

Internationalization of Higher Education: Comparative
Analysis between Canada and United Arab Emirates
(UAE)

by

Ifrah Arif

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate and Postdoctoral
Affairs in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

Migration and Diaspora Studies

Carleton University
Ottawa, Ontario

© 2023, Ifrah Arif

Abstract

Canada and the UAE are attracting international students with pro-immigration policies and diverse business opportunities, establishing themselves as prominent education hubs and labor force. This study compares incentives for international students considering the UAE and Canada as study destinations using the lens of citizenship. I analyze various promotional materials targeting prospective international students using critical policy discourse analysis to derive thematic codes stored on NVivo. Incentives provided by governments to international students are closely tied with students' motivations. The UAE retains international students to build human capital as temporary residents, Canada classifies them as temporary residents transitioning to permanent residency. The two contexts emphasize different work opportunities, roles for third-party recruitment and consultancies. Citizenship framework provides insights into international students' motivations and long-term aspirations, while immigration consultancies raise concerns about exploitation. Further research on international students' experiences would inform the effectiveness of incentives and their contribution to host countries' development.

Acknowledgements

I would like to firstly thank God almighty for the ability to complete my Master thesis.

I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to many others. Firstly, I would like to extend my deepest appreciation to my loving family for their unwavering support, encouragement, and understanding throughout this journey. To my dad, Arif Mehmood, thank you for your advice, guidance, encouragement for my academic journey and the completion of this thesis. You are an inspiration. To my mother, Nabila Arif, thank you for your kind support, love, and sacrifices, I am forever grateful for it. To my siblings, other family members, and friends thank you for cheering me on!

I am immensely grateful to my dedicated supervisor, Dr. Amrita Hari, for her invaluable guidance, expertise, and continuous encouragement. Her insightful feedback and constructive criticism have significantly shaped the development of this thesis. I would also like to extend my gratitude to the members of the examination committee for their time, expertise, and valuable feedback. Their critical evaluation and insightful comments have greatly enriched the quality of this research. I would also like to acknowledge the Migration Diaspora Studies Program Director and Administrator for their assistance and support throughout the program. To my fellow classmates, thank you for your camaraderie and stimulating discussions, which have played an integral role in my academic growth and development. Your support and encouragement have been invaluable. Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Azar Masoumi for her mentorship, insightful discussions, and encouragement throughout my graduate journey. Her guidance has been invaluable in shaping my research interests.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Figures.....	vi
List of Appendices.....	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction	8
Chapter 2: Internationalization of Education in Canada	13
2.1 Historicizing Canada’s International Higher Education Strategy	13
2.2 Mobilization of International Education	19
2.3 Canada’s International Education Strategy	20
2.4 Linking Canada’s International Education Policy with Immigration.....	22
2.5 International Student Recruitment: Creating its Brand in International Education.....	24
2.6 The Significant Role of the Federal Government in International Student Recruitment and Retention	26
Chapter 3: United Arab Emirates (UAE) as an Emerging Player in the Global Higher Education Landscape.....	32
3.1 Strategies towards the Internationalization of Education.....	32
3.2 Why study in UAE? Understanding Student Motivations	40
3.3 Enhancing its International Student Recruitment.....	42
Chapter 4: Theoretical Framework	45
4.1 (Re)Conceptualizing Citizenship	45
4.2 Global Social Citizenship and Constitutive Links Between Citizenship and Immigration	48

4.3 International Students and Citizenship.....	54
Chapter 5: Methodology.....	63
5.1 Selection Relevant Policy Documents and Justification	67
5.2 Data Analysis	70
Chapter 6: Comparing Promotion and Incentivization for International Students in Canada and the UAE	72
6.1 Policy Motives to Incentivize International Students to Choose Canada and the UAE..	72
6.2 The Differential Role of Citizenship in Attracting International Students.....	76
6.3 Different Role of Work Opportunities in Attracting International Students	83
6.4 Role of Third-Party Recruitment and Consultancies	86
Chapter 7: Conclusion.....	89
Appendices.....	94
Bibliography	96

List of Figures

Figure 1: International Student Enrolment by Source Country, 2018, Canada	15
Figure 2: Valid Study Permits Issued by Country of Citizenship, 2018, Canada.....	16
Figure 3: Total Population and Percentage of Nationals and Non-nationals in the UAE	32
Figure 4: International Branch Campuses 2006-2011, UAE.....	35
Figure 5: International Branch Campuses by Country, UAE	36

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Educational Associations in Canada	94
--	----

Chapter 1: Introduction

As a professional in the field of immigration, I have had the experience of viewing the implementation of various public policies for international students, such as facilitating international students with a post graduate work permit during COVID 19 and the temporary public policy for international students and off campus work hours. My role was to provide feedback from an operational perspective and facilitate the implementation of these public policies. I was considered an international student when I lived in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) as I held a resident visa due to UAE's limited naturalization policy and I migrated to Canada for post-secondary education. My father migrated to Canada as a study permit holder for his doctoral studies while my mother and I were considered as dependents of a study permit holder, after his studies we applied for citizenship and then migrated to the UAE. While I was already a citizen during my post-secondary education, I had the privilege to understand from fellow classmates that have migrated as an international student. Their experiences of transitioning from a temporary to a permanent resident and their integration to living in Canada sparked my interest in international education and international students. Such professional and personal experiences inspired my keen interest in the topic of international education and international students.

The purpose of this study is to identify and compare the incentives available to prospective international students seeking the UAE and Canada as their study destination. An international student is defined as someone who undertakes their studies in a country, they are not a citizen or permanent resident of. International student mobility refers to

individuals that have migrated for the sole purpose of education (Bass 2019). They may include foreign nationals that are under a temporary visa or hold refugee status depending on the receiving country (Statistics Canada 2010).

Michael E.Porter (1990) explains how nations can no longer depend on national resources and cheap labor, but rather comparative advantages based on technical innovations and creativity of knowledge intertwined with economic globalization and technological transformations. Knowledge and people are key factors of growth and competitiveness for many countries as they move towards a knowledge-based economy. Key players in the international student mobility include United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Australia. Countries such as Canada, New Zealand, and Russia are identified as emerging players. The main source countries of international students include China, India, South Korea, Turkey, Morocco, Mexico, Indonesia, and Hong Kong (Guruz 2011).

In 2020, there were over 6.3 million international students recorded that have travelled for the purpose of education, as compared to 2 million in 2000. The number of international students in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries reached 4.4 million international students in 2020, which is a 70 percent increase in the last decade. The United States of America, the United Kingdom, and Australia were the major destination countries in 2020. China and India were the main source countries, accounting for 22 percent and 10 percent of international students in OECD countries (Migration Portal Data 2023).

Canada has gained a large number of international students and has been attracting growing attention in the field of internationalization of education policies due

to its ties with a generally pro-immigration policy to address its labor shortages (Tamtik et al 2020). The UAE is also emerging as an education hub and seeking to attract international students to contribute to its diverse businesses and its cosmopolitan cities promoted as a trade hub with flows of foreign investment. The UAE has also sought to increase tourism through its economic development strategies. To counter its dependency on oil, the UAE sought to diversify its economy by attracting expatriates and business opportunities through its open economy and free zones (business zones that are exempt from all types of taxation and complete ownership of business). Education has become a crucial next step for the UAE to ensure its global competitiveness through policies, frameworks, practices, and procedures (Badry and Willoughby 2016). International student mobility and recruitment are new phenomena in the UAE with a focus on satellite campuses.

I use Critical Policy Discourse Analysis aided by NVivo to identify incentives (persuasive discourses) in promotional documents issued at the national level in Canada and the UAE that are targeted towards international student recruitment, including posters, online web materials, and the international education strategies for Canada and the UAE. Aside from governmental incentives, some university recruitment strategies and third-party involvement in recruitment were also explored. I employ a citizenship lens to understand student mobility and incentives to attract international students. A citizenship framework can provide a further understanding of students' short-term motivations and delve into their desire for a more permanent connection with the host country.

International student is understood differently within two national contexts and with various links to immigration and citizenship frameworks, which shapes their different trajectories as emerging players in international student mobility, the internationalization of education, and the overall recruitment and accommodation of international students. Recruitment is often revenue-driven acquired from international student fees and ancillary costs of study. I uncover and compare the recruitment strategies, policy incentives, national motivations beyond revenue, as well as the role of educational institutions and private agents in the destination countries. A comparison reveals the similarities and differences and different trajectories for two nation-states emerging in different ways in the global market for international student mobility. The analysis seeks to reveal discursive nuances to highlight the different ways that global international mobility is being shaped by national actors. To do this, I focus on the different incentives provided to international students in Canada and the UAE.

The UAE is focused on building its human capital base by retaining international students to work after graduation, while in Canada, the government has aligned internationalization policies with immigration pathways to encourage international students to study and stay. Citizenship is not an option for international students in the UAE. Moreover, international students are categorized differently in the two national contexts. In Canada, international students are viewed as temporary residents who require a visa and study permit since they are not Canadian citizens, permanent residents, nor refugees (Statistics Canada 2011). In the UAE, international students require a UAE student visa to begin their higher education. The term international student, however, also includes expatriates who have a resident visa. International students are considered like

other classes of non-citizens such as, expatriates, immigrants, foreign residents, and migrant laborer or guest worker. While in Canada, some international students have access to pathways to citizenship, in the UAE there are no pathways for citizenship thus international students would remain in a state of limbo (Rensimer 2018).

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. The next chapter delves into Canada's international educational strategy and its mobilization of its educational policy to meet its immigration goals. The third chapter focuses on the UAE as an emerging player in the global higher education landscape, including understanding student motivations and recruitment strategies. The fourth chapter details the theoretical framework - citizenship and its application to this study. The fifth chapter provides details on the methods of data collection and analysis, including the use of NVivo to generate thematic codes and the selection criteria for documents. The sixth chapter presents the primary findings of the study and compares promotion and incentivization for international students in Canada and the UAE, including policy motivations, the role of citizenship for international students, the significance of recruitment agencies, as well as the role of work opportunities and provisions of financial aid provided to international students. The concluding chapter seven includes recommendations and future research directions.

Chapter 2: Internationalization of Education in Canada

2.1 Historicizing Canada's International Higher Education Strategy

Attention paid to international education is increasing in the Canadian policy context; however, it is still limited due to the decentralization of education and higher education policy from Canadian federalism, as well as intersections between national, provincial, and local actors. While the federal government is responsible for Canada's international education strategy, provinces and territories maintain exclusive responsibility for all levels of education, including engaging with designated learning institutions¹ and establishing their own educational frameworks². Federal and provincial governments share responsibility for funding post-secondary education. While the federal government has implemented immigration policies for international students, provincial governments have their own initiatives to facilitate international education and attract global talent. This has made discussions of Canadian educational policy complex and multi-faceted. Higher education, which was previously separated from federal jurisdictions, is now being expanded to foreign affairs, immigration, citizenship, research, and economic development aspects.

Canada has been attracting attention from competitor nation states such as Australia and the United Kingdom in the field of education policy due to its pro-

¹ A designated learning institution is a school approved by a provincial or territorial government to host international students. All primary and secondary schools in Canada are designated learning institutions (Government of Canada 2023).

² The Canadian Degree Qualifications Framework considered as Canada's educational framework was adopted in 2007 by provincial and territorial ministers responsible for postsecondary education in Canada. It is part of the overarching Ministerial Statement on Quality Assurance of Degree Education in Canada. In addition to the Canadian Degree Qualifications Framework, the statement outlines procedures and standards that provide general guidelines on assessing the quality of new degree programs and new degree-granting institutions (CICIC 2023).

immigration policies. This has contributed to growing interest in the student-migrant nexus, which includes transnational actors and policy makers. In the context of global student mobility, the recruitment of international students is a key indicator of Canada's success in internationalizing education, primarily higher education on international students.

In recent years, Canada has become a beacon for student migration with pathways to acquire permanent resident (PR) status. In 2018, there were more than 721,000 international students in various levels and Immigration Refugees and Citizenship Canada (IRCC), indicated that this was a 20 percent increase from 2016, surpassing Canada's International Education Strategy goal of 450,000 international students. In 2018, the following countries were considered the fastest-growing markets for international students to Canada (in rank order by highest number of students with percentage increase in parentheses): India (+40%), Bangladesh (+53 %), Iran (+48%), Vietnam (+46%), Colombia (+41%), Philippines (+29%), Kenya (+29%), and Brazil (+17%) (ICEF Monitor, 2019). Figure 1 displays the top 20 sending countries for Canada in 2018, including total country enrolment and percentage of total international student enrolments.

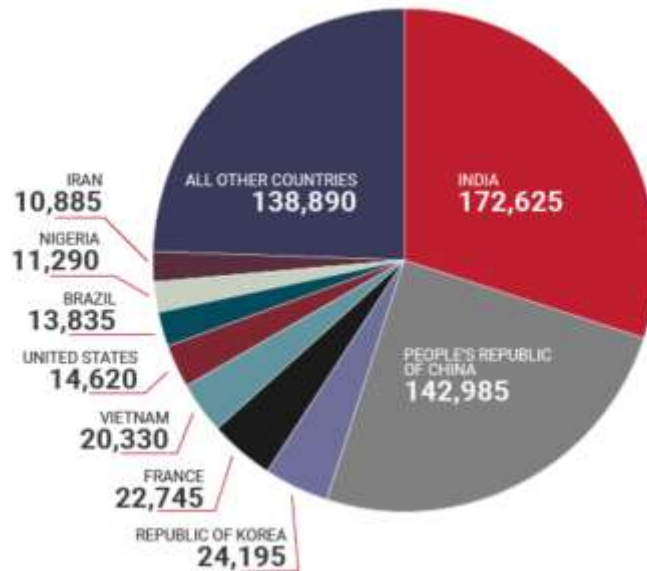
Figure 1. International Student Enrolment by Source Country, 2018, Canada

	ENROLMENT	% OF TOTAL
India	172,625	30.16%
China	142,985	24.98%
South Korea	24,195	4.23%
France	22,745	3.97%
Vietnam	20,330	3.55%
United States	14,620	2.55%
Brazil	13,835	2.42%
Nigeria	11,290	1.97%
Iran	10,885	1.90%
Japan	8,365	1.46%
Mexico	7,835	1.37%
Bangladesh	6,520	1.14%
Saudi Arabia	5,100	0.89%
Philippines	5,070	0.89%
Taiwan	4,700	0.82%
Turkey	4,385	0.77%
Hong Kong	4,045	0.71%
Colombia	4,035	0.70%
Pakistan	3,965	0.69%
United Kingdom	3,415	0.60%

Source: CEF Monitor. (2019). Canada's foreign student enrolment took another big jump in 2018. <https://monitor.icef.com/2019/02/canadas-foreign-student-enrolment-took-another-big-jump-2018/>

In addition to the rise of international students of 68% between 2014 and 2018, Canada added \$21.6 billion to its GDP and 170,000 jobs were supported due to the influx of international students in 2018 (Tamtik et al 2020). Figure 2 below visually represents the distribution of valid study permit holders by country of citizenship as of December 31, 2018.

Figure 2. Valid Study Permits Issued by Country of Citizenship, 2018, Canada



Source: Government of Canada. (2019). *Canada's International Education Strategy 2019-2024*. Retrieved from <https://www.international.gc.ca/education/strategy-2019-2024-strategie.aspx?lang=eng>

Canada's policy approach towards international students is centered on viewing them as 'ideal' immigrants with dual intent for study and permanent stay in the long run. We can infer this through the intentions of international students who seek to stay after obtaining Canadian credentials, proficiency in one of Canada's official languages, as well as Canadian work experience (Tamtik et al 2020).

Canada's contemporary education system originated from educational practices and institutions established by the Church in the 17th century and the first Canadian universities were established following European systems, with some following the democratic model of Scottish universities (Elbrekht 2015). Historically, Canadian universities unilaterally made decisions regarding education and training at universities. As of 2015, Canada's higher education system consists of 100 higher education institutions of which most are universities, and internationalization education has become intertwined with federal and provincial mandates.

IRCC is the federal department responsible for immigration policies relating to international students, and each Canadian province has its own government with initiatives to promote and recruit international students. While Global Affairs, another department of the federal government, consists of an international education unit responsible for developing the International Education Strategy for Canada, Innovation, Science, and Economic Development Canada has also taken a major role in contributing and developing international education policy in Canada. Both bodies of government have their own mandate; however, for international education there are some shared responsibilities (Tamtik et al 2020). There is no standing body specifically for education at the federal level. There is however the Council of Ministers of Education (CMEC), which is an intergovernmental body founded in 1967, by ministers of education, to discuss policy issues and mechanisms for education interests of Canadian provinces and territories internationally (CMEC 2023). Further information on the various educational institutions in Canada and their roles are outlined in appendix A.

In the absence of a federal strategy, in 2010, provincial governments began to create their own visions for international education, which would be independent of the federal government. This was considered more feasible since educational matters are autonomous from the federal government. Interestingly, a few years later, in 2014 the federal government introduced its first national strategy for international education. This was centered on the idea of supporting Canada's success as a global knowledge-based economy. As compared to other Western nations, Canada has developed its policies for the internationalization of education through fragmented initiatives by stakeholders,

provincial and other levels of government, as well as other relevant sectors. (Tamtik et al 2020).

Canada's focus towards higher education is on practical knowledge and learning education for democracy, humanism, and intercultural understanding. Much of Canada's higher education is influenced by its multicultural policies that seek to strengthen relations and mutual understanding between ethnic and cultural groups. The history of the development of higher education in Canada can be divided into four stages. The first stage in the 17th century saw the establishment of the first college and seminary with a strong influence from religious organizations, which persisted through the second stage from the late 18th to early 19th century when Canadian universities and colleges were established. The third stage, from the mid-19th to mid-20th century, focused on the creation of a network of colleges and universities that sought to provide liberal education to the ruling class and vocational education to the elite. The fourth stage, from the mid-20th century to the present day, is characterized by a shift towards promoting education for economic growth and democratization of higher education, which was achieved by inviting foreign teachers and strengthening the state's role in education (Elbrekht 2015).

Contemporary higher education found its roots in the twentieth century in Canada and developed in three stages, as per the needs of the economy. During the first stage, beginning before the 1950s, Canadian universities were focused on exclusive delivery of liberal education to individuals that were part of the society elite. The second stage, between the 1950s and 1960s, included changes to the mission of education and linking it more directly with the impact on economic growth. At this stage, Canada dedicated more resources for higher education. The final stage, occurring in the 1970s to date, led to

increased funding for the further democratization of education and an increase in access to education regardless of economic status (Elbrekht 2015).

2.2 Mobilization of International Education

The Federal Government of Canada views international education as an essential pillar of its long-term economic competitiveness and vital to providing exposure to new cultures, ideas, and to stimulate innovation (Government of Canada 2019). Over the last decade, institutions, organizations, and governments have devoted considerable resources, including time, staff, and finances, to the internationalization of education. This trend is reflected in academic plans, job titles, and curricula of Canadian post-secondary institutions, and the increasing interest and recruitment of international students. Employers also recognize the value of international and cross-cultural experience. Provincial, territorial, and federal governments are actively investing in internationalization through agencies they fund. Nonetheless, there are different interpretations of what internationalization means, and different organizations place varying emphasis on its different aspects (Embleton et al 2011).

International students that choose Canada as a destination to study have the option to immigrate and contribute to its economic success. If they choose to return to their home country, they are Canada's ambassadors instilled with Canadian values from their educational experience. In alignment with Canada's International Education Strategy, Canadian education institutions provide services such as curriculum licensing, as well as technical and professional training with concerted efforts from the Canadian Trade Commissioner Service. In developing Canada's International Education Strategy, the

federal government has consulted with provincial and territorial partners and stakeholders across Canada to sustain its international education sector with diversified strategies. The government has invested heavily in the Canada's International Education Strategy, with 147.9 million of the federal budgets in 2019 being allocated over the course five years, with \$8 million per year for ongoing funding (Government of Canada 2019).

2.3 Canada's International Education Strategy

The essence of Canada's International Education Strategy is encouraging Canadian students to gain skills through opportunities in key global markets, particularly in Asia, diversifying source countries for international students to Canada, and increasing support to the Canadian education sector. The following is a grouping of recommendations by the primary objectives listed in Canada's International Education Strategy developed in 2019:

1. ***Targets for success:*** This group of recommendations are at the core of the strategy; they focus on achievable goals for the growth of international student numbers and an increase in international mobility opportunities for Canadian students.
2. ***Policy coordination and ensuring sustainable quality:*** One of the greatest challenges in international promotion of education in Canada is coordinating the efforts of various partners and stakeholders. These recommendations clarify the ongoing coordination mechanism and address the intrinsic value of quality of the education offering.

3. ***Promotion of education in Canada:*** These recommendations delve into practical issues related to education promotion efforts, including selecting priority markets in which to focus Canada's recruitment efforts, honing Canada's international education brand, and ensuring its effectiveness and success in using new media.
4. ***Investments:*** These set of recommendations convey the need to be strategic in how Canada packages scholarship offerings to attract top talent by remaining competitive in recruiting the best and brightest international students. Scholarships are a key means to promote Canada's culture of excellence.
5. ***Infrastructure and support:*** Promotional efforts must occur in alignment with study permit issuance. The remaining recommendations focus on the visa processing system, as well as facilitating the process through a greater exchange of information and expertise between the Government of Canada and the education sector (Government of Canada 2019).

The overall vision of Canada's International Education Strategy is in reference to boosting Canada's innovative capacity and promote the development of its labor force with the required skills and talent to compete in global markets. International education in Canada is a major contributor to Canada's GDP. For instance, in 2018, international students spent an estimated \$21.6 billion on tuition, accommodation, and other expenses. These educational expenditures have a larger impact on Canada's economy and help to address skilled labor shortages and demographic pressures, as compared to other key sectors, such as its auto industry, lumber, or aircraft (Government of Canada 2019).

2.4 Linking Canada's International Education Policy with Immigration

Canada's international education policy has evolved into a multi-level governance structure where the federal government has designated education under provincial jurisdiction and immigration under federal jurisdiction. This was established under the British North America Act of 1867, in which provinces and territories acquired exclusive jurisdiction for educational matters. Each actor in international education has their own interests, concerns, and demands from the federal and provincial governments. IRCC has a critical role in facilitating international students through the study permit program, while educational institutions provide letter of offers and promote their programs to international applicants.

As for provinces, more than 75 percent of international students reside in British Columbia, Ontario, Manitoba, Quebec, and Alberta, particularly the larger cities, such as, Calgary, Edmonton, Ottawa, Montreal, Toronto (GTA) and Vancouver. In terms of the smaller cities and towns, some have implemented their own immigration plans. For instance, the city of Moncton, New Brunswick, has hired an immigration strategy officer to implement projects to promote and incentivize international students to study and immigrate to Moncton. Other towns like Morden and Winkler in Manitoba, have launched a Community Driven Immigration Initiative, specifically designed to attract immigrants with the request of the provincial government to nominate them under the Provincial Nominee Program (PNP) (Tamtik et al., 2020).

To complement such provincial models, the federal government has implemented co-funding models with academic institutions, as well as with provincial/territorial governments. Co-funding models are a joint agreement of funding for educational

programs and immigration pathways negotiated between the government of Canada and its educational stakeholders. Therefore, a major component of the mobilization of international education is Canada's student mobility program, which has been recognized as part of Canada's Economic Action Plan and includes international trade, innovation strategies, as well as immigration and foreign policies on exchange programs and pathways for students in certain fields of study. The federal government has also emphasized educational stakeholders, relevant government agencies, and provinces/territories to focus on the internationalization of education with other aligned priorities, such as health and clean energy investments.

To be able to provide such policy advice, the Government of Canada has established the Council on International Education and Research (CIER), which includes representatives of all sectors of education and regions of Canada, to formalize coordination and elevate Canada's position in international markets. This council was recommended by a panel within Global Affairs Canada (GAC) on international education. CIER consists of federal deputy ministers from international trade, citizenship and immigration, and industry, the chair and two deputy ministers from the Advisory Committee of Deputy Ministers of Education, and other stakeholders appointed by the Canadian government. The council seeks to provide policy advice to relevant ministers, monitor the implementation of the international education strategy, and be accountable to the public through annual reports. In addition, the government of Canada has increased marketing towards international students by creating a stronger presence of Canada as a brand abroad at international events (Government of Canada 2019).

2.5 International Student Recruitment: Creating its Brand in International Education

International student enrollments in Canadian institutions represent most exports of educational services. Between 1998 to 1999, there were a total of 35,556 international students at the postsecondary level. In 2006, the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT) found that international students contribute about \$2.7 billion to the Canadian economy. This amount has increased to \$3.5 billion by the end of 2000 (Cudmore 2005). In 2014, Canada's International Education Strategy emphasized that Canadian institutions should target to double the number of international students by 2022 and by 2017 Canada surpassed its target for intake of international students.

Canada's International Education Strategy encourages institutions to recruit students from various countries and seeks to brand Canada as diverse. It seeks to ensure a sustainable international education sector by addressing challenges and establishing policy priorities in Canada. The education sector has become increasingly competitive as more countries recognize the importance of international students for revenue and human capital, and more people can afford to study abroad. Traditional competitors like Australia, France, Germany, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States, as well as emerging ones like China and Malaysia, have invested heavily in marketing their educational offerings through digital media and generous scholarship opportunities to attract top talent. Moreover, many countries that were previously sources of international students are now enhancing the quality of their own education systems, with some universities in Asia, such as China, Japan, and Singapore, ranking among the

world's best and attracting more students from overseas. This shift in destination countries may inspire more students to study in their home countries.

The increase in the number of schools in Asia and Europe offering programs in English has intensified the competition for international students. Currently, most international students in Canada come from India and China, and they tend to study and live in major cities. However, for sustainable growth and equitable distribution of benefits across the country, it would be advantageous to attract students from a wider variety of countries, regions, and schools. As a nation engaged in trade, Canada's International Education Strategy aims to expand and diversify its customer base and potential exporters. This involves securing markets and encouraging new exporters.

The new strategy aims to achieve these multiple goals by promoting diversity in inbound student populations, skill sets, and programs, and by fostering connections between people and international networks, which will aid in building labor markets, promoting economic development in specific regions and industries, and supporting diversity in Canada's educational institutions. The development of an international education strategy can allow Canada to utilize international education to address present and future labor market challenges. The country is experiencing notable shortages of skilled workers, especially in highly qualified professions and skilled trades that are crucial for a competitive modern economy. These labor shortages are expected to persist in the medium and long term (Government of Canada 2019).

2.6 The Significant Role of the Federal Government in International Student Recruitment and Retention

While institutions have been actively recruiting international students to Canada, the primary policy agent is the Government of Canada. There are four key policy periods that impacted recruitment of international students:

1. The emergence of differential fee policies in the 1970s.
2. An era of institutional recruitment efforts in the 1980s and 1990s.
3. A period of active government recruitment in the 2000s.
4. Expansion of governmental recruitment efforts by including permanent residency pathways.

Scholarly research has raised concerns about the international student project in Canada (McCartney 2021). Canada has dedicated significant resources to increase the influx of international students. During the first period, there were three major developments that shaped Canada's foundation for internationalization of education. The first is the classification of international students as migrants, the adoption of differential tuition fees, and the standardization of the image of international students as wealthy foreigners, as opposed to those seeking financial aid. The differential fee policies were provincially enacted and enabled the Immigration Act that was established by the federal government. This was initiated for the purpose of increasing tuition fees as compared to domestic students and applicable to non-immigrant foreign students. This change in tuition was adopted by institutions and provinces overtime despite the policy being viewed as controversial and contributing to international students' lack of a sense of belonging.

The differential fee policy for tuition was established because colleges were advised to have a global perspective and form partnerships with other institutions worldwide, including the possibility of establishing satellite campuses overseas. Additionally, they were instructed to compete in a deregulated global educational market. In 1996, the Harris government deregulated international tuition and allowed colleges to keep all the revenue generated, which presented a significant opportunity for them to earn substantial profits (Basen 2019).

Many Canadian universities utilized international education to generate revenue due to limited government funding. The Canadian government views international students as desirable immigrants who have developed language skills, obtained local experience, and assimilated culturally through their higher education. However, more students accessing higher education does not necessarily translate to improved social mobility or earnings. High tuition fees presented a significant barrier. During the 2020/2021 academic year, international undergraduate students paid an average annual tuition fee that was nearly five times the average paid by domestic students (\$32,041 compared to \$6,610). This amount constituted of approximately 40% of all tuition fees and resulted in Canadian universities earning almost \$4 billion in revenue during the 2017/2018 academic year (Lilach 2020).

The differential fee policy was used as an incentive for institutions to encourage them to target and enroll international students. This led to educational institutions devising and implementing recruitment strategies. For example, in British Columbia, the provincial government deregulated tuition fees as the University of British Columbia sought to actively recruit international students through a market-based approach. Other

institutional initiatives for recruitment are shaped by university traditions, provincial higher education systems, government policies, and the adoption of a decentralized approach to international student enrolment (Wang 2009).

During the second period, the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act of 2001 became an institutional priority for international student recruitment. It was during this period that the discussion of international students shifted to a more positive tone and became a focal point of Canada's stance on internationalization. Educational institutions began to recognize the value of internationalization beyond differential tuition fees. For example, in the span of four years, the University of British Columbia (UBC) has experienced a growth of almost 60% in its international student enrollment. Currently, out of its total number of students, a quarter of them, which is approximately 16,000 individuals, are international students. According to Murali Chandrashekar, the Vice-Provost for International Affairs at UBC, the younger generation of international students holds the belief that Canada promotes the concept of global citizenship, and this notion strongly appeals to them (Macdonald 2019).

In the third period, recruiting international students became a policy priority and overtook other objectives of the internationalization of education. In 2010, the federal government committed to rebuilding and investing in Canada's ageing infrastructure (Department of Finance Canada 2010). Internationalization of education in Canada remained an ongoing priority since international students were identified by Statistics Canada as an important source of labor supply (Statistics Canada 2022). As a result, the federal government began its efforts to support policies and develop strategic plans to

expand international student recruitment and develop partnerships with institutions for profit multinational corporations (McCartney 2021).

During the fourth and current period, the pathway to permanent residency became a major recruitment tool for international students. By 2008, the government of Canada prominently focused on advertising materials to launch a national branch for international education, while supporting institutions efforts to increase international student enrollments. In 2014, more than 80 percent of institutions participated in overseas recruitment fairs, while more than half of these institutions hired student recruiters to increase the presence of international students on campuses. A major promotional effort was conducted through EduCanada with its strong online presence and emphasis on post-graduation immigration opportunities to Canada. A CBIE study proved that EduCanada's campaign was successful as more than half of international students that travel to Canada intended to immigrate, while more than two-thirds intend to find work opportunities in Canada after graduation.

The permanent pathway program through institutions began in 2006, and by 2018, 72 percent of members of Universities Canada had at least one pathway program or affiliation to increase recruitment of international students. At least 32 percent of these programs were partnered with private or for-profit educational corporations. These partnerships were viewed as controversial as the idea of creating a pathway program would increase revenue for the institution. In 2010, the economic impact of international students was clear enough for the government to divert its efforts on international education. A national report indicated that international education was a valuable exporter and surpassed other industries in Canada (McCartney 2021).

The federal government of Canada introduced a study permit program for international students who intend to study in Canada. This program permits students to attain a temporary permit to stay in Canada until the expiry date on their study permit or the completion date of their program. International students with a study permit may be eligible to work on and off campus. In 2022, the federal government issued a temporary policy to enable eligible study permit holders to work more than 20 hours per week off campus. IRCC also provides on their website tips on living in Canada as an international student, as well as resources on scholarships and the different kinds of schools to apply.

In addition to the study permit program, there is the study direct stream program, allowing eligible international students from certain countries³ to receive their study permit faster. Another program intended for eligible international students that have completed their studies in Canada is the Post-Graduation Work Permit (PGWP). This program permits students that have graduated from an eligible Canadian designated learning institution to obtain an open work permit for the purpose of gaining Canadian work experience. This would then support international students that intend to pursue permanent residence through the Canadian Experience Class within the Express Entry pathway⁴ (Government of Canada 2023).

³ The following countries are included as part of the study direct stream country: Antigua and Barbuda, Brazil, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, India, Morocco, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Senegal, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, Vietnam (Government of Canada 2023)

⁴ The Canadian Experience Class (CEC) is an immigration category for skilled workers who have Canadian work experience and want to become permanent residents. The CEC is a prominent option for temporary foreign workers and international graduates who go on to gain Canadian work experience. CEC is among the three programs managed under Canada's Express Entry system. CEC is part of a concerted effort by Canada's federal and provincial governments to encourage more temporary foreign workers and international students to build their futures in Canada. Candidates with Canadian experience can obtain more Comprehensive Ranking System (CRS) points under Express Entry (CanadaVisa 2023).

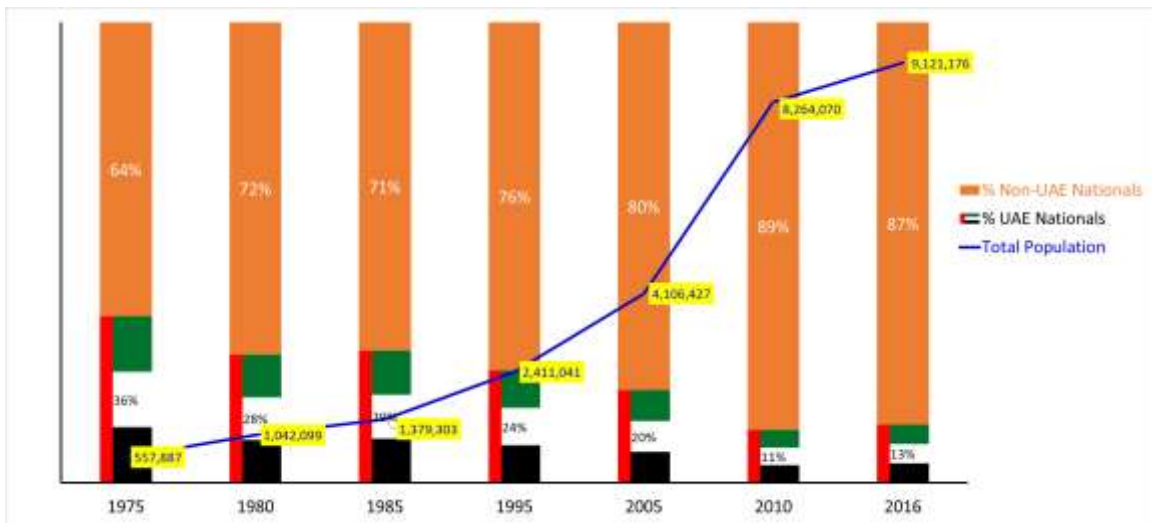
In Canada, international education has been a recent phenomenon that has rapidly increased through concerted mobilization efforts led by governments (federal and provincial) and educational institutions. While educational institutions have their own interests, the Government of Canada has also expressed their interest in facilitating the immigration of international students since they will support Canada's economic growth in the long run (McCartney 2021).

Chapter 3: United Arab Emirates (UAE) as an Emerging Player in the Global Higher Education Landscape

3.1 Strategies towards the Internationalization of Education

The UAE has a large expatriate population with an increasing demand for higher education opportunities. In 2016, 13 percent of the population of UAE were citizens and 87% were expatriates. Figure 3 below visually presents the upward trend in expatriates in the UAE (Government of UAE 2023).

Figure 3. Total Population and Percentage of Nationals and Non-nationals in the UAE



Source: Tsourapas and Malit Jr., (2020). Migration diplomacy in the Gulf – non-state actors, cross-border mobility, and the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* P. 2556-2577

The UAE is home to many international schools and several reputable universities have set up branch campuses, such as New York University, Sorbonne University and Middlesex University. The UAE government sought to diversify its economic

development by recognizing the significance of investing in education to facilitate their knowledge economy; it has become a hub for international education and a destination for international students (Government of UAE 2023).

The UAE consists of seven Emirates (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ras Al-Khaimah, Ajman, Umm Al-Qaiwain, and Fujairah). Abu Dhabi is the capital of UAE and houses the Ministry of Education. At the federal level, the Ministry of Education is responsible for all stages of education in the UAE. The Emirates Schools Establishment (ESE) is an independent federal entity aimed at improving the efficiency of public schools in the UAE. The ministry is also responsible for the planning of educational initiatives, including international schools and university branch campuses, and for ensuring and promoting foundational learning, building capabilities and inclusiveness of students, as well as leading and innovating education in accordance with requirements of the labor market (Government of UAE 2023).

The Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) enforces, and monitors education initiatives issued by the Ministry of Education. It is also the educational authority of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. Other Emirates have regional educational authorities. In Dubai, education related decisions are made by the Knowledge of Human Development Authority, for Sharjah it is the Sharjah Private Education Authority, and the rest of the Emirates operate under the Ministry of Education through local branches and educational zones.

The UAE university was founded in 1976 in Al Ain, a city within Abu Dhabi, which has since led UAE's higher education, research, and community service at national and international levels. The first foreign university, Sorbonne University, opened in

2006, followed by New York University that opened in 2007. In 2016, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research merged to become the Ministry of Education. This merger was intended to set strategic plans to maintain higher education in the UAE. The most recent national strategy for higher education 2030 focuses on providing students with technical and practical skills by improving educational methods from leading experiences internationally. The strategy is also designed to form partnerships to develop a knowledge-based economy in research, entrepreneurship, and labor market (Government of UAE 2023).

Globalization has been an important goal for the UAE as it develops its reputation as a global hub for trade, foreign investment, and tourism, which are also key economic development strategies. Due to its dependency on oil, the UAE is looking to diversify its economy by attracting expatriates and business opportunities through its open economy and free zones (business zones that are exempt from all types of taxation and complete ownership of business). Education has become a crucial next step for the UAE to ensure its global position through its policies, frameworks, practices, and procedures. The higher education system in the UAE has since then been reformed to ensure essential standards of education quality for international accreditations.

The globalization of higher education has affected universities and shaped their unique role in the UAE to provide students access to knowledge beyond national and regional borders. International branch campuses, also known as transnational branch campuses, are defined as an educational facility within its own premises as per its parent institution (Zalami 2019). Many educational establishments are influenced heavily by Western educational systems, particularly, American curricular principles that seek to

homogenize institutional idiosyncratic cultures. Despite that, some universities in the UAE have had to adjust to cater to the specific needs of the population of UAE. For instance, Sorbonne university in Abu Dhabi, has adjusted their language requirements from French to English for their degree programs (Badry and Willoughby 2016). Students in international branch campuses outnumber students at federal UAE institutions. Figure 4 below indicates an increasing trend of international branch campuses starting from 2006 to 2011 in the UAE.

Figure 4: International Branch Campuses 2006-2011, UAE

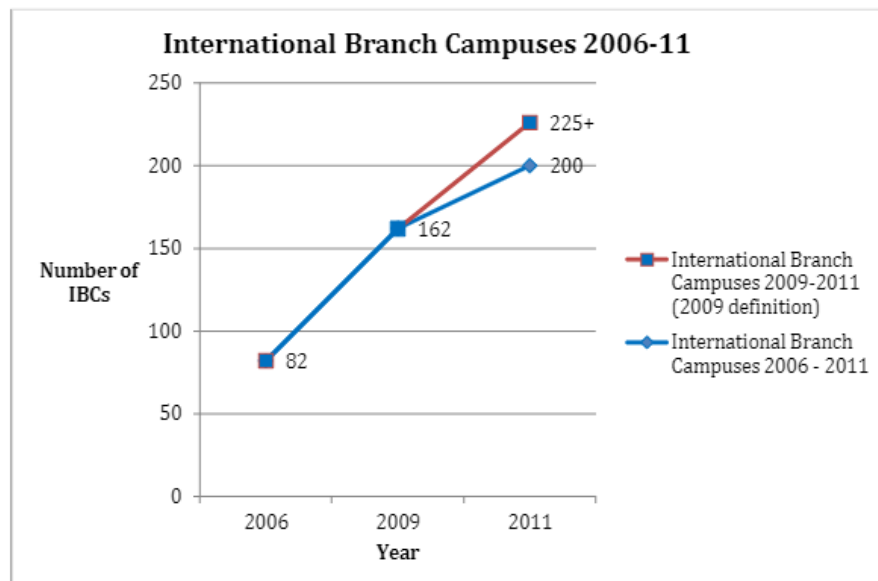


Figure 2, Lawton, William & Katsomitros, A. (2011). *International Branch Campuses. Data and Developments.*

Between 2002 to 2017, UAE gained 62 institutions with branch campuses from Australia, India, Pakistan, Iran, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Figure 5 visually presents international branch campuses established in the UAE by country up to 2015.

Figure 5: International Branch Campuses by Country, UAE

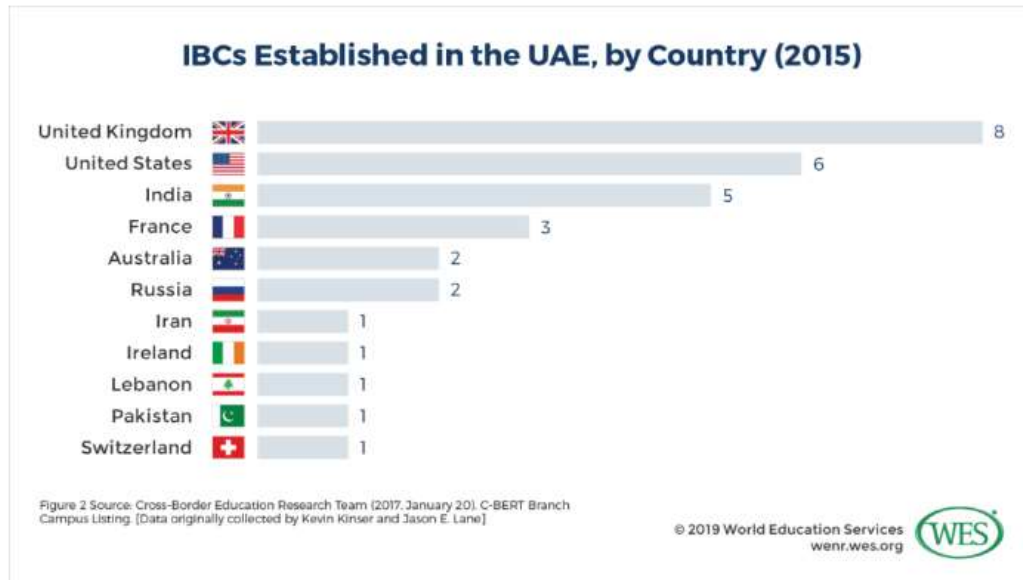


Figure 3, WES (World Education Services). (2019, June 10). International Branch Campuses, Part Two: China and the United Arab Emirates. Retrieved from <https://wenr.wes.org/2019/06/international-branch-campuses-part-two-china-and-the-united-arab-emirates>

Abu Dhabi hosts over 18 institutions classified as private by the Abu Dhabi Educational Council. In Ras Al Khaimah, 5 universities have opened in the last three decades. By 2019, there were 180 international branch campuses of which 79 were accredited by the Commission on Academic Accreditation (CAA) (Zalami 2019). CAA is a division within the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, that manages the quality of postsecondary education in relation to labor market requirements (Nuzhat 2020).

International student mobility is an important part of the internationalization of education. In the context of the UAE, student mobility is a new but growing phenomenon in the last decade (Alsharari 2018). The establishment of international branch campuses provided opportunities for UAE residents to gain international education without having to leave the territory. This was facilitated by UAE's engagement in strategic alliances

with institutions, as well as joint ventures to establish international branch campuses, such as Sorbonne and New York University.

One of the leading global regulators of international branch campuses, C-BERT (Cross- Border Education Research Team), confirms that in 2016, the UAE took second place, hosting 31 international branch campuses. In the Middle East, the UAE hosts about 61% of international branch campuses in the region. International branch campuses compete regionally and globally with their parent institutions. Despite certain failures, there has been an increase in interest from Western institutions in transnational education in the UAE due to profit incentives for infrastructure development and administration costs of an international branch campus (Nuzhat 2020).

Transnational campuses also generate innovative ideas in education, new technologies through research and development opportunities, and can contribute economic growth and social advancement in host countries. The institutions can maximize national economic welfare by creating an education and technocratic elite that fulfills the needs of the host country. These campuses can also provide political soft power and diplomatic influence in favour of the home country. For example, the presence of New York University in Abu Dhabi signals Western cultural influence, which can be perceived as a form of soft power between the United States and the UAE (Badry and Willoughby 2016).

The UAE is fast becoming known as an education hub with strong branding values and significant investments in education. Education hubs are defined as both actors and reactors to manifestations of globalization, and in this case, the wider development of cross-border higher education. Their role is to exert educational influence

and strengthen relations between local and international counterparts to position itself as a reputed location for higher education and research (Knight 2014). The UAE's education hub began in 2003 and includes multiple free zones of more than 37 international branch campuses, which makes them exempt from any form of taxation and guarantees total ownership of the enterprise. In the case of higher education, free zones are viewed as a commercial approach to incentivize international branch campuses through tax and financial benefits.

The UAE has utilized an investment approach to support elite universities, particularly from the United States and France, through research partnerships with foreign universities on developing educational centers such as Masdar City. While the UAE does not have a country-level strategy to develop its education hub, it has been successful through diverse approaches, including diplomatic and financial ties. Other approaches include foreign recruiters of local and international students. National recruitment strategies are intended to increase student enrollments to gain regional and global reputation (Knight 2014).

The increase of home-grown and foreign universities in the UAE is also the result of UAE's liberalization policy for market entrants. The UAE was ranked third worldwide in the Transitional Education Engagement due to its deregulation policies. These policies are applicable to UAE's free zones. Many higher educational initiatives in the UAE are aligned with financial incentives and partnerships in the form of joint ventures with the government for political leverage. While there has been an increase in international education mobilization in the UAE, international branch campuses face challenges during the establishment process, including survivability and profitability.

International branch campuses struggle to meet their student enrollment forecasts; thus, resulting in premature closure. Some international branch campuses have shut down in a short span of time because of insufficient funds and low student enrolments. 10% of campuses shut down in the mid-1990s, followed by another round of closures in 2009, and again in 2011 with a further 11 international branch campuses closing. For example, George Mason University opened in 2006 and closed a year later due to lower enrollments of students than their projected figures. As for financial constraints, international branch campuses in the UAE leverage finance through tuition fees, endowments, and the proprietor or franchisee. Financial stability varies among international branch campuses. For instance, the American University of Sharjah received funding from the ruling family of Sharjah, whereas, New York University and Paris Sorbonne University have received special invitations from the government of UAE. While other universities based in free zones receive state funding, it is not considered as a mandatory provision. This has led to a proliferation of public-private partnerships with variable success.

Extensive efforts are used to recruit faculty, staff, and students to enhance the reputation of international branch campuses. A key challenge is thriving and remaining competitive in terms of quality of education, diversity of degree programs, quality of faculty, financial support, and employability of graduates (Madichie 2013). While there are internal challenges unique to each institution, a common challenge identified in the UAE is balance of power within joint ventures and managing academic and commercial interests. These challenges can be made worse by cultural differences and the imbalance

of decision-making power between senior management of the home campus and management for the international branch campus (Haeley 2015).

3.2 Why study in UAE? Understanding Student Motivations

Traditional study destinations, such as the USA, UK, Canada, and Australia, receive significant enrollments of international students, some UAE destinations are gaining momentum as a newly established education destination. International students in the UAE are from China, India, Europe, African nations, and the Asia Pacific. International branches attract students from India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Iran and the Sudan, Yemen, and Saudi Arabia.

Studies on motivations to study in the Middle East are limited. Some factors identified include cultural proximity, religion, low crime rates, prospects of better employment, and higher salary. Many international students choose UAE for its academic reputation and the relevance and value of the foreign degree. Others tend to stay after their education in hopes of seeking opportunities to work in the UAE. Another draw is the multicultural environment of the UAE that is perceived as a learning benefit, contributing to a diverse and transnational academic workforce (Ahmad et al. 2016).

The UAE is committed to transforming its higher education as a critical sector of its developing knowledge-based economy. Amongst all the Emirates, Dubai and Abu Dhabi are best known for their educational institutions that offer a wide range of programs from vocational diplomas, associate, bachelor, master, and doctoral degrees to an estimate of more than 52,000 students from 140 countries. Most of these students were enrolled in the field of business; however, in recent years, there has been an increase of

students in engineering, humanities, education, and physical sciences. International branch campuses, referred to as ‘private’ institutions, have higher enrolments than federal universities (Ahmad et al. 2016).

In 2017, the UAE, despite being a non-traditional country for higher education, welcomed more than 50,000 international students. In the past five years, it has implemented several higher education internationalization policies, immigration reforms, and academic excellence initiatives to bolster this positive trend. National policies, including more open regulations make it an attractive destination for foreign universities to establish international branch campuses. In 2018, the UAE reformed its immigration laws permitting international students to apply for 5-year visas (Johnson 2020) as part of its 2017 long-term higher education strategy with 33 key initiatives aligned with its national priority of economic growth. Nation building, knowledge economy, human capital, innovation, confidence, community, and sustainability are some of the goals that shape UAE’s higher educational policies. Notably, its *Vision 2021* policy situates UAE’s national priority for social development within higher educational reforms and places a focus on national human capital as part of its nation building agenda. This policy was initiated to counter an ongoing challenge of building a workforce with new ideas and skills for the higher educational sector of UAE (Johnson 2020).

Higher education is an important part of UAE’s diversified economy and moves away from an oil dependent economy. Much of higher education, student enrollment, and educational mobility in the UAE are influenced by its oil economy and broader political conditions. For example, in 2016, as oil prices dropped, the enrollment of international

students declined from 40 to 60 percent in the UAE. The intake of international students was lower due to slow oil recovery and labor market tensions (Johnson 2020).

Overall, it is incumbent upon the UAE to establish a robust higher education sector to ensure a steady supply of qualified workers and increase its population as Emiratis account for approximately 12 percent of UAE's population. There is a strong commitment to addressing educational demands in the UAE for students to gain an international competitive advantage through investments in educational infrastructures by the government. In addition, career advancement in the UAE has not been as viable despite the substantial pay and benefits offered. These reforms are intended to increase the standards of education for its residents and provide more employment opportunities. As a result, UAE is set on shifting its focus towards higher education and implementing variations in funding models, as well as developments in technology and human capital (Rice 2019).

3.3 Enhancing its International Student Recruitment

In 2016, the UAE hosted over 77,000 international students, with a majority returning to their home country. Most international students are local residents, as opposed to students arriving from foreign countries, which is a key difference from the traditional definition of international students. Karim Johnson (2020) identifies that a third of expatriates in the UAE tend to go abroad for higher education while the rest remain in the UAE and enroll in international branch campuses. One international branch campus stated that there were zero Emiratis enrolled and about 10 percent of their student enrollments were international students from abroad, mainly from Saudi Arabia and Iran, who sought to

enter the local Emirati labor force or to use international branch campus education to enhance their success of immigrating to US, Canada, and Australia (Johnson 2020).

International student recruitment for the UAE targets English-speaking, academically strong, and financially autonomous international students for shorter-term graduate programs. The focus on recruiting graduate students is due to a projected three-fold return - intellectual production, payment, and human capital - for universities as opposed to undergraduate students. To attract graduate students, institutions offer research grants and scholarships to potentially produce research for these universities and retain skilled foreign talent as expatriates (Johnson 2020). While there are scholarship incentives, tuition fees for international students in international branch campuses in the UAE can be lower than the home campuses. For example, Middlesex University's three-year program in Dubai costs about \$37,000 as compared to \$47,000 for non-European Union international students at its London campus. Interestingly certain international branch campuses have been offering tuition discounts to civil servants, acting as a steppingstone to immigrate elsewhere and enroll directly from high schools or corporate visits to maintain enrollment numbers. This includes institution sponsored recruitment events such as seminars in high schools and participation in educational fairs targeted at students and organized by third party recruitment agencies (Wilkins 2013).

To combine labor migration and international recruitment strategies in the UAE, the government has reformed its residency program to recruit outstanding students with a 3.75 grade point average from high schools to be granted a 5-year visa with provisions to bring dependents. Some international branch campuses in the UAE offer bridging programs, college prep courses, and English as a second language courses, to encourage

recruitment. It has been noted that families from Arab or South Asian regions tend to have their children enroll in higher education institutions in the UAE to keep them close to family. While majority of expatriate international students go to their country of citizenship to acquire higher education due to lower tuition costs as a domestic student, with the advent of international higher education in the UAE, there are many expatriates youth that choose to remain in the UAE for their education.

Recruitment initiatives vary among each Emirate and how the ruler of each Emirate interprets national strategic plans (Johnson 2020). There are selected institutions that are government funded for active recruitment and marketing schemes for international students. For instance, New York University in Abu Dhabi is fully funded by the UAE government according to its tax returns. Government grants have also contributed largely to the branch's revenue (Porcellie and Maharishi 2019).

Overall, international education in the UAE offers a diverse and dynamic environment for students from around the world. With renowned satellite campuses and a focus on global exposure, the UAE emphasizes academic and professional development, preparing students for the job market and global mobility. The marketing efforts from recruitment agencies promote the UAE as an innovative, cosmopolitan, and luxury destination, attracting students to a multicultural educational experience, as compared to Canada's international education that focuses on attracting students using its citizenship-oriented pathways and labor market opportunities.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Framework

4.1 (Re)Conceptualizing Citizenship

Citizenship confers a membership status to a state, including rights, privileges, virtues, and responsibility of individuals within that particular political community, and constructs forms of inclusion and exclusion (Turner 1990). The earliest conceptualization of citizenship can be traced back to T. H. Marshall (1950) who identified two dimensions of citizenship - a relation to the state and local participatory institutions (e.g., trade unions) - that reflect the relationship between the public and private arenas within civil society.

Furthermore, Marshall identified four types of democratic polities (categories of democratic political systems) based on the relationship between the state and society. First, class citizenship, which links citizenship to social class and the state primarily serves the ruling class. Second, status citizenship, which links citizenship to social status and the state ensures access to basic social rights. Third, participatory citizenship, linking citizenship to citizen involvement in decision-making and shaping policy. Finally, multicultural citizenship, whereby citizenship is defined by respect for diversity and protection of minority rights.

Multicultural citizenship can promote loyalty and involvement in the state through civic and political attachments. According to Taylor (1993), in situations of "deep diversity," people feel primary allegiance to a community of culture and fate, while their secondary identification is with the larger political unit in which that community exists. Some critics of multiculturalism; however, are concerned that multiple loyalties may

undermine primary loyalty to the nation-state. These critics believe that such a situation could lead to problems ranging from limited democratic participation to a lack of interest in policies of redistribution (Bloemraad, et al. 2008).

Overall, Marshall's theory on citizenship involved a shift from particularistic to universalistic values, as well the erosion of particularistic kinship systems. Marshall's concept of complete membership regards rights as intrinsically valuable to maintain the unity necessary for the proper functioning of a social democratic welfare state. Therefore, citizenship rights and legal status encourage participation and a feeling of membership, which then supports social cohesion (Bloemraad, et al. 2008).

Citizenship entails certain obligations that are strategically implemented by government bodies. For example, in Britain various conservative governments became interested in the idea of citizenship as both obligations to the state and community, and as rights to adequate service from public utilities, such as the railways. A neoliberal view of citizenship is minimalist and purports that the role of the state is to protect the freedom of its citizens, which can be achieved by removing identified barriers between individuals and the state. In this conceptualization, the state is utilitarian, seeking to maximize the happiness of the majority, which is most effectively and efficiently measured by individual wealth. An alternative view of citizenship focuses on the experience of true freedom in a civil society that can only be ensured through the rights and well-being of all its citizens. The paradox of citizenship is that even those who reject it for its association with neoliberal capitalism and statism often rely on citizenship to combat state police forces through legal means, such as civil rights battles.

The existence of immanent relations and struggles associated with citizenship and disruptions between people and politics ensures that citizenship is always being reinvented (Isin and Nyers 2014). For example, during the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s in the United States, African American activists and their allies fought for equal access to public accommodations, education, and voting rights, among other things. The movement highlighted the fact that even though African Americans were technically citizens, they were not able to enjoy the full benefits of citizenship due to institutionalized discrimination. The struggle for civil rights also brought attention to the tension between property rights and political freedoms. African Americans were often excluded from owning property, either through discriminatory laws or economic marginalization. Without access to property, they were not able to fully participate in the economic and political systems of the United States. The struggle for citizenship is a dynamic process that involves competing interests and values, and how tensions between property rights and political freedoms have historically been a source of conflict and struggle in the development of citizenship as an institution (Marshall 1950).

Definitions of citizenship continue to evolve, encompassing various struggles for recognition and redistribution of claims to citizenship. There is now a proliferation of movements based on identity and difference, such as sexual, racial, ethnic, diasporic, ecological, technological, and cosmopolitan, that articulate claims to citizenship not only as a legal status but also as political and social recognition and economic redistribution (Isin and Turner 2002). Several scholars are exploring and addressing concepts such as sexual citizenship, ecological citizenship, diasporic citizenship, differentiated citizenship, multicultural citizenship, cosmopolitan citizenship, and aboriginal citizenship (Isin and

Turner 2002). The modern citizen is no longer exclusively conformed through particularities of birth, ethnicity, or gender (Turner, 1990).

4.2 Global Social Citizenship and Constitutive Links Between Citizenship and Immigration

Scholars such as Engin Isin and Peter Nyers encourage moving away from conceptualizing citizenship as a legal status with associated rights and entitlements to thinking about it as a process to acknowledge the socially constructed nature of citizenship. Citizenship status can include specific privileges, including dual citizenship, as well as a sense of belonging. Furthermore, citizenship is connected to mobility as immigrants move to take advantage of such privileges that may not be available in their country of origin. A post-Marshallian concept of global social citizenship, therefore, can be viewed as a politics of necessity, as an everyday demand that can be expressed at various levels, and as a struggle to attain recognition for human needs through negotiation.

Global social citizenship can be expressed in different ways, some of which are not ideal and may even be harmful. Cosmopolitan principles do not apply to the most disadvantaged peoples. Global social citizenship must acknowledge the various forms of social citizenship that exist around the world, reflective of our universal interdependence that is global in nature (Isin and Nyers 2014). Countries that offer lower costs of naturalization and promote stronger integration and tolerance draw immigrants (Stasiulis 2013), making citizenship an institution constitutive of the societal community (Turner, 1990). In such a context, states develop their own categories of an ideal citizen and the undesirable other, which are enforced by immigration and temporary permit policies,

including study permits, to formally regulate who is welcome to stay, who is restricted from visiting or even asked to leave (deportations). Sharma (2020) highlighted how different regions and nation-states' policies are marketed to the migrant populations who are deemed desirable by the authorities, and are shaped by the nation-state's specific social, political, and economic context. Sharma (2020) indicates that Canada has marketed itself to be one of the most welcoming nations in the global north; the UAE has marketed itself to be one of the largest expatriates receiving nation (Sharma 2020). Sharma (2020) also articulates the correlation between nationalization of state sovereignty and enactment of new citizenship and immigration controls. She examines various regions and instances of mobility controls to demonstrate that global systems of citizenship have caused a post-colonial hierarchy between nationalities (Sharma 2020).

Extensive free movement can undermine the sustainability of intergenerational and territorial democratic polities, as conceived under Marshallian notions of citizenship. Citizenship constructed as life-long membership that is usually acquired by birth and transferred across generations through descent or birth in the territory is disrupted by immigrants that receive citizenship through naturalization. According to Kelley and McAllister (1982), the simplest theory of naturalization is the cost-benefit approach, which suggests that people will acquire a new citizenship if they believe that the benefits are greater than the drawbacks. This theory examines how factors such as education, income, and marital status influence the decision to become a citizen. More advanced versions of this theory propose a contextual rational choice model, which considers the environment of the country of origin or the social context of the country of residence.

On the other hand, the integration or assimilation model of naturalization opposes the cost-benefit approach. This model suggests that the acquisition of legal citizenship is a natural result of an immigrant's integration into the social, economic, and cultural structures of society. Proponents of this model believe that the more integrated an immigrant is, the more likely they are to become a citizen. However, research in this field has focused on individuals rather than societal effects, measuring the level of integration based on factors such as language ability and the presence of children in the family (Bloemraad 2000).

Ira Bloemraad (2000) discusses citizenship as an analytical concept as it is defined as membership in a socio-political community with distinct dimensions: legal status, rights, identity, and participation. Due to the advent of rising influx of immigrants and multiculturalism, there are challenges to state identity and cohesion and to citizenship as participation for interactions between the individual and nation-state. Participation plays an important role in connecting individuals with their socio-political community and adds a crucial dynamic element to the study of citizenship. The rules of entry and benefits associated with membership in the collective are determined by the socio-political community, primarily the state. Although the state has limited control over collective identities, it has significant influence over the symbolic resources that shape the third dimension of citizenship.

Participation allows the individual side of citizenship to be considered, as citizenship cannot be given by the state without someone to accept it, and changes to the state's approach to citizenship are initiated by individuals or groups of people. At its most fundamental level, citizenship refers to the legal status that a state grants to an individual,

which Baubock (1994) refers to as nominal citizenship. When a person is granted citizenship, the state imposes certain obligations on them, such as the possibility of being called upon during times of war, and allows them to make claims, such as the right to access state territory. Under the conventional model, every person on the planet has only one citizenship and lives in the country where they hold citizenship, thereby facilitating the connection between individuals and the state (Bloemraad 2000). Allowances for partial citizenship in host countries mean persons can maintain citizenship in their home countries while not receiving full and equal citizenship in host countries. Partial citizens can include irregular migrants, temporary migrants whose return is conditional, permanent residents, or allowances for long-term residents.

In the context of migration and citizenship for immigrants, scholars such as Brubaker (1992) and Cornelius, Martin and Hollifield (1994), have studied cross-national variations in citizenship regulations and acquisition. Citizenship may be experiencing a convergence like that observed by Cornelius, Martin, and Hollifield (1994) in the realm of immigration policy. They suggest that industrialized countries that import labor have a growing similarity in immigration laws, control measures, integration policies, and public opinion regarding immigration, due to the demands of new global regimes, economic trends, and the influence of liberal rights discourse. Existing literature by these scholars argue for the study of citizenship acquisition within the framework of legal regimes in the case of Europe, while in North America, Australia, and New Zealand to show the micro-level approach on immigrants and their choice of citizenship. As for in Europe, Brubaker's (1992) conception of citizenship portrays the importance of national ideal rooted from political events and cultural geography of the region as it produces exclusive

citizenship regimes through legal traditions of *jus sanguinis* (citizenship by blood) and *jus soli* (citizenship by birth on territory) (Bloemraad 2000).

Citizenship is a legal status that grants rights from the state and indicates belonging to a particular nation. Brubaker (1990) argues that the conventional model of citizenship portrays membership as egalitarian, sacred, national, democratic, unique, and socially significant. When immigrants move from one country to another, they create a complicated relationship between citizenship and the nation-state. Since countries only have sovereignty over the inhabitants within their defined borders, traditional approaches assume that immigrants gradually detach from their home country and "naturalize" by adopting the citizenship of their host country. This process is often seen as an "either/or" situation where individuals must choose between their original citizenship and the nationality of the country they have moved to. The conventional concepts of citizenship are being assessed by the dynamics of globalization, particularly the movement of people across borders.

This has led scholars such as Ira Bloemraad to create new membership models such as transnationalism and post-nationalism. These models, including the traditional one, discuss the contentious issue of dual citizenship or having multiple memberships either explicitly or implicitly. In view of dual citizenship and transnationalism, immigrants' lives extend beyond national borders. They imagine a nation-state that is not restricted by territory, where "immigrants form and maintain diverse social connections that link their societies of origin and settlement" and "where the people of a nation can live anywhere in the world and still be within the state," (Bloemraad 2004). The rise of world capitalism is often cited as the driving force behind this change.

Migrants from developing countries are often compelled to seek employment in the developed world due to the core-periphery structure of the global economic system. Once there, they are frequently employed in secondary labor markets, performing low-skilled work in manufacturing or service industries for low wages. These immigrants feel marginalized from the host society due to their position on the periphery of the labor market, while at the same time, they maintain connections to their home country through remittances or entrepreneurial activities. Ironically, while many are forced to migrate because of global capitalism, some subsequently engage in transnational economic activities themselves. It is likely that having multiple nationalities will become increasingly common (Bloemraad 2004).

Bloemraad debates whether immigrants with higher levels of education or those who are more marginalized engage in more transnational behavior. When considering economic indicators of marginalization or success, there is little support for either theory. The argument for marginalization has limited support when race is considered: it is a significant predictor of claiming dual citizenship, but the effect is not significant. In contrast, a strong and significant correlation exists between education level and dual citizenship, indicates that there is empirical support for the human capital theories of transnationalism. While economic resources might not matter much, educational skills clearly do matter. It is possible that various patterns of transnationalism exist but when combined with the significant relationship between international mobility and dual nationality, it appears that professionalism and cosmopolitanism also exist (Bloemraad 2004).

4.3 International Students and Citizenship

Bloemraad, Korteweg and Yurdakul (2008) call for more empirical research to test these theoretical notions of citizenship to address the disconnect between abstract political theory and empirical social science. International students may fit any of these categories of citizenship depending on the status of their temporary visa program and available pathways for permanent residency. International students are typically granted temporary residence permits that expire when they finish their studies. They may have to pay higher tuition fees and are often prohibited from seeking employment in the regular labor market. However, they are usually treated equally to domestic students within the university; they are integrated into the university community, and they receive a service in exchange for their high international student fees. If an international student marries a citizen of their host country, they may be eligible for permanent residency. Host country governments are now considering whether to enforce return migration or offer successful international students a permanent residence option, as there is growing competition for highly skilled migrants. Although temporary admissions often result in long-term settlement, it does not mean that international students will always be admitted on a permanent basis (Baubock 2011).

The connection between education and migration was used by neoliberal states to manage the population. The incorporation of neoliberal principles portrayed that international students were always considered a part of the national agenda for international education for many countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and United Kingdom. However, at first, they were primarily viewed as a limited market;

institutions providing education were responsible for satisfying the needs of their clients. Therefore, ideas of support and assistance were constrained to the campus environment.

Educational policies were implemented that simplified the recognition of overseas qualifications, targeted areas with a shortage of skills, and produced migrants with good English skills who were integrated into society. At first, students were seen as "designer migrants," a term used to describe the desired qualities of migrants in line with neoliberal values of citizenship and mobility. However, the discourses surrounding students-as-migrants that emerged during the last decade of policy experimentation with the education-migration nexus were complicated. These discourses were related to the neoliberal values of citizenship and mobility.

The education-migration nexus considered international students to be highly valued, elite subjects who would contribute capital as consumers of education and labor as future workers. However, this positioning was mainly based on the market value of individuals and largely disregarded their social or community roles. Neoliberal values in policies of citizenship and mobility were evident in the concept of international students as ideal migrant workers. As policies became more open to diverse student migrants, they were increasingly viewed as problematic, for example in Australia, student migrants were viewed as opportunistic "backdoor migrants" in the media and by the Australian government. The purpose of this media message was to weaken the link between education and migration, cutting off permanent residency pathways for undesirable student migrants. This removal of student migrant pathways was in response to the conservative backlash against migration and unemployment. As a result, student migrants

were still desirable as consumers of education but no longer as a migrant labor force (Robertson 2011).

Stratton (2009) discussed about how multiculturalism and assimilation was applied to skilled non-White migrants, which can also be applied to students as skilled migrants through neoliberal ways, since the education-migration nexus is viewed as a distinct political structure with impacts of specific policies and discourses on international students as students, migrants, and workers. For example, in Australia, there is a prioritization on education export and skilled migration through neoliberalism where there has been concerns on rights and citizenship as students are viewed as ideal subjects for neoliberalism. However, they are also viewed as intruders into the state. Koehne and Devos have discussed how media and academic discourses have limited the role of international students in Australia and portrayed them as a 'problem population.' In the last fifteen years there has been a development of the education-migration nexus and subsequent shifts in the desirability of students as migrant-workers. Robertson (2011) argued that when it comes to academic and institutional discourse, stakeholders and social institutions are responsible for international students as students have become linked to human and consumer rights and influenced by neoliberal ideas about rights and citizenship (Robertson 2011).

The link between international education and migration policy, as well as students' growing involvement with the labor market, has caused international student issues to move beyond the education sector. The difficulty in defining the subjects studied in this area highlights the many identities at play, which can change depending on the research focus. For instance, Baas (2006) uses "students of migration" in migration-

focused research, while Robertson (2011) has used terms like "student-migrants," "students-turned-migrants," and "student switchers" to describe this group. Others such as McLaughlin and Salt (2002) have used phrases like "international student-workers" to focus on labor market experiences. All these terms show that international students challenge traditional distinctions between students, migrants, and workers, and this disruption goes deeper into the ideas of national membership and rights. Student-migrants represent the blurred lines between different membership categories, such as transience and permanence, legality, and illegality, and being an alien, denizen, or citizen. This blurring has led to extensive discussions about the rights of student-migrants (Robertson 2011).

As for citizenship and international students, citizenship is understood as an ontological and legal practice around international students and their subsequent rights. Robertson stipulates that migrant groups that enact citizenship involve migrants in diaspora communities, local or transnational political activism of migrants, or emerging work on irregular or undocumented migrants for legal recognition and rights expansion. International students unfortunately do not fit into the traditional categories of migrant citizenship, as they exist in a space between undocumented practices and established diasporas. This has resulted in contradictory portrayals of international students as both passive subjects and "activist citizens." Isin's (2009) concept of the activist citizen highlights that citizenship is not just about membership but also making claims. This blurs the boundaries between human rights and other rights, and activist citizens fight for rights across various sites and scales. As a result, international student-migrant-workers do not fit into the usual categories of legal membership, as they would variously belong

and move across categories of legal resident, illegal resident, temporary residence, permanent resident, and citizen.

Viewing international students as migrants emphasizes the variability and multiple trajectories of crossing borders to study (Waters and Brooks 2011). The exchange of educational policies and practices, and the emergence of educational institutions and networks is often linked to broader processes of globalization. There have been various studies that have examined the experiences and outcomes of international students, as well as policies and practices of sending and receiving countries in various contexts, including immigration. Terra Gargano (2008) claims that migration literature provides limited recognition of international student voices or educational border crossings from analytical perspective and proposes a discourse focused on cross border education beyond the national level.

International students encompass an identity as temporary migrants that transcends national borders and affiliations. Johanna Waters and Rachel Brooks use Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) conceptualization of 'capital' to identify forms of education and international students, can be represented as possessing cultural, social, or economic capital. Adopting a citizenship framework to understand student mobility brings attention to their identities and sense of belonging. It recognizes their desires for global citizenship and the value of knowledge transfer in a globalized world.

Tran and Hoang (2019) claim that for international students' citizenship can be particularly challenging, as they may be simultaneously citizens of their home country and residents of their host country. In this context, citizenship theories apply to international students in three key dimensions: legal, social, and cultural. The legal

dimension of citizenship refers to the formal rights and obligations conferred by the host country on international students. This includes access to education, healthcare, employment, and other services, as well as compliance with laws and regulations related to immigration, residency, and work.

International students may face legal barriers to accessing these rights and may also face discrimination or exclusion based on their legal status. The social dimension of citizenship refers to the informal rights and obligations that arise from social relationships and interactions within the host country. This includes the ability to participate in community activities, access social networks, and establish relationships with residents. International students may face social barriers to integration, such as language barriers, cultural differences, and prejudice or discrimination based on their nationality or ethnicity.

The cultural dimension of citizenship refers to the norms, values, and beliefs that underpin the political community in which international students are located. This includes the shared cultural heritage, history, and traditions of the host country, as well as the attitudes and behaviors that are expected of citizens. International students may struggle to navigate these cultural differences and may feel a sense of dislocation or alienation from their host community (Tran and Hoang 2019). This aims to promote inclusion, integration, and belonging for international students within their host communities, while also recognizing the challenges and barriers that they may face. Waters and Brooks (2011) state that countries and institutions have moved towards commercialization and marketization of learning due to neoliberal imperatives. The idea

of international education insinuates ‘big business’ as many educational institutions use agencies to recruit international students.

Immigration and citizenship as an analytical framework reveal multiple discourses, changing contexts, relationships, and international student mobility globally (Waters and Brooks 2011). Tran and Hoang (2019) discuss how citizenship for international students focuses on rights and belonging as international students are in a state of transnational mobility that constructs their legal, social, cultural, and economic status. This is because they have moved temporarily from their home country to the host country without the citizenship status of the host country; thus, subjected with restricted entitlements. Citizenship status affects the conditions of belonging as the sense of belonging/unbelonging to the host country impacts international students’ learning, wellbeing, career plan and life aspirations as well as more importantly in this context, the decision of acquiring secure citizenship of the host country.

It is important to note that international students and sense of belonging are interrelated, as they move and experience social and economic factors in the host country; however, existing literature has indicated that often international students are classified as second-class citizens, outsiders, or aliens (Tran and Hoang 2019). This impacts students’ perceptions of self and experiences of marginalization results in the host country. International students face exclusion and marginalization in various areas compared to domestic students. These include difficulties in accessing standard accommodation, employment opportunities, medical services, student loans, schooling for their children, and subsidized transportation. For instance, the Australian Human Rights Commission identifies several domains where international students experience disadvantages, such as

access to affordable, safe, and adequate housing, personal safety and security, physical and mental health services, fair and safe employment, and privacy.

Discrimination and exclusion are potential risks that international students face when dealing with the local community, migration agents, real estate agents, landlords, employers, and education providers. Such discrimination may be based on international students' non-citizenship status or temporary residency in the host country, as well as their race, culture, religion, language, or sex. In policy discourses, international students are viewed as economic and cultural subjects for host countries, and as valuable human capital for home countries. Despite these positive discourses, they are vulnerable due to a lack of coherent and coordinated mechanisms to protect their rights, entitlements, and wellbeing. International students' vulnerability is a result of temporarily settling in another country while moving away from their national citizenship and based in a transnational condition in the host country where the entitlements and protection of rights in the current place of residence are framed nationally. For this reason, the idea of acquiring citizenship status is viewed as the holy grail for international students that tend to settle in the host country, to receive protection of their rights, entitlements, and wellbeing as a citizen of the host country. Tran and Hoang (2019) express that there is a need to transfer from the nation-centered approach of addressing student mobility, particularly in the case of international students. Citizenship oversimplifies the interrelated aspect of this approach and precludes ways of student mobility and its intersection of various transnational logics of social and economic practices (Tran and Hoang 2019).

This study employs a citizenship framework to understand the incentives provided to international students in the context of higher education, comparing Canada and the UAE. Both countries have starkly different structures of citizenship and offer different incentives to attract international students. This study examines seeks to identify the discourses promoting international student mobility (Waters and Brooks 2011) in these vastly different national contexts, as international students enter new spaces and deal with the realities of their home and host countries.

Chapter 5: Methodology

For this study, I employ Critical Policy Discourse Analysis (CPDA) to identify discourses of incentivization for international students to study in Canada and the UAE from selected documents. This chapter will discuss an overview of my selected methodology and how it was applied to this study. Discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary field of study that examines how language is used to construct meaning in social contexts. It is a way of analyzing communication beyond the sentence level and involves identifying patterns of language use (Lupton 1992). In this study, it was useful to reveal social and cultural incentives to international students. Some key concepts and methods used in discourse analysis include identifying discourse markers, analyzing transcriptions of spoken language, and examining the use of figures of speech (Lupton 1992).

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) adopts a problem-driven approach that involves an internal relationship between explanation, critique, and normative evaluation (Montessori et al. 2019). Like other forms of discourse analysis, its purpose is to identify how language contributes to the production and reinforcement of specific social practices and ways of thinking, while also investigating how language plays a role in shaping social issues and facilitating social change (Montessori et al. 2019). CDA emerged from the field of linguistics and encompasses different analytical models and research goals (Montessori et al. 2019). Overall, it highlights that critique should focus on the problems that people face and suggests that critique is like practical engagement with social problems, as it involves questioning the way problems are formulated (Montessori et al.

2019). CDA is its examination of how language functions as a cultural tool, shaping power dynamics in social interactions, institutions, and knowledge domains. Notable works by Bourdieu (1977), Davies and Harre (1990), Gee (1999), and Luke (1995/1996) exemplify this focus on language's role in mediating these relationships. However, Rogers et al (2005) critiques that CDA doesn't adequately consider ethnographic context despite that it includes linguistic analysis, they often failed to explain why specific aspects of the texts were chosen for analysis. This criticism revolves around the observation that CDA analyses often rely on decontextualized texts such as speeches, policy documents, or talk excerpts, lacking a deeper understanding of the interactive data within a broader framework of interactions (Rogers et al 2005). Bucholtz (2001) argues against imposing stricter methodological guidelines on CDA, as she believes that overly rigorous approaches could distance researchers from recognizing the process of constructing their discourse analysis. Instead, she advocates for researchers to closely consider the specific conditions that shape people's lives and to make their role as researchers more evident. A journal article on the review of CDA in education published by the American Review of Education Research concurs with Bucholtz (2001) views that establishing a formalized set of methodological criteria for CDA will not eliminate criticisms of the theory and method. CDA is inherently a blend of various theories and methodologies, and its strength lies in its ability to adapt and respond to ever-changing conditions. If CDA, as a theory and method, aims to address the current critiques and advance further, researchers should consider the following aspects: (a) establishing links between the micro and macro levels, (b) providing explanations for why certain linguistic resources are chosen for analysis while excluding others, and (c) presenting clear analytic

procedures that outline the decision-making process of the researcher. (Rogers et al. 2005). In the context of CDA for education studies, Tamatea, Hardy, & Ninnes, (2008) prove CDA to be a valuable approach for educational researchers investigating the interplay between educational practices and their surrounding social contexts. As well as to explore various connections, such as the linkages between teaching, learning, and curricula, the evolution of students' identities across different timeframes and contexts (Mullet 2018).

Fairclough (1992) has acknowledged that CDA must combine the analysis of actual interactional situations with the analysis of fundamental patterns. Researchers should shift their attention between examining specific texts to examine the transformation of larger discourse systems (Fairclough 2013). The application of CDA for this study would provide insights into policies that capture the incentivization of international students who intend to study in Canada and the UAE. In this study, the principles of CDA are used to analyze arguments in documents related to promoting Canadian and UAE programs to international students by examining the text and subtext of promotional materials to uncover the discursive motives provided to international students to shape their choice of study destination.

Given the policy focus of the study, CPDA is useful to capture the language used to attract and persuade international students to study in Canada or the UAE. Policy discourse analysis is useful to trace the use and effect of linguistic terms using keywords as policy indicators and descriptors, as well as identifying motivations for governments. It would also examine the framing of narratives of information that convey plausibility

and identify implicit and explicit elements implicitly of a policy narrative or identified paradigm (Gasper and Apthorpe 1996).

Within policy discourses, Gasper and Apthorpe (1996) mention three perspectives: analytical discourse, critical discourse, and persuasive discourse. Analytical discourse provides a clearer view of the research issue or case by employing an interchange between multiple approaches. Critical discourse emphasizes and identifies structural biases in policy processes while persuasive discourse studies the role of ideas in policy change. This study seeks to uncover persuasive discourse to see how governments invite international students as a response to policy directives, such as the enhancing national competitiveness in the global industry of the internationalization of education and addressing labor shortages. The use of CPDA reveals the policy argumentation applied to inform shifts in policy, compilations of possible fallacies in arguments, and illustrations of stylistics devices (Gasper and Apthorpe 1996). Policy discourse analysis places great importance on the ways in which meanings are constructed and conveyed in the creation, execution, and understanding of policy. Persuasive policy discourse analysis was chosen to highlight and interpret how policies related to international students is understood, developed, and implemented by the federal governments in Canada and the UAE. In this study, I aim to reveal the incentives for international students and persuasive policy discourse analysis is the appropriate lens to use (Montessori et al. 2019).

5.1 Selection Relevant Policy Documents and Justification

The focus of the study is on national policy discourses surrounding international students in Canada and the UAE; therefore, documents were selected based on this content and targeted audience. Specifically, to conduct persuasive policy discourse analysis, I selected documents that include promotional language to attract international students to study in Canada and the UAE. The selected documents were written, created, and issued by the federal governments in each context for international students. Additionally, I analyzed posters from third party recruitment agencies promoting government programs, since national promotional documents from the UAE were limited and the government relied on such third parties for promotion. In Canada, IRCC circulates almost all governmental promotion.

These documents were analyzed on a comparative basis for primary discourses or discursive shifts in how international students were incentivized to choose Canada or the UAE as a study destination. Canadian documents included outreach materials emphasizing temporary to permanent residence pathways in Canada. Most documents are available online and incentives include citizenship and career prospects with little emphasis on education. Details are provided in the table below including thematic codes as collected in NVivo.

Table 1. Results of Data Analysis

Title	Date	Country	Type	Link	No. of pgs.	Themes	No. of Codes	Thematic Codes
1.GAC Poster 1	NA	Canada	Poster	GAC Poster 1	1	Citizenship pathway	5	Opportunities Stay Work Explore Study
GAC Poster 2	NA	Canada	Poster	GAC Poster 2	1	Citizenship pathway	5	Opportunities Stay Work Explore Study
GAC Poster 3	NA	Canada	Poster	GAC Poster 3	1	Citizenship pathway	5	Opportunities Stay Work Explore Study
GAC Poster 4	NA	Canada	Poster	GAC Poster 4	1	Citizenship pathway	5	Opportunities Stay Work Explore Study
GAC Poster 5	NA	Canada	Poster	GAC Poster 5	1	Citizenship pathway	6	Post-Graduation Work Work Partner Work Temporary Worker Work Experience Study Permit
1.CAN IES	2019	Canada	Website	CAN IES	12	Citizenship pathway; economic and employment incentive	229	Work Market Residency Funding Export Training Services Skills Opportunity
2.EduCanada	NA	Canada	Website	EduCanada	3	Citizenship pathway; economic and employment incentive	9	Artificial Intelligence French Study
3.UAE third party org 1	2022	UAE	Online Promotion	UAE third party 1	15	Economic incentive	13	Research Programs Student Life in Universities Shopping in UAE
4.UAE third party org 2	2021	UAE	Online Promotion	UAE third party 2	9	Economic incentive	47	Perfect Study Tuition Fees Opportunities Popular

								Countries
5.UAE IES	2017	UAE	Website	<u>UAE IES</u>	6	Economic and employment incentive	56	Tuition Rates Research Educational Centers Training
6.UAE Int Students	NA	UAE	Website	<u>UAE Ministry of Foreign Affairs</u>	6	Economic incentive	7	Creative Majors Elite Majors University Experience Global Universities
7.UAE Embassy	NA	UAE	Online website	<u>UAE Embassy</u>	1	Economic incentive	16	Diverse Institutions Quality Education Accredited Programs Education Community Licensed Institutions

1. Canada international education strategy (2019-2024). The strategy, led by the federal government of Canada, aims to attract students from around the world to communities across Canada where they can enroll in a wide variety of schools and programs at all educational level.

2. EduCanada information page on studying in Canada for international students. EduCanada is the official Government of Canada source about studying in Canada for international students and researchers.

3. RocApply promoted content to recruit international students to UAE. RocApply is a third-party recruitment agency that enables students to search, find and apply to universities all within one platform.

4. Educations. com promoted content to recruit international students to UAE. Educations.com is a third-party recruitment agency that provides students comprehensive information for education program.

5. UAE international education strategy (2010-2020). The strategy sets out to build and achieve the highest scientific and professional education standards to serve the UAE's future generations.

6. Promoted content issued by the UAE government on its education opportunities. The UAE ministry of foreign affairs has a section dedicated to sharing its educational opportunities for students.

7.UAE promoted content to study in the UAE, issued at one of its embassies, located in Washington, America.

5.2 Data Analysis

In terms of sources of the data, the volume of data for Canadian documents exceeded UAE documents based on the number of pages per document. For this reason, third party organizations were selected to supplement the UAE documents. For example, in comparison Canada's International Education Strategy document consist of 12 pages, whereas UAE's International Education Strategy consist of 6 pages.

As for the emergence based on this analysis, I decided to develop key words that will assist in identifying codes during the analysis process. I sought to extract key information from the documents to determine incentives for international students and used NVivo software tool to assist with categorization and data extraction. Primarily, I sought to critically interpret promotional documents for incentives provided to international students by the federal governments of Canada and the UAE. Based on the existing literature, I selected some key words to initiate coding, including citizen(ship), jobs, careers, education, pathways, etc. In the first round of coding, I used the auto code function to sort using these pre-determined key words. In this initial coding round, the following common codes were derived from the Canadian documents: opportunities, stay, work, explore, study. For the UAE documents these common codes were derived: education, diverse institutions, programs, elite and creative majors. However, this function did not yield any results for two of the vital documents, posters issued by Global Affairs for Canada and UAE's education strategy 2010-2020. The second round of coding involved a close reading of each document along with visuals. The following codes were derived from Canadian documents for this second round of coding: opportunities, stay, work, explore, study. As for the UAE documents, these codes were

derived from the second round of coding: tuition rates, research, educational centers, training. After the second round of coding, these codes were grouped in table 1 and were comparatively analyzed between Canada and UAE documents.

Thematic codes identified in figure 5 through cluster coding compared auto generated codes with the background information on international education established in previous chapters, as well as the theoretical frame. Anomalies or out-of-context codes were deleted to identify the thematic codes listed in the table above. This form of cluster coding revealed that international students were incentivized to make Canada their destination based on the reputation of its tertiary institutions and pathways to permanence whereas the UAE sought to attract international students by advertising their satellite campuses of reputable North American, European, and Australian universities. The latter also advertised the proximity to the booming markets in the Middle East and Asia and the UAE as an innovative hub. In the next chapter, I will discuss these thematic codes in relation to the literature on the internationalization of education and international students. The codes reveal that Canada emphasizes long-term residency and citizenship to persuade international students while the UAE boosts its educational opportunities, such as training, licensed institutions, education community, quality, and diverse education.

Chapter 6: Comparing Promotion and Incentivization for International Students in Canada and the UAE

In this chapter, I present key findings from the persuasive policy discourse analysis of select documents related to international students developed and implemented by the federal governments in Canada and the UAE. The analysis uses a comparative lens to investigate the strategies to attract, recruit, and retain international students and unravel the multifaceted dimensions of incentivization employed by Canada and the UAE. The analysis is exploratory and seeks to understand the evolving landscape of international education and its implications for both students and receiving countries alike.

6.1 Policy Motives to Incentivize International Students to Choose Canada and the UAE

In this section, I highlight the different motives to incentivize international students to choose Canada or the UAE as their study destination. In Canada, international students play a key role in addressing ongoing labor shortages by creating pathways for long term residence and citizenship, whereas the UAE emphasizes international students' role in enhancing the country's reputation as innovative and globally competitive. Canada recruits international students to contribute to the economy as students, workers, and citizens, while the UAE promotes its satellite campuses and opportunities for a globally recognized educational experience. The UAE does promote the importance of international students for building a strong and competitive labor force but due to the absence of pathways for citizenship it focuses incentivization on providing high-quality

education that prepares students for the global job market and enhances their international mobility.

By offering a wide range of accredited programs and qualifications, the UAE aims to equip its students with the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in the global labor market. The education system in the UAE often integrates practical training, industry partnerships, and internships with the aim of providing students with real-world experience and enhancing their global employability. Graduates from UAE institutions gain access to a network of alumni, industry connections, and international opportunities that can open doors to diverse career paths around the world. The international recognition and reputation of these educational institutions further enhances the credentials of UAE graduates and increases their chances of success in the global job market. Additionally, the UAE's strategic location as a hub for business, trade, and innovation attracts multinational companies and creates a favorable environment for professional opportunities. International students studying in the UAE benefit from exposure to diverse industries, networking opportunities, and the chance to gain practical experience in a dynamic and multicultural setting. This positions them well for future career prospects in the UAE and beyond.

Canada has emerged as a strong contender in international student mobility due to its inclusive immigration policies for international students. The emphasis on pathways to permanent residency and eventual citizenship positions Canada as an attractive destination for individuals seeking long-term settlement and the benefits of being a Canadian citizen. The Canadian government recognizes the value of international students not only for their economic contributions but also for their potential to enrich the

social fabric of the country, as reflected in the below excerpt from Canada International Education strategy.

As a trading nation, Canada must continually expand and diversify not only its customer base, but also its roster of potential exporters. This requires securing markets, as well as encouraging and enabling new exporters. The new Strategy contributes to these goals by increasing the diversity of inbound student populations, skill sets and programs, and by fostering people-to-people ties and international networks. This will help build labour markets, spur economic development in target regions and industries, and support diversity at Canada's educational institutions (CAN IES).

Conversely, the UAE takes a different approach. While the UAE is a new player in international student mobility and the internationalization of education, it has strategically positioned itself as a global hub for higher education. The presence of satellite campuses of well-known international universities, such as New York University and Paris Sorbonne University, indicates the UAE's focus on providing a diverse and internationally recognized educational experience. The emphasis is on offering students access to globally recognized qualifications and making them globally competitive, catering to motivations and priorities for international students seeking educational opportunities outside of citizenship.

In comparing the policy motivations for international students, it is important to separate immigration-related policies and education-focused initiatives. In Canada, there is a clear emphasis on immigration-related policies that tie international students to the country, while in the UAE, the focus is more on educational exchange programs and government initiatives that promote cultural diversity and international collaboration, as per the below excerpt from a third-party recruitment organization in the UAE.

The UAE is definitely a cosmopolitan society with a fast-rising economy that is envied around the world, and as such, the country presents a very wide range of opportunities for career advancement. Education is favorably less expensive in the UAE when compared with many other countries. UAE provides affordable education with one of the best quality in the world (UAE Third Party 2).

The UAE discourse focuses on internationalization of education and cultural exchange, but like Canada, international students are perceived as contributing to the country's economic and social fabric during their studies. The UAE advertises its innovative hub, cosmopolitan city, and its reputation as a luxury trade hub. Advertisements and campaigns highlight the modern infrastructure, state-of-the-art facilities, and global connectivity of educational institutions in the UAE, as described in the below excerpt from a third-party recruitment organization.

The UAE is also fast competing with many developed societies; attributing their rapid development to their open policy to foreigners. Way beyond all the many towers, the beautiful architecture that ubiquitous, and the luxurious landscapes, is a country that pushes the borders when it comes to education and learning. They have mapped out one of the best policies towards global impact. They have partnered with many top-tier universities to open campuses and work with the government to provide quality educational facilities. Presently, the UAE is fast transforming its educational system with the goal of being one of the world's foremost and most sought after facilitators of global education in only but a few years (UAE third party 2).

While the UAE's marketing narrative promotes a dynamic and forward-thinking educational environment for international students, Canada faces challenges to maintaining the integrity of its programs (Kahlon 2021). While Canada boasts its trusted institutions, the pressure on uncapped enrollment systems and the rapid growth of international student populations can pose challenges. The increasing demand for

education among international students has led to a capped system, where some programs and institutions face limitations on the number of students they can admit. This can create competition and potential challenges in terms of ensuring quality education and maintaining the integrity of programs. The Canadian government has implemented various programs and policies that provide opportunities for international students to transition from temporary status to permanent residency. This talent-focused approach recognizes the value of international students as potential contributors to Canada's workforce and society. However, managing the transition and ensuring a fair and efficient process can be challenging, given the complexities of immigration policies and the diverse backgrounds and goals of international students.

Overall, the UAE's narrative as an innovative hub and cosmopolitan city in its advertisements for education adds to its appeal as a destination for international students while Canada's pathways from temporary residency to permanent residency for international students are viewed as incentives for international students. These factors contribute to the unique dynamics and considerations in the education systems of both countries.

6.2 The Differential Role of Citizenship in Attracting International Students

The previous section discussed the different policy motivations for attracting international students in Canada and the UAE, which has different implications for the students and governments alike. In this section, I focus on the close link between these motivations and the distinct immigration and citizenship frameworks of the two countries. In Canada, the term international student typically refers to individuals who are

studying in Canada on a study permit, regardless of their citizenship or nationality. This definition encompasses students who come to Canada specifically for the purpose of pursuing their education and requires them to obtain study permits to legally study in the country. The focus is primarily on individuals who are not Canadian citizens or permanent residents as opposed to domestic students (Canadian citizens and permanent residents).

Canada's immigration system can be intricate and has various programs and pathways to permanent residency and eventually citizenship, such as the Express Entry (EE), the Study Direct Stream (SDS), and Provincial Nominee Programs (PNPs). International students in Canada can transition from their temporary status as holders of study permits to permanent status and eventually Canadian citizenship through specific streams under EE like the Canadian Experience Class (CEC). The immigration framework in Canada recognizes the potential of international students to contribute to the country's labor market and society in the long term, and it provides incentives and pathways for them to settle permanently (Cudmore 2005).

In the UAE, the definition of international student differs to some extent. While the term can include students who are studying in the country on student visas, the UAE further distinguishes between locals (Emiratis), expatriates, and outsiders (students abroad) within its education system. Emiratis, as citizens of the UAE, are not considered international students in the traditional sense (Baubock 2011); however, they are an integral part of the international education landscape in the UAE, benefiting from the diverse educational opportunities and global collaborations.

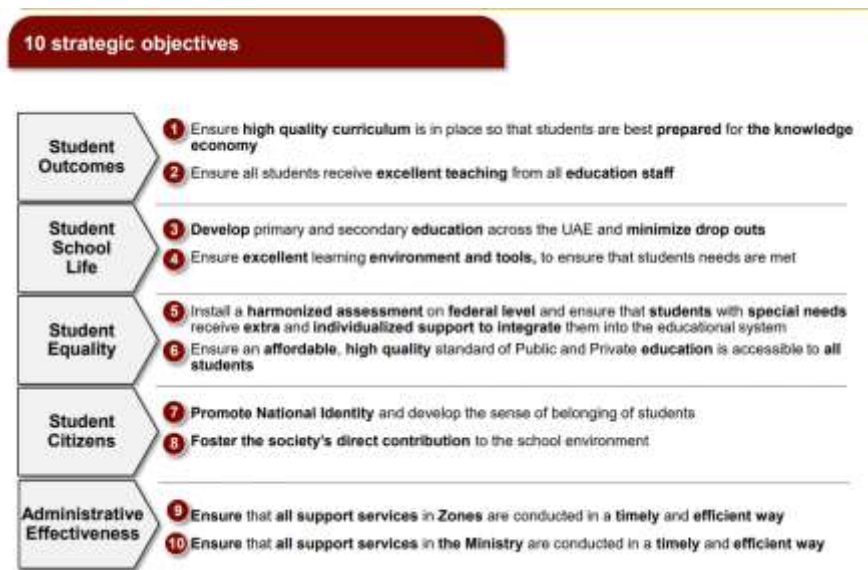
The citizenship framework in the UAE is characterized by limited naturalization options (Ouhemmou and Moumine 2020). UAE citizenship is not understood purely political or juridical; it relies on a complex web of social categories. Visas constitute a temporary right of residence to non-Emiratis who can enjoy social but not juridical citizenship aspects. There have been changes to migration legislation due to factors such as post-oil generation, Western modernity, and quasi-citizenship of strong diaspora communities in the UAE (Jamal 2015). While the UAE has strict laws regarding citizenship for non-Emiratis, international students contribute to the educational, cultural, and economic aspects of the country during their time of study. For these reasons, the UAE emphasizes fostering multiculturalism and preparing students for global engagement when recruiting international students rather than a direct pathway to citizenship.

On the contrary, in Canada, the emphasis is on labor shortages and the potential for citizenship. To meet these policy objectives, Canada employs a Comprehensive Ranking System (CRS)⁵ to rank immigration candidates to issue Invitations to Apply⁶ through EE. The ranking system prioritizes the skills and qualifications of individuals seeking permanent residency and therefore creates opportunities for international students to stay and eventually apply for citizenship if they can demonstrate that their education and skills are in demand by employers and the Canadian government.

⁵ The CRS is a points-based system that we use to assess and score your profile and rank it in the Express Entry pool. It is used to assess your: skills. education. language ability (Government of Canada 2023).

⁶ To support the economic goals identified by the federal government of Canada, rounds of invitations for specific categories of eligible Express Entry candidates were introduced. Candidates are ranked in a pool using CRS and different type of invitations are to apply are sent depending on the rank of the candidate and the specific economic goal set by the federal government (Government of Canada 2023).

In the UAE, international students are often seen as fulfilling the country's human capital needs as foreign workers, while in Canada, the incentivization strategies emphasize the potential to immigrate and contribute to the economy and society. The UAE has been investing heavily in education and aims to develop a highly skilled expatriate workforce to support its growing economy and diversify its sectors. By attracting international students to study in the UAE with prestigious international education partnerships and satellite campuses, the government can tap into an existing pool of foreign talent to meet its human capital needs (UAE Ministry), as stated in UAE's Education Strategy shown in the figure below.



Ministry of Education - United Arab Emirates. (2017). UAE Ministry of Education strategy 2017-2021. Retrieved from <https://www.moe.gov.ae/Arabic/Docs/MOE%20Strategy.pdf>

On the other hand, Canada actively promotes its immigration pathways to international students and is motivated to recognize the potential of international students to contribute to its economy and society in the long run. The aim is to retain talented individuals who have acquired Canadian education, work experience, and language

proficiency, as they are viewed as valuable contributors to the country's economic growth and cultural diversity. This is broadly reflected in excerpt below from Canada's International Education Strategy:

Encourage Canadian students to gain new skills through study and work abroad opportunities in key global markets, especially Asia. Diversify the countries from which international students come to Canada, as well as their fields, levels of study, and location of study within Canada. Increase support for Canadian education sector institutions to help grow their export services and explore new opportunities abroad (CAN IES).

While the UAE and Canada benefit from the presence of international students, the UAE views international students as foreign talent that can address their human capital needs and support economic development. In contrast, Canada views international students as potential future citizens who can contribute to its workforce and society. The Canadian documents reviewed frequently mentioned possibilities for international students to transition to long term residency citizenship. Some of the relevant codes are export, services, skills, stay, work, temporary work, post-graduation work, training, opportunities, and market. "Export" in this case refers to the exporting of workers to Canada's economy and labor markets. In the UAE context, most codes refer to educational opportunities, in particular research, accredited programs, global universities, quality education, diverse institutions, educational community, student life, perfect study, and creative and elite majors.

An example of Canada's focus on permanent residency and citizenship to attract international students is evident in GAC Posters 1-5, which use terms such as "work" and "stay." (GAC Poster 1).



Government of Canada. (n.d.). Promotional materials. Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/study-canada/educational-institutions/promotional-materials.html>

The ability to eventually settle down and establish a life in Canada is a major incentive for many international students, as it provides them with long-term stability and opportunities for career growth, as per the below excerpts.

Today's global economy is changing rapidly and increasingly, employers are seeking new skills to meet these challenges. Post-secondary education is vital for Canada's success as an innovative nation, and the need for global competencies, skills and networks has never been more important (CAN IES).

The new International Education Strategy builds on the attributes that make Canada a powerhouse in international education: strong schools and programs of study in both English and French; peaceful, welcoming and diverse communities; an enviable quality of life; opportunities to work and start careers; and pathways to permanent residency (CAN IES).

UAE campaigns to attract and incentivize international students focus on its location as a cosmopolitan hub and its variety of accredited institutions as portrayed in the excerpt below:

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is home to a wide range of universities, both public and private. The UAE has established an excellent and diversified system of higher education in a very short period of time. The Ministry of Education established the Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA) to conduct a program of licensure of

institutions of higher education and accreditation of each of their academic programs (UAE Embassy).

In Chapter 2, I introduced the significance of satellite campuses to the internationalization of education in the UAE, including New York University (NYU) and Paris Sorbonne University. These very same institutions are called upon to add to UAE's appeal to international students. The UAE emphasizes its strategic location at the crossroads of Asia, Europe, and Africa, which it believes makes it an ideal base for students looking to explore the region and its diverse cultures as described by UAE Third Party 1 in the below excerpt.

The UAE has a very contrasting society where their foundational cultural paths meet with a post-modern world that welcomes a more international perspective. The UAE is also fast-competing with many developed societies; attributing their rapid development to their open policy to foreigners (UAE third party 1)

Canada and the UAE offer vastly different attractions for international students. Canada promotes its immigration policy and economic opportunities for those seeking long-term stability and career prospects (Government of Canada 2023). To compete with such promises of citizenship, the UAE implemented other initiatives to attract and retain international talent, such as the UAE Golden Visa program. This is a long-term residence visa that allows foreign students to live, work, or study in the UAE through exclusive benefits such as, a six-month multiple entry visa while waiting for a renewable residence visa valid for 5 or 10 years. Additionally, visa holders do not require a sponsor, can stay outside the UAE for more than six months without losing status, can sponsor family members regardless of age, sponsor an unlimited number of domestic helpers, and has a

provision that for family members to stay in the UAE until the end of their permit duration if the primary holder of the Golden visa passes away (UAE Government 2023). Overall, this program grants long-term residency to certain categories of professionals, including students, investors, entrepreneurs, and talented individuals in various fields (Government of United Arab Emirates 2023).

The citizenship frameworks in Canada and the UAE plays a significant role in shaping the promotion of their educational opportunities to prospective international students. Canada's immigration possibilities are a key pull factor while the UAE emphasizes its location, accredited institutions, and alternative pathways to long-term residency through programs like the UAE Golden Visa (Government of United Arab Emirates 2023).

6.3 Different Role of Work Opportunities in Attracting International Students

It is clear from the discussion above that international students are viewed as valued members of the economy and society due to the skills and education acquired in the destination countries. Consequently, migration policies have been adjusted over the past decade to specifically attract student migrants. Despite their importance in global mobility, international students are the least explored group among the major categories of migrants. Russell King and Parvati Raghuram (2022) explored the different interpretations of 'international' and 'student' to understand their diverse experience. In the context of US and UK, King and Raghuram (2022) iterate that their lives are shaped by two policy aspects: an educational policy that responds to the financial and academic desirability of attracting international students and an immigration policy that has

increased public pressures to curtail inward student migration. International students are faced with two contradictory public policy discourses (King and Raghuram 2022).

In Canada, international students contribute to financial gains through their fees and ancillary expenses, viewed as ‘cash cows’ (Waters 2006), while also struggling with financial vulnerability, debt, leaving them susceptible to exploitation and fraud (including recruiters). The government has implemented various policies and programs that encourage international students to stay and eventually become permanent residents. These policies provide international students with opportunities to gain work experience and apply for permanent residency.

Due in part to the aging of Canada’s population, immigration will increasingly drive net workforce growth. Within the next decade, for instance, immigration is projected to account for 100% of net growth in the workforce, up from 75% today. International students make excellent candidates for permanent residency: they are relatively young, proficient in at least one official language, have Canadian educational qualifications, and can help address this country’s current and pending labour market needs, particularly for highly skilled workers. Given these advantages, it is not surprising that 53,700 international students became permanent residents of Canada in 2018, contributing as productive and valued members of Canadian society (CAN IES).

Work experience is presented as a privilege and opportunity. As international students progress in their studies, they become eligible for the Post-Graduation Work Permit (PGWP), which allows them to gain work experience in Canada after completing their programs. The PGWP provides international students with the opportunity to apply the skills and knowledge they have acquired during their studies to a Canadian work environment. This work experience not only enhances their employability but also serves as a pathway towards qualifying for permanent residency through programs like the Canadian Experience Class (CEC) within the express entry system.

The limited work opportunities at the beginning of their studies and the subsequent availability of off-campus work and PGWPs aim to strike a balance between maintaining the educational focus of international students and providing them with valuable work experience opportunities. The goal is to retain the talent and skills of international students within the Canadian workforce. This approach demonstrates the strong connection between immigration and international education policies in Canada, with the aim of attracting and integrating international students as future citizens (Government of Canada 2023). But work experience can become a significant barrier for international students' immigration aspirations. They have limited opportunities to work off-campus while studying intended to ensure the integrity of their educational experience. In addition, due to high tuition fees, international students particularly from India, as identified from One Voice Canada's report on challenges for international students, resort to working illegally beyond the 20-hour requirement due to their financial burdens, thus jeopardizing their migration future (Kahlon 2021).

The strategic location of the UAE provides access to a thriving regional economy and offers opportunities for internships, networking, and career advancement. Additionally, the presence of satellite campuses of renowned international universities further enhances the appeal of studying in the UAE. These campuses provide students with access to high-quality education, globally recognized qualifications, and the opportunity to experience a multicultural learning environment. This can be viewed through UAE Third Party 1 document below:

The UAE is fast becoming a study abroad country for students from around the world. The country is home to the critically acclaimed universities in the middle east. More and more foreign students are beginning to utilize the opportunity of a new experience in a beautiful

country, but also the chance to gain quality education and training. Although the UAE is a modern country built to its standards over the last few years, the people, culture, and education have been one of huge significance to the country's growth (UAE third party 1).

Furthermore, both Canada and the UAE often provide scholarships and financial aid opportunities to international students. These incentives can help reduce the financial burden of studying abroad and make education more accessible and affordable.

6.4 Role of Third-Party Recruitment and Consultancies

Government efforts are often supported by various third parties when recruiting international students. The Canadian government and institutions can work with immigration consultancies to advertise information on the pathway to permanent residency for international students. In the UAE, recruitment agencies promote educational institutions. For example, JP Immigration Consulting in Canada has prepared a set of guidelines and a table of suitable programs aimed at international students (see Figure 6, JP Immigration 2021).

Figure 6. JP Immigration Consulting, Canada



Figure 6 JP Immigration. (2021). Permanent Residency in Canada for International Students. JP Immigration. <https://jpimmigration.com/study-canada/permanent-residency-canada-international-students/>

Immigration consultancies⁷ therefore play a significant role in assisting individuals who are interested in studying or immigrating to Canada. These consultancies provide guidance and support throughout the immigration process, helping individuals navigate the complex legal requirements, paperwork, and procedures involved, including assisting with document preparation, application submission, and providing guidance on meeting the eligibility criteria. Canadian immigration consultancies have emerged as a crucial resource for international students and prospective immigrants since they can provide personalized advice based on an individual's circumstances. These consultancies often have licensed immigration consultants who are knowledgeable about the latest immigration policies and can provide accurate and up-to-date information (JP Immigration 2021).

Similarly, in the UAE, consultancies play a vital role in assisting individuals who wish to study in the country. These consultancies assist clients with applying to education institutions in the UAE, support in the visa process, accommodation, and flights. Additionally, they also provide information on shopping in the UAE, student lifestyle, UAE's fast-growing economy, and tourist information. For example, ROC Apply is a consultancy in the UAE and provides exclusive educational support (ROC Apply 2022), as opposed to immigration consultancies in Canada like JP Immigration Consultancy that support international students' immigration aspirations. The UAE has specific visa regulations and requirements for students, professionals, and business individuals. UAE's educational consultancies help navigate these requirements ensuring that individuals have

⁷ Immigration consultancies, consist of consultants that assist clients with navigating the immigration system and to advise individuals, employers, and organizations on immigration-related matters as well as to ensure all requirements of immigration applications are met (Government of Canada 2022).

the necessary documentation, meet the visa criteria, and submit their applications correctly. They can also provide guidance on sponsorship, residency permits, and other related matters.

The emergence of such consultancies in Canada and the UAE is driven by the complexity and evolving nature of immigration and educational policies. These consultancies fill a significant gap by offering expertise, streamlining the application process, and reducing the stress and uncertainty for individuals seeking to study or immigrate. However, it is important to note that individuals should exercise caution and choose reputable and licensed consultancies to ensure the integrity and legality of the immigration process. Overall, consultancies play a valuable role in supporting individuals who aspire to study or immigrate to Canada and the UAE. They offer specialized knowledge, expertise, and assistance, making the immigration process more accessible and manageable for those seeking to pursue educational or career opportunities in these countries (UAE Third Party 2).

In summary, I have shown that while the specific incentivization components may differ, both Canada and the UAE strive to attract international students by offering various benefits and opportunities. Canada emphasizes work opportunities and the potential for permanent residency and citizenship, while the UAE highlights its strategic location, reputable educational institutions, the chance to engage with a diverse and vibrant regional economy, and the opportunity to seek a golden visa as the next best alternative to citizenship. International students have different motivations, while in Canada it is aligned with citizenship building, in the UAE it is financial incentives and restrictive but long-term residency.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The comparison of Canada and the UAE reveals distinct discourses and approaches to international education and immigration in the context of international student recruitment. The citizenship framework provides an intriguing perspective for understanding the motivations and decisions of international students, particularly in relation to their desire to stay and contribute to the host country. While previous studies have primarily focused on students' motivations for studying abroad, the citizenship framework provides insights into governmental discourses and shifts the focus from motivations to study towards an examination of long-term migration, career, and residency aspirations of international students. The citizenship framework permits researchers to explore the factors that influence international students' decisions to pursue education in a particular country rather than focus on the institution. Moreover, it allows for a deeper analysis of how immigration policies, pathways to citizenship, and the labor market impact international students' choices and aspirations.

Understanding the significance of the citizenship framework offers valuable insights into the complex relationship between international education, immigration, and the labor force. It sheds light on the ways in which countries like Canada and the UAE utilize immigration policies to attract international students who possess the skills and qualifications needed to contribute to the local labor market and society. Furthermore, it opens avenues for research on the experiences and challenges faced by international students in navigating immigration systems and integrating into the host society. It allows for the examination of the impact of immigration policies on international students' sense

of belonging, identity formation, and social integration, as well as the support systems and resources available to facilitate their transition and settlement. The citizenship framework offers a theoretical lens that extends beyond traditional student motivations and provides a comprehensive understanding of international students' intentions to study and stay in a host country. It adds depth and context to research on international education by considering the immigration and citizenship dimensions, highlighting the intricate interplay between education, immigration policies, and long-term aspirations for international students.

Canada's emphasis on citizenship pathways and its labor-focused immigration policies position international students as potential contributors to the Canadian workforce and society. In contrast, the UAE's focus on international education as a means of building human capital and global connections highlights its commitment to fostering a diverse and globally competitive educational landscape. Furthermore, the UAE's strategic marketing as an innovative hub and cosmopolitan city adds to its appeal as a desirable destination for international students. This contrasts with the challenges Canada faces related to program integrity and managing the transition from temporary residency to permanent residency for international students.

In both countries, immigration consultancies have emerged as essential resources, assisting individuals in navigating the complex immigration processes and requirements. These consultancies provide expert guidance and support, helping students and immigrants understand the policies, complete the necessary paperwork, and increase their chances of a successful application. However, it has also been noted that they can pose important concerns such as fraud and exploitation of international students, especially

from consultants and private agents. For example, Alpha College in Brampton, Ontario was increasingly relying on international students as a source of revenue. This is one of many private career colleges that charge higher tuition fees to international students compared to domestic students, attracting many foreign students who aspire to obtain permanent residency in Canada. These colleges rely on recruiters in India who earn a commission for enrolling students in Canadian colleges; they can sometimes use misleading information about education and opportunities in Canada. After Alpha College suspended enrolments, dozens of international students from India were left in limbo. Some students accused of using forged documents to get into Canada claim they were defrauded by bogus recruitment consultancies and now may face deportation. Concerns have also been raised about colleges surpassing enrolment limits, making false claims about visas, and the prevalence of low-paying jobs for international students after graduation. Ontario's Ministry of Colleges and Universities and the federal government have expressed concerns about the exploitation of international students and the necessity of stricter regulations to safeguard their interests (Aulakh et al. 2022).

Ultimately, the dynamics of international education and immigration are shaped by various factors, including citizenship frameworks, marketing narratives, program integrity concerns, and the role of immigration consultancies. Understanding these factors is crucial for individuals considering studying or immigrating to Canada or the UAE, as it allows them to make informed decisions and navigate the complexities of the immigration process more effectively. In Canada, there is a need for more research to explore the evolving directions of government policies regarding immigration pathways for international students. While the current discourse highlights the government's use of

immigration pathways to attract and retain international students, it is essential to examine to what extent the reality of international students aligns with the intended policy objectives and long-term outcomes. Additional research could delve into the effectiveness of immigration policies in terms of achieving their intended goals, which includes evaluating the success of immigration pathways intended for international students. Understanding the factors that contribute to successful transitions, as well as identifying any barriers or challenges faced by international students, can inform policy adjustments and improvements. Furthermore, it would be valuable to investigate the impact of immigration policies on the overall education landscape and the integration of international students into local communities. Assessing the social and cultural aspects, as well as the economic contributions of international students, can provide insights into the broader benefits and challenges associated with immigration-focused approaches.

UAE's focus on establishing satellite campuses further emphasizes institutional collaborations intended to provide students with a more choice of educational opportunities and attract a diverse pool of international students. In addition, encouraging interactions between local and international students can lead to a deeper understanding and appreciation of different cultures, enriching the overall educational experience and importance of including international students as key members of society and potentially long-term residents. As compared to Canada, the UAE's promotional materials are quite limited; therefore, an increase in promotional materials towards international students from the government of UAE would provide incentivization to international students as well as expatriate students to remain in the UAE. Further initiatives and promotional materials on pathways from student to resident or Golden Visa holder would increase

incentives for international students to study in the UAE. However, given the challenges for international branch campuses and lack of long-term residency pathways offered by UAE, encouraging more students may not be sustainable for the UAE as an educational hub.

Finally, this thesis is exploratory but establishes the importance for exploring further the experiences and perspectives of international students themselves. Research that captures the voices and narratives of international students can shed light on their motivations, expectations, and experiences throughout their educational journey and immigration process. This can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing international student decision-making, their interactions with immigration policies, and their contributions to the host country. By conducting further analysis and research, all stakeholders can gain deeper insights into the complex interplay between immigration policies, international education, and the outcomes for both international students and the host countries. This understanding can inform the development of more effective and holistic policies that consider the diverse needs and aspirations of international students while also aligning with the broader goals of education, integration, and societal development.

Appendices

Appendix A: Educational Associations in Canada

Association Name	Description
Association of Atlantic Universities (AAU)	Voluntary association of universities and colleges in the Atlantic region and the West Indies offering degree programs or having degree-granting status.
Association des collèges et universités de la francophonie canadienne (ACUFC)	Promotes university education in Francophone minority communities in Canada through consultation and collaboration among member institutions. Represents them in issues of common interest before Canadian governmental institutions and national and international organizations. (French only)
Association internationale des études québécoises (AIEQ)	Promotes and develops Quebec studies in Canada and abroad.
British Columbia Council for International Education (BCCIE)	Provincial Crown corporation supporting the internationalization efforts of British Columbia's public and independent K-12 schools, colleges and universities, and language schools. Aims to enhance BC's international reputation for quality education and support the international education activities of the provincial government.
Bureau de Coopération Interuniversitaire (BCI)	Private-sector organization bringing together all university institutions in Quebec on a voluntary basis.
CALDO	Founded in 2011 by four top-tier Canadian universities, CALDO focuses on sponsored graduate students, bilateral student mobility, and research collaboration. Considered a leading academic gateway to Canada for Latin American students.
Canada-U.S. Fulbright Program	Bi-national program supported by Global Affairs Canada, the U.S. Department of State, and various partners. Enables outstanding Canadian and American students and scholars to lecture, research, and pursue graduate study in the United States and Canada.
Canadian Accredited Independent Schools (CAIS)	Association for independent schools operating in Canada or offering a curriculum leading to a Canadian diploma outside the country.
Canadian Association of Public Schools – International (CAPS-I)	Represents Canadian public-school districts/boards across all ten provinces that recruit international students at the elementary and secondary levels.
Canadian Association of University Teachers (CAUT)	National voice for academic staff, representing teachers, librarians, researchers, and other academic professionals. Advocates for academic freedom and works to improve the quality and accessibility of post-secondary education in Canada.
Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE)	Umbrella non-governmental organization with connections to various educational institutions and businesses across Canada.
Canadian Information Centre for International	Provides information and referral services on the assessment and recognition of academic and occupational credentials for working

Credentials (CICIC)	and studying in Canada and abroad.
Canadian Language Industry Association (CLIA)	Brings together stakeholders in the Canadian language industry. Promotes and increases the competitiveness of the Canadian language industry through advocacy, accreditation, and information sharing.
Canadian Network for Innovation in Education (CNIE)	National association of professionals committed to excellence in the provision of distance education in Canada.
Canadian Society for Training & Development (CSTD)	Largest not-for-profit membership association in Canada dedicated to the profession of training and human resources development.
Fédération des cégeps	Voluntary grouping of Québec public colleges, created in 1969 to promote their development, ensure their influence, promote their interests, and defend them.
Colleges and Institutes Canada (CIC)	National, voluntary membership organization representing colleges, institutes, and polytechnics in Canada and internationally.
Council of Ministers of Education (CMEC)	Intergovernmental body that was established in 1967 by ministers of education with multiple objectives. It serves as a forum where education policymakers can convene and engage in discussions regarding various policy issues related to education.

Bibliography

"Golden Visa." Government of the United Arab Emirates. (2023). Retrieved from <https://u.ae/en/information-and-services/visa-and-emirates-id/golden-visa>

Ahmad, S.Z., Buchanan, F.R. and Ahmad, N. (2016), "Examination of students' selection criteria for international education", *International Journal of Educational Management*, Vol. 30 No. 6, pp. 1088-1103. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2014-0145>

Alsharari, Nizar. (2018). Internationalization of the Higher Education System: An Interpretive Analysis. *International Journal of Educational Management*. 32. 00-00. 10.1108/IJEM-04-2017-0082.

Aulakh, Satbir Singh; Baksh, Nazim; Ellenwood, Liza; Kelley, Mark. (2022). International students enticed to Canada on dubious promises of jobs and immigration. *CBC News*. Retrieved from, <https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/international-students-canada-immigration-ontario-1.6614238>

Baas, M. (2019). The education-migration industry: International students, migration policy and the question of skills. *International Migration*, 57(3), 222–234. <https://doi.org/10.1111/imig.12540>

Badry Zalami, Fatima. (2019). Expanding the UAE's Higher Education Horizon: Path Toward a Sustainable Future. 10.1007/978-981-13-7736-5_4.

Badry, F., & Willoughby, J. (2016). *Higher Education Revolutions in the Gulf: Globalization and Institutional Viability* (1st ed., Vol. 24). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203796139>

Badry, F., & Willoughby, J. (2016). *Higher Education Revolutions in the Gulf: Globalization and Institutional Viability* (1st ed., Vol. 24). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203796139>

Basen, Ira. (2019). TV Ontario. Ontario colleges need international tuition — it could cost them. Retrieved from <https://www.tvo.org/article/ontario-colleges-need-international-tuition-it-could-cost-them>.

Baubock, R. (2011). Temporary migrants, partial citizenship and hypermigration. *Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy*, 14(5), 665–693. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13698230.2011.617127>

Bloemraad, I. (2000). Citizenship and immigration a current review. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 1(1), 9–37. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-000-1006-4>

Bloemraad, I. (2004). Who Claims Dual Citizenship? The Limits of Postnationalism, the Possibilities of Transnationalism, and the Persistence of Traditional Citizenship 1. *International migration review*, 38(2), 389-426.

Bloemraad, I., Korteweg, A., & Yurdakul, G. (2008). Citizenship and immigration: Multiculturalism, assimilation, and challenges to the nation-state. *Annu. Rev. Sociol.*, 34, 153-179.

CanadaVisa. (2023). Canadian Experience Class (CEC). Retrieved from <https://www.canadavisa.com/canadian-experience-class.html>

Canadian Mennonite University. (2023). Council of Ministers of Education, Canada. Retrieved March 20, 2023, from <https://www.cmec.ca/en/>

CEF Monitor. (2019). Canada's foreign student enrolment took another big jump in 2018. <https://monitor.icef.com/2019/02/canadas-foreign-student-enrolment-took-another-big-jump-2018/>

CICIC. (2023). Pan-Canadian Qualifications Frameworks. Retrieved from https://www.cicic.ca/1286/pan_canadian_qualifications_frameworks.canada

Cudmore, G. (2005). Globalization, Internationalization, and the Recruitment of International Students in Higher Education, and in the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 35(1), 37–60. <https://doi.org/10.47678/cjhe.v35i1.183491>

Department of Finance Canada. (2010). Budget 2010: Leading the Way on Jobs and Growth [PDF]. <https://www.budget.gc.ca/2010/pdf/budget-planbudgetaire-eng.pdf>

Elbrekht, Olga. (2015). The History of Higher Education in Canada. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. 6. 10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n5s1p534.

Embleton, Sheila & Gold, Neil & Lapierre, Andre & Stevenson, Michael. (2011). Canada's International Education Strategy: 2019-2024. Retrieved from <https://cbie.ca/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/CBIE-research-cdn-intl-education-strategy-E-WEB.pdf>

Fairclough, N. (2013). Critical discourse analysis and critical policy studies. *Critical policy studies*, 7(2), 177-197.

Gallagher, K. (2019). Introduction: Education in the UAE—Context and Themes. In: Gallagher, K. (eds) *Education in the United Arab Emirates*. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-7736-5_1

Gargano, T. (2008). (Re)conceptualizing International Student Mobility. *Journal of Studies in International Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315308322060>

Gasper, D., & Apthorpe, R. (1996). Introduction: Discourse analysis and policy discourse.

Government of Canada. (2019). Canada's International Education Strategy 2019-2024. Retrieved from <https://www.international.gc.ca/education/strategy-2019-2024-strategie.aspx?lang=eng>

Government of Canada. (2019). International Education Strategy: Harnessing Our Knowledge Advantage to Drive Innovation and Prosperity. Retrieved from <https://www.international.gc.ca/education/report-rapport/strategy-strategie/index.aspx?lang=eng>

Government of Canada. (202). Education associations. Global Affairs Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.international.gc.ca/education/associations.aspx?lang=eng>

Government of Canada. (2022). Learn about immigration representatives. Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/immigration-citizenship-representative/learn-about-representatives.html>

Government of Canada. (2023). Associations and organizations for international education. International.gc.ca. Retrieved from, <https://www.international.gc.ca/education/associations.aspx?lang=eng>

Government of Canada. (2023). Designated Learning Institutions List. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/study-canada/study-permit/prepare/designated-learning-institutions-list.html>

Government of Canada. (2023). Express Entry: Calculate your CRS score. Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.cic.gc.ca/english/immigrate/skilled/crs-tool.asp>

Government of Canada. (2023). Rounds of invitations. Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/immigrate-canada/express-entry/submit-profile/rounds-invitations.html>

Government of Canada. (2023). Student Direct Stream: Eligibility. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/study-canada/study-permit/student-direct-stream/eligibility.html>

Government of Canada. (2023). Study in Canada as an international student. Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/study-canada.html>

Government of Canada. (2023). Study in Canada: Guide to Studying in Canada for International Students. Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. Retrieved Month Day, Year, from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/study-canada.html>

Government of the United Arab Emirates. (n.d.). Regulatory authorities of higher education. Retrieved March 5, 2023, from <https://u.ae/en/information-and-services/education/higher-education/regulatory-authorities-of-higher-education>

Government of United Arab Emirates. (2023). Golden Visa. Retrieved Month Day, Year, from <https://u.ae/en/information-and-services/visa-and-emirates-id/golden-visa>

Guruz, Kemal. (2011). Higher Education and International Student Mobility in the Global Knowledge Economy. State University of New York Press.

Halsey, A. H. (1984). T. H. Marshall: Past and Present 1893 - 1981: President of the British Sociological Association 1964-1969. *Sociology*, 18(1), 1–18. <https://doi-org.proxy.library.carleton.ca/10.1177/0038038584018001002>

Healey, Nigel. (2015). The Challenges of Leading an International Branch Campus: The "Lived Experience" of In-Country Senior Managers. *Journal of Studies in International Education*. 20. [10.1177/1028315315602928](https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315315602928)

Isin, E. F., Nyers, P., & Isin, E. F. (Engin F. (2014). *Routledge handbook of global citizenship studies*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203102015>

Isin, E. F., Turner, B. S., & Isin, E. F. (Engin F. (2002). *Handbook of citizenship studies*. SAGE.

Iverson, S. V. (2015). A policy discourse analysis of sexual assault policies in higher education. In *The crisis of campus sexual violence* (pp. 15-32). Routledge

Jamal, M. A. (2015). The “Tiering” of Citizenship and Residency and the “Hierarchization” of Migrant Communities: The United Arab Emirates in Historical Context. *The International Migration Review*, 49(3), 601–839.

Johnson, K. A. (2020). *Shifting Skilled Migration Trends in the Global Economy: A Comparative Analysis of International Student Mobility to the United Arab Emirates and Russia*. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Johnson, Karin. (2020). *International Higher Education Hotspots: International Student Mobility Growth in Nontraditional Destination Countries*.

JP Immigration. (2021). Permanent Residency in Canada for International Students. JP Immigration. <https://jpimmigration.com/study-canada/permanent-residency-canada-international-students/>

Kahlon, Balraj S. (2021). The Realities for International Students. One Voice Canada.

King, R., & Raghuram, P. (2013). International Student Migration: Mapping the Field and New Research Agendas: Mapping the Field and New Research Agenda in ISM. *Population Space and Place*, 19(2), 127–137. <https://doi.org/10.1002/psp.1746>

Knight, J. (2014), International Education Hubs: Collaboration for Competitiveness and Sustainability. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2014: 83-96. <https://doi.org/10.1002/he.20115>

Lawton, William & Katsomitros, A. (2011). International Branch Campuses. *Data and Developments*.

Lilach, Marom (2022) Outsiders-insiders-in between: Punjabi international students in Canada navigating identity amid intraethnic tensions, *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 20:2, 221-235, DOI: 10.1080/14767724.2021.1882291

Macdonald, M. (2019) International students enrolment continues to soar in Canada, *University Affairs*. Retrieved from: <https://www.universityaffairs.ca/news/news-article/international-student-enrolment-continues-to-soarin-canada/>

Mullet, D. R. (2018). A General Critical Discourse Analysis Framework for Educational Research. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 29(2), 116–142. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1932202X18758260>

Madichie, N. O., & Kolo, J. (2013). An exploratory enquiry into the internationalisation of higher education in the United Arab Emirates. *The Marketing Review*, 13(1), 83-99. <https://doi.org/10.1362/146934713X13597654777724>

Marshall, T. H. "Citizenship and Social Class." Cambridge University Press, 1950.

McCartney, D. (2021). "A question of self-interest": A brief history of 50 years of international student policy in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 51(3), 33–50. <https://doi.org/10.47678/cjhe.vi0.189179>

Migration Data Portal (2023). International Students. Retrieved from, [https://www.migrationdataportal.org/themes/international-students#:~:text=the%20three%20definitions,-,Key%20Trends,2000%20\(UIS%2C%202022\)](https://www.migrationdataportal.org/themes/international-students#:~:text=the%20three%20definitions,-,Key%20Trends,2000%20(UIS%2C%202022))

Mulderrig, J., Montessori, N. M., & Farrelly, M. (2019). Introducing critical policy discourse analysis. *Critical Policy Discourse Analysis*, 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781788974967.00006>

Nuzhat, S. (2021). Globalization of Education in UAE: The Local Legislative Education Policies for International Branch Campuses and Its Tensions Given the Political, Religious, and Cultural Differences. *Journal of Education (Boston, Mass.)*, 201(3), 236–247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022057420914917>

Ouhemmou, M., & Moumine, M. E. A. (2020). Comparative analysis of migration policies and social transformations in the MENA region. *Perceptions*, 25(1), 35-60.

Porcellie, Victor & Maharishi, Meghna. (2019). What It Means for NYUAD to Be Fully Funded by the UAE. *Washington Square News*. NYU's Independent Student Newspaper. Retrieved from, <https://nyunews.com/news/04/08/nyu-abu-dhabi-tax-returns/>

Rogers, R., Malancharuvil-Berkes, E., Mosley, M., Hui, D., & Joseph, G. O. (2005). Critical Discourse Analysis in Education: A Review of the Literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(3), 365–416. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3515986>

Rensimer, L; (2018) International Higher Education for Whom? Expatriate Students, Choice-making and International (Im)mobility in the Northern United Arab Emirates. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education*, 3 (2) 10.18275/fire201603021092

Rice, Rosalind. (2019). The impact of globalization on higher education in the United Arab Emirates: Practitioner perspectives of one higher education institution. *University of Liverpool Repository*.

Robertson, S. (2011). Cash cows, backdoor migrants, or activist citizens? International students, citizenship, and rights in Australia. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 34(12), 2192–2211. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870.2011.558590>

Sharma, Nandita. (2018). Global Lockdown: Postcolonial Expansion of National Citizenship and Immigration Controls. In *Home Rule: National Sovereignty and the Separation of Natives and Migrants* (pp. 163-204). Duke University Press.

Stasiulis, Daiva. (2013). Contending Frames of ‘Security’ and ‘Citizenship’: Lebanese Dual Citizenship during the 2006 Lebanon War. In S. Ilcan (Ed.), *Mobilities, Knowledge and Social Justice* (pp. 25-58). Montreal: McGill-Queen’s University Press.

Statistics Canada. (2010). International students: Definitions, data sources and methodologies. Retrieved from <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/81-004-x/2010006/def/intlstudent-etudiantetranger-eng.htm>

Statistics Canada. (2011). International students in Canada. Retrieved from <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/81-004-x/2010006/def/intlstudent-etudiantetranger-eng.htm>

Statistics Canada. (2022). International students as a source of labour supply: A summary of recent trends. <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/36-28-0001/2022003/article/00001-eng.htm>

Tamtik, M., Trilokekar, R. D., & Jones, G. A. (Eds.). (2020). *International Education as Public Policy in Canada*. McGill-Queen's University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv18sqz9q>

Tamtik, M., Trilokekar, R. D., & Jones, G. A. (Eds.). (2020). *International Education as Public Policy in Canada*. McGill-Queen's University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv18sqz9q>

Tran, Ly & Hoang, Trang. (2019). International students: (Non)citizenship, rights, discrimination and belonging.

Trilokekar, R. D., Jones, G. A., & Tamtik, M. (2020). International education as public policy in Canada. (R. D. Trilokekar, G. A. Jones, & M. Tamtik, Eds.). McGill-Queen's University Press.

Tsourapas and Malit Jr., (2020). Migration diplomacy in the Gulf – non-state actors, cross-border mobility, and the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* P. 2556-2577

Turner, B. S. (1990). Outline of a theory of citizenship. *Sociology* (Oxford), 24(2), 189–217. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0038038590024002002>

Wang, Xiaoyan. (2009). A study of factors affecting the success of female managers in Canadian business (Publication No. NR60882). [Doctoral dissertation, University of Ottawa]. Library and Archives Canada.

Waters, J. L. (2006). Emergent Geographies of International Education and Social Exclusion. *Antipode*, 38(5), 1046–1068. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8330.2006.00492>

Waters, J., & Brooks, R. (2011). International/transnational spaces of education. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9(2), 155–160. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14767724.2011.576933>

WES (World Education Services). (2019, June 10). International Branch Campuses, Part Two: China and the United Arab Emirates. Retrieved from <https://wenr.wes.org/2019/06/international-branch-campuses-part-two-china-and-the-united-arab-emirates>

Wilkins, S., & Stephens Balakrishnan, M. (2013). Assessing student satisfaction in transnational higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 27(2), 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541311297568>

Wirba, Asan. (2017). The role of research in knowledge economy within GCC countries. *European Journal of Business and Management*. 9.