

Global Korea Scholarship students: Intention to stay in the host country to work or study after graduation

Felicia Istad¹  | Eriks Varpahovskis²  | Ekra Miezan³ | Kadir Jun Ayhan⁴

¹Department of Public Administration, Seoul, Republic of Korea

²School of International Regional Studies, National Research University Higher School of Economics, Moscow, Russian Federation

³Graduate School of International and Area Studies, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Republic of Korea

⁴Graduate School of International Studies, Ewha Womans University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

Correspondence

Eriks Varpahovskis, School of International Regional Studies, National Research University Higher School of Economics, Moscow, Russian Federation.
Email: evarpahovskis@hse.ru

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Abstract

Over the past few decades, South Korea has increasingly sought to attract international talent. Every year, hundreds of students are invited to study in the country on a competitive scholarship provided by the government. Upon graduation, students are equipped with a tertiary degree, as well as knowledge of the Korean language and culture. This study examines the determinants of intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation, using a 2019 survey of Global Korea Scholarship recipients ($n = 524$). We draw upon literature in student mobility and examine determinants of two-step migration, including satisfaction with the scholarship program, university experiences, social integration, and life in the host country. Results from the statistical analysis show that academic satisfaction, social adjustment, and satisfaction with life in South Korea are positively associated with participants' intentions to stay in the country to work or study after graduation. The findings highlight the role of academic institutions and host communities in influencing students' poststudy plans and point to the need for policy measures that approach talent retention with simultaneous attention to integration and satisfaction, both within and beyond campus.

KEYWORDS

academic scholarship policy, Asia, Global Korea Scholarship, graduation, higher education policy, *P&P* Special Issue, public diplomacy, selective immigration policy, South Korea, student mobility, student retention, talent migration

Related Articles in this Special Issue

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The global demand for talent is increasing, as many countries transition into knowledge economies. In response, governments are stepping up efforts to nurture human capital at home and to attract high-skilled migrants from abroad (Cerna & Czaika, 2016; Shachar & Hirschl, 2013). While there is no agreed upon definition of skilled labor (Boucher, 2020; Boyd, 2014; Finotelli & Kolb, 2017; Koslowski, 2014), scholars point to tertiary education as a common criterion (Boucher & Cerna, 2014; Czaika & Parsons, 2017; Menz, 2016). Over the past few decades, university degrees have become a key consideration in selective immigration policies such as point-based systems (Boucher, 2013; Komine, 2014; Walsh, 2011). Furthermore, with student mobility on the rise, incoming international students are increasingly recognized by host countries as potential skilled labor (Gleason, 2018). Accordingly, national governments have put in place measures to encourage local poststudy employment, including work permits, visa extensions, career fairs, and more (Collins, 2020; Findlay, 2011). Research on education and migration, however, shows that two-step migration is influenced by a variety of factors, including, among others, academic experiences (Baruch et al., 2007; Trice & Yoo, 2007) and social integration into the host society (Lu et al., 2009; Ugwu & Adamuti-Trache, 2017).

This interdisciplinary study examines the determinants of Global Korea Scholarship (GKS) students' intentions to stay in South Korea after graduation to work or study, with a focus on their experiences with the host society, the academic institution, and the scholarship program. In doing so, this article goes beyond previous research on education and migration to study postgraduate plans in light of students' dual status as temporary migrants and as members of academic institutions in the host country.

The article is structured as follows: first, we introduce the GKS program. Second, we situate our study within the literature of international student mobility and poststudy employment. Third, we present our hypotheses by drawing upon empirical research on academic satisfaction, satisfaction with financial support, social adjustment, and satisfaction with life in South Korea. Fourth, we introduce the sample and measures before proceeding to the findings of our empirical analysis. Finally, the article concludes with a discussion of our observations and implications for policy and future research.

GLOBAL KOREA SCHOLARSHIP¹

The GKS program began in 1967, but it remained a limited program in scope and volume until the mid-2000s. Currently, the GKS is operated by the National Institute of International

¹The GKS was formerly an umbrella for various South Korean government scholarships for foreigners. Currently, it refers to only the scholarship for undergraduate and graduate degree programs for foreigners in South Korea. This particular program was previously known as Korean Government Scholarship Program (KGSP). See NIIED (2020a) for further information on rebranding of the GKS. In this article, GKS refers to the degree program which was formerly known as KGSP.

Education (NIIED) under the Ministry of Education (MOE) of South Korea. Until 2006, the program accepted only graduate students. From 1967 to 2005, overall 971 students participated in the program. In 2007–2008, the program was redesigned, and the country increased the number of scholarships from 133 students, in 2006, to over 800 students annually (Oh, 2014). In 2020, the program hit a record, and the country awarded 1106 scholarships for graduate students and 179 for undergraduates from more than 150 countries.

GKS is a program that awards scholarships for undergraduate and graduate degree programs in South Korea, along with one year of Korean language school before the beginning of the degree program.² The scholarship covers language school and university tuition fees, provides roundtrip flight tickets, medical insurance, research-related expenses, and a monthly stipend to cover living and basic needs (900,000 Korean Won for undergraduate degree students, one million Korean Won for graduate degree students, as of 2020). Typically, the scholarship recipient spends one year in a language school and two to four years at the university, depending on the degree type—Bachelor, Master's, or PhD (NIIED, 2020a, 2020b).

Despite the program structure being inspired by the Fulbright program, the alumni of the program are not obliged to leave the country immediately after study completion, but they can apply for a job search visa, referred to as a D-10. Furthermore, GKS students are eligible to get additional points if they apply for the point-based long-term residency visa (F-2-7) in the country (MOJ, 2016).

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

International student mobility

Student mobility has increased significantly over the past few decades, from two million in 1998 to 5.3 million in 2017 (OECD, 2019a). Leading study destinations include the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Germany, Canada, and Japan. The majority of international students come from the Asian region, predominantly China and India, but also South Korea, Saudi Arabia, and Vietnam (OECD, 2019b). At the same time, recent studies point to a diversification of international student mobility. In a social network analysis of student mobility across 229 countries, Kondakci and others (2018) observe increased student migration toward non-Western destinations, such as South East Asia. In particular, their findings highlight the emergence of regional hubs, including, among others, Japan, Malaysia, and South Korea (see also Chan, 2012; Jon et al., 2014; Knight, 2011). The shift challenges the traditional division between the core and periphery study destinations (Barnett & Wu, 1995; Barnett et al., 2016) and has prompted calls for more research on non-Western student mobility (Prazeres, 2013), including South-South and East-East movements (Lipura & Collins, 2020).

South Korea is one of the countries in East Asia that experiences increasing student flows, particularly from within the Asian region (KEDI, 2019). Notably, 90% of all international students in the country are born in Asia, with the majority of students coming from China and Vietnam, followed by Uzbekistan, Mongolia, Japan, and the United States (KEDI, 2019). As of 2019, there were 160,165 international students at higher education institutions in South Korea, up from 84,891 students in 2014 and 12,314 students in 2003 (KEDI, 2019).

Studies point to a combination of push and pull factors in explaining the continued increase of international students to South Korea. On the one hand, the East Asian region has been experiencing a growing consumption of overseas education, particularly Chinese students (Kim & Lee, 2019). On the other hand, more demand for foreign tertiary degrees has also resulted in competition between established and emerging study destinations (see Knight, 2011). The

²The language school may be skipped or may be of shorter duration if a student receives Level 5 in the Test of Proficiency in Korean (TOPIK) exam.



Korean government has introduced a variety of measures targeted at the internationalization of higher education, including education fairs, the simplification of admission processes, and expansion of scholarship programs (Jon, 2013; Lee et al., 2009; MOE, 2014).

The internationalization of higher education in South Korea has been accompanied by an increasing number of studies on the motivations and experiences of incoming students. Research on push-pull factors among Chinese students observes key determinants to be geographical proximity, perception of the host country, readily available information about universities, recommendation from friends and family, ease of admission, low costs, and perceived job market opportunities (Kang & Ko, 2019; Lee, 2017). In contrast, a similar study on African students reports academic reputation and scholarship opportunities to be the key pull factors (Oppong-Yeboah et al., 2018). Finally, studies also find that postgraduation opportunities within or outside the host country are one of the factors that pull international students toward Korean tertiary degrees. While surveys show that most international students plan to return to their home countries after graduation, increasingly more report intention to work in South Korea or a third country (Ahn, 2009; Oh et al., 2013). Through interviews with current and former Bangladeshi doctorates in South Korea, Rabbani and Kim (2020) find that a degree from South Korea is considered a step toward accessing the international job market, specifically in Australia and Canada. In another study focused on Chinese students, Lee (2013) observes expectations of moving onward to Europe or the United States after graduation in South Korea. The perception of South Korea as a transit hub for stepwise mobility is arguably advantageous to academic institutions, which benefit from enhanced revenues and a diverse student body. From a labor market perspective, however, this finding also highlights the challenge of talent retention.

Poststudy employment

Governments have since long operated high-skilled migration policies, such as occupational visas or points-based systems. Yet, skilled worker shortages prevail in many advanced economies, prompting measures targeted specifically at the retention of international graduates, most notably in Australia and Canada (Gopal, 2016; Hawthorne, 2010; She & Wotherspoon, 2013; Ziguras & Law, 2006). Much of the research on post-study mobility has focused on traditional study destinations, including the United States (McGill, 2013, 2018; Roh, 2015) and the United Kingdom (Baruch et al., 2007). Alternatively, studies have focused on the motivations and outcomes of returning students from higher education in the West to home countries in the East (Hao et al., 2016; Hao et al., 2017; Lee & Kim, 2010). Similarly, research on poststudy plans among international students has largely focused on subgroups of the international student body, limiting survey sampling by country of birth, level of degree, and area of study (Li et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2009; Nghia, 2019; Ugwu & Adamuti-Trache, 2017). The literature on postgraduation plans is arguably lacking in studies that examine international students in a non-Western country and draw upon a diverse sample of demographics and academic status. This study responds to the gap in the literature by drawing upon survey data collected among competitively selected scholarship students from a heterogeneous set of countries, enrolled in various fields and levels of tertiary degrees across urban and rural locations in South Korea.

In a report commissioned by the Ministry of Science and ICT (Lee et al., 2019), it is argued that the Korean society is in need of more foreign talents because of declining birth rates, an aging population, and changes to the economy. Still considered a “reluctant immigration country” (de Haas et al., 2020, p. 187), South Korea released its first five-year plan

for immigration policy in 2008, followed by a second in 2013, and a third in 2018 (MOJ, 2008, 2013, 2018). The Basic Plan for Immigration Policy continuously emphasizes the need to attract and retain foreign talents, highlighting international students as a potential pool of those talents (MOJ, 2008, pp. 15–21, 2013, pp. 25–38, 2018, pp. 28–39). Accordingly, the Korean government introduced annual job fairs for foreign students and adopted a post-study work visa (Baek, 2015). Yet, the number of students who take up employment after graduation remains low (Oh et al., 2012), with only 20.8% of those with doctorates staying on for work (Song & Kim, 2015).

Despite low retention rates amid increased efforts, there is a lack of research that examines the determinants of stay/return intentions after graduation among international students in South Korea (Lee & Park, 2018, p. 138). From a policy perspective, experiences in the host country is of particular relevance to identify strategic opportunities for talent retention. This study follows Pan (2015) and Ugwu and Adamuti-Trache (2017) in examining the impact of social and academic experiences on intentions to stay for work in the host country (see also Baruch et al., 2007; Lu et al., 2009). The study further extends the literature on student migration by also considering the role of student scholarship and experiences with life in the host country. The analysis employs composite variables to capture student experiences, while controlling for gender (Li et al., 2018; Nghia, 2019), field of study and level of degree (Bryla, 2019; Kim & Oh, 2014; Soon, 2012), language proficiency (Arthur & Flynn, 2011; Ugwu & Adamuti-Trache, 2017), previous experience of living abroad (Carlson, 2013; King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003), and level of development in the home country (Gesing & Glass, 2019; Weisser, 2016).

HYPOTHESES

Satisfaction with the university experience

Multiple factors influence a student's inclination to stay in the host country after completion of the program. Scholars who explore international students' migration often base their research on push-pull factors (Gesing & Glass, 2019) or use various models that look into professional, societal, and personal factors that make students stay or leave after graduation (Alberts & Hazen, 2005; Henseler & Plesch, 2009). These studies usually overlook university experience satisfaction as a possible influencing factor. Some include academic satisfaction either as a variable on its own (Trice & Yoo, 2007), or satisfaction with university experience is treated as part of social adjustment factors (Hejkrlik et al., 2018) or of academic achievement (Li & Sun, 2019). To address a lack of an agreed upon definition, this study suggests that university experiences can be understood as students' encounters with actors and services affiliated with their academic institution. These experiences are further distinguished between academic and extracurricular experiences.

Studies on students' satisfaction with academic experiences highlight the role of both content and instructors. Wiers-Jenssen and others (2002) explore the composition of student satisfaction with universities in Norway. The analysis of the survey of more than 10,000 students reveals the complex nature of student satisfaction, where academic quality of teaching dominates in determining overall student satisfaction with a university. These results are upheld in the study by Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2013), who find the quality of lectures among core factors influencing student overall satisfaction at a United Arab Emirates branch campus. Other studies find that academic satisfaction is influenced by satisfaction with thesis and research guidance (Tamaoka et al., 2003), interaction and support from professors (Baruch et al., 2007; Kruanak & Ruangkanjanases, 2014), and quality of seminars and lectures (Douglas et al., 2006).



The study by Wiers-Jenssen and others (2002) underlines the complexity of student satisfaction and highlights that even though academic factors are crucial in determining student satisfaction, there are additional, nonacademic factors involved. University education is sometimes regarded as a service, with students being perceived as customers, with the quality of that service predicting their satisfaction and behavior (de Jager & Gbadamosi, 2013). The diversity of extracurricular factors is significant. The quality of social areas and physical environments, including classrooms, libraries, and dormitories, are found to have strong influence on overall satisfaction with a university (Clemes et al., 2013; Hanssen & Solvoll, 2015; Kärnä & Julin, 2015). Additional services that students can experience are counseling, mentorship, and employment support. Studies show that the quality of these services can determine satisfaction with overall university experience (Clemes et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2016). Yang and others (2016) find that mentorship programs help students' socialization and their ability to gain academic support, both of which are important for their success at the university. These kinds of services help students adapt to both their educational institute and the host country.

Furthermore, students are better socially adjusted if they are involved in extracurricular activities such as student clubs (sports, hobbies, etc.), joint cultural activities (festivals, etc.), or other school events that foster social interactions (Clemes et al., 2013). The involvement in these kinds of activities not only improves self-esteem (Ivaniushina & Aleksandrov, 2015), but it also contributes to the development of the cognitive and interpersonal skills of a student (You, 2018). In turn, they influence students' satisfaction with the university and contribute to better social adjustment. Studies that examine the impact of sociocognitive factors on satisfaction with the university experience find that integration into the community, relations and interactions with academic staff, administrative staff, and classmates, and access to adequate facilities have a greater impact on academic satisfaction than academic success (Lent et al., 2007; Yu & Wright, 2016). Finally, interactions with classmates are also an important part of the university experience that determines satisfaction with a university (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006; Brady & Cronin, 2001; Curran & Rosen, 2006). Building host-country friendships can ease adjustment difficulties (Gareis et al., 2011; Zhang & Goodson, 2011).

Several studies explore students' experience with a university as a possible influencing factor on their future mobility behavior. Trice and Yoo (2007) conducted research to measure the influence of academic satisfaction on postgraduate plans of international students who are enrolled at a US higher education institution. They found that “[t]he less academically satisfied students were, and the less prepared they felt to work at home, the less likely they were to plan to return home after finishing their course of study” (Trice & Yoo, 2007, p. 61). Additionally, Trice and Yoo found that, in comparison, more international students in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) tend to pursue their postgraduation careers in the United States than students in humanities and arts students. In their study of Far-East Asian and South Asian students at the US and UK universities, Baruch and others (2007) found a significant relationship between satisfaction with a university and intention to stay in the host country. The research results support the hypothesis claiming that “[t]he greater the level of support foreign students receive from their teachers, university, and fellow students in the host country, the greater will be their intention to stay in the host country” (Baruch et al., 2007, p. 102). Kruanak and Ruangkanjanases (2014) confirm this claim by conducting a similar research with focus on international students in Thailand. Both studies underlined the importance of a university's level of support to foreign students, as it eases the students' adjustment process in the host country, which, in turn, influences their decision to stay (Baruch et al., 2007; Kruanak & Ruangkanjanases, 2014).

Based on this literature review, we build the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 *Sponsored international students who are satisfied with their university experience are more likely to intend to stay in South Korea to work or further their study after graduation.*

Hypothesis 1a *Sponsored international students who are satisfied with academic aspects of their university experience are more likely to intend to stay in South Korea to work or further their study after graduation.*

Hypothesis 1b *Sponsored international students who are satisfied with extracurricular aspects of their university experience are more likely to intend to stay in South Korea to work or further their study after graduation.*

Satisfaction with financial support of the scholarship program

Most studies on satisfaction with the university do not distinguish between self-funded international students and sponsored international students, even when they investigate the influence of financial support on satisfaction and behavior as well (e.g., Ammigan, 2019). The financial support can be a crucial factor influencing international students' satisfaction with their university experiences (Forbes-Mewett et al., 2009). The international student experience report revealed that a half of international students in the United Kingdom consider the issue of not having enough money or having an irregular income the worst aspect of their entire university life (UNITE-UKCOSA, 2006). Furthermore, lack of financial support makes foreign students devote part of their time and energy to part-time work, which is also a cause of dissatisfaction (Tamaoka et al., 2003). In short, financial aspects of scholarships have a strong influence on overall satisfaction with the university experience (Ngamkamollert & Ruangkanjanases, 2015).

Hypothesis 2 *International students who are satisfied with the financial support received through the scholarship are more likely to intend to stay in South Korea to work or further their study after graduation.*

Social adjustment

In addition to the academic and financial factors, international students are also faced with a new cultural environment. Away from home, social interactions with peers and integration experiences in the host society are found to play an important role in the university life of international students (Cong & Glass, 2019). In this study, we adopt social adjustment as a framework to examine satisfaction with social interactions, the quality of relationships, and a sense of belonging (Cong & Glass, 2019, p. 29).

In a mixed-method study of international students across multiple campuses in Australia, Owens and Loomes (2010) find that students' social interactions lead to higher levels of satisfaction and facilitate smoother cultural transitions, as well as mitigating culture shock. Another aspect of social adjustment that is closely linked to, yet distinctive from, social interactions is students' self-perception of inclusion in the host society. In a study that compares the campus experience of international and local university students in the United States, Van Horne and others (2018) find that international students feel less welcome on campus and have lower levels of social satisfaction. In addition to observing the vulnerability to exclusion among international students, the literature shows that social integration is important in predicting affective



and migratory behavior among international students (Arthur, 2017). In a survey of Chinese students enrolled at metropolitan universities in Australia, Pan (2015) observes acculturative difficulties to negatively predict intentions to stay after graduation.

Building on the aforementioned studies, we link social integration to poststudy plans and examine whether self-perceptions of inclusion in the host society influence students' intentions to stay for work in the host country.

Hypothesis 3 *Sponsored international students who adjust socially in South Korea are more likely to intend to stay in South Korea to work or further their study after graduation.*

Satisfaction with life

Besides academic, financial, and social adjustment factors, students' everyday living experiences, such as living conditions and physical environment, can either encourage or discourage their behavioral intentions related to the host country (Chelliah et al., 2019). Some studies in higher education reveal that personal safety is an important criterion when choosing a destination to obtain a degree (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Pimpa, 2003). Chelliah and others (2019) find that personal safety is a significant determinant of exchange students' intentions to revisit Malaysia after graduation.

The infrastructure, natural environment, and ecology are recognized factors that influence migratory decisions (Hunter, 2005). An individual can make a decision based on perceived risk from the surrounding ecology or natural environment (Hunter, 2005). Ng (2005) finds that transportation and public utilities (infrastructure) and environmental quality are the main factors that compose the construct of quality of life for students in Hong Kong. The availability of food that meets an individual's dietary needs and wants is another component of the physical environment that can influence satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Ryu et al., 2012). Chelliah and others (2019) revealed that the availability of food in and around the university, as a part of the physical environment construct, contributes to international students' satisfaction and intention to revisit Malaysia.

The experience of studying abroad also incorporates various cultural activities such as going to concerts and visiting museums, which influence the overall satisfaction with the university experience, and that, in turn, mediates the behavioral intentions to recommend that study experience to others (Rahimizhian et al., 2020). Inch and Sun's (2013) study has shown that students attach great importance to a university city's cultural scene (e.g., cultural events, festivals, live shows, theaters, and nightlife). Combining these aspects of international students' satisfaction with life in the host country, we build the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 *Sponsored international students who are satisfied with life in South Korea are more likely to intend to stay in South Korea to work or further their study after graduation.*

METHOD

Sample

We used Ayhan and others' (2021) GKS dataset for this study (see also Ayhan & Gouda, 2021; Ayhan, Gouda & Lee, 2021; Varpahovskis & Ayhan, 2020). We used the survey they conducted in December 2019 that was sent out to all GKS students with the help of the National

Institute for International Education. Although 749 students participated in the survey, out of these responses, we removed 225 students who were still attending language school prior to their degree program, which left us with 524 responses. Of the participants, 63.4% ($n = 332$) were female and 36.6% ($n = 192$) were male. Regarding study level, 22.1% ($n = 119$) were enrolled in a Bachelor degree program, 58% ($n = 304$) in a Master's degree program, and 19.8% ($n = 104$) in a PhD program. In terms of field of study, 45% ($n = 236$) were pursuing a degree in STEM, and 55% ($n = 288$) in non-STEM degrees. In 2018, 47.3% ($n = 248$) enrolled in the program, and 28.2% ($n = 148$) in 2017, while 12% ($n = 63$) reported that they joined the program in 2016, 5.5% ($n = 29$) in 2015, .4% ($n = 2$) in 2013, and .2% ($n = 1$) in 2009 and 2007, respectively. Only 6.1% ($n = 32$) who enrolled in the program in 2019 participated in the survey, and all of them skipped the language year because of their high level of Korean language proficiency. The GKS students who had not started their degree study were not included in the sample. Of the participants, 11.1% ($n = 58$) were from countries with a developed economy, and 88.9% ($n = 466$) were from countries with a developing economy (see Table 1).³

Instrumentation

The dependent variable measuring participants' *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* was assessed with one item, "How likely are you to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation?" and was answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *unlikely*, 2 = *somewhat unlikely*, 3 = *neither likely, nor unlikely*, 4 = *somewhat likely*, 5 = *likely*). The participants' average score on *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* (Table 2) was $M = 3.71$ ($SD = 1.166$, $n = 524$). Of the respondents, 14.1% indicated that they would unlikely or somewhat unlikely stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation, while 62.4% responded that they were somewhat likely or likely to do so.

The first independent variable, *satisfaction with university experience*, was measured with two constructs: *academic satisfaction* and *extracurricular satisfaction*. *Academic satisfaction* was assessed with three items: (a) "I am satisfied with the quality of lectures and seminars," (b) "I am satisfied with the guidance by the thesis adviser," and (c) "I am satisfied with interactions with professors," all three answered on a 7-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*strongly dissatisfied*) to 7 (*strongly satisfied*). These three items significantly loaded onto their factor (.833, .867, and .901, respectively), with a significant internal consistency (Cronbach alpha = .834). These three items were computed together to represent the variable *academic satisfaction*. The participants' average score (Table 2) on *academic satisfaction* was $M = 5.346$ ($SD = 1.249$, $n = 521$).

Extracurricular satisfaction was assessed with nine items: (a) "I am satisfied with the quality of education facilities (library, class equipment, lab equipment)," (b) "I am satisfied with the facilities for extra-curricular activities (sports clubs, student clubs, dongari)," (c) "I am satisfied with the dormitory," (d) "I am satisfied with cultural activities," (e) "I am satisfied with the mentor program," (f) "I am satisfied with school events (festivals, concerts, conferences etc.)," (g) "I am satisfied with the counseling services," (h) "I am satisfied with the employment support," and (i) "I am satisfied with interactions with other students." All nine items were answered on a 7-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*strongly dissatisfied*) to 7 (*strongly satisfied*) as well. These nine items significantly loaded onto their factor (.606, .747, .633, .801, .714, .767, .785, .757, and .691, respectively), with a significant internal consistency (Cronbach alpha = .883). These nine items were computed together to represent the variable *extracurricular*

³To identify the economic development level of the home country, we used the country classification from the World Economic Situation and Prospects (WESP) report by the United Nations (UN). According to the UN (2019) classification, countries may belong to one of three broad categories: developed economies, economies in transition, and developing economies. In this analysis, we combined the latter two groups, as economies in transition are also developing economies.

TABLE 1 Demographic and other information about the sample

	N	%
<i>Frequency of participants' gender</i>		
Female	332	63.4
Male	192	36.6
<i>Frequency of participants' degree level</i>		
Bachelor degree	116	22.1
Master's degree	304	58.0
PhD	104	19.8
<i>Frequency of participants' career orientation</i>		
Science, technology, engineering, or math (STEM)	236	45
Non-STEM	288	55
<i>Frequency of level of development of country of origin</i>		
Developing economy	466	88.9
Developed economy	58	11.1
<i>Frequency of level of Korean language</i>		
Basic	11	2.1
Beginner	24	4.6
Intermediate	291	55.5
Advanced	160	30.5
Fluent	38	7.3
<i>Frequency of level of English language</i>		
Basic	6	1.1
Beginner	12	2.3
Intermediate	87	16.6
Advanced	211	40.3
Fluent	208	39.7
<i>Frequency of experience living abroad</i>		
Having lived abroad for three months or more	153	29.2
Not have lived abroad	371	70.8

satisfaction. The participants' average score on *extracurricular satisfaction* was $M = 5.170$ ($SD = 1.004$, $n = 522$).

The second independent variable, *satisfaction with financial support*, was assessed with "I am satisfied with the financial support I receive as a GKS" and answered on a 10-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*unsatisfied*) to 10 (*very satisfied*). The average score on *financial support satisfaction* (Table 2) was $M = 7.10$ ($SD = 2.421$, $n = 524$).

The third independent variable, participants' *social adjustment*, was measured with three items: (a) "Please indicate to what degree you feel a part of South Korean society as a GKS recipient," initially answered on a 10-point Likert-type scale, but recoded into a 5-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*feeling totally alienated*) to 5 (*feeling like a true part of the South Korean society*); (b) "Satisfaction with Social interaction with Korean people," initially answered on a 10-point Likert-type scale as well, but recoded into a 5-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*very unsatisfied*) to 5 (*very satisfied*); and (c) "How often do you spend time with people whom you speak Korean with," answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). These three items significantly loaded onto their factor (.820, .833, and .760), with a significant

TABLE 2 Mean and standard deviation of dependent and independent variables

	Mean	SD
<i>Mean and SD of intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation</i>		
Likelihood to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation	3.71	1.166
<i>Mean and SD of academic satisfaction (Hypothesis 1a)</i>		
Satisfied with the quality of lectures and seminars	5.33	1.389
Satisfied with the guidance by the thesis adviser	5.45	1.464
Satisfied with interactions with professors	5.56	1.358
<i>Mean and SD of extracurricular satisfaction (Hypothesis 1b)</i>		
Satisfied with the quality of education facilities	6.08	.962
Satisfied with the facilities for extracurricular activities	5.19	1.421
Satisfied with the dormitory	5.06	1.556
Satisfied with cultural activities	5.45	1.223
Satisfied with the mentor program	5.03	1.514
Satisfied with school events	5.40	1.338
Satisfied with the counseling services	5.14	1.357
Satisfied with the employment support	4.69	1.571
Satisfied with interactions with other students	5.31	1.383
<i>Mean and SD of satisfaction with financial support (Hypothesis 2)</i>		
Satisfaction with the financial support I receive as a GKS recipient	7.10	2.421
<i>Mean and SD of social adjustment (Hypothesis 3)</i>		
Feeling a part of South Korean society as a GKS recipient	3.139	1.147
Satisfied with interactions with Korean people	3.577	1.138
Time spent with people whom you speak Korean with	3.66	.988
<i>Mean and SD of satisfaction with life in South Korea (Hypothesis 4)</i>		
Satisfaction with public safety	9.18	1.262
Satisfaction with infrastructure in South Korea	9.26	1.221
Satisfaction with cultural experiences	8.14	1.968
Satisfaction with natural environment/ecology	7.74	2.160
Satisfaction with availability of food that meets my dietary	7.01	2.781

internal consistency (Cronbach alpha = .728). These three items were computed together to represent the variable *social adjustment*. On a scale of 1 indicating a feeling of being less socially adjusted to Korean society to 5 indicating a feeling of being more socially adjusted to Korean society, the participants' average score on *social adjustment* was $M = 3.454$ ($SD = .886$, $n = 524$).

The fourth independent variable, *satisfaction with life in South Korea*, was assessed with (a) “*satisfaction with public safety*,” (b) “*satisfaction with infrastructure in South Korea (transport, internet availability, shops, etc.)*,” (c) “*satisfaction with cultural experiences (concerts, museums, tourism, etc.)*,” (d) “*satisfaction with natural environment/ecology*,” and (e) “*satisfaction with availability of food that meets my dietary restrictions*,” all five items answered on a 10-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (*very unsatisfied*) to 10 (*very satisfied*). These five items significantly loaded onto their factor (.742, .776, .668, .578, and .497, respectively), with an internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of .605. Corrected item–total correlations ranged from .32 to .47 and indicated that these five items significantly contributed to the reliability of the scale. These



five items were computed together to represent the variable *satisfaction with life in South Korea*. The average score on the index of *satisfaction with life in South Korea*, on a scale of 1 (*very unsatisfied*) to 10 (*very satisfied*) was $M = 8.266$ ($SD = 1.225$, $n = 524$).

The control variables were *gender*, *level of development of home country*, *degree field*, *degree level*, *prior experience of living abroad*, *level of English language*, and *level of Korean language* (see Table 1). Participants with basic level and beginning level of Korean language combined represented 6.7% ($n = 35$) of the sample, whereas those who spoke Korean at the intermediate, advanced, and fluent levels, combined, represented 93.3% ($n = 489$) of the sample. Participants with basic and beginner's levels of English represented 3.4% ($n = 18$) of the total sample, and the remaining 96.6% ($n = 506$) represented those who could speak English at the intermediate, advanced, and fluent levels, combined. At the time of the study, 29.2% ($n = 153$) of the participants had lived abroad for at least three months, while 70.8% ($n = 371$) had not lived abroad at all prior to coming to South Korea on the GKS program. The frequencies of items related to the control variables are summarized in Table 1, and the means of the dependent and independent variables are summarized in Table 2.

ANALYSIS

The dependent variable was *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation*. The independent variables were *satisfaction with university experience* [(a) *academic satisfaction*, (b) *extracurricular satisfaction*], *satisfaction with financial support*, *social adjustment*, and *satisfaction with life in South Korea*. Control variables were *gender*, *level of development of home country*, *degree field*, *degree level*, *prior experience of living abroad*, *level of English language*, and *level of Korean language*.

Descriptive statistics were run to assess the frequencies of items related to the control variables (Table 1) and the means of the dependent and independent variables (Table 2). Assumptions of normality were assessed with skewness, kurtosis, and histograms. Bivariate scatterplots were run to assess assumptions of linearity. We tested our hypotheses using multiple regression analysis with the *enter* method (see Table 3). Tolerance and Variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics for multicollinearity tests ranged from .471 to .922 and from 1.084 to 2.121, respectively. We used an alpha level of .05 in our statistical analyses. Statistical data were run with SPSS 21. The overall multivariate regression was statistically significant ($R^2 = .276$, $F[12, 508] = 16.150$, $p = .000$).

Our first research hypothesis stated that participants with higher academic satisfaction would likely intend to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation. Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations of the composite items of the two indexes [(a) *academic satisfaction* and (b) *extracurricular satisfaction*] of *satisfaction with university experience*. *Extracurricular satisfaction* ($\beta = .058$, $p = .289$) had no association with participants' *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation*. On the other hand, the higher participants' *academic satisfaction* ($\beta = .141$, $p = .004$) was, the more they *intended to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* (see Table 3). Hypothesis 1a was supported, whereas Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Our second research hypothesis stated that the more the participants' *financial support satisfaction* as a GKS recipient was, the higher their *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* would be. *Financial support satisfaction* ($\beta = .040$, $p = .365$) had no association with participants' *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* (see Table 3). Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Our third research hypothesis stated that the higher participants' *social adjustment* in South Korea was, the higher their *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* would be. *Social adjustment* ($\beta = .236$, $p = .000$) was positively associated with participants'

TABLE 3 Regression analysis of independent variables and intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation

Dependent variable: Intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation			
Independent variables	β	Multiple R	R^2
Students' academic satisfaction	.141**	.526	.276
Students' extracurricular satisfaction	.058		
Students' satisfaction with financial support as GKS recipients	.040		
Students' social adjustment in South Korea	.236***		
Students' satisfaction with life in South Korea	.145**		
Gender	.060		
Home country economic development status	.067		
STEM or not STEM	-.002		
Degree level	.054		
Having lived abroad for three months or more	.003		
English language proficiency	-.062		
Korean language proficiency	.037		

Note: ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation (Table 3). That is, the more the participants felt *socially adjusted* to Korean society, the more they *intended to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation*. Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Our fourth research hypothesis stated that the higher participants' *satisfaction with life in South Korea* was, the higher their *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* would be. *Satisfaction with life in Korea* ($\beta = .145, p = .003$) was positively associated with *intention to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation*. That is, the higher participants' *satisfaction with life in Korea* was, the more they *intended to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation* (see Table 3). Hypothesis 4 was supported.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Drawing upon a sample of 524 GKS students in South Korea, this study observes a positive relation between intention to stay in South Korea to work and study after graduation and satisfaction with life in the host country, social adjustment, and academic satisfaction. We find that students are more likely to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation if they feel safe and have conveniences in daily life, have a satisfactory experience with integration in the host society and social interactions with local residents, while also having positive experiences with professors as lecturers and advisors. The analysis shows that students' intentions to stay in South Korea to work or study after graduation are influenced by both their experiences within the university institution and through their experiences with the host society. The findings point to the importance of supporting positive relations with not only peers and professors but also the local community. The integration of students is thus a task for both the university and for the surrounding environment. Countries that seek to retain international talents upon graduation should, therefore, work together with both higher education institutions and local governments in efforts to enhance the student experience.

This study does not find support for a relation between intention to stay postgraduation and satisfaction with the financial support of the scholarship or extracurricular activities. The



results suggest that students who report higher satisfaction with the financial support of the scholarship are not necessarily more likely to stay in the host country for work or further study after graduation. A possible explanation for this finding might be found in Sjoquist and Winters (2013), who observe that the relationship between scholarship and poststudy work retention among interstate scholarship students in the United States depends on whether the students were motivated to attend college in a state because of, or regardless of, the scholarship. They find that scholarship students who were motivated to migrate across states *because of the scholarship* were less attached to the state or city where the educational institution was located and more likely to leave after graduation. Future studies examining the impact of scholarship on intention to work in the host country after graduation among international students should, therefore, consider accounting for differences in motivations for migration by scholarship recipients.

Our analysis also does not find support for a correlation between satisfaction with extracurricular activities and the intention to stay to work or study after graduation, possibly because involvement in extracurricular activities influences the decision to stay after graduation indirectly through the establishment of closer relationships with local citizens and the feeling of being more integrated and socially adjusted in the host society. This probable explanation is found in a study of Korean government scholarship alumni that observes a relationship between network-building behavior with South Koreans and non-STEM students' participation in extracurricular activities (Varpahovskis, 2019). Thus, we suggest further examination of extracurricular activities as a factor influencing social adjustment for both STEM and non-STEM students, as there are possible differences in the role that extracurricular activities play in student mobility (see also Bryla, 2019; Perez-Encinas & Rodríguez-Pomeda, 2018).

The literature on poststudy transitions among international students in South Korea remains scarce but will have growing relevance, as the country is expected to undergo economic and demographic changes in the coming years. Our article contributes to the literature on student migration by examining scholarship students in an emerging study destination, and by highlighting the impact of social adjustment as well as satisfactory experiences with life and academic relations on stay/return intentions. Future research is encouraged to extend the analysis of this article by examining variables such as academic performance (Qin, 2015), social relationships (Geddie, 2013; Kim, 2015), and career prospects (Hoppe & Fujishiro, 2015; Roh, 2015) in the host and home countries.


In this study, we analyzed students' intentions to stay in Korea and not their actual behavior. Their actual behavior of staying in Korea or leaving after graduation would be based on a more informed and contextual decision at the time. Magris and Russo (2009) point out that the various paths of postgraduation mobility are not sufficiently captured in measures of whether to stay or leave, as they observe students to engage in complex migration patterns (see also Finn, 2017; Novotný et al., 2020). Further research into poststudy migration among international scholarship students will benefit from looking into mobilities across time and space, by first accounting for postgraduation plans among enrolled students and subsequently tracking their migratory behavior in the years after graduation.

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ORCID

Felicia Istad  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9438-0101>

Eriks Varpahovskis  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6740-6377>

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AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Felicia Istad is a PhD candidate in Public Policy at Korea University. Her research is focused on immigration in South Korea and includes studies of public discourse, talent, and innovation policies. Her dissertation examines the relationship between immigration and start-up policies through a combination of qualitative and quantitative studies on tech entrepreneurship. Istad has a Master of Science in Management and Human Resources from London School of Economics and a Bachelor of Arts (Hons) in Korean from the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London.

Eriks Varpahovskis is a postdoctoral fellow at the School of International Regional Studies at the National Research University Higher School of Economics (Russia). Also, Eriks serves as an Associate Research Fellow at OSCE Academy (Kyrgyzstan). Eriks received a PhD in Political Science from the Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (South Korea) in 2019. He holds Master's degrees in Sociology of Law from Lund University and in International Migration and Ethnic Relations from Malmö University (both Sweden). Among his research interests are mechanisms of public diplomacy, cultural diplomacy, education diplomacy, migration, sociology of law, and others.

Ekra Miezán obtained his PhD from the University of Massachusetts-Amherst in 2000. He has taught at the University of Massachusetts-Amherst and at Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts, before joining the Graduate School of International and Area Studies (GSIAS) at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, in September 2009. He has been in charge of the Media, Peace, and Conflicts Studies track in the U-PEACE program since 2009, and he was in charge of the newly created track of Sustainable Development for two years, in 2010 and 2011. He has developed and taught, both in English and French, courses in communication, environment and sustainable development, and research methodologies for GSIAS, including the KOICA program of International/Comparative Development.

Kadir Jun Ayhan is Assistant Professor of International Relations at Ewha Womans University Graduate School of International Studies. His main research interests include public diplomacy, power in world politics, Korean foreign policy, and active learning pedagogy for international relations. Ayhan serves as Editor-in-Chief for *Journal of Public Diplomacy* and Associate Editor for *Quality & Quantity* and *Journal of Contemporary Eastern Asia*. He regularly consults for governmental public diplomacy projects in Korea. Ayhan holds a PhD (2016) and MIS (2010) from Seoul National University Graduate School of International Studies and a Bachelor of Commerce (2008) from The University of Auckland. He has published articles in *International Studies Perspectives*, *Korea Observer*, *Asia Pacific Education Review*, and *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, among others.

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