dream	0.825
	local social network	0.808
external	recommendation	0.830
components	scholarship	0.791
	exchange agreement	0.731

¹⁵¹ Group of reference: Latin America/the Caribbean.
¹⁵² Group of reference: social studies.
¹⁵³ Group of reference: social studies.
¹⁵⁴ Group of reference: no country image/negative country image.