Globally mobile students in higher education: Issues and insights for business and other hosting programs

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Abstract
Business is a highly sought-after area of study for globally mobile learners in English-speaking countries. In the U.S., business programs host the largest percentage of international students. In Australia, half of all international students enroll in business. These high percentages suggest a need for schools of business to examine their philosophies and practices related to these learners. This review examines areas relevant to schools of business hosting globally mobile students, with a focus on English language development. The review has three purposes: 1) to increase awareness of issues related to hosting globally mobile students, 2) to identify ways schools of business are currently assisting globally mobile students in developing professional English language skills, and 3) to introduce a guiding framework for English language development.

Key words: international students, top hosting schools, higher education, globally mobile students, English language development, schools of business

Introduction
International trade in higher education is increasing with mounting competition to attract a larger share of the approximately five million students seeking education outside their own countries (American Council on Education, 2010; Coates, 2010; International Consultants for Education and Fairs [ICEF], 2017). The UK aims to enroll an additional 55,000 students by 2020 to increase its stagnant 11% share (ICEF, 2017). Australia is striving for an additional 170,000 students by 2025, aiming to surpass its 10-year record of

6.5% annual growth and its 7% market share growth from 2001 to 2016 (ICEF, 2017). The U.S. does not have national targets or recruitment strategies. Although its market share decreased from 28% to 22% from 2001 to 2016, it remains the world's leading destination due to steady increases in total numbers of globally mobile students (ICEF, 2017).

The concentration of international students enrolled in post-secondary institutions is higher in some countries than others. In the U.S., international students represent 5.2% of the overall enrollment while in Australia and the UK, they represent approximately 20% (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2016). Concentrations of international students also vary within programs of study. Business and management programs host the largest percentage of international students in the U.S. at just over 20% (IIE, 2016) with percentages ranging from 54-75% and an overall average of 33% in schools that host (Snider, 2015). Fifty-eight percent of prospective international MBA students indicate the U.S. as their first choice (Daniel, 2017). In Australia, 50% of international students enroll in business and management; these students comprise 60% of post-secondary business graduates (McGowan & Potter, 2008), and up to 80% of MBA enrollments (MBA News, n. d.).

In spite of increasing and high percentages of international student enrollments, schools of business have reportedly not formulated adequate responses to issues or adjusted their curricular and pedagogical approaches (Darlington, 2008; Sawir, 2011; Ukpokodu, 2010; Zhang, Xia, Fan, & Zhu, 2016). Although they recognize that international students need continuing assistance with English language proficiency, they may not see this as their responsibility or have identified strategic practices (Andrade, Evans, & Hartshorn, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017a, 2017b). This review explores research relevant to schools of business that host globally mobile learners, with an emphasis on English language development. The review has three purposes: 1) to increase awareness of issues related to hosting globally mobile students, 2) to identify ways schools of business are currently assisting globally mobile students in developing professional English language skills, and 3) to introduce a guiding framework for English language development.

Commercialization and competition

Related to the first purpose of this review—awareness of the issues—it is important to examine how market factors impact the recruitment and experiences of globally mobile students. The international education market is dominated by developing or middle-income nations who send their students to a "small number of industrialized nations" (Altbach, 2006, p. 55). These students are considered "income earners" (Altbach, 2006, p. 56) as they are self-supporting and contribute significantly to the financial strength of their hosting institutions and surrounding economies. In Australia, international students are the source of nearly 19% of the income of higher education providers (Australian Education International, 2016). Due to the ability of institutions to attract high-fee-paying international students, the government has reduced funding (Nyland, Forbes-Hewitt, & Härtel, 2013). The international education sector in Australia is valued at $21.8 billion annually and is the third largest export (Universities Australia, 2017). In the U.S., that figure is $32.8 billion (NAFSA, 2015). Institutions track their rankings using such measures as the International Student Barometer to determine their status and competitiveness for globally mobile students and the funding they represent (Universities UK International, 2017).

The commercialization of international higher education and competition for students has led to significant problems that damage institutional and national reputations and corrupt practice (Altbach, 2012). These issues are particularly salient to business schools in view of the fact that they enroll and graduate the largest numbers of these students. Dubious practices include lowering academic and language admission requirements (referred to as a "race to the bottom;" Nyland et al., 2013, p. 666), denying domestic students admission in favor of admitting less qualified but higher paying international students, pressuring schools of business to recruit and admit greater numbers of international students based on students' preference for this field and their ability to pay, and then redirecting the funding to other areas of the university, and fee differentials between domestic and international students (Nyland et al., 2013).

Such criticisms have been particularly acute in the UK, Canada, and Australia. These practices have led to a limited investment in needed structures for

student well-being (Forbes-Mewitt, & Nyland, 2013), reflect a lack of understanding of global learners' experiences and needs, and suggest a lack of ownership for resulting problems. In some cases, accusations that institutions prioritize profit over student welfare and learning has resulted in reforms and regulations, including best practice principles, aimed at holding institutions accountable (Nyland et al., 2013). However, institutions may lack expertise in knowing how to truly internationalize the curriculum and how "to build on the cultural and linguistic strengths of their students" (Bruguglio, 2007, p. 8) to develop global skills, which are critical to business graduates.

Learning outcomes

Lowered academic and English proficiency standards on entry, during enrollment, and on exit (Birrell, 2006; Benzie, 2010; Bretag, 2007), including pressure to pass students (Douglas, 2017, Watty, 2007), is another critical area of concern. In Australia, where international students qualify for permanent residency and frequently remain in the country to pursue their chosen professions, English language issues in business schools have received significant attention.

> The Business Council of Australia (BCA) has expressed concern that many international students are graduating with the requisite technical skills to enter the professions, but are unemployable because their English-language proficiency and broad cultural and social skills are judged to be inadequate by employers. The BCA notes this situation is reflected in the labor market, where international student graduates experience far greater difficulty gaining employment in the professions than do local graduates and immigrants who have been trained in other OECD nations.
>
> (Nyland et al., 2013, p. 669).

National studies have identified non-technical learning outcomes expected of higher education graduates in addition to discipline specific skills. The former include oral and written communication, teamwork, ethical judgment and decision-making, critical thinking, analytical skills, and application of knowledge to real-world problems, according to U.S. studies (Association of

American Colleges and Universities [AAC&U], 2011, 2015; Hart Research Associates, 2015). Graduates rank themselves higher on these skills than do employers (Hart Research Associates, 2015). In Australia, strong communication, teamwork, and self-management skills are important in the accounting field, but employers feel that students are deficient in these areas, which creates difficulties for graduates seeking jobs (Hancock, Howieson, Kavanagh, Kent, Tempone, & Segal, 2009a).

Professional level English language skills are in demand globally. For all occupations and for companies of all sizes, employers report "a gap between the English language skills required and the skills that are actually available" among prospective applicants or employees (Cambridge English, 2016, p. 2). Over 95% of companies across industry sectors in non-native-English speaking countries indicate the importance of English (Cambridge English, 2016). In addition to English language skills, intercultural competence, which entails both intelligibility and interpretability, is critical in multinational companies and on work teams (Brugulio, 2007).

Given the established demand for communication and English skills, institutions and schools of business within them bear a strong responsibility for ensuring that international students, many of whom enroll with a specific goal to improve their English (Roy, Lu, & Loo, 2016), graduate with requisite proficiency. In contrast to Australia, in the U.S. little is known about the impact of English language skills on international students' employment and success (Andrade et al., 2017a), possibly because these students do not typically become permanent residents. However, an understanding of stakeholder expectations and employer demand is critical in preparing students for their professions.

Schools of business hosting non-native English speakers must consider appropriate learning opportunities to help learners achieve expected outcomes in communication and other skills. Roles and responsibilities for the development of English language proficiency are perceived differently across stakeholders, however. Admissions officers indicate that they screen students' English language skills with standardized proficiency tests (Andrade et al., 2014), as has been the traditional practice for decades, while heads of departments believe that responsibility for proficiency improvement lies

mostly with the student, somewhat with the university, and less so with the department or faculty (Andrade et al., 2017a, 2017b). Faculty may not have the expertise to diagnose language deficiencies or provide related support, instead citing the need for better admission screening (Andrade et al., 2017a, 2017b; Benzie, 2010; Darlington, 2008; Ukpokodu, 2010). While the student is ultimately responsible, institutions must provide structures and opportunities for English language development to occur and measure the success of their provisions.

Another aspect of the situation is that institutions operate from a deficit approach, or what students lack, rather than viewing diversity "as an asset or resource to be valued" (Evans, Tindale, Cable, & Mead, 2009, p. 609). The deficit view stems from a lack of understanding that language acquisition occurs over time and involves interaction. Thus, it results in a philosophy of support rather than development (Andrade et al., 2014, 2015, 2016; Arkoudis, Baik, & Richardson, 2012; Benzie, 2010; Haugh, 2014). Unfortunately, interaction may not occur due to international students' lack of confidence in forming friendships with domestic students (Archer, 2016; Benzie, 2010; Glass, Buus, & Braskamp, 2013), perceived language and communication barriers in interacting with professors and peers (Wu, Garza, & Guzman, 2015), and a lack of integration of English language skill development and disciplinary content (Benzie, 2010), partly due to the belief that language skills improve naturally over the course of study (Andrade et al., 2017a, 2017b; Benzie, 2010). Thus, opportunities for language development are lost and students may return home dissatisfied with their progress in English (Roy et al, 2016). Likewise, opportunities for domestic students to develop intelligibility skills are diminished (Brugulio, 2007).

Assessment

An additional issue related to hosting globally mobile learners is that universities in general, and schools of business in particular, may lack of knowledge about learner progress and outcomes both while enrolled and after graduation (Andrade et al., 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017a, 2017b). Institutional knowledge is limited in the case of public service programs (sometimes housed on schools of business), for example. Nearly 75% of these programs do not

collect data on international students' motivations, 65% do not collect data on international students' career plans, and approximately 60% do not collect data on international students' experiences in their educational programs (Ingrams & Holzer, 2016). Schools of business need a range of measures through which to explore the experiences of their international students.

English language proficiency

Business programs in the U.S. with large concentrations of international students primarily use indirect assessments of English language proficiency, such as course assignments (Andrade et al., 2017a, 2017b). Emphasis is given to oral and written skill development in presentations, papers, and projects, but outcomes are not disaggregated for native and non-native English speakers. Furthermore, these programs do not appear to review or disaggregate institutional data such as GPA or retention rates, outcomes on measures such as the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), or the perspectives of alumni or employers to gather insights into English language development or international student success.

Without direct measures of English language development or disaggregation of collected data, schools of business cannot determine growth in English language development. Studies on improvement in English proficiency over time indicate varied improvements across students and skill areas. International students have been found to make improvements in speaking after one semester of enrollment with lower level students making the most progress (Humphreys, Haugh, Fenton-Smith, lobo, Michael, & Walkinshaw, 2012) while other students show no improvement in proficiency, even over the course of an entire degree (e.g., see Craven, 2012; Elder & O'Loughlin, 2003; Green, 2005; Storch & Hill, 2008).

Schools of business can use embedded language-intensive course assignments to make comparisons across students and measure English proficiency outcomes. These may be more helpful than standardized proficiency tests, which are not necessarily the best way to measure improvement, particularly in the short term, due to the possibility that increases and decreases are due to the standard error of measurement. Qualitative data such as student focus groups and interviews may also be valuable (e.g., Craven, 2012).

Student satisfaction

Global surveys and studies on international education are an additional source of data, which may increase understanding of student experiences and factors that impact satisfaction, and consequently, indicate where adjustments in practice are needed. The International Student Barometer, for instance, measures student satisfaction at international, national, and institutional levels using indicators such as likelihood of recommending, overall satisfaction, arrival, learning, cost of living, and support services.

The Global Perspective Inventory compares international student experiences to those of domestic students. Its most recent findings show that international students from the top five sending countries (China, India, South Korea, Saudi Arabia, Canada) rate sense of community, faculty challenging their viewpoints, and faculty inclusion of diverse cultural perspectives lower than domestic students (Glass et al., 2013). Also, international students are more likely to make friends with those from other countries than are U.S. students.

A study by World Education Services found that international students choose to study abroad due to belief that this would have a positive impact on their careers (Roy et al., 2016). Students reported satisfaction with learning support structures, but wanted more research opportunities, and faced challenges building social networks (Roy et al., 2016). These studies point to variations in student experiences and the importance of understanding student expectations and satisfaction factors.

Student engagement

National surveys of student engagement such as the Australasian Survey of Student Engagement (AUSSE) and the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) in the U.S. provide insights into self-reported engagement, or interactions between the learner and the institution, and are another source of information to business schools. These surveys include measures on academic challenge, active learning, faculty interactions, supportive learning environment, and enriching educational experiences. Comparative institutional and multi-institutional studies can help illuminate international students' learning experiences.

NSSE data indicates that participation in high-impact practices varies and is higher for international students than domestic students in the following areas: community service learning (the integration of academic study with community service) in the first year and senior year, research with faculty in the first year, and study abroad in the senior year (NSSE, 2017). Learning communities in the first and senior year, and internships, research with faculty, and culminating senior experiences in the senior year are lower for international than for domestic students.

Other studies show that international students in Australasia have higher levels of engagement than domestic students and that those in the U.S. have more faculty interactions than in Australasia (Coates, 2010). In some cases, international students have more interactions with diverse peers than domestic students (Korobova, 2012). In other contexts, faculty from various ethnic groups (e.g., Asian, African American, or Hispanic) are more active in engaging international students than other faculty (Wang & BrckaLorenz, 2017). International students at one institution did not report behaviors generally associated with engagement such as participation, reflection, analyzing, synthesizing, or application (Foot, 2009), while at others, they scored higher than domestic students on level of academic challenge, active and collaborative learning, and student-faculty interactions, and lower on enriching educational experiences and supportive campus environment (Wu & Oaks, n. d.). This type of data can help fill current gaps in knowledge for schools of business and identify needed pedagogical and curricular changes to enhance the success of international students.

Post-graduation tracking
Outcomes related to post-graduation and career success for international students are limited. An Australian study indicated that 79% of the 2012 graduating cohort were employed full-time and earning higher incomes than the average local salary although only 60% of participants felt it was their Australian degree that enabled them to earn that higher salary (International Education Association of Australia, 2017). Disaggregated data by major was not identified. No similar data is available in the U.S. for international graduates overall or for those graduating from business schools.

Organizations that gather data on business program outcomes may or may not collect or disaggregate data for international students. The National Student Survey in the UK asks students to rate their institutions on teaching, learning, assessment, academic support, organization and management, learning resources, learning community, and student voice (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2017). While institution-specific results are published, those disaggregated by student population are not publically available. Similarly, although the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business is an international accrediting organization, and business schools in many countries enroll and graduate more international students than any other major, standards do not focus on the needs or situations of these students nor do related surveys and reports.

In general, schools of business appear to lack data about their international students while enrolled and post-graduation (Andrade et al., 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017a, 2017b; Ingrams & Holzer, 2016) although studies have identified cross-cutting outcomes desired by employers (Hancock et al., 2009a; AAC&U, 2011, 2015; Hart Research Associates, 2015). As continuing and increasing market share largely depend on student satisfaction with the impact of their studies on goal achievement and professional success, and as business schools account for the majority of international student enrollments and graduates, the latter must be well-informed about outcomes. Schools of business need to seek information as to whether or not international students are graduating with skills in their disciplines and in English to be successful in their professions, and what factors lead to success or a lack of it. "Careful management of the international student experience is imperative, both for individual success and for the health of the system as a whole" (Coates, 2010, p. 2).

Retention theories

A final area related to issues pertinent to schools of business hosting globally mobile students is retention theories, which have the potential to increase understanding of adjustment needs. Research on adjustment and retention has typically focused on involvement, as well as academic and social integration. The former posits that academic and social involvement leads to retention (Astin, 1993), while the latter that students must integrate into the new

environment by disassociating from their former lives in order to succeed (Tinto, 1987, 1993). The premise is that students not only need a commitment to the goal of graduation, but must also identify with and adopt the behaviors and values of the institution to be successful.

The latter view has been much criticized for insisting that students change rather than the institution, particularly given the diversity of students seeking higher education studies. It assumes that there is a single set of values within an institution (Tierney, 1992), and devalues the experiences of minority and nontraditional students (Hurtado & Carter, 1997). These issues have led to exploring the impact of psychological processes such as self-efficacy, coping, and attribution on success (Bean & Eaton, 2000) as well as factors such as campus climate, campus culture, ethnic differences, economic factors, and social reproduction (Braxton, 2000). Student involvement in co-curricular activities such as student organizations, leadership positions, and activity in residence halls has a positive correlation with retention and academic success (Kuh & Pike, 2005), in keeping with involvement theory (Astin, 1993).

Some of these factors are more within the institution's or department's control than others. The goal to graduate, as well as personal support systems, are beneficial to international student persistence, as are being academically and socially involved, and retaining one's cultural identity (Andrade, 2005, 2006). Schools of business hosting large percentages of international students must explore to what extent their students are involved in the social and academic realms of the institution and what impact this has on their success and language development as well as on intercultural competence for all students. From a linguistic view, involvement can lead to an expanded immersion experience as well as a sense of community, which supports language development and cross-cultural understanding. These can be structured into the student experience through high impact practices (e.g., consider the NSSE findings reviewed earlier). Involvement also addresses findings from student satisfaction surveys that indicate dissatisfaction with language growth and lack of opportunity for research and other engaged pedagogical practices (Roy et al., 2016; NSSE, 2017)

Approaches to English language development

The second purpose of this review is to examine existing approaches to English language development that are currently in use or might be considered for use in schools of business. Generally, schools of business in the U.S. lack department-wide strategies although heads of departments can articulate expectations and ways the faculty support students' English language development (Andrade et al., 2017a). Their descriptions reflect those in the statement below, which provides a consistent standard to guide institutions.

> English language proficiency has been defined as the ability of students to use the English language to make and communicate meaning in spoken and written contexts while completing their university studies. Such uses may range from a simple task such as discussing work with fellow students, to complex tasks such as writing an academic paper or delivering a speech to a professional audience. This view of proficiency as the ability to organize language to carry out a variety of communication tasks distinguishes the use of English language proficiency from a narrow focus on language as a formal system concerned only with correct use of grammar and sentence structure
> (Australian Universities Quality Agency [AUQA], 2009, p. 1).

Commonly suggested approaches for addressing English language proficiency include developing pre-entry pathway courses, raising admission requirements, and requiring English language assistance (Benzie, 2010, 2011). Arguments against these include a lack of available resources, the possibility of extended time to complete a degree, and the very real possibility that if requirements are too onerous, students will go elsewhere. Indeed, students are often unwilling to attend pre-sessional or in-sessional English language programs (Sloan & Porter, 2009). Key questions related to English language development focus on why students do not improve as expected, why they do not understand the demands of higher education in a foreign country, and why stakeholders expect native speaker proficiency (Benzie, 2010). The broader sociocultural context needs to be examined for a fuller understanding of these factors (Benzie, 2010), and points to areas of investigation for schools of business.

Indeed, schools of business may need a more nuanced understanding of language issues for international students. Some international students, for example, Asian students, struggle more with listening and speaking skills than previously identified, which is a mismatch with the kinds of support that institutions typically provide—a strong focus on reading and writing (Bruguglio & Smith, 2012). A lack of these skills negatively impacts interaction in academic and social contexts, though language acquisition theory indicates that opportunities for input and output are critical to proficiency gains (Ellis, 2008). Additionally, some suggest focusing on what students can do well in terms of language rather than what they cannot do, and also what they need to be able to do (Zhang & Mi, 2010). Some disciplines and courses may be less demanding in terms of language than others, and the time needed to develop language skills varies, with writing taking the longest to acquire (Zhang & Mi, 2010). An approach that has been effective in accounting is collaborative peer and self-assessment of writing, which improved not only writing skills, but also student ability to understand assessment standards (Dale-Jones, Hancock, & Willey, 2013).

Embedding

Given these parameters and variations, good practice may be best characterized by an embedded approach, which integrates language skill development and disciplinary content (Arkoudis et al., 2012; Evans & Cable, 2011; Evans, Tindale, Cable, & Mead, 2009; Hancock et al., 2009a, 2009b; Harris & Ashton, 2011; James, 2010; Sloan & Porter, 2009). Such an approach is not an add-on, nor is it optional, and as such, addresses the issue that students typically do not avail themselves of voluntary workshops or those that are generic as these may be perceived as less relevant compared to those contextualized within a course (Arkoudis & Starfield, 2007; Harris & Ashton, 2011; Wingate, 2006). It also addresses concerns with resources and extending time to graduation by requiring additional English language coursework.
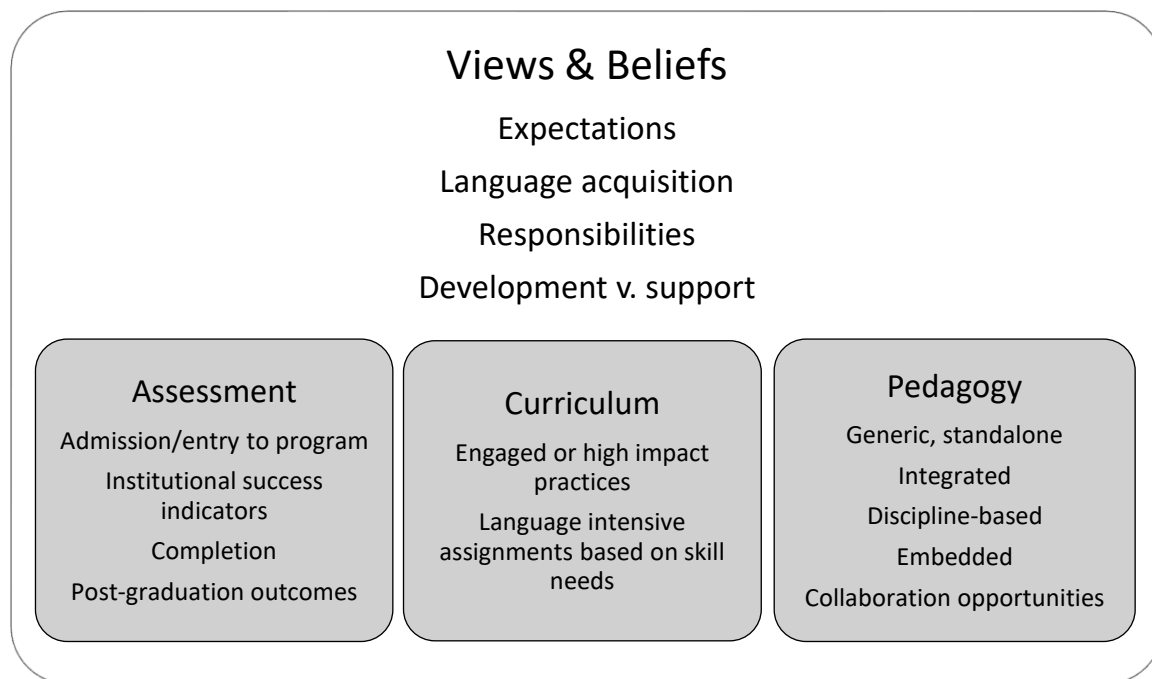
The embedded approach is not new, having its roots in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which advocate for context-specific English study to increase relevancy and motivation (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hyland, 2002; Hyland & Hamps-Lyon, 2002). In 2007,

reportedly 86% of all Australian universities were working toward an embedded model (James, 2010). This approach is being used effectively in some business programs (Evans et al., 2009), particularly in accounting (Hancock et al., 2009a, 2009b; Sloan & Porter, 2009). In these cases, collaborations between EAP specialists and content area specialists have resulted in the development of "complementary knowledge and skills" (Evans et al., 2009, p. 609), and increased perceptions of equality between the two specialists (Evans & Cable, 2011; Hyland & Hamps-Lyons, 2002; Sloan & Porter, 2009).

The Hancock et al. (2009b) study presents a number of cases in which strategies for integrating the teaching of accounting and communication skills are designed with English language development in mind and show positive gains for international students. Additionally, embedded approaches in other UK and Australian contexts have resulted in positive outcomes such as improved motivation and attendance at EAP workshops, better student understanding of the link between language and content, and better timing of support (Sloan & Porter, 2009) as well as a greater emphasis on communicative tasks due to the support provided (Evans et al., 2009). These results show efforts to address the issue identified earlier that although assignments and assessments of communication skills may be occurring in business programs, the results are often not disaggregated for native and non-native English speakers (Andrade et al., 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017a, 2017b; Ingrams & Holzer, 2016).

Guiding framework
The third and final purpose of this review is to introduce a guiding framework to help schools of business explore current gaps in their approaches to English language development. (See Figure 1; see also Andrade et al., 2014, 2015, 2016). The first step is to examine views and beliefs. Schools of business might consider their expectations for students' English language proficiency on entry and exit, understanding how language is acquired, how shared responsibility for language development might occur, and if their current approach is one of support (e.g., helping students pass their classes) or one of development (e.g., taking a long-term approach to helping students develop professional level English). This examination might result in a document similar to the AQUA's (2009) good practice principles.

Figure 1: Gap analysis and future planning

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│                         Views & Beliefs                           │
│                          Expectations                             │
│                       Language acquisition                        │
│                         Responsibilities                          │
│                      Development v. support                       │
│  ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐  │
│  │   Assessment     │ │    Curriculum    │ │     Pedagogy     │  │
│  │                  │ │                  │ │ Generic, standalone│ │
│  │ Admission/entry  │ │ Engaged or high  │ │    Integrated    │  │
│  │   to program     │ │ impact practices │ │ Discipline-based │  │
│  │ Institutional    │ │ Language         │ │    Embedded      │  │
│  │ success          │ │ intensive        │ │ Collaboration    │  │
│  │ indicators       │ │ assignments      │ │ opportunities    │  │
│  │ Completion       │ │ based on skill   │ │                  │  │
│  │ Post-graduation  │ │ needs            │ │                  │  │
│  │ outcomes         │ │                  │ │                  │  │
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Once views and beliefs have been explored, three additional areas, depicted in the framework, should be addressed. Assessment is critical in determining what departments know and do not know about learners' linguistic proficiency at the time of admission, matriculation into a program, exit from a program, and post-graduation. This may include satisfaction measures or gathering and disaggregating available institutional data, including retention and grade point averages and comparisons of international and domestic students on measures of engagement. From there, departments can determine an assessment plan and use the results to inform curricular and pedagogical changes.

The next area of the framework focuses on curriculum design, which may include high impact practices (e.g., learning communities, service learning, community projects, research with faculty, internships, or senior year experiences; NSSE, 2015). These create opportunity for interaction with the community and immersion experiences in English while developing desired professional skills. The curricular element also involves identifying the language skills needed in specific business contexts and how these will be addressed through language intensive course assignments.

Finally, pedagogy entails examining ways to encourage language development. Most institutions in the U.S. offer intensive English language programs or credit-bearing English language coursework, which are stand-alone and generic. In contrast, the embedded approach is based on the premise that "the language and communication practices that define the discipline need to be taught alongside and integrated within the context of a course" (James, 2010, para. 12). This approach involves collaborations between TESOL faculty and business faculty to revise curriculum and assessments (e.g., see Evans & Cable, 2011; Evans, Tindale, Cable, & Mead, 2009; Hancock et al., 2009b; Sloan & Porter, 2009). Variations might entail language workshops related to specific units of study or direct class instruction by EAP professionals.

Implications and conclusions

Concentrations of international students vary across countries and within institutions; however, schools of business host more of these students than any other academic area. Evaluation of current practices and educational outcomes is critical to the continuing success of international students enrolled in business programs. This review has provided a synopsis of issues relevant to schools of business hosting large percentages of globally mobile learners, with an emphasis on English language development. It is critical to note that the issues and solutions to them can be quite different across English-speaking countries. This review has sought to differentiate these contexts where possible. Keeping this in mind, key takeaways include the following:

1. The impetus for international student recruitment has tended to focus on institutional financial needs, which has had a negative impact on academic standards and practices in some cases.
2. Efforts must be made to help non-native English speaking students develop the proficiency needed, not only to succeed academically, but for future employment.
3. Institutions and programs have tended to operate from a deficit approach related to globally mobile learners, viewing them as lacking in preparation. This has led to a philosophy of support rather than development.
4. Non-technical learning outcomes, such as communication, have been identified for all graduates. Although some have made strides to improve

the communication skills of graduates, and specifically of non-native English speaking graduates, outcomes for the latter are often not tracked or known.

5. A range of instruments are available to schools of business to measure the satisfaction and engagement of globally mobile students as are institutional measures but may not be fully utilized.

6. Retention theories offer a lens for understanding the international student experience, strengthening academic and social involvement, and creating opportunity for language development.

7. A promising approach for addressing English language development needs is to embed language skills into content instruction. This practice appears more widespread in Australia and the UK than in the U.S.

8. Institutions can identify gaps and new strategies by examining views and beliefs about international students, conducting appropriate assessments, determining new curricular approaches, and adjusting pedagogical strategies. See Figure 1.

Schools of business in English-speaking countries who host global learners bear a large responsibility for providing experiences that lead to their success.

> Academics can make a significant contribution to the regulatory network by undertaking critical analyses of the international education "industry," the policies and practices embraced by governments and education suppliers, the lived experience of international students, their teachers, and support staff, the rights that belong to these individuals and the extent to which these rights are respected, and how international students can be educated to the reality of studying in a foreign country before and after they leave their homeland, and so on.
>
> (Nyland et al., 2013, p. 670).

Although considerable efforts have been made in this area, much opportunity remains. This review and the accompanying framework identify areas in which schools of business can engage in order to improve outcomes for globally mobile students.

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