



UNIVERSIDADE CATÓLICA PORTUGUESA

Internationalization of Higher education institutions: Drivers and Tools

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Resumo

Nas últimas décadas, a internacionalização tem vindo a ganhar relevância para as universidades globalmente. No entanto, e apesar da importância atribuída a esta questão, ainda não existe um amplo consenso conceptual, nem informação estruturada que possam ajudar os gestores ou académicos responsáveis pela gestão das Instituições de Ensino Superior a tomar decisões informadas sobre internacionalização.

Por esta razão, existe uma tendência geral para um uso desinformado dos conceitos e a implementação de políticas *ad hoc* que não permitem atingir os objetivos pretendidos e que muitas vezes resultam em custos e não em investimentos com retorno visível.

Este trabalho pretende sistematizar informação sobre as possíveis motivações e objetivos para a internacionalização, bem como, sobre as ferramentas (ou atividades) disponíveis. Pretende-se apoiar os processos de tomada de decisão, através da construção de um modelo que estabeleça quais as ferramentas mais adequadas para a prossecução dos objetivos definidos no âmbito de um determinado racional.

Defendemos a ideia de que é possível otimizar a adequação entre motivações e ferramentas, para maximizar o retorno dos investimentos realizados no âmbito das respetivas políticas de internacionalização.

Através da categorização dos principais racionais, da identificação e descrição das ferramentas de internacionalização disponíveis, da análise da implementação de diferentes estratégias de internacionalização bem-sucedidas, verificamos que a utilização das ferramentas utilizadas se altera em conjunto com a alteração dos racionais. Isto permite-nos compreender que existem ligações de

determinadas ferramentas a determinados racionais que são mais vantajosas do que outras. Isto é, nem todas as ferramentas são adequadas a todos os racionais e há benefícios claros em escolher cuidadosamente uma em detrimento de outra ou adicionalmente a outra.

Palavras-chave: Internationalisation, Higher Education, Management, Rationales.

Abstract

In the last decades internationalization has become increasingly important for universities. However, and despite its importance, there is still a lack not only of a conceptual broad consensus but also, of structured information to assist administration officers or academics in charge of Higher education institutions' management so they can make informed decisions on internationalization.

For these reasons, there is a general leaning towards an uninformed use of the concepts, and the implementation of ad hoc policies that fail to achieve the intended goals and that often result in costs rather than investments with visible return.

This study intends to consolidate information regarding the possible motivations and objectives for internationalization as well as the current available tools (in the sense of activities) for Higher education institutions. It is also intended to support decision making processes by establishing which tools are the most suited, considering the intended objectives.

We defend the idea that it is possible to reach a best match between motivations and tools in order to maximize returns on internationalization investments.

Through the categorisation of the main rationales for internationalization, the identification and description of the available tools as well as the analysis of different internationalization strategies, we have found that not all tools serve all rationales and that there are benefits in carefully choosing one over another or in addition to the other. Through the categorization of the main rationales, the identification and description of the available tools, as well as an analysis of cases of successful implementation regarding the different internationalization

strategies, used by Australian and Chinese HEIs, we have confirmed that the used tools change along with the modification of rationales. There are thus, more advantageous links than others when it comes to tools and rationales. That is to say, that not all tools are suitable to all rationales and there are clear benefits in carefully choosing one instead of the other or along with another tool.

Keywords: Internationalisation, Higher Education, Management, Rationales,

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1. Introduction

Internationalization is currently a “buzz” word in Universities all around the world and it has become a repeated statement in strategic plans for almost all Higher education institutions.

However, and despite this apparent unanimity regarding the importance of being internationalized, in reality, it means different things to different people. This is one of the topics that has most changed in recent decades, with a complex nature that is affected by national context and institutional bias. It is thus no wonder that the unanimity in the importance attached to the concept, completely vanishes when we try to materialize it and make plans for action. This situation tends to result in the adaptation of the concept to each institution’s reality and agenda, which often leads to a predisposition for myopic vision of what it really means to be an internationalized university. Reality shows that “Because of the multiplicity of existing concepts and rationales, internationalization is underscored as an argument for almost any higher education reform”. (Teichler, 2009)

In this context, we believe there is a general need for the systematization of information regarding this topic, in order to be able to answer the following questions: Why do Higher education institutions’ internationalize? What are the most common tools/activities used by Higher education institutions to internationalize? Are tools and activities universally applicable or should they be tailored to the motivations and objectives of internationalization? Is there only one tool for each objective, or can there be several tools that combined are the most suitable solution?

Considering the importance of internationalization in Higher education institutions’ management, the diversity of existing internationalization tools and

the need to make decisions that optimize resources and maximize results, we believe that this study can make a positive contribution to the work of Higher education institutions' administration managers.

2. Methodology

We start by building a conceptual framework through literature review. We then study and compare different approaches to the implementation of internationalization strategies by reviewing two case studies of HEI's internationalization strategies regarding Australia and China.

When making the case selection, one of the limitations we have found, was the shortage of cases with an institutional focus. In the future we consider that this topic would benefit from further research of cases on internationalization of HEIs focused at institutional level.

These two case studies regarding the internationalization strategies of China and Australia meet three different rationales, and were selected for the following reasons:

- » Most of the case studies we have reviewed showed several studies on internationalization of HEIs at the national level. We have chosen the Australian and Chinese cases because in both cases the institutional rationale chosen by each HEI converges at the national level, leading to a meaningful countrywide pattern shared by those institutions. This feature is critical since it enables us to illustrate the model we have built by showing the clear link between the rational and objective, and the tools that were chosen to achieve them.

- » Both these cases represent successful internationalization strategies;

- » They both illustrate internationalization strategies centred on different rationales (economic, academic and political);

- » They both show how different political and social contexts affect the decision making process of Higher education institutions' internationalization;
- » Australia was specifically chosen for its success in attracting international students (#3 in the world), despite its geographic context;
- » China was elected for its success in moving from a student exporter situation to a student importer, as well as the fact that China alone, has evolved from an academic rationale to a political one, and has acted by using tools, accordingly.

After reviewing the literature acquired through written and electronic library sources, we have analysed the differences and similarities between these cases and through an inductive method we have proposed a model to assist the decision making process of tailoring tools and activities to the motivations and objectives of internationalization for each HEI. We have used a qualitative content analysis with inductive category development.

Considering the above, we have structured the document as follows:

Chapter 3 is a conceptual framework on internationalization of Higher education institutions. It refers the main approaches to internationalization as well as the main definitions. Based on the definition, and through literature review we then systematize information on the rationales identified by several authors and we finish this chapter with the multi-level determinants affecting the strategic choices of Higher education institutions.

By the end of this chapter we have set the conceptual grounds required for a better understanding of the following chapters.

Chapter 4 identifies and characterizes the tools/activities used within the context of Higher education institutions' internationalization. We focus only in the program-based (vs operation-based) tools, as defined by Knight (1997). For each tool, we make a short characterization and identify which rational (es), is

better served by it. In the end we build a model of how the tools for internationalization meet the rationales previously identified by Higher education institutions. The purpose of the model is to be used as a tool to support strategic choices in internationalization.

Chapter 5, analyses some case studies regarding specific situations illustrating different rationales for internationalization, by comparing different approaches to the implementation of internationalization strategies in contexts such as Australia and China.

Chapter 6 draws conclusions regarding the model from Chapter 4 and the case analysis discussed in Chapter 5.

3. A framework for Internationalization of Higher education institutions

3.1 Approaches to internationalization

Throughout this study we find that, when it comes to the conceptualization of internationalization of higher education institutions, there is no unanimity of opinions. Not only can we find various concepts as we can predictably, find several approaches to these concepts. At this point, we are referring to two of those.

3.1.1. Programme-based vs organisation-based strategies

Knight's (1997) framework on this topic, distinguishes two internationalization approaches: a programme-based and an organisation-based strategies. The programme strategies include four sub-groups: (1) academic programmes, (2) research and scholarly collaboration, (3) extra-curriculum activities and (4) external relations and services. The organisational strategies are subdivided into governance, operations, support services and human resource development.

Building on this perspective it is important to note that Knight's framework involves and connects all of the three dimensions of a university's operation: management, academic (teaching and research) and service. In our opinion, this is a tacit statement that internationalization is a cross-cutting management principle that should involve the whole of the organization. This aspect is particularly relevant as there are still many universities where internationalization remains a segregated issue, often within the domain of the administration staff specifically designated for this area (Shawn, 2013).

3.1.2. - Activity/Competency/Ethos/Process

Qiang (2003), systematizes the opinions of several authors regarding internationalization in four different approaches used to describe the concept.

» The **activity approach** – This approach focuses in activities such as curriculum, student/faculty exchange, technical assistance, and international students. It is important to note that this approach was particularly useful in the 1970s and early 1980s when one described the international dimension in terms of specific activities or programs.

However, by looking at the international dimension as a series of activities, they lack consistency in terms of their operation, which often leads to a rather fragmented and uncoordinated approach to internationalization.

The **competency approach**, emphasizes the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values in students, faculty and staff. The purpose of internationalization, is thus to develop intercultural competencies of the HEI's staff through generation and transfer of knowledge. For this, development of internationalized curricula and programs is not an end in itself but a means towards developing the appropriate competencies in the students, staff and faculty.

» The **ethos approach**, focus on creating a culture or climate that values and supports international/intercultural perspectives and initiatives. This approach acknowledges that the international dimension is fundamental to the definition of a university or any other institutions of higher learning, and believes that without a strong belief system and supportive culture, the international dimension of an institution will never be apprehended.

» The **process approach**, stresses integration or infusion of an international/intercultural dimension into teaching, research and service through a combination of a wide range of activities, policies and procedures.

A major concern in this approach is the need to address the sustainability of the international dimension. There is a tacit notion in this view, that its sustainability has to be based on a more including approach. Therefore, besides program aspects, also organizational elements such as policies and procedures, are stressed.

Quiang (2013) approaches to internationalization are interesting for their complementarity. However, if we take a closer look at them, and we do it in an unconnected way, we can see that alone, each of these approaches is incomplete. They need each other to offer a complete view of what internationalization of HEIs should be, at the present day.

Both Knight (1997) and Quiang's (2013) approaches to internationalization are very helpful for the full understanding of internationalization's comprehensive nature. As it is mentioned below, no internationalization strategy can be successfully implemented without a wide-range view on the intertwining nature of its several dimensions.

3.2. Definitions of Internationalization of HEI's

When reviewing literature it is possible to find multiple concepts for internationalization of higher education institutions based on different approaches. Knight (1993) describes internationalization of higher education as "the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution". In turn, Van der Wende (1996) argues that internationalization refers to "any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy and labour markets". Later Qiang, (2003), following Knight's reasoning, states that "internationalization must be entrenched in the culture, policy, planning and

organizational process of the institution so that it can be both successful and sustainable". In a way, Qiang (2003) is tacitly acknowledging the comprehensive nature of internationalization.

Knight (2003) built on this idea by suggesting that a definition of internationalisation should reflect XXI century challenges and issues and should be appropriate to a broad range of contexts. She also characterizes internationalisation as an ongoing process that requires continuing effort, rather than a one-off policy statement. This definition also implies that internationalisation should be embedded in all of the universities' decisions.

Although these definitions, particularly Knight's, are broadly supported and used in several key texts on the internationalisation of higher education, Warwick (2014) argues that many academic managers remain rather confused and uncertain about what internationalisation is, what its implications are and what needs to be done to implement it, making it one of the major challenges for internationalisation in Higher education institutions, either at an institutional or national level.

In the end, we may conclude that internationalization of higher education remains a messy field, as only timid attempts were made to systematize the process (Kehm, 2003). This, makes public and institutional policy formulation very difficult. Therefore, unless we systematize information and identify the communalities, complementarities but also the differences between the multiple definitions and approaches, we will end up doing costly and ineffective choices. For the purpose of this study, we use a definition of internationalization built on Knight's (2003) concept of internationalisation as the "process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education", by defining internationalisation as a management principle (i.e. a guideline for decision making and management action) based on the need to integrate an international, intercultural or global

dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education. Internationalization at the higher education institutions' level is no longer a strategy, a process and much less a goal in itself. Internationalization is an underlying factor of success.

Our study builds on this definition of internationalization.

3.3. Rationales for Internationalization

Rationales can be described as motivations for integrating an international dimension into higher education. They address the 'why' of internationalisation. Different rationales entail different means and ends to internationalisation (De Wit, 2002).

Just as there are multiple views on approaches and definitions, also when it comes to the rationales for internationalization it is possible to find, in literature a great diversity of categorizations.

Rationales have a strong influence on the internationalisation of higher education, as they are the driving force for action regarding internationalisation. They should thus, reflect the higher education institutions' core values and its election should rely on well thought decision processes. Nevertheless, and since most of the times decisions are made with no previous systematization of information, rationales are seldom made explicit.

For the purpose of this study, we explore four classifications regarding motivations or rationales for the internationalization of higher education institutions.

As for the several authors, mainly from the late XX century, (90's decade), who propose several other different rationales for internationalization, we systematize their views in Table 1.

Aigner et al.	Scott	Warner	Johnston & Edelstein	Knight & De Wit	Blumenthal et al
1992	1992	1992	1993	1995	1996
International security	Economic competitiveness,	Competitive model - make students, the institution, and the country more competitive in the global economic marketplace	Ensure the nation's economic competitiveness.	Economic	Political
Economic competitiveness;	Environmental interdependence,	Liberal Model - self-development in a changing world and/or global education for human relations and citizenship		Political	Economic
Human understanding across nations.	Increasing ethnic and religious diversity of local communities	The social transformation model - to give students a deeper awareness of international and context of revenue-producing work		Educational	Educational
	the reality that many citizens work for foreign-owned firms			Cultural	Cultural
	Influence of international trade on small business,				Academic
	The fact that college graduates will supervise or be supervised by people of different racial and ethnic groups from their own				Scientific
	National security and peaceful relations between nations.				Technological

Table 1 – Rationales for Internationalization- (1992-1996)

Knight, J. 1997	Knight, J. 2004	Maringe et al. 2013	Seeber et al. 2016
Political	Nation Building (NL) ¹ Strategic Alliances (NL) ¹ Political (NL+IL)		
Academic	Student and staff development (IL) ² Human Resources Development. (IL) ² Research and Knowledge Production (IL) ² International Profile and Reputation (IL) ² Strategic Alliances (IL) ² Academic (NL+IL)	Curriculum	Enhanced internationalization of the curriculum; Improved quality of teaching; Strengthened institutional research and knowledge production capacity Enhanced prestige/profile for the institution; Opportunity to benchmark/compare institutional performance within the context of international good practice; Enhanced international cooperation and capacity building Increased international networking by faculty and researchers
Cultural	Social and Cultural development (NL) ¹ Cultural (NL+IL)	Cultural	Increased international awareness of/deeper engagement with global issues by students;
Economic	Commercial trade (NL) ¹ Income Generation (IL) ² Human Resources Development. (NL) ¹ Economic (NL+IL)	Commercial	Increased/diversified revenue generation.

Table 2 – Rationales for Internationalization- (1997-2016)

¹ (NL)National Level

² (IL) Institutional Level

Rationales may change over time and may change according to country and region. For this reason, we focus on more recent rationales (1997-2016), since their modernity makes them better suited for a present day context analysis.

To assist with the analysis of these four perspectives, we have built Table 2 - Rationales for Internationalization (1997-2016), where we systematize the classifications by Knight (1997), Knight (2007), Maringe et al (2013) and by Seeber et al (2016).

Knight (1997) defines four main reasons for the internationalization of higher education: (1) Economic, (2) Academic, (3) Cultural and Social, and (4) Political. These four rationales are defined by Knight (1997) as follows:

Rationale	Description
economic	Refers to objectives related to either the long-term economic effects, where internationalization of higher education is seen as a contribution to the skilled human resources needed for international competitiveness of the nation, and where foreign graduates are seen as keys to the country's trade relations, or the direct economic benefits, e.g. institutional income and net economic effect of foreign students, etc
academic	Includes objectives related to the aims and functions of higher education. One of the leading reasons cited for internationalizing the higher education sector is the achievement of international academic standards for teaching and research. It is often assumed that by enhancing the international dimension of teaching, research and service, there is value added to the quality of a higher education system. This premise is clearly based on the assumption that

Rationale	Description
	internationalization is considered to be central to the mission of the institution and is not a marginalized endeavour. Linked to the notion of enhancing the quality of education is the idea that internationalization is often a positive change agent for institutional building.
cultural/social rationale	Concentrates on the role and place of the country's own culture and language and on the importance of understanding foreign languages and culture"
political rationale	Relates to issues concerning the country's position and role as a nation in the world, e.g. security, stability and peace, ideological influence, etc.

Table 3 – Rationales for Internationalization according to Knight (1997)

Knight (2004), adds to her previous view arguing that there are new and emerging rationales that cannot be neatly placed in one of the four groups that she had set earlier: social/cultural, political, academic, and economic. As a result, Knight defines a new set of rationales, to be added to the aforementioned ones. These rationales are more specific and of a less comprehensive nature and they are divided into two levels: national and institutional. Each level includes the four categories defined by Knight (1997), in addition to the new rationales she now recognises. This new approach is summarized in Figure 1:

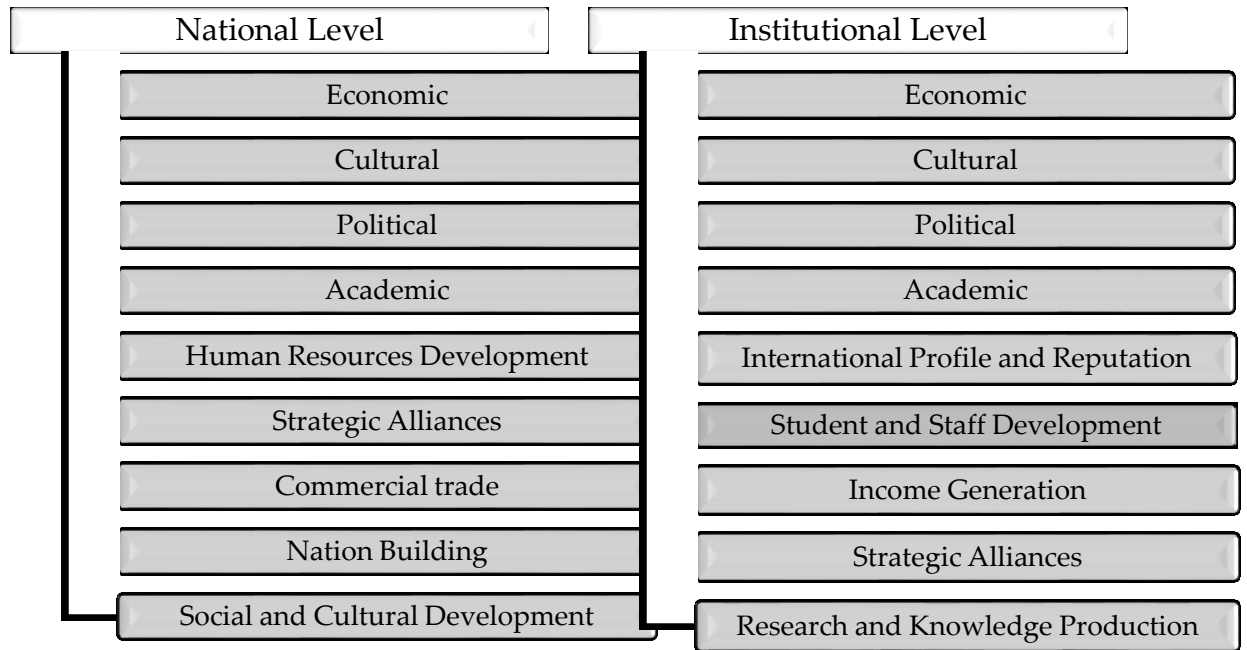


Fig. 1 Rationales for Internationalization according to Knight (2004)

Knight (2004) introduces the idea of two levels of rationales regarding internationalization: The national level and the institutional level. This distinction is important since not all authors take into account the national level rationales.

» **National Level**

Rationale	Description
Human Resources Development	Its importance stems from the current global context of knowledge economy, demographic shifts, mobility of the labour force, and increased trade in services. These aspects are driving nations to place more importance on developing and recruiting human capital or brain power through international education initiatives.
Strategic Alliances	The international mobility of students and academics as well as collaborative research and education initiatives are being

Rationale	Description
	seen as productive ways to develop closer geopolitical ties and economic relationships. In this context it is noted that there has been a definite shift from alliances for cultural purposes to those based on economic interests.
Commercial Trade	Education is seen as a commodity leading to a growing emphasis on economic and income-generating opportunities, and a more commercial approach to internationalization. In this context, it is worth mentioning that education is now one of the 12 service sectors in the General Agreement on Trade in Services is positive proof that importing and exporting education programs and services is a potentially lucrative trade area.
Nation Building	An educated, trained, and knowledgeable citizenry and workforce able to do research and generate new knowledge are key components of a country's nation-building agenda.
Social and Cultural Development	It is a way to promote intercultural understanding and national cultural identity

Table 4: Rationales at a national level (Knight 2004)

» **Institutional Level**

Rationale	Description
International Profile and Reputation	This is a substitute rationale to the traditional, prominence given to the goal of achieving international academic standards (no matter how they may be defined). This motivation appears, to have been subsumed by the overall drive to achieve a strong worldwide reputation or "brand"

Rationale	Description
	name as an international high-quality institution. This drive relates to the quest for name recognition internationally in an attempt to attract the brightest of scholars and students, a substantial number of international students, and high-profile research and training projects.
Student and Staff Development	The escalating number of national, regional, international, and cultural conflicts are pushing academics to help students understand global issues and international and intercultural relationships. The mobility of the labour market and cultural diversity in communities and work places require that both students and academics have an increased understanding and skills to work and live in a culturally diverse or different environment.
Income Generation	For-profit internationalization is a growing phenomenon. Another key factor is the growth in the number of new private commercial providers who are primarily in business to generate income on a for-profit basis.
Strategic Alliances	Different purposes: academic mobility, benchmarking, joint curriculum or program development, seminars and conferences, and joint research initiatives. Knight (2004) argues that the rationale for developing key strategic international education alliances at both the national and institutional level is not so much an end unto itself but a means of achieving academic, scientific, economic, technological, or cultural objectives.

Rationale	Description
Research and Knowledge Production	This is a way of addressing global issues and challenges that cannot be addressed at the national level alone, given the increasing interdependence among nations. International and interdisciplinary collaboration is key to solving many global problems such as those related to environmental, health, or crime issues. Institutions and national governments are, therefore, continuing to make the international dimension of research and knowledge production a primary rationale for internationalization of higher education.

Table 5: Rationales at an institutional level (Knight 2004)

In turn, Maringe et al (2013), following a global survey conducted by the authors argue that the data gathered suggest the emergence of three different rationales for internationalization. The rationales are value-driven models of internationalisation existing in universities across the world and translate in: commercial-value driven; cultural-value driven and curriculum-value driven internationalised universities. It is important to note that these models are not mutually exclusive entities. Not only because universities across the world share much in common, but also as this study shows, all elements regarding internationalization of HEIs, are intertwined. What differs, however, are the priorities to these three broad values associated with the process of internationalisation in higher education, given by universities in different parts of the world. It is also important to note that not all universities in similar regional groupings share the same values, as individual institutions tend to have specific factors that define and shape their existence and identity in the market.

As an illustration of this point, we can observe that international higher education is a significant industry in all the Anglophone countries (Van de

Wende, 2001) and is increasingly important to the economies of those countries. As an example, international higher education is the fourth biggest export earner and is vital to the whole economy in New Zealand (Bennet, 1998; Li, 2004), or Australia.

Nevertheless, not all university internationalisation strategies have to be so commercially focussed; for example, Scandinavian institutions tend to concentrate their internationalisation activities on the needs of their home students, preparing them for work in a globalised society and job market by focussing their efforts on study-abroad options (Dobson & Holta 2001; Tossavainen, 2009). Leading French and many other European business schools concentrate their internationalisation efforts on meeting the requirements of the European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS) accreditation body (Perrin-Halot & Thomas, 2012) while South Korean institutions have focussed their internationalisation strategy on switching to English as the medium of instruction (Piller & Cho, 2013).

Twenty-first century universities, as well as their academic staff and students work and study in an increasingly competitive global HE industry, in which HE providers compete to recruit the best staff, produce the best research and develop strong international reputations (Healey, 2008).

Seeber, et al. (2016) have also contributed to this discussion by identifying nine rationales for internationalization (see Table 6).

Rationales	Description
<p>Increased international awareness of/deeper engagement with global issues by students</p>	<p>Internationalization is expected to contribute to the “training of opened-minded and dynamic citizens able to work in foreign and culturally diverse environments, to deal with an increasingly diverse and internationally mobile society and labour market” (Altbach and Knight 2007).</p>
<p>Enhanced internationalization of the curriculum.</p>	<p>Internationalization enables Higher education institutions to adjust curricula to international standards, and to develop joint curricula with external partners thus offering national students greater competencies and opportunities, as well as resulting in being more attractive to foreign students.</p>
<p>Improved quality of teaching and learning</p>	<p>Internationalization is perceived to have beneficial spill-over on the quality of the educational services, by spurring the conformity to international quality levels Taylor (2004a, b), easing the development of joint programs, through the involvement of foreign professors, and the organization of extra-curricular activities (such as international and intercultural campus events).</p>
<p>Strengthened institutional research and knowledge production capacity</p>	<p>The growing complexity and costs associated with doing research implies that a single country or institution can hardly possess sufficient resources and capabilities. Internationalization is thus</p>

	essential to complement resources, skills and knowledge.
Enhanced prestige/profile for the institution	Internationalization can be a valid strategy to increase the Higher education institutions' prestige in the eyes of national and international peers and stakeholders, and legitimate themselves in the local environment (Knight 2004). Most scientifically reputed universities are quite often highly internationalized as well, which suggests that highly internationalized HEIs tend to be perceived as being high quality as well. Further, the prestige rationale has become more important since the introduction of international rankings, as international outlook is often included among the performance indicators (Saisana et al. 2011).
Opportunity to benchmark/compare institutional performance	Universities may improve through comparisons with their competitors and peers (Knight 2004).
Enhanced international cooperation and capacity building.	Internationalization is beneficial to institutional cooperation, which is essential to strengthen their activities beyond the constraints of local resources.
Increased international networking by faculty and researchers	This has positive effects such as reduced academic parochialism and more central positions in research networks.

Increased/diversified generation revenue	Internationalization can increase the number of full-fee paying foreign students and partnerships with enterprise, hence increasing revenues and contributing to the diversification of resources.
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Table 6 – Rationales by Seeber, et al. (2016)

In analysing the rationales identified by these authors, it seems that unlike Knight, they are focused only on the institutional level rationales.

Considering the stated above, and namely that:

- (a) Seeber et al. (2016) focus mainly on the institutional level and don't identify any political rationales, which are a motivation for the internationalization of some higher education institutions, as is the case of China;
- (b) In state-controlled Higher education institutions it may be difficult to differentiate what are institutional and national level rationales;
- (c) All in all, the rationales driving internationalization vary from institution to institution, from stakeholder to stakeholder, and from country to country. Knight (2004). Thus, if we get very specific regarding its classification, we may end up with a multiplicity of rationales impossible to manage and systematize;
- (d) Knight's (2004) rationales are not clearly systematized. They are both of a comprehensive and specific nature;
- (e) Some of the rationales defined by Knight, in 2004 and by Seeber et al. should be considered as tools and not rationales. These are the cases of strategic alliances Knight, (2004) or enhanced international cooperation, increased international networking by faculty and researchers, and internationalization of the curriculum (Seeber et al.);

- (f) The rationales added by Knight in 2004 and identified by Seeber et al. can fall into the broader categories previously defined by Knight in 1997 (see table 1).
- (g) Rationales defined by Maringe et al. (2013), are compatible with the rationales defined by Knight (1997), but are a less comprehensive. They miss out on the political rationale.

Keeping in mind that changes are taking place at a rapid pace in many parts of the world, and rationales are becoming more and more interconnected, (De Wit 2011), we believe that the rationales defined by Knight (1997), for internationalization of higher education may be the ones that better fit the evolutionary nature of the internationalization processes and realities and as so, the ones that serve best the purpose of this study.

3.4. - Multi-level determinants

When analysing rationales, as De Wit (2002) points out, one has to take into account some conditions affecting them. There is a diversity of stakeholders' groups in higher education. Additionally, there is a strong overlap in rationales within each of these stakeholders groups, and between the different stakeholders' groups. Usually, the main differences are in the hierarchy of priorities, which may change over time and may change by country and region.

Identifying the rationale that will guide the internationalization strategy, requires an informed decision-making process that takes into account all the variables that may impact our choice.

Considering this, Seeber et al (2016) have built a model where they describe the factors that influence the choice of a certain rationale instead of other as well as the relation between the factors. More specifically they state that the rationale for internationalization in a specific Higher education institutions is related to several factors at environmental (macro), organizational (meso) and intra-organizational (micro) level.

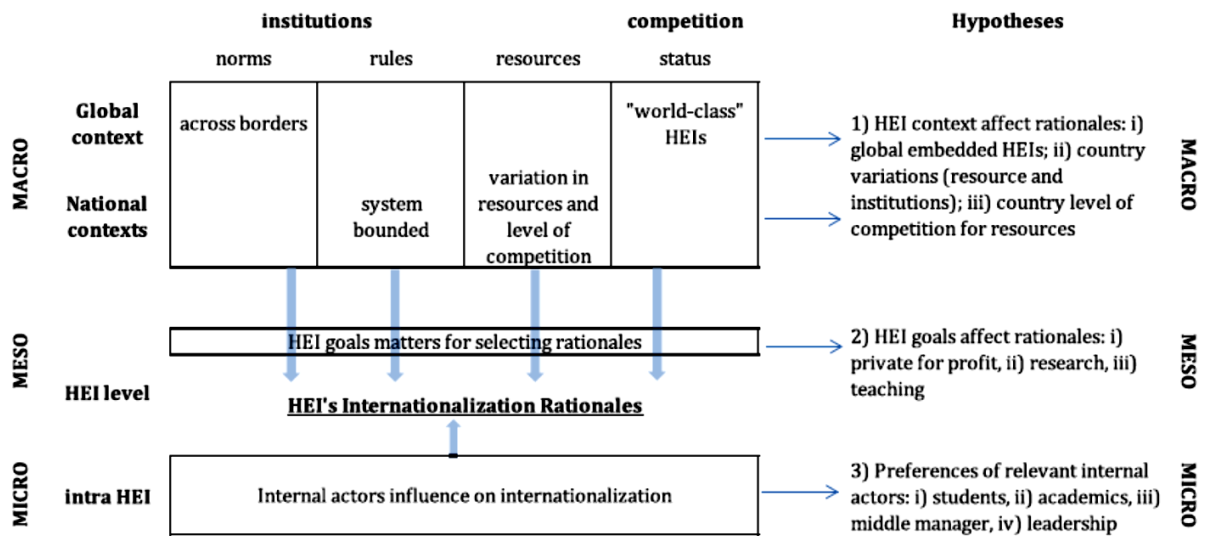


Fig.2 Multilevel antecedents of internationalization rationales (Seeber, et al, 2016)

Based on this model, Seeber et al (2016) state that the importance of a given rationale for a specific Higher education institution results from factors at multiple levels that impact the decision making process. That is the case with national and global contexts, the institutional goals that have been set and, the preferences of relevant internal actors. Considering this Seeber et al (2016), have also established that Higher education institutions leaders' capability to discern what is appropriate for their Institutions may benefit from recognizing the existence of these multiple internal and external influences.

Seeber et al. (2016) argue that national contexts do not affect Higher education institutions' rationales much, and that the amount of resources is less important

than the resources competition for the selection of rationales. It is the immediate organizational context, both in terms of organizational goals and internal actors' interests, who emerge as particularly relevant. However, there is still little data and further research is needed on the role governments should have to assist Higher education institutions in managing internationalization.

This model while showing the multi-level determinants affecting the strategic choices of Higher education institutions, provide us a powerful and cross-cutting tool for Higher education institutions when it comes to elect priorities amongst rationales and selecting tools to meet those rationales. At the same time, it shows us that despite rationales are mostly affected by the institutional conditions (institutional level), internationalization requires a holistic approach.

4 - Internationalization Tools/Activities

There are several motivations and approaches to internationalization of HEIs which need to be taken into account when making decisions on the tools to be used in order to accomplish the pre-set goals.

Knight's (1997) framework on this topic, distinguishes two internationalization approaches: a programme-based and an organisation-based strategies. The programme strategies include four sub-groups: academic programmes, research and scholarly collaboration, extra-curriculum activities and external relations and services. The organisational strategies are subdivided into governance, operations, support services and human resource development.

Building on this perspective it is important to note that Knight's (1997) framework involves and connects all of the three dimensions of the universities' operations: management, academic and services. In our opinion, this is a tacit statement that internationalization is a cross-cutting management principle that should involve all the people in the organization. This aspect is particularly relevant as empirical evidence reveals that there are still many universities where internationalization remains a segregated issue, often within the domain of the administration staff specifically designated for this area.

In this study, we focus only on the programme strategies, as defined by Knight, although, we believe that, as a cross-cutting management principle, this topic would benefit from further research on the organisational strategies tools.

Considering the above and after multiple case studies analysis supported by empirical evidence, we have identified eight main tools used by higher education institutions within their internationalization strategies: (i) Students and Staff Mobility (ii) International Students; (iii) International Programs: Joint, Double/Multiple and Consecutive Degrees; (iv) Internationalization of the

Curriculum; (v) Branch Campuses; (vi) Delivery of Distance Education Courses; (vii) Scholarships/Funding; (viii) Research Consortia.

Throughout this chapter we review these tools keeping in mind that operational-based and programme-based internationalization strategies are complementary, and that in this study we are focusing only on programme-based strategies. We believe that this topic could benefit from further research on operational – based strategies.

i. Students and staff mobility

Unlike almost all topics regarding internationalization of HEIs, international debates are not very controversial as far as the meaning of “international student mobility” is concerned. According to Euro Data on “Student mobility in European higher education” promoted by ACA³ “an internationally mobile student is a student having crossed a national border in order to study or to undertake other study-related activities for at least a certain unit of a study programme or a certain period of time in the country he or she has moved to.”

The biggest challenge still facing this activity is the lack of or mismatch in academic recognition, especially when it comes to Universities within different educational systems.

There is no doubt about the important role played by the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) in facilitating student mobility and international curriculum development. [and] ... note that ECTS is increasingly becoming a generalized basis for the national credit systems, as stated by Ministers who produced the Berlin Communique in September 2003.

Additionally, Karran (2004) argues that transparent and consistent credit transfer procedures are essential for full academic recognition, and currently, the

³ Academic Cooperation Association

European Credit Transfer System is the most widely used mechanism to enable credit transfer between universities in different EU nations.

However, there is still a long way to go regarding the efficient use of this system within EU countries. The results demonstrate that the alignment of ECTS grades varies within nation states and show that, despite the fact that ECTS grading is a norm-referenced system, while national systems are usually criterion-referenced, the ECTS conversion tables provided by universities shows that:

- » There is a move to compare ECTS norm-referenced grades with national criterion-referenced grades, in a manner which is ad hoc and unsystematic.
- » There is a straight line transference from institutional to ECTS grades.

Moreover, Sullivan (2002) points out that the wide spread use and very simplicity of the ECTS has given it a potentially misleading “veneer of validity, reliable and standard maintenance”.

As for non-EU countries, who don't use ECTS, and have different credit systems, the situation is understandably more complex.

When promoting student's exchange, universities are usually driven by the wish to raise intercultural awareness within the academic community. This is the reason why we believe that the rationale behind this activity is essentially cultural.

ii. International Students

International students are, in our view, one of the most powerful tools within an internationalization strategy, since they serve all the rationales, as shown below.

International students are usually on the agenda of every Higher education institutions for economic motivations, since they contribute heavily to the

increase/diversification of the University's revenue generation. Despite this, international students may also be an effective tool when it comes to the cultural, academic and political rationale.

Delgado-Marquez et al. (2011) argue that since international students are one of the indicators valued by the most renowned rankings, they contribute to improve HEI's positions in rankings. Within this context, Internationalization is seen as a reflection of the proportion of international students and faculty who are attracted to a certain institution. In the case of THES⁴ ranking's methodology, each of those groups represents 5% in the total score of this ranking. Consequently, the total weight given to internationalization in the THES ranking methodology is 10%.

Also, when it comes to the political rationale, and specifically when we think about soft power and a country's capacity to be influent, again international students are key, since they will work as ambassadors and promoters of the host country's culture and values. This was what the US did back in the 1950s with the Fulbright Program. According to the US Bureau of Education and Cultural Affairs, the Program's philosophy was based on the idea that by attracting foreign students to the US and by funding their studies there, they would be able to, upon their return, promote a better understanding of others regarding the US and at the same time, to spread its values across the world.

Finally, international students such as international teaching and non-teaching staff add cultural diversity to campus and are thus a very interesting way of promoting intercultural awareness and cross cultural understanding.

⁴ Times Higher Education

iii. International Programs: Joint, Double/Multiple and Consecutive Degrees

The IIE Survey Report of 180 higher education institutions on joint and double degree programmes in the transatlantic context finds that before 1990, fewer than 10% of US institutions surveyed had launched their first dual degree program, but by 2005 and later, this had grown to 30%. A significant majority of respondents (87% of US and 85% of EU) planned to develop more international joint or dual degree programmes (Kuder & Obst, 2009).

In what concerns double, joint and consecutive degree programs, two opposite perspectives can be found among academic staff: (1) these degrees are welcomed as a natural extension of exchange and mobility programs. (2) These degrees present challenges regarding its recognition since there are still some questions regarding the double counting of academic work and the thin edge of academic fraud. In the end, it will all depend on the approach institutions have to these tools. Knight, (2011) argues that there are challenges in the implementation of these programs, resultant from the diversity of program models; the uncertainty related to quality assurance and qualifications recognition; and finally, the ethics involved in deciding what academic workload or new competencies are required for the granting of joint, double, multiple or consecutive degrees. However, if Higher education institutions do it right, they can be a strong internationalization tool, serving both, academic, economic, cultural and political rationales that can bring important benefits to individuals, institutions and national and regional education systems.

Despite the fact that there are numerous program models, we try to systematize the main models regarding international programs, for the purpose of our work, i.e., joint degree programs, double degree /multiple degree programs and consecutive degree programs (Knight 2008), by using the core

elements used to describe double and joint degrees, which include: 1) number of collaborating institutions, 2) number of qualifications/certificates awarded, 3) completion time, 4) organization of the program, 5) recognition bodies and 6) number of countries involved, as shown in table 2:

	Joint degrees	Double degrees	Multiple degrees	Consecutive degrees
1) number of collaborating institutions	2 or more	2	More than 2	2
2) number of qualifications/certificates awarded,	1	2	It will depend on the number of involved institutions	2
3) completion time	Normally extended	not extended	Extended beyond the length of a single degree program in order to meet the requirements of all partners participating in the collaborative program	Longer than a single program, but shorter than if the two degrees are taken separately.
4) organization of the program,	Mobility (physical or virtual) of students, professors and/or course content	There is no standard way to establish completion requirements due to the variety of disciplines, fields of study and national regulations involved.		It requires students' mobility. Two consecutive qualifications are awarded when program requirements for each degree, as stipulated by the awarding institutions, are completed.
5) recognition bodies	there are six UNESCO regional conventions	Each partnership will apply the practices and legalities of the respective country's recognition body.		Each partnership will apply the practices and legalities of the respective country's recognition body.
6) number of countries involved.	2 or more	2	More than 2	2

Table 2 – Main Models of International Programs

» **Joint Degrees**

According to the Report on an International Survey on Joint and Double Degree programs in the global context (2011), by the Institute of International Education and International joint degree programs are study programs collaboratively offered by two (or more) higher education institutions located in different countries. They typically feature a jointly developed and integrated curriculum and agreed-on credit recognition. Students typically study at the two (or more) partnering higher education institutions (i.e., 1 home institution + 1 institution abroad). Upon completion of the study program, students are awarded a single degree certificate issued and signed jointly by all institutions involved in the program.

The distinguishing feature of this type of international collaborative program towards a Dual/Multiple or consecutive degrees is that only one qualification is awarded jointly by the cooperating institutions. The duration of the program is normally not extended and thus students have the advantage of completing a joint program in the same time period as an individual program from one of the institutions. The design and integration of the course of study varies from program to program, but it normally involves the mobility (physical or virtual) of students, professors and/or course content. It is important to emphasize that students travelling to the partner country for research or course work is not a requirement in all joint degrees programs. Visiting professors, distance courses and joint virtual research projects are options that provide valuable alternatives to student mobility.

As we have mentioned, there are challenges in the award of a joint qualification. One of these challenges are national regulations, since in many countries, national accreditation agencies and regulations may collide with the partners' national accreditation agencies and regulations and thus will make it

impossible for a university to jointly confer a qualification in association with a foreign institution.

The situation becomes more complicated when one looks for an international body that will recognize a joint degree from two bona fide institutions. At this point, the Lisbon Convention for Recognition of Credentials is the only one of six UNESCO regional conventions that does so. Innovative ways to circumvent this problem have been developed by organizers of joint degree programs.

Overall, the most important features of a joint degree program are the strengths that each institution brings to the program and the opportunities it allows for students to benefit from a program that draws on the teaching, curricular and research expertise of two or more institutions

» **Double Degree Program/Multiple Degree Program**

International dual/double degree programs are study programs collaboratively offered by two (or more) higher education institutions located in different countries. They typically feature a jointly developed and integrated curriculum and agreed-on credit recognition. Students typically study at the two (or more) partnering higher education institutions (i.e., 1 home institution + 1 institution abroad). Upon completion of the study program, students receive degree certificates issued separately by each of the institutions involved in the program. (Report on an International Survey on Joint and Double Degree programs in the global context by the Institute of International Education and International, 2011).

Contrary to what happens with the joint degree, this programme is based on the assumption of full academic recognition of the courses offered by the partner(s) institution (s), just as if the students were doing an exchange period abroad, under a students' exchange agreement.

According to Knight, (2011) the duration of a double or multiple degree program can be extended beyond the length of a single degree program in order to meet the requirements of all partners participating in the collaborative program. The legality and recognition of the qualifications awarded by a double/multiple degree program are more straightforward than for joint degrees. It is assumed that each partner institution is officially registered or licensed in its respective country. Thus, awards offered by the enrolling institution in a collaborative program should be recognized in that country, while the other or double awards would be treated like any other foreign credential.

The major hurdles facing double/multiple degree programs involve the design of the curriculum and the establishment of completion requirements. There is no standard way to establish completion requirements due to the variety of disciplines, fields of study and national regulations involved.

Each partnership does it according to the practices and legalities of the collaborating institutions.

However, the double/multiple counting of the same student workload or of learning outcomes can put the academic integrity of the program in jeopardy. The idea of having two degrees from two different institutions in two different countries is attractive to students, but careful attention needs to be given to ensuring that the value and recognition of the qualifications are valid and do not violate the premise and academic purpose of a collaborative degree program. This is especially true for multiple degree programs.

» **Consecutive Degree Program”**

A consecutive degree program awards two different qualifications at consecutive levels upon completion of the collaborative program requirements established by the partner institutions.” Knight, (2011)

This kind of program basically involves two consecutive qualifications (usually bachelor's/master's degrees or master's degree/doctorate) awarded when program requirements for each degree, as stipulated by the awarding institutions, are completed. For the international consecutive degree program, the two awarding institutions are located in different countries. In this case, it is usual for a student to be mobile and complete the course work and research requirements for the first degree in one country and the requirements for the second degree in the partner institution located in another country. The duration of the program is usually longer than a single program, but shorter than if the two degrees are taken separately.

Double degree programs appear to be much more common than joint degree programs. Eighty-four percent of respondents offer double degree programs while only 33 percent offer joint degree programs. (Report on an International Survey on Joint and Double Degree programs in the global context by the Institute of International Education and International, 2011).

Obst, D. et al (2011) argue that joint and double degree programs are a major tool for internationalization in Europe, and that they are currently, very popular tools in all world regions. A growing number of higher education institutions have decided to start new double degree programs.

According with the Report on an International Survey on Joint and Double Degree programs in the global context by the Institute of International Education and International, (2011).The top motivations for developing joint or double degree programs are broadening educational offerings, strengthening research collaboration, advancing internationalization, and raising international visibility/prestige. Notably, increasing revenue was major motivating factor only for respondents from the UK.

However, the growing enthusiasm for collaborative degree programs is moderated by a few challenges regarding accreditation and academic recognition.

Considering the above, it is reasonable to conclude that all these models present both advantages and challenges for the institutions involved. In order to have a better understanding of these Challenges and Opportunities we have built the table below (Table 3):

	Joint degrees	Double degrees /Multiple degrees	Consecutive degrees
Challenges	Effort put into the design and integration of totally new program	Design of the curriculum and the establishment of completion requirements	Academic Recognition - design of the curriculum and the establishment of completion requirements
	National Regulations- Accreditation	Ensure the value and validity of the qualifications recognition - Double Counting of Credits	National Regulations- Accreditation
	Additional Costs Double Counting of Credits		
Opportunities	Innovative programs that draw on the teaching, curricular and research expertise of two or more institutions	With no significant additional costs	With no significant additional costs
		Innovative programs, based on an already existing offer that draw on the teaching, curricular and research expertise of two or more institutions,	Innovative programs, based on an already existing offer that draw on the teaching, curricular and research expertise of two or more institutions,

Table 3 – International Programs – Challenges and Opportunities

Many of the reported challenges to accreditation point to a lack of an internationally-recognized accreditation system and the burden of bureaucracy. In addition, local laws and government were also cited as barriers to the accreditation process.

As for the double counting of credits within Joint or Double Degree Programs, according to survey respondents, this issue appears to be one of the least important challenges. Furthermore, 66 percent of the responding institutions indicated that they have measures in place to regulate the double counting of credits.

iv. Internationalization of the Curriculum

Kreber, (2009) argues that: “Internationalizing the curriculum involves “educating for world-mindedness.” And, educating for world-mindedness is more than just selecting the appropriate contents and pedagogies in order to ensure that the needs of international students are well met. It also means that intercultural and diversity awareness are embedded in the curriculum. Thinking about course design through the lens of educating for world-mindedness prompts among many faculty a process of transformation of the assumptions guiding their educational purposes and pedagogies.

The benefits of inserting international content in the existing courses translate in positive conveyance of values, attitudes, and the students, knowledge about the people, systems, cultures, and different nations. Such opportunities enable students to understand the slight difference of the position of their own culture and the hypotheses occupied in the larger international content (American Council on International Intercultural Education, 2006).

Green (2005) also states that students should gain skills and international knowledge not only on campus but also in classes. Basic international learning courses include those courses with universal and international subjects, learning foreign languages, or establishing courses which are not particularly international, but emphasize on international issues.

In turn, Schuerholz-Lehr, Caws, Van Gyn & Preece (2007) defined curricular internationalization as a process by which international elements are infused into course content, international resources are used in course readings and assignments, and instructional methodologies appropriate to a culturally diverse student population are implemented. This definition places the faculty in the role of central actor in curriculum transformation, suggesting that an internationalized curriculum will have much to do with faculty members' perspectives and values (Badley, 2000). Internationalizing curriculum(ae) is therefore also an exercise in transforming faculty members' perspectives and increasing their global competence.

We trust that despite a few specificities all these perspectives focus on the same aspects which are the need to promote intercultural awareness by inserting international elements into course content, and to adjust instructional methodologies to a culturally diverse student population.

Considering this, we believe that internationalization of the curriculum serves best the social/cultural rationale.

Additionally, and at a national level, internationalization of the curriculum strengthens the development of human resources, contributing thus, for the accomplishment of an economic rationale.

v. Campuses Abroad /Foreign Campuses

One of the most popular formats of internationalization in countries such as UK, USA, Russia, France or Australia is the development of campuses abroad.

In turn, cities like Hong Kong, Singapore and Kuala Lumpur, play host to multiple international branch campuses.

Kritz (2006) describes Branch Campuses as "formal cross-border higher education initiatives structured from the outset with the intent of awarding participating students with a joint degree" (p. 9). Within these arrangements, the

degree may be awarded under the university's official name without the student being enrolled at the institution's home campus in its country of origin. (Gopal, 2011)

In turn, Hawawini, (2016), based on a definition given by the Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) describes branch campuses as an 'entity that is operated in the exclusive name of a foreign Higher education institutions in which it engages in face-to-face teaching and delivers an entire academic program that leads to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider to students who have completed the program in the foreign entity.'

Hawawini, (2016) considers that the defining feature of a foreign campus is the award by the foreign institution of its own degree to students who successfully completed a program that has been delivered entirely in the foreign location. The facilities in which the campus is located can be provided by an agency of the host country or rented or owned (fully or partly) by the foreign Higher education institutions whose faculty can reside in the host country permanently or only during the duration of their teaching assignment.

Despite these definitions and, as we have been witnessed throughout this work, conceptual boundaries are often blurred, and in this specific case, empirical evidence has shown that in fact we can identify three types of campus: the branch model, the federal model, and the global model. These different types of campus have different working models, both in terms of the delivery of a diploma, in terms of the faculty, or even the type of students for which they are intended.

Each model's characteristics are shaped by the specific mission (implicit or explicit) that the Higher education institutions has adopted.

» **Branch Model**

An international mission that calls for the transmission of knowledge from the home campus to foreign campuses located in the lesser developed regions of the world is best accomplished through a branch model.

In this case, the foreign campuses are satellites fully controlled and managed by the home institution. Curricula and degrees are developed in the home campus and delivered in the branches to local students who usually apply for admission to the branch campus and are accepted to that campus according to criteria that take into account the local market conditions. In general, admission to the local campus does not allow students to switch permanently to the home campus but they can go there to attend some classes over a limited period of time. Upon graduation, students are conferred a degree that is awarded by the home institution. Faculty members teaching in the branch campus are either transferred from the home campus for a period of time or recruited locally with a local contract that does not allow them to move permanently to the home institution. The locally recruited faculty is usually trained in a recognized university located in a developed country, often the Higher education institutions' home country, and evaluated according to standards set by that campus that may differ from those used to evaluate the faculty on the home campus.

» **Federal Model**

In this context, the international mission of a Higher education institutions is to offer its students and faculty the opportunity to experience the world. This international mission is best served by a federal model of multicampus higher education institutions that consists of semi-autonomous campuses that are well integrated in their local economy and managed locally with some central oversight from the main campus. Curricula and programs are developed by locally recruited faculty and may differ across campuses. The language of

instruction may be the local one and not that of the country in which the main campus is located. The student body is composed of two distinct groups: one group of local students who remain on the local campus for the entire duration of the program and another group composed of foreign students who rotate between the campuses that make up the federation. The students who do not rotate receive a local degree while rotating students receive a degree awarded by the main campus (and possibly a dual degree). Faculty members are affiliated with the local campus and evaluated according to standards established in these campuses. They would be encouraged to spend time on some of the other campuses to experience teaching and research in different environments.

» **The global model**

In this context, the international mission of a Higher education institutions is to learn from the world, not teach the world (the branch model) or just experience it (the federal model).

This international mission is best served by the global model of multicampus higher education institutions that consists of an integrated and interconnected network of complementary campuses operating in a symbiotic fashion to the mutual benefit of the entire system. The global network is managed as a single institution with distributed managerial responsibilities across the campuses that constitute the network. Modular programs are delivered across the network's campuses with a global curriculum that is designed to take advantage of the specificities of each campus's location and the knowledge that is created in those locations. The institution awards the same degree across the network to students who are centrally admitted to the institution, not to a particular campus. The student body is international with no dominant nationality or culture prevailing on any campus, with students allowed to move freely across the network's locations. Faculty members are recruited internationally and contractually

employed by the institution, not by a particular campus. They are thus affiliated with the institution irrespective of their actual posting in the network and can move across campuses to fulfil their teaching responsibilities and do their research. They are evaluated and promoted according to institutional standards, not campus-specific criteria.

Considering this categorization made by Hawawini (2016), we may conclude that Campuses Abroad /Foreign Campuses can serve more than one rationale for internationalization. It is thus our opinion that branch models fit better the Economic Rationale (as we it is the case of Australia), while the Federal and Global models assist best the academic and cultural rationales. The Federal model, can also be a good political tool, because they enable the home country institution to influence the host country.

vi. Delivery of distance education courses/ on line programmes abroad

On a digital era, such as the one we are living in, internationalization is not necessarily limited to university members physically crossing borders. Instead, certain curricular activities on campus or online have been developed to complement or substitute for physical mobility. Institutions, instructional designers and instructors have stepped up efforts to internationalize the on-campus classroom, as well as distance education, with the help of information and communications technology (ICT). Cuypers (2012)

Information technology plays an important part in the establishment of this form of cross-border education, for it supports worldwide communication as well as the efficient and mobile handling of knowledge at a low cost (Altbach & Knight, 2007)

The technological push of digitalized information allowed students of all fields to access, transform and communicate knowledge through the internet and beyond national borders (Bates, 2010, p. 20; Ryan, Scott, Freeman & Patel, 2000, p. 1).

Universities reacted to the change, including increasingly more online elements in their curricula. On an institutional level, the trend of web-based E-Learning led to the establishment of virtual classrooms, virtual departments and even virtual universities as almost fully digitalized institutions of online education (Peters, 2002, p. 132).

Institutions, instructional designers and instructors have stepped up efforts to internationalize the on-campus classroom, as well as distance education, with the help of information and communications technology (ICT).

The campus-based university has advantages for the sociocultural and political rationales of internationalization due to the emphasis on face-to-face communication and on-campus services, while the virtual university succeeds for the educational and economical rationales of internationalization because of the more wide-spread influence of web services and timeless availability of content.

vii. Scholarships/Funding

The use of funding as a tool for internationalization is usually linked to the political rationale, at the national level, and as an instrument of soft power.

Political goals are normally adopted by governments, local or national, to utilise internationalisation as an investment leading to potential political benefits (Knight, 1997; Marginson, 2009; OECD, 2006).

The concept of soft power has become popular in recent years. The term was coined more than two decades ago to describe the third dimension of power of the United States, in addition to military and economic power (Nye, 1990).

According to Nye, soft power is 'the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments' (Nye, 2006). Culture, as a pillar of soft power, can inspire desire and duty and thus persuade people to cooperate. As Nye (2006) noted, 'when a country includes universal values and its policies promote values and interests that others share, it increases the possibility of obtaining its desired outcomes because of the relationships of attraction and duty created'. Personal experience is a useful means to promote culture exchange.

Funding of education has an important role to play in this context. That is shown by three examples from three different countries in different continents and located in different moments in time, but all sharing the common political goal:

» **USA – Fulbright Program**

The Fulbright Program was established in 1946 under legislation introduced by former Senator from the state of Arkansas, J. William Fulbright, whose vision was to use the military surplus of World War II to fund international educational and cultural exchanges for students and scholars.

"The Fulbright Program aims to bring a little more knowledge, a little more reason, and a little more compassion into world affairs and thereby to increase the chance that nations will learn at last to live in peace and friendship." J. William Fulbright

The idea behind this Program was to train ambassadors for the US by funding the foreign students to go to the US and complete their education. It is important to note that in 1946, in the post-war and pre cold-war context, in certain parts of the world, US reputation of was not very good. By attracting these students through funding, the US was able to show them that they were a better country than most people living outside the United States thought

they were, and upon their return home, they would share the message, maintain the ties they had created and contribute to a more generalized understanding of the country. In sum, through this Programme, the US managed to increase their influence in the world.

» **Europe – Erasmus Program**

The Erasmus Programme was formally adopted only shortly before the beginning of the academic year 1987-1988. Unlike the Fulbright Program it was not intended to attract foreign students to a certain country, or to increase the influence of that country, but to promote exchange between students of diverse countries in order to foster learning and understanding of the host country. The goal of this Program was clearly a political one: to strengthen European unity and the shared sense of belonging between the countries that were part of the EU at that time.

» **China – Educational Aid**

Starting in 2010, China has agreed on aid projects with African countries for social and economic development. Education has always been an important part of the aid package, given its value for local development as well as its suitability for spreading the Chinese value and culture to the world. Wang (2013). We take a more detailed look into this case, in the next chapter.

viii. Research Collaboration

For the purpose of this study, we use the term “research collaboration” to describe activities aimed at “the objective of producing knowledge.” Bozeman et al. (2013). These activities may take several shapes; (1) relationships between

individuals, (2) relationships between organizations (usually referred to as consortia) and (3) relationships of individuals with organizations.

Bozeman et al. (2013) state there is abundant evidence that research collaboration has become the norm in every field of scientific and technical research. One recent study (Gazni and Didegah 2011) examining 22 different fields of science shows that in all these fields, at least 60% of publications are co-authored.

It is perhaps fair to say that there is a pro-collaboration bias in the research, technology and innovation literatures and, indeed, one that may be warranted, since collaboration in research offers multiple benefits. (Subramanyam 1983) Those benefits include the increase in productivity and the shared cost of research activities.

In this context, we find it is worth to highlight Research Consortia since in the past few decades we have seen the emergence of a trend whereby governments fund consortia, centres or programmes that organise and conduct research in areas of strategic importance to society or the economy (Gray 2011; Kloet et al. 2013; Turpin et al. 2011). These consortia enable knowledge transfer from universities to business companies and are therefore a way of Higher education institutions to raise funding for research, while for the companies, benefits result from reduction in R & D costs. Cost avoidance is operationalized as R&D costs industrial members would have incurred but did not, because they participated in university-based industrial consortia, minus the costs of belonging to the consortia. However, the prevalence of this benefit varies across centers and across firms. Bozeman et al. (2013).

Despite the benefits listed above, participation in consortia also entails challenges related to its coordination of the consortia, since these consortia bring often together, diverse groups of researchers who, while working on a common topic, may represent different countries, cultures and scientific methodologies.

Wallace, et al. (2013). In some of these cases, the common objective of producing knowledge may be put at risk by these differences.

Research collaboration, in whatever shape it might take, has clearly as a premise, the academic rationale.

5. Connection between Rationales and Tools

As we have mentioned in chapter 4, we have focused on the programme-based strategies as defined by Knight (1997). In Figure 3 we group the tools we have described, according to their connection to the key functions of the Universities: Teaching, Research and Services. Figure 3 shows that most of internationalization tools are linked to the teaching activities.

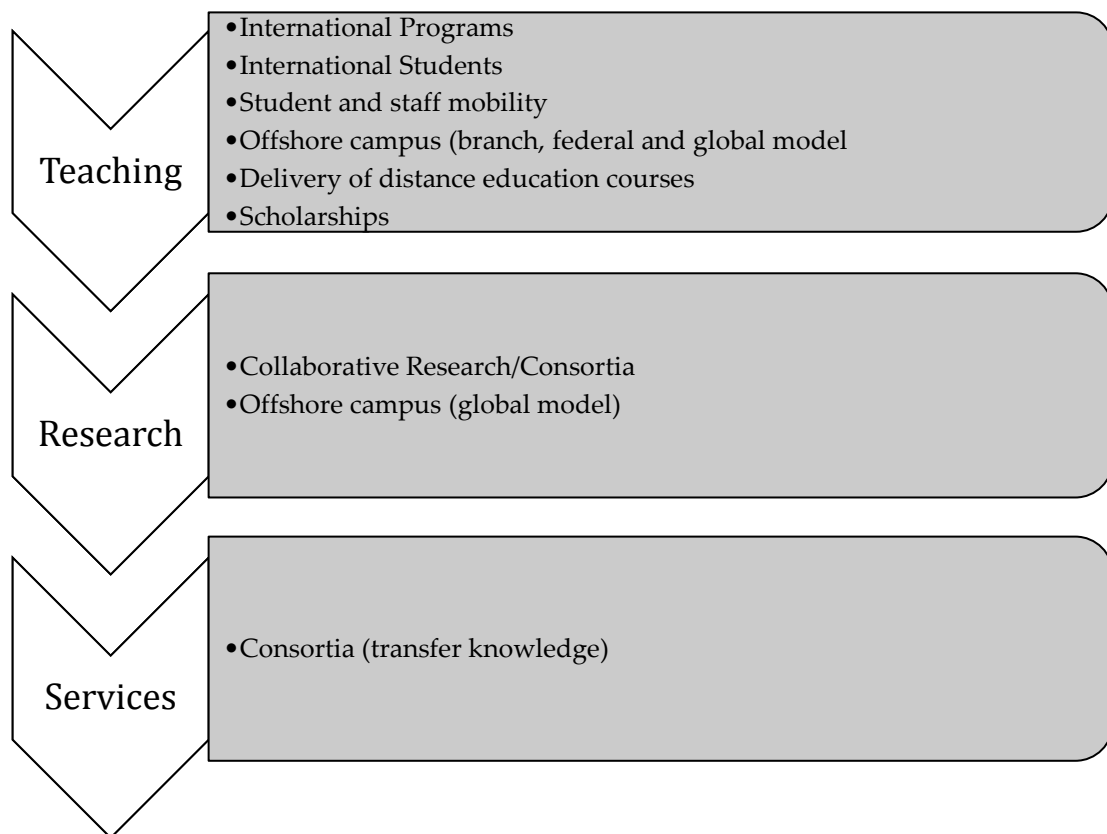


Fig. 3 – Internationalization tools per key function

Considering the stated above, we developed a model that links rationales and tools for internationalization and that can be used by academic administrators to assist them with the decision making process regarding internationalization (see

Figure 4). The purpose of this model is to connect the rationales with the most suited tools for their accomplishment, i.e., to use the tools that maximize results.

To use this model, HEIs should start by identifying the rationale they wish to pursue. Rationales must be carefully identified, and one must ensure that they reflect the HEIs' core values. Its selection should rely on a well thought decision process and should result from a systematic approach that takes into account the macro, meso and micro dimensions, as we have mentioned in chapter 3. It is important to note that the choice of a certain rational doesn't mean that all the others are totally left out from the decision-making process. It just means that, since most of the times resources are scarce and choices need to be made, one rational will have to prevail over the others when it comes to resources allocation.

Once the rational is defined, the next step is to set the goals HEIs wish to achieve within that rationale. In this model we have chosen a sample of a few of the many goals (the oval shapes in Figure 4) that fit into each of the rationales.

Some goals may be interrelated, as it is the case with the academic goals of this model. Specifically, the increase in the number of citations/impact factors will enhance institutions' competitive hedge which in turn will improve its position in international rankings. Also, quality assurance will contribute to enhance the institutions' competitive edge, indirectly improving the HEI's position in international rankings.

Once a rationale and the specific goals are set, one should do an analysis of the available tools (the blank rectangles with the dashed lines in Figure 4). This analysis must consider the existing and foreseen resources of the institution. At this point, we must take into account that the same rational may be accomplished either by one of the tools referred in chapter 4 or by a customized combination of some of these tools.

At the same time, some tools/activities meet more than one rational, as is the case of international students, offshore campus (depending on the model, as we previously have identified), international programs and international curriculum.

Rationales are also interconnected. Economic rationales are often the trigger for new initiatives and they are often intermingled with academic, social/cultural and other motivations.

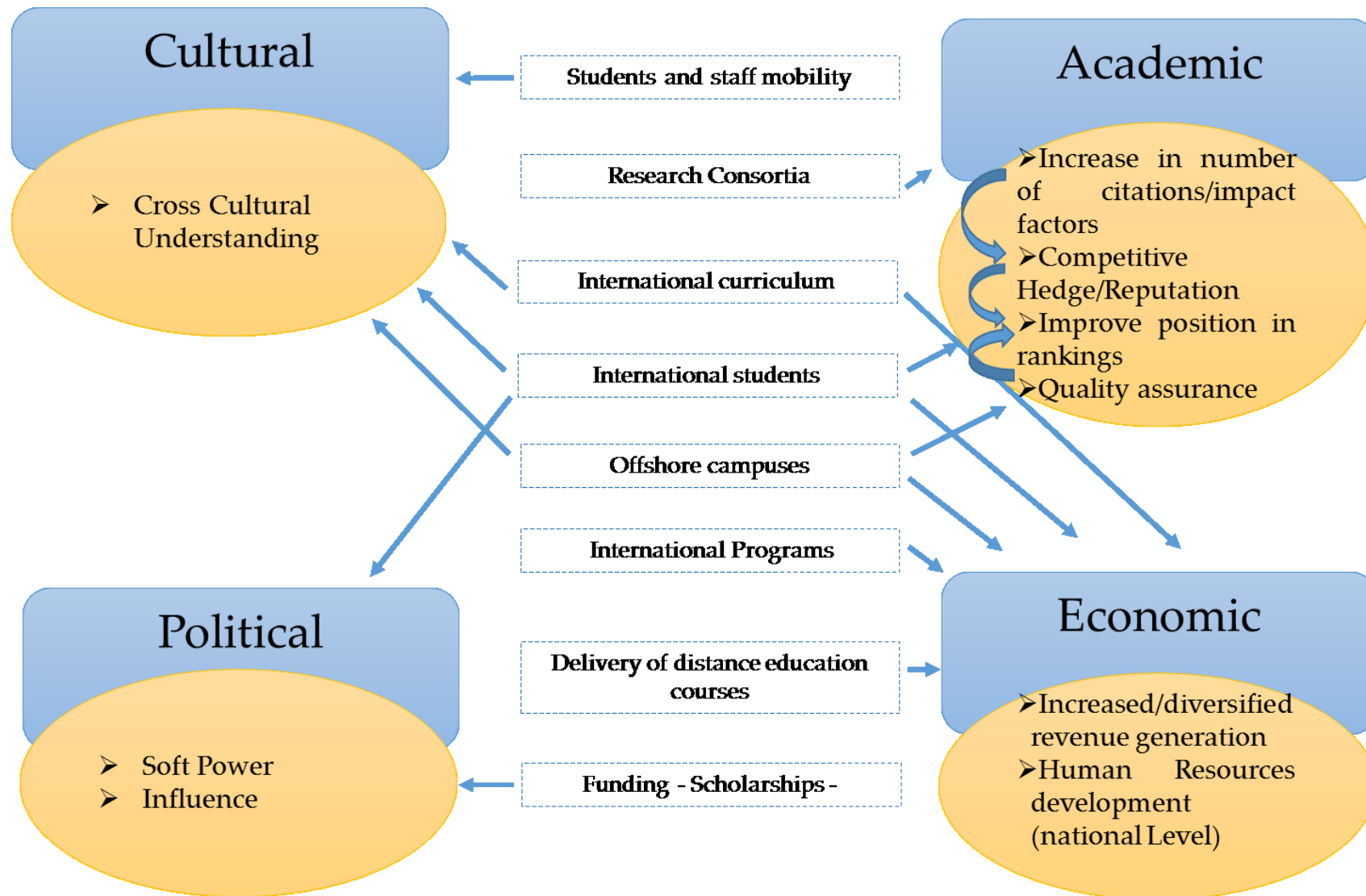
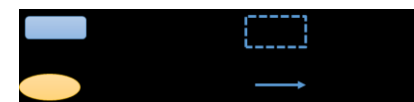


Fig. 4 - Connection between Rationales and Tools



As we have mentioned before, the diverse dimensions of internationalisation are closely related to and interact with each other. Considering this, we believe that by using this model as a basis for decision making, it is possible to create a virtuous circle, where goals feed on themselves, and thus, by choosing one rationale as the one to be worked upon, an institution may successfully be meeting secondary goals linked to other rationales.

6. Internationalization Models – Australia and China

In this chapter we go through some clarifying cases of internationalization of Higher education institutions within specific countries and political contexts. These cases regard two countries and three different rationales: Economic, academic and political.

We begin by going through the case of Australian Universities whose internationalization policies were based on the economic rationale and then move to China, where we may observe an evolution in the rationales and activities regarding internationalization. First, China, shows a clear focus on the academic rationale (by the end of the XX century), followed by a shift to a political rationale in the beginning of the XXI century. In both cases we will analyse the tools that were used according to the different rationales

Australia – The Economic Rationale

Traditionally in Australia, higher education has been the responsibility of the Australian government. However and due to changing trends in the global economy, in the mid-1980s, the government has devolved from its role and has reduced its financial support to higher education institutions (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Vidovich, 2004).

Faced with a falling public investment and deregulation on the international tuitions on the other (Healey 2008), Australian HEIs were forced to search for alternative sources of funding. In other words, Australian Universities have been forced to become autonomous enterprising entities in response to the pressure to build their revenue and bolster their education system in order to keep a pace with the international knowledge economy (Salmi, 2007).

But Gallagher (2000) argues that his development is driven partly by the ‘push’ of government policies and incentives and partly—and increasingly—by the ‘pull’ of new market opportunities. The “push” includes a shift from state support to state assistance over the past two decades involving an imperative for universities to expand their income from non-government sources, and a shift from tight to loose regulation, encouraging the universities to be more responsive to varying student needs and diversify their offerings so as to widen user choice.

As for the “pull”, it is connected with the changing demand for higher education, which is both increasing and diversifying with the growth of the knowledge economy, facilitated by the expanding capacity of communications and information technology on a global basis. It also involves the attraction of potentially substantial financial rewards from the commodification of knowledge and the commercialisation of academic work. This implies a change in context, and a shift to a focus on the economic rationale by Australian universities.

On its external dimension, universities made efforts to internationalise their research, curricula and student experience, while developing markets for overseas fee-paying students, as part of a broader policy shift from aid to trade in foreign relations. Education became thus, a good to be exported and aligned with the traditional neoliberalist notion of competition in the market, which translated in the exportation of private education from Australia to branch campuses in Asia, Europe, the Middle East, and the U.S. (Kritz, 2006). As an example of this, the off shore campuses policies developed by Australian universities to export their education, operate under their own private best interests (Belfield & Levin, 2009) and often exclude the interests of the foreign country.

Welch (2002) argues that much has been made of the relative success of Australian universities in internationalizing their activities and profiles over the

1990s, with statistics revealing an impressive growth of international student enrolments since the mid-1980s.

Internally, universities have restructured their operations towards a more corporate centred model that advocates quality, efficiency, and innovation (Hess, 2009; Stone, 2002). In all the Australian universities an attempt was made to develop the organisation's capabilities as an integral part of their internationalisation strategy, what De Wit (2010) would call inside-out strategy. That is to say, that Australian Universities improved and relied on their core competencies to drive this change, and Knight would define as organization-based strategies regarding internationalization, defined by Knight (2007).

In addition to the measures taken at the institutional level, the federal Government has also adopted macroeconomic and sectoral policies designed to integrate Australia more competitively into the world economy, and effective human capital investment was seen as instrumental to that end.

That is the case of government legislation regarding visas for international students in Australia, which allowed the students to extend their stay in the country for one year after finishing their studies in order to seek for work, was a big support to Australian HEIs.

Government policies – in Australia or elsewhere – might have had a bigger impact on total market growth than the strategic actions of a single university or groups of universities.

At this point, policies implemented by Australian universities seem to be a successful. International student numbers in Australia grew by 15 per cent year-on-year in the first quarter of 2017⁵ and in March 2017, some 480,092 international students were enrolled in Australia, of which about 280,000 were on university courses, according to statistics released by the country's Department of

⁵ According to the Times Higher Education – World University Rankings

Education and Training on 26 May. However, these numbers regarding international students do not come without its challenges. And, as Australian universities reinvent their higher education system through offshore endeavours, there is a pressing need to regulate the quality of teaching, academic programs, and curriculum. Studies (Roga et al 2015) have shown that the most important factors in the decision-making process of students when choosing an university abroad are academic quality, academic reputation and international students and staff. That suggests that academic excellence (linked to the academic rationale) is crucial for revenue generation which is an objective within the economic rationale. Despite the pressure to deliver quality programs, there is difficulty in preparing faculty to teach in a foreign institution; moreover, restrictions in teaching opportunities at a branch campus to temporary contract work with little hope of gaining tenure mean that there is little incentive for faculty to ensure the quality of their pedagogical practices. This challenge is furthered by internationalization initiatives that are focused on outcomes and performance indicators set by those who want to maximize on market returns as opposed to ensuring a stable body of teaching faculty (Knight, 2001). In the neoliberal viewpoint, teachers are seen simply as productive workers providing a quality product in the market (Teghe & Knight, 2006). Thus, teachers appear lost in the shuffle of internationalization efforts; institutional policy makers should take into account the crucial role they play, especially when teaching in foreign countries.

Also, statistics relating to student enrolments and overall market growth, show that despite some universities whose annual intake of fee - paying overseas have shown an upward trend, if we take a closer look, we can see that they had to lower entrance requirements to hold ground, meaning that their competitiveness might be deteriorating despite their apparent success.

And this leads us to another challenge facing Australian universities: How can they keep their academic quality while responding to market driven forces? Although private sector theoretical models presently underpinning strategic actions of universities appear to be useful, their relevance to the unique structure of public universities is debatable and their long - term efficacy uncertain. The need for further testing of these models in the higher education sector is clearly apparent, as is the development of more refined and uniquely appropriate models and frameworks to guide competitive behaviour in universities. Christopher (2014).

By observing the internationalization policies implemented by Australian HEIs, we can observe that although the rationales are defined at an institutional level, this particular national context binds all Higher education institutions into choosing as a priority, the same rationale, i.e., the economic one. Consistent with the choice of this rationale, Australian universities selected as privileged internationalization tools, the recruitment of international students, offshore campuses and distance. In addition to the convergence in rationales at the institutional level, there is a support through government's policies, at a national level.

Australian Universities, thus, share the view of education as commodity. Education as a commodity is the epitome of the economic rational, which more or less explicitly, and due to numerous reasons (mostly cutting in public funding all over the world) underlies in almost all internationalization policies amongst Higher education institutions s all over the world. It's the international business of higher education (HE), or academic capitalism as it has been labelled by Slaughter and Leslie (1997).

As governments, internationally, increasingly resign from (fully) funding the massive growth in higher education enrolments, we watch the development of an international student market characterized by a strong commercialization

focus on international programs and activities. This is what has been called International academic capitalism, on commodification, and marketization of higher education. In this context, we believe, it is essential to be aware of the importance of the academic rationale as a base for the economic one, but further research on knowledge and education as international commodities is needed.

China – The Academic and Political Rationale

Due to the specific situation of Universities being state owned in China, there is no distinction between the institutional and national levels regarding internationalization.

Over the past decades, internationalization of higher education in China has had considerable achievements. Nevertheless, a closer examination of China's internationalisation policy shows that during that time, there were also shifts in its priorities. In accordance to China's wider socio-economic context, the focus of education's internationalisation has evolved in the last decades. At first, there was awareness of internationalisation in the 1980s, improvement of the quality of education and the desire to be world class in the 1990s to the adoption of a high profile 'going global' strategy in the new millennium. (Wang, 2013)

When the rationales shift, China's higher education institutions act accordingly and change the way they implement internationalization, i.e. in a pragmatic way, they adapt the tools to the rationale.

✓ **The Academic Rationale**

The academic rationale includes objectives related to the aims and functions of higher education. One of the leading reasons cited for internationalizing the higher education sector is the achievement of international academic standards for teaching and research. This thought is based on the idea that by enhancing the international dimension of teaching, research and service, we are adding value to the quality of a higher education system, (Qiang 2003).

In this context, it is important to note that there were heavy investments from the Chinese government on internationalization of a small number of selected

Higher education institutions, in order to develop a few first tier universities in China and into world-class universities.

Considering this, internationalization of higher education in China has taken three major forms:

- (1) Studying abroad - Chinese students and academic staff members were sent abroad for advanced studies or research. At the same time, efforts were made to attract foreign students into China;
- (2) Integrating an international dimension into university teaching and learning including introducing foreign textbooks, references and the development of both English programs and bilingual programmes; and,
- (3) Providing transnational programs in cooperation with foreign/overseas institutional, (Yang, 2014).

In order to meet the academic goals China had set to itself, the following tools were used: (1) International students; (2) internationalization of the curriculum and (3) international programs, which as we have seen, contribute directly to the achievement of academic excellence, and are used to meet the academic rationale. Another important dimension of internationalization within the academic rationale, regards research cooperation. With this aim, the Chinese government not only encourages Chinese universities and research institutes to develop joint research projects with foreign partners, but has also been signing an increasing number of bilateral agreements with different countries/regions aimed at establishing frameworks for research cooperation.

By taking these actions, China was able to reach another phase of global engagement and internationalization in higher education, shifting from a one-way import of foreign (Western) knowledge into China to a much-improved balance between introducing the world to China and bringing China to the world.

Despite the success of these measures, Chinese universities still face some challenges in what regards internationalization of the university's governance. This could be partly caused by the long established highly centralised education system in China, (Yang 2014).

China's central government exercises strong regulation and authority over the higher education system. Although some changes have gradually occurred in its role and functions in recent years, regulation and orientation by the government have never been diminished, (Huang, 2003). With respect to internationalisation of Chinese universities, the tightly centralised system has led to ineffectiveness in many aspects. At the current stage, although internationalisation as an institution-wide strategy has been implemented in a comprehensive manner, it has not been able to touch the core of university's operation in China. As a consequence, and unless the cornerstone can be approached, internationalisation of Chinese universities will be largely achieved and maintained at the material level (Cai, 2014).

Additionally, the English language education has been seen by the Chinese (both the leadership and the populace) as a vital role to play in national modernization and development (Pan, 2011). Being aware of the dominant status of English as a historical fact, China has initiated various policies to adapt to this, instead of resisting it, in an effort to promote internationalization. (Yang, 2014)

Chinese researchers' proficiency in English has contributed to China's current rapid and successful engagement with the international community.

These reasons help us understanding why China's representation in the international scientific community has grown rapidly since its reopening to the world (Yang, 2012b). Instead of being a passive recipient to be influenced by the major world powers, China is reaching out globally and investing heavily overseas.

As an example of this, and according to the latest Academic Ranking of World Universities conducted by the Graduate School of Education, Shanghai Jiao Tong University (2012), China has four in the top 200; three in the top 300, seven in the top 400, and 14 others in the top 500, featuring 28 times in the top 500, while India appeared only once.

According to some China started as an exporter of students to become in the recent years, an importer as well, with around 123 000 students, choosing China as their destination for studying abroad.⁶

Having reach this point, China has made a clear shift in its internationalization rationale and tools. China has then moved from the academic to the political rationale, by actively using international exchange and cooperation in higher education as an exercise of soft power (Yang, 2012).

Yang (2014) also observes that this emerging strategy has been oriented to “a much-improved balance between introducing the world into China and bringing China to the world”. In addition to a fast growing number of international students in China and Confucius Institutes abroad, as mentioned by Yang (2014), China has recently engaged in establishing overseas branches. One campus project just started in Laos, and there are plans for building branch campuses in Malaysia and a joint campus with a British university in London (Tang, 2013). The new tendencies show that China has entered the stage of “commercializing the outcomes of internationalization.”

✓ **The political rationale**

It is observed that the importance of different rationales alters as wider socio-economic contexts change (Qiang, 2003), which suggests a contingency nature of the adoption of internationalisation strategies.

⁶ <http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-student-flow>

That is what we have been observing in China for the last decade, where internationalisation has shifted its focus from academic towards political rationales, i.e. “issues concerning the country’s position and role as a nation in the world, e.g. security, stability and peace, ideological influence, etc.” (Knight 1997). It is China’s present-day goal to achieve a world leading status position.

Wang (2013) argues that, education is currently being used as an important tool to expand China’s influence, as it provides suitable channels to introduce the Chinese values and culture to the world. In this sense, internationalisation of education can serve the purpose of expansion of soft power. Soft power is thus viewed as a timely solution to promote China’s cultural heritage, as a key supplement to economic and military power (Starr, 2009).

To use cultural power to promote the Chinese model globally, China needs to achieve a world leading status. Although disputable, global university rankings are frequently referred as an indicator for world class status. Rankings usually take into account Western standards for teaching, research and many other aspects. China’s aspiration to become world class has pragmatically been put into action, by playing by the existing game rules and to be recognised according to Western standards.

The use of international education is in this context, key to understand the role of Confucius Institutions and Educational Aid in Africa.

Confucius Institutions are managed by an executive council, which consists of officials from a number of government departments. Confucius Institutions are primarily, language teaching institutions that usually integrate with language centres at universities in different countries. Their mission is to ‘serve as a bridge for information exchange and communication of minds between the Confucius Institutions around the world as well as between Chinese people and those who love Chinese language and culture’ (Liu, 2008).

There is a consensus that Confucius Institutions, together with other strategies to spread Chinese, are being used as a tool to enhance China's soft power (Gil, 2008). The idea behind this reasoning is that, by teaching Chinese languages and culture, Confucius Institutions provide suitable channels to sell Chinese perspectives to foreigners (Starr, 2009). Moreover, concerns have been raised about the improper influence that the Chinese government has exerted through the Confucius Institutions system, such as intervention in teaching and research, the surveillance of overseas Chinese students and undermining Taiwan's international influence (Starr, 2009).

The Hanban (the institution responsible for managing the Confucius Institutions in China) repeatedly denies the soft power argument and stresses instead the value of Confucius Institutions in promoting cross-cultural understanding and forming friendship between China and other countries (Lu, 2009). Although this official clarification may explain one (probably important) aim of the Confucius Institutions, it does not eliminate suspicions of a hidden agenda. Since language is the carrier of culture and value (Lu, 2005), the process of spreading Chinese languages across the world serves as an efficient way to promote Chinese cultures and values. Consequently, this not only facilitates cross-cultural understanding but it expands China's international influence and ultimately its soft power, too. Also, the intention to enhance China's international influence and status through education is clearly manifested in China's educational policies. According to the policies examined earlier, the enhancement of China's international influence and status is a major goal of internationalisation of higher education. Similarly, the promotion of Chinese language and culture globally is considered an important suggests to achieve this goal (Cai, 2014).

In addition to the global spread of Chinese language, another strategy that is essential to expand China's international influence is educational aid. In 2010

China has decided not only to continue to provide educational aid to developing countries to help them to train a skilled labour force, but also to increase it (State Council, 2010). This idea has been well implemented in the practices of China's educational aid to Africa, which can be traced back to the early 1960s. However, it is not until the turn of the new millennium, and the shift in China's internationalization rationale, that China's role in Africa has become more visible. The Forum on China-Africa Cooperation (FOCAC) established in 2000 marked a milestone in China-African relations. FOCAC is designed to be a platform for consultation and mechanism for pragmatic cooperation featuring equality and mutual benefits (FOCAC, 2012). Following its creation in 2000, China and African ministers agreed on a number of projects in multiple areas. As for the projects in the field of education, we highlight the following:

- To grant more scholarships to African students to study in China
- To send teachers to Africa to help local institutions of higher learning to improve their disciplines and specialties
- To set up channels of communications between universities of the two sides to study Chinese and African civilizations;
- To establish an African Human Resources Development Fund, which will provide gradually increased financial contribution towards the training of professionals of different disciplines from African countries (FOCAC, 2000).

Both the Confucius Institutes and Educational aid to Africa, may be an evidence that "Political goals are normally adopted by governments, local or national, to utilise internationalisation as an investment leading to potential political benefits" (Knight, 1997; Marginson, 2009; OECD, 2006). They also suggest that China has taken the path of using internationalisation as an investment leading it to potential political benefits.

For this reason, in recent years, we have watched China's government providing and noticeably increasing the amount of aid to Africa, by expanding the scale of education aid to Africa, which included increasing the number of scholarships to African recipients, building over 100 rural schools and sending more volunteers to African countries through the Overseas Youth Volunteer Programme (King, 2006a). In 2009, the Chinese Government further promised to strengthen collaboration in higher education between the two regions. This included promoting inter-institutional cooperation between 20 Chinese and 20 African universities and recruiting 200 African administrative personnel to MPA programmes in China. China will also offer more scholarships to Chinese language teachers to help them come and study in China, and thus encourage and expand the Chinese teaching capacity of local African teachers. It is important to note that the Chinese strategy is noticeably different from the traditional Western paradigm of educational aid. The Western paradigm is primarily focused on facilitating universal access to basic education, while China's education aid focuses on training human capital for economic development through vocational and higher education. Indeed, China highlights the difference of its aid policies from the Western discourse and promotes the Chinese model as the best fit for Africa's developmental needs. Guided by pragmatic approaches, China has emphasised the importance of mutual benefits gained from bilateral cooperation and refuses to establish a donor-recipient relationship (King, 2006a, 2006b). At the same time, however, there is also some recent evidence suggesting some deviation in China's aid policy (Wang, 2013) by assuming more of a donor role in the Western sense, as opposed to its previously advocated 'win-win' approach (King, 2006b). Wang (2013) argues that it seems that China is no longer limiting its education aid to training specialised human resources for economic development through higher and vocational training. Rather, a more comprehensive package including all sectors of education is being

adopted in its aid policy. The large scale education aid in Africa is expected not only to help preparing a skilled labour force for African economy, but also to promote China's model and value in this region. The aggressive expansion of China's involvement in Africa enhances its influence not only in Africa but in the world.

China's internationalization of higher education as a goal (often measured quantitatively) rather than a management principle that could contribute to improve the functions of higher education can be seen in the implementation of the Thousand Talents Scheme, which was launched in 2008 with an aim to bring 2,000 academics and industrial leaders back to China by 2018 in order to boost the country's innovation capacity and international competitiveness. Within less than five years, some 3,000 returnees had already been recruited. However, the government needs to carefully evaluate the outcomes as it has been realized that not all returnees are among the very best and many do not work in China on a permanent basis as one expected (Sharma, 2013, May 25).

These two cases show marked differences in the tools used to manage internationalization. These differences expose the academic managers' awareness of how important it is to choose an appropriate tool in order to successfully accomplish the previously defined goals. These cases also evidence that the choice of rationales for internationalization should take into account the distinctive national contexts, especially the economic and political environments.

These cases also suggest that rationales vary over time and by country/region. Rationales are not mutually exclusive. In both the Australian and Chinese cases

we have underlined the rationales that stood out the most, leading to different approaches and policies.

7. Conclusions

This study develops a novel framework which links the rationales of internationalization to the instruments that best enable their achievement.

To the best of my knowledge this is the first model to integrate existing concepts in a way that can be used by academic administrators within their decision making process regarding internationalization.

With this study we have tried to systematize the decision making process regarding internationalization of HEIs. We begin by questioning the motivations for internationalization, seeking to understand why HEIs internationalize. We find that HEIs internationalize for multiple reasons and that such reasons vary according to global and national context, institutional goals and influence of internal actors. We follow with a description and the analysis of the most commonly available tools/activities for HEIs to internationalize.

Based on this, we develop a framework to assist HEIs to select internationalization tools and activities that are tailored to the motivations and objectives of internationalization. We find that tools and activities are not universally applicable and that there is not only one tool for each objective.

Because of this, reasons that drive HEIs to internationalize vary from institution to institution. There is no such thing as one road to internationalization.

Because rationales are the driving force for action regarding internationalisation, they should be chosen very carefully and reflect the HEI's core values. Its selection should rely on a well thought decision process and should result from a systematic approach.

It is important to note that, within the HEI's internationalization strategy, when a certain rationale stands out, it doesn't mean that all the others are totally

left out from the decision-making process. It just means that, since most of the times resources are scarce and choices need to be made, one rationale will have to prevail over the others when it comes to resource allocation.

Internationalization of HEIs can be achieved through many means and the various dimensions of internationalisation are closely intertwined. Because of this, internationalisation is more likely to be successfully implemented and achieved if it is based on a holistic and comprehensive approach. Internationalization should thus, be seen as a management principle embedded in the institutional culture.

In what regards internationalization there are no standard solutions. Tools and activities are not universally applicable. Such as there is no such thing as a way to internationalization, tools and activities should be tailored in order to meet the specific motivations and objectives for internationalization of each HEI. Once the rationale(s) is defined, the choice of existing tools must take into account the existing resources in order to maximize its outputs. This means that the same rationale may be accomplished either by one of the tools discussed in chapter 4 or by a combination of several of these tools.

As for the limitations we have found during this study, we consider that future research should develop a model linking rationales and tools for operation-based activities. Also, it would benefit this research, to extend this model, using surveys to be made with HEIs administrators.

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