CHOICES IN INTERNATIONALISATION:

HOW HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS RESPOND TO INTERNATIONALISATION, EUROPEANISATION, AND GLOBALISATION

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Preface

The first section of this book, but written last. My thesis is nearing its end and that is both a pleasant and strange feeling. Pleasant because the little voice in my head reminding me to work on my thesis over the last five years is now gradually fading away, but strange because I got so used to this voice. Over these five years, several people have shared both my joy and pain in writing this thesis. This preface provides me the opportunity to thank them.

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Arne I want to thank for his hospitality, good food and nice wines. Also thanks for the interesting discussions on the work of a PhD (and thanks for introducing me to Harald). Michiel I also want to thank for the useful discussions on the work of a PhD and future careers. Tanja, thanks for being such a good friend throughout all my studies and sharing my life.

Finally, now that also this preface is nearing its end, I wish to thank my family, particularly my mom who was always willing to read my work, check the language, check the layout and to stimulate me when I needed it most. And Harald, thanks for being you, putting up with my sometimes difficult moods but also thanks for all the fun you give to my life. Let's go sailing more often now that this work is over! I will always love you.

Anneke Luijten-Lub
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1 Introduction

1.1 Internationalisation in higher education

Internationalisation is an important and widely discussed phenomenon in higher education and is shaped through several activities and developments. One main activity associated with internationalisation in higher education is mobility; mainly of students, but also staff. In Europe, international mobility in higher education has been supported for decades by national governments and since 1987 has been supported by the European Union (EU) through the foundation of the ERASMUS programme. Another activity often brought up in discussions on internationalisation in higher education is international cooperation in research and education between higher education institutions (HEIs). Cooperation can serve multiple purposes such as exchange of knowledge as well as exchange of students and staff. A third activity is transnational higher education. Transnational education (TNE) means education provision from one country offered in another; thus the provider 'travels' between countries, not the student. TNE is gaining attention and scale (Garret & Verbik, 2003a), as HEIs explore new markets in countries where the national higher education provision is insufficient to serve the needs of all interested students and is a more competitive activity associated with internationalisation than the previously mentioned activities. "This process is also driven by the liberalisation of educational markets through initiatives of the World Trade Organisation (WTO), in particular the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)" (Van Vught et al., 2002: 104). The debate on whether higher education is to be included in the GATS continues (e.g., Knight, 2003a; Knight, 2006 and Vlk, 2006). Currently, the debate about internationalisation in higher education is also fed through the follow up of the Bologna Declaration, signed in 1999. In this declaration, which came into being outside of the governmental structures of the European Union and included more than just the EU-countries, several objectives were laid out aiming to establish a European Higher Education area (EHEA) and promote European higher education world wide. This included promoting mobility and European cooperation in quality assurance and setting up a two cycle system with easily readable and comparable degrees and a credit system. Every two years progress on the set objectives is discussed by the Ministers of Education of the signatory countries. The Bologna process has taken existing international cooperation in higher education in the European region to a different level. Whereas exchange programmes such as ERASMUS were aimed at the individual student, teacher, or institution; with the Bologna Declaration internationalisation in higher education is taken to the national higher education system level through reforming the structures of degrees to make them more comparable between the different signatory countries.

Internationalisation is not a new phenomenon in higher education. However, the substance of internationalisation in higher education has changed over time. Looking at the roots of the university in the Middle Ages, the idea of wandering students throughout Europe comes to mind as the genesis of internationalisation in higher education (H. d. Wit, 2002: 5), although Neave (2001) argues that this phenomenon should not be named 'international mobility'. At the time the nation

> did not exist as a political unit. Such mobility as existed is best qualified as 'inter-territorial'. It took place within a setting – or space – defined by a common religious credence, by a uniform language amongst the scholarly – Latin – by a uniform program of study – the *studium generale*, defined primarily by its capacity to attract students from beyond the local region. (15)

In later years, when the number of universities in Europe rose, the number of mobile students decreased, particularly amongst the less well-to-do (Neave, 2001: 16; H. d. Wit, 2002: 5).

Current HEIs are foremost embedded in the nation state. As Scott (1998a) argues,

> most universities are not ancient institutions with links that go back to the Middle ages […] Most universities, whether founded by a sixteenth-century king or duke or by a nineteen or twentieth century democracy, are creatures, because they are creations, of the nation state. (110)

Furthermore, many, if not most, HEIs rely primarily on national sources of funding and have been utilised as important vehicles for nation building (Neave, 2001; P. Scott, 1998a: 110). Finally, nation states play an important role in higher education, as national laws regulate higher education and the nation states are primarily responsible for higher education policy and steering at system level.

On the other hand, both nation states and HEIs are currently facing external pressures, of which internationalisation[1], but also globalisation and Europeanisation are part, amongst others.[2] These processes exerting pressures present a new challenge to nation states and HEIs, as they ask for a response by them. For example, the signing of the Bologna Declaration asks countries to take a serious look at their higher education system and if necessary to set up and implement changes in the system to work on the objectives laid out in the Declaration.

With these changes, internationalisation has become more complex both as an external pressure and as activities undertaken by HEIs. Describing or even defining internationalisation has become more complex as well, shown by the

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[1] Here internationalisation (as well as globalisation and Europeanisation) denotes an external phenomenon, a social economical process, which impacts higher education and its institutions.

[2] In this case, internationalisation can be seen as a process of increasing cooperation and interconnectedness between states, while globalisation is perceived as a process of integration between states (Beerkens, 2004). Section 2.3 presents definitions of internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation.

multiple definitions of internationalisation in higher education formulated over the years (see chapter 2). Furthermore, the variation in responses to internationalisation as an external process has increased.

> Variation in organisational responses may refer to the volume of international activities carried out, the degree of expansion across an organisation or across different organisations, the types of institutionalisation of those activities, and the specific forms that internationalisation takes, within the diversity of higher education institutions, systems, and national contexts. (Enders, 2004: 375)

Whereas international mobility was previously the main activity in responding to internationalisation, activities are nowadays expanding to include for example participation in international consortia, setting up branch offices in foreign countries, and setting up joint programmes or degrees. Increasingly, a mix of underlying rationales and activities for internationalisation can be observed (see for example Huisman & van der Wende, 2004; 2005; Kälvemark & Van der Wende, 1997; Van der Wende, 2001a). More actors at more levels are involved in internationalisation in higher education. Previously, internationalisation activities were more individually oriented, based on the idea of the wandering student (H. d. Wit, 2002: 16), but nowadays entire institutions can be involved and changes in national higher education systems may occur under the influence of external pressures from higher, supranational levels.

Although much research has been carried out on internationalisation in higher education (see chapter 2), to date there is little research which tries to use a theoretical perspective in explaining the findings as in other areas of higher education research (Teichler, 2003). In 1994, Teichler stated "most of the research available on academic mobility and international education seems to be occasional, coincidental, sporadic or episodic" (12). He argued that there is no agreement on the definition of the research addressed and that the terms used vary to a great extent. Moreover, research in this area lacked institutional continuity, was consequently scattered and should become better embedded in research on higher education. Around the same time, Van der Wende (1997) confirmed that the international dimension in higher education is growing in terms of policy interest, but that the research into it is not following as yet. She reports on a disconnection between research in the field of internationalisation and general higher education policy research (30-31). Teichler (2003) also argues that research on internationalisation is strongly shaped by the values of researchers involved, often commissioned by agencies promoting internationalisation in higher education; he suggested developing a conceptual framework to further research on the topic (180-181). In a more recent assessment (Kehm & Teichler, 2007) a more nuanced view is presented. The research on this topic shows a close linkage to other research themes in higher education and systematic analyses on the international dimension of higher education have become more complex, as many recent studies' links between various internationally oriented activities are examined. Kehm and Teichler (2007) argue

that research on international dimensions of higher education is substantially growing in quantity, becoming a thematic priority to higher education research, practitioners and policy-makers, noting that "the proportion of literature addressing more or less exclusively international aspects of higher education has declined". (261-262). Furthermore, they "notice an *increase of theoretically and methodologically ambitious studies.* However, this has not led to the emergence of a dominant disciplinary, conceptual or methodological 'home' of research on internationalisation in higher education" (Ibid.: 263).

Internationalisation in higher education was and remains an important topic (Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Teichler, 2003; van der Wende, 2002a). However, the topic is not yet systematically understood and as Kehm and Teichler (2007) note, there is no dominant disciplinary, conceptual, or methodological perspective in research on internationalisation in higher education. The objective of this study is to explore how a coherent theoretical perspective for research on internationalisation in higher education can help to further explain internationalisation in higher education, as well as contribute to the general understanding of internationalisation 'at work' in higher education, particularly the responses and activities of HEIs.

Globalisation and Europeanisation have also come to play a role in higher education (see for example Marginson and Van der Wende, 2007), exerting (new) pressures on higher education. Teichler notes an increasing use of the term globalisation and argues that "in Europe, three terms are often employed to characterise the internationalisation process: internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation but each addresses the process of internationalisation with a different emphasis" (Teichler, 2004). With this in mind, this study also includes the concepts of globalisation and Europeanisation in addition to internationalisation.

1.2   Central question and consequent research questions

Based on the objectives of this study, the central research question is as follows:

How do higher education institutions respond to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation and how are the different responses related to internal and external factors?

To answer this central question, we divide this query into several research questions, guiding the research process and analysis.

First of all, a better conceptual understanding of internationalisation in higher education is needed to provide the general framework of concepts for this study. As the brief overview in section 1.1. shows, the interpretation of internationalisation in higher education has undergone significant changes over the years, as have the underlying policies and their rationales and emerging

Europeanisation and globalisation. Furthermore, there are many definitions of internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. This leads to the first research question:

1. *How can internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, particularly with reference to higher education, be conceptualised (based on the literature)?*

When this is clarified, the possible responses from a theoretical perspective of HEIs to challenges of internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation are explored. This exploration is a first step into the contribution of this study to the theoretical basis for research on internationalisation in higher education. The second research question is thus formulated:

2. *How are higher education institutions likely to respond to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation based on the theoretical framework?*

As we explain in chapter 3, the theoretical basis of this study lies in institutional theory. One of the basic assumptions in institutional theory is that organisations can respond to their environment as organisations are open systems (Oliver, 1992: 147; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1977), but also that organisations can influence their environment. As this is a reciprocal relation, it makes it difficult to research causal relationship (see Gorges, 2001) and therefore relations between the two are explored in this study. Furthermore, both external and internal factors can be related to the responses of the organisations as is explained by Scott (1998c) in his organisational model (See Figure 3.2).

The understanding gained by answering the two theoretically oriented research questions serves as a guide to the empirical part of this study and our intention to contribute to the understanding of internationalisation 'at work in higher education, particularly the responses and policies and activities of HEIs. This leads to the following three empirical research questions. First, it needs to be clear how organisations are responding:

3. *How are higher education institutions responding to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, in terms of (internationalisation) policies and activities?*

This is followed by research questions regarding possible relations to internal and external factors related to these responses of the HEIs:

4. *What internal factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?*
5. *What external factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?*

Answering these research questions, the objectives set in the previous section should be achieved and the central research question can be answered.

1.3   Main research strategy

Two general research strategies are combined in this study. The first two research questions are answered with the help of a literature study, reviewing previous research on internationalisation in higher education and exploring general social science theories and their use in higher education research, in order to find a useable conceptual and theoretical framework for this study. This is in line with the objective to contribute to the theoretical basis for research on internationalisation in higher education.

The other research questions are answered using a case study approach. The data for these case studies was gathered under a research project funded under the Fifth Framework of the EU[3] from 2002 until 2004. Case studies (HEIs) were selected in seven Western European countries (Austria, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the UK) and data was collected through desk research and multiple interviews at different levels of these institutions. Background data on national policies for internationalisation were also gathered as part of the same project. The results and data gathered in this study are used for further analysis aimed to answer additional and more detailed research questions.

The author of this thesis was actively involved in this EU-project as a member of the coordinating team at CHEPS. In this capacity she helped develop the research design, collected and analysed the Dutch cases studies, and with members of the research team of Greece and the UK performed the overall comparative analysis of the case study results.

1.4   The structure of this thesis

The research questions guide the structure of this thesis. Chapter 2 discusses definitions of the three main concepts of this study: internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, and presents an overview of previous research on internationalisation in higher education. This provides an answer to the first research question.

The next chapter starts with an exploration of theoretical approaches used in this study. The starting point for this will be neo-institutional theory (see W. R. Scott, 2001b). The theoretical approach is then explored for use in higher education and more specifically, this study. An answer to research question two is thus

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[3] The project is the EU funded Fifth Framework Programme (Improving Human Potential and the Socio-economic Knowledge Base) research project "Higher Education Institutions' Responses to Europeanisation, Internationalisation, and Globalisation" (HEIGLO), SERD 2002-00074. The results of this project have been reported in Huisman and Van der Wende, 2004; 2005. The author contributed several chapters to these volumes, both as main and co-author.

formulated. The chapter ends with four theory-based expectations that guide the empirical part of this study.

Chapter 4 lays out the empirical research strategy, a case study approach. The process of, and criteria for the selection of cases are also described. Operationalisation of the main variables takes place in chapter 5.

Chapter 6 presents and analyses the results of the empirical research. This chapter also answers research questions 3, 4, and 5.

Finally, chapter 7 revisits first the theoretical expectations, and answers the central research question. Chapter 7 also provides room to reflect on this study in terms of the theory, methodology, and implications for policy and practice.

2 Main concepts and previous research

2.1 Introduction

Globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation have received much attention in the scholarly literature of different academic disciplines over the last decades (see for example Cerny, 1999; Guillen, 2001; Held & McGrew, 2000b; Stiglitz, 2003a; Verdier & Breen, 2001). Though the phenomena have been widely discussed, interpretations of the three concepts still differ amongst the scholars involved (for an extensive overview of the different interpretations, see Beerkens, 2004). For example, Held and McGrew (2000a) maintain that on conceptualising globalisation, "no single universally agreed definition of globalisation exists (3). In addition to the complicated demarcation and often inconsistent use of these concepts, the complexity of studying the related processes is increased by the dynamics involved in them. In terms of contextual factors, they may be used to identify general trends (e.g., the Europeanisation of society, or the globalisation of the economy) as well as for specific policies (European policies for higher education, or national policies for internationalisation in higher education) and activities aimed at internationalising higher education (e.g., student exchange or internationalising curricula).

Therefore, before this study is continued it needs to be clarified how globalisation, internationalisation and Europeanisation are conceptualised in the context of this study. First, the three concepts will be discussed generally, showing trends in the debate. This is followed by a discussion of these concepts as they are applied to and used in higher education. On this basis it will be clarified how globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation are interpreted in the context of this particular study. The final part of this chapter is an overview of the state of the art on research on the three concepts.

2.2 The containers and their contents

There are many different interpretations of globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation. This can partially be explained by the fact that the concepts are discussed from the viewpoint of different academic disciplines, but is also due to their generally broad reach; many different processes have been associated with them, particularly globalisation (for example the rise of Information and Communication Technology). For that reason Beck (2000) speaks of 'globalisation rhetoric' and Beerkens (2004) speaks of 'the globalisation container'. But what then do these containers contain and what is the common ground between them? Beginning with the debate surrounding globalisation, the three concepts will be conceptualised. In these more general, disciplinary discussions, globalisation internationalisation, and Europeanisation are perceived as general processes in society (i.e., not particularly related to higher education per se).

2.2.1   *Starting the debate*

Globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation are mainly discussed in economic, sociological, cultural, historical, and political science. The recent debate over the last decade appears to have started with increased attention for globalisation and global changes, particularly as they relate to economic influences on society, with an ever more international and interdependent economy and globalising markets (Held & McGrew, 2000a; Hirst & Thompson, 2000). Initially, the debate concentrated on whether globalisation was really a new phenomenon and whether it had any explanatory value (Held & McGrew, 2000a) as well as on the relation between globalisation and internationalisation (Cerny, 1999). Sceptics of the idea that globalisation is a new phenomenon would say that a global and interdependent economy is not unprecedented, with previous ages in world history of economy, for example around the turn of the twentieth century when international trade and mobility was high and the international economy may have been even more open and integrated than currently (Guillen, 2001: 237; Hirst & Thompson, 2000), being open and interdependent (Hirst & Thompson, 2000: 68). Like many others, Hirst and Thompson, (2000b)[4], also question whether the current economy is truly global, as most financial flows are concentrated only in and between certain parts of the world, regions such as Europe, Japan and North America and that "most economic activity is still rooted in nation-states" (249). There is a growing regionalisation of economic activity (Held, & McGrew, 2000a). Castells speaks of a regional differentiation of the global economy; a "global economy because economic agents do operate in a global network of interaction that transcends national and geographic boundaries. But […] national governments play a major role in influencing economic processes" (1996: 102). Furthermore, globalisation is questioned in its relation to the concept of internationalisation, whether it is really different, as the process of globalisation is "…actually a process essentially initiated and propelled by states…" (Cerny, 1999: 5).

In other debates some authors (e.g., Beck, 2000; Castells, 1996; Stiglitz, 2003a) argue that current globalisation is actually a phenomenon different from previous forms of globalisation (for an overview of different perspectives on globalisation see Beerkens, 2004: 12-13).

Giddens (2000) argues that the initial debate as described above is now more or less settled, agreeing that current globalisation is different from previous globalisation. It is different as the process is faster, more far-reaching and comprehensive than previous globalisation. The debate now seems to concentrate on the consequences of globalisation (Giddens, 2000), as authors draw attention to the (negative) outcomes of globalisation for certain countries and groups of people (for example Castells, 1996; Held & McGrew, 2000a; Stiglitz, 2003b). These authors and others point out that in recent decades inequalities in the world and the gap between rich and poor countries has grown. Not all countries have

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[4] See for example the authors in chapter 4 of Held & McGrew, 2000.

benefited equally from the rising economy associated with a globalising world (UNDP, 2000:342). As Pritchett (1995) estimated,

> […] between 1870 and 1985 the ratio of incomes in the richest and poorest countries increased six fold, the standard deviation of (natural log) divergence per capita incomes increased by between 60 and 100 percent, and the average income gap between the richest and poorest countries grew almost nine fold (from $ 1,500 to over $ 12,000). (ii)

The anti-globalist movement heavily protests these growing inequalities in the world during meetings of the G8 or WTO. The anti-globalists promote fair trade instead of free trade and open markets, as they perceive the rich benefit more from free trade and open markets than the poor.

Another discussion on the possible outcomes of globalisation revolves around the issues of convergence or divergence in society, mainly in terms of (cultural) convergence or divergence (Appadurai, 2000: 230; Smith, 2000: 239; Guillen, 2001: 244). Some point out that globalisation may lead to a more homogeneous world culture or 'global culture'. Culture becomes more interwoven in a globalising world and multinational companies such as Coca Cola, Microsoft, and McDonalds sell the same products all over the globe. This includes the spread of certain business models and other ideas around the world, following the idea of isomorphism in neo-institutional theory (see Powell & DiMaggio, 1991). However, empirical research provides little evidence of global convergence (Guillen, 2001: 246-247). National cultures continue to play a role (Smith, 2000) and "globalisation does not seem to compel governments, firms, and individuals to converge in their patterns of behaviour" (Guillen, 2001: 247).

The debate on outcomes of globalisation is also continued in the literature along the lines of governance of globalisation, as discussed further on.

2.2.2 What economists say

As mentioned, different academic disciplines tend to have a distinct approach to the interpretation of globalisation. At the centre of the debate is often 'economic globalisation' (Beck, 2000: 19). Characterising this process of economic globalisation is first of all the increasing internationalisation in markets (Cerny, 1999: 11). This means that trade can take place all over the globe and that markets are interdependent and become more integrated. For example, price-setting takes place more and more on the world-market, and not within a certain country, as prices in one country are partially dependent on prices in other countries. The role of the state in economic processes is changing. Hirst & Thompson (2000) have developed the ideal type of the 'globalised economy' which demonstrates this part of the process of economic globalisation:

> In such a global system distinct national economies are subsumed and rearticulated into the system by international processes and transactions… The global economy raises these

nationally based interactions (international economic markets (financial markets and trade in manufactured goods, for example) to a new power. The international economic system becomes autonomised and socially disembedded, as markets and production become truly global. (71)

A second characteristic of 'economic globalisation' is the way this appears to be driven by new production techniques, making production methods and location of production more flexible. This characteristic can be closely linked to a third characteristic, the development of new information and communication technologies (ICT) (Cerny, 1999: 11). ICT makes communication with different parts of the world easier, allowing producers to keep track of production when it is outsourced to a different part of the world. This shows that in the economic approach of globalisation, increased flexibility in time and space as well as the changing role of the state play a central role, as captured in the ideal type of the globalised economy by Hirst and Thompson.

In distinguishing 'economic globalisation' from 'economic internationalisation', the role of the state as well as the ideas of interconnectedness and integration of activities are all important. In describing the ideal type of inter-national economy, and opposing their ideal type of the globalised economy, Hirst & Thompson, (2000: 70) emphasise the role of national economies: "An inter-national economy is one in which the principal entities are national economies. Trade and investment produce growing interconnection between these still national economies."

Dicken (2000: 253) argues that globalisation is qualitatively different from internationalisation, as it does not only involve the quantitative geographical expansion of economic activity, but also the integration of activities across borders.

'Economic Europeanisation', it can be argued, is a regional form of 'economic internationalisation', as within Europe, and to be more specific, within the European Union, states continue to play a central role, although this appears to be changing as they work more closely together. European states are working together to deal with the increasing global competition, as "Experience shows that in the world trade competition it pays to team up with other countries" (EU, 2005). In fact, the European Union as we now know it actually started with an economically oriented cooperation between a small group of Western European countries through the European Coal and Steel Community. The ECSC-treaty sought to ease investments in coaling and mining in the signatory countries. After this first treaty, further cooperation and integration between countries was sought. However, it seemed that for several years, the only chance for closer cooperation was in the economic area (Kooijmans, 1996: 194). Nowadays, cooperation within EU continues to expand (both in content and number of countries cooperating), spilling over to areas other than the economy, working

together to strengthen the position of Europe in the rest of the world. For example, in 2000 leaders within the EU committed themselves to making Europe the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion and respect for the environment, known as the Lisbon strategy. In 2004 ten new countries became members of the EU and in 2007 Romania and Bulgaria also joined the EU, making a total of 27 member states. Furthermore, the member states reached an agreement on a new constitutional treaty in 2004. As the citizens of France and the Netherlands rejected this treaty in referenda, the process of ratification of this constitutional treaty was hampered. Under the German presidency in 2007 the process towards a new constitutional treaty received a new impulse and hopes are that the new treaty can be signed during the Portuguese presidency in the second half of 2007.

2.2.3   A sociological perspective

A second discipline involved in the debate on globalisation is sociology, which shows more interest in the influence of globalisation on society and the sovereignty of states (Beck, 2000; Giddens, 2002). Sovereignty, combined with governance is also a central theme in the debate on globalisation amongst political scientists, which is discussed next.
In the sociological debate on globalisation the dimensions of time and space are put in the forefront, as these dimensions are undergoing changes in a globalising society. Giddens' (2002) definition of globalisation emphasizes these changes:

> Globalisation is the intensification of world-wide social relationships which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by distant events and, in turn, distant events are shaped by local happenings. It is a process, which has led to the reduction of geographical, spatial, and temporal factors as constraints to the development of society. It has resulted in an increased perception of the world as a whole, and a readjustment of societal thought and action away from national, and towards international and global spheres.

At first glance, it seems that Beck (2000) has a slightly different approach when he states that

> Globalisation […] denotes the processes through which sovereign national states are criss-crossed and undermined by transnational actors with varying prospects of power, orientations, identities and networks. (11)

This emphasises the role of nation states with less attention for the time-space dimension. However, when he discusses measuring the extent or limits of globalisation, time and space re-enter the scene as two of the three parameters in

his measurement. The third parameter is the social density of the transnational networks, relationships, and image-flows (Ibid.: 12).

In distinguishing globalisation from internationalisation, Beck argues that international cooperation is one of the responses to globalisation. With international cooperation nation states regain a role in the global world, where they appeared to be losing ground due to globalisation. The underlying thought is that politics wants to show the public that the market is not simply taking over in the globalised world, but that nation states are part of the process and are trying to regulate the process.

In terms of Europe and globalisation, Beck also argues that a (political) Europe is needed to answer to the challenges put forward by globalisation. However, this (political) Europe does not yet exist argues Beck, as there is for example, no real European newspaper. Developing this (political) Europe should be done as a response to 'questions of the future' in the light of globalisation (Ibid.: 157-158). However, Olsen (2002) states, "the assertion that European institutions are not working properly […] is hardly new" (582). Several political scientists are discussing the challenges Europeanisation (and globalisation) puts forward in terms of democratic and governance structures (see below). These political scientists see that due to processes such as Europeanisation, new (higher) levels of governance play a role, whereas Beck argues that a political Europe does not yet exist. For example, the new constitutional treaty of the EU agreed on in 2004 has not yet been ratified by all countries, as both the people of France and the Netherlands rejected the treaty in referenda.

2.2.4   The view of political scientists

Political scientists appear to address the issues surrounding globalisation mainly from a steering perspective, as modes of coordination of states are (expected) to change in a globalising world (Cerny, 1999; Mayntz, 1998). Having a nation-state regulating affairs is no longer self-evident in a globalising world.

There seem to be two main starting points for the discussion in political science: 1) with globalisation and the changing role of states new forms of governance need to be developed to fill the democratic gap (Cerny, 1999; Guillen, 2001; Olsen, 2002; Rosenau, 2000), and 2) globalisation challenges current governance theory as it changes the political system on which governance theory was developed (Mayntz, 1998). Regarding the first point, currently democratic processes are embedded in the nation state, for example with national parliaments auditing the work of national governments. But what if decisions are made on a higher level which can decrease the role and influence of a nation state on its own affairs? Again, here is a connection to the problems with the ratification of the new constitutional treaty of the EU. Is globalisation undermining the authority of the nation-state (Guillen, 2001: 247)? If this is the case, to foresee in a democratic structure in a globalising world, it is likely that

new governance structures need to be developed, taking these other levels of decision-making into account (Cerny, 1999). On the other hand, there are those sceptics of the whole idea of the current globalisation as a new phenomenon who claim that globalisation does not undermine the authority of the nation state, but that for example, power is shifting within the state not away from it[5] (Cox 1992, quoted in Guillen, 2001: 249).

Challenges to governance theory, the second starting point noted above, are brought by globalisation and Europeanisation in similar ways. Deficits in governance theory become apparent through these challenges as argued by Mayntz (1998). The major challenge for governance theory is to extend it to incorporate multiple levels of governance and possible changes to national governance due to the newly added, higher, levels of governance. The main answer of political scientists to this challenge has been the idea of multilevel governance (Jordan, 2001; Peters & Pierre, 2001; Scharpf, 2001). Multi-level governance "refers not just to negotiated relationships between institutions at different institutional levels but to a vertical layering of governance processes at these levels" (Pierre and Stoker, 2000, in Peters & Pierre, 2001). Scharpf (2001) tries to simplify the general idea of multilevel governance by introducing different modes of multilevel interaction: Mutual adjustment, intergovernmental negotiations, joint decisions, and supranational centralisation. He also discusses the democratic legitimacy of these multilevel interactions.

2.2.5   Summary

Examining these different strands of the debate on globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation, it first needs to be noted that the debate centralises around the challenges in society brought by globalisation. Internationalisation, and sometimes Europeanisation, is included in the debate help define globalisation and strengthen the thoughts on a new phenomenon leading to changes in society. Second, in conceptualising the different concepts, the debate shows the importance of the role of the nation state as well as the ideas of integration and interconnectedness in conceptualising globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation. Europeanisation is often perceived as a regional form of internationalisation, as nation states continue to play an important role in Europe, even while their role might be changing. These different strands of the debate, particularly the role of the nation state, are captured in the definitions of Held et al. (2000) of globalisation and internationalisation. For them the role of the nation state is changing as power is shifting to interregional networks, whereas nation states are the main actors in internationalisation:

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[5] That is, from industry or labour ministries towards economy ministries and central banks (Cox 1992, quoted in Guillen, 2001: 249)

> Globalisation can be thought of as a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organisation of social relation and transactions – assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact – generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power (55).

> [...] internationalisation can be taken to refer to patterns of interaction and interconnectedness between two or more nation-states irrespective of their geographical location (55).

Finally, the definition of Held et al. (2000) for regionalisation can form the basis for a definition of Europeanisation, as it allows for a continuing, but changing, role of nation states within a certain geographical area.

> Regionalisation can be denoted by a clustering of transactions, flows, networks and interactions between functional or geographical groupings of states or societies (55).

For Europeanisation the geographical grouping of states is naturally the EU member states supplemented with the three countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Norway), that are members of the European Economic Area (EEA).

2.3 Globalisation, Internationalisation, Europeanisation, and higher education

Globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation are also discussed in relation to higher education amongst higher education researchers and practitioners. Several scholars (e.g., P. Scott, 1998a; Teichler, 1996; van der Wende, 1997) in the field of higher education argued in the mid 1990s that internationalisation had become one of the major themes of higher education policy. These scholars continue to see internationalisation in higher education as one of the major issues to be addressed in higher education research for the coming years. However, agreement on the definition or interpretation of the concepts of internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation with regard to higher education has not yet been reached, just as in the more general debate outlined above. To add to the confusion, the three processes are perceived as external processes in the general debate, whereas in the debate in higher education these concepts, particularly internationalisation, refer to both external and internal processes to higher education. Internationalisation is used to refer to the external process which puts forward challenges to higher education, as well as activities undertaken in higher education to respond to these challenges. Thus, there are many different interpretations and still is a great deal of confusion about the concepts (Knight, 2004: 5).

The debate in higher education on these three concepts is set up along two lines. First, there is conceptualising the concepts with regard to higher education as they seem to mean different to different people. The relationship between the three concepts is part of this debate. Perhaps what is even more important is going into

the implications of and responses to these processes/concepts for higher education. With the help of definitions found in higher education literature, this debate is outlined below. Themes that were present in the more general definitions are also visible in the definitions with regard to higher education, including the link between the concepts and the role of states in the conceptualisation of internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation.

2.3.1   Different definitions[6]

The points of view of scholars in higher education on globalisation, internationalisation, and Europeanisation sometimes seem to be contradictory to a certain extent. In the table below four views on internationalisation and globalisation are presented: those of Knight, Van der Wende, Scott, and Marginson. These scholars' definitions show the broad approach to internationalisation and globalisation in higher education and come from different parts of the globe. They are often quoted by other scholars conceptualising internationalisation and globalisation in higher education. Europeanisation is dealt with in a separate section.

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[6] This section relies heavily on a paper presented by Beerkens and Lub at the CHEPS Summerschool in Higher Education and Research, 2001.

Figure 2.1: perspectives on the relationship between higher education, internationalisation and globalisation

	Knight	Van der Wende	Scott	Marginson
Internationa-lisation	Internationalisation in higher education as "the process of integrating and international or intercultural dimension into the research, teaching and services functions of an institution of higher education" (1994: 7) Internationalisation at the national, sector, institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating any international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (2003b: 2)	Internationalisation in higher education as "including any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets" (1997: 19)	"Internationalisation reflected – and maybe still reflects – a world order dominated by nation states" (1998a: 126). "Universities are nation institutions, created to fulfil national purposes" (1998a: 113).	"The term 'internationalisation' describes the growth of relations between nations and between cultures " (2000).
Globalisation	"Globalisation is positioned as part of the environment in which the international dimension of higher education is becoming more important and significantly changing" (2004: 8)	Globalisation "generally relates to the process of increasing convergence and interdependence of economies and to the liberalisation of trade and markets. Besides, the cultural component of globalisation is recognised, encouraging at the same time the establishment of a (usually western) global-brand culture, as well as the spread of more indigenous traditions. From the	"Globalisation ignores, transcends and is even actively hostile to nation states "(2001a). […] "But globalisation can be given a much wider meaning – one that emphasizes the impact of global environment changes, the threat of social and political conflicts that cannot be walled off by tough immigration or asylum policies or policed by superpowers, and the growth of hybrid world cultures	"Globalisation does not create a single political world – it does not abolish the nation state – but it changes the conditions in which nation states operate" (2000). "Universities are amongst the most globalised of institutions" (Marginson & Considine, 2000: 8). "It is as much about the cross-global movement of people and

Globalisation		political perspective, the globalisation literature claims that the process of globalisation will turn nation states into powerless institutions and that ultimately their role will vanish" (2001b: 253).	created by the mingling of global-brand culture and indigenous tradition" (1998a: 122)	ideas as about markets and money, and more about networks than about patterns of commodity trade or off-shore production" (Marginson & Considine, 2000: 47).
Relation	"Globalization clearly presents new opportunities, challenges, and risks. It is important to note, however, that the discussion does not center on the globalization of education. Rather, globalization is presented as a process impacting internationalization. In short, internationalization is changing the world of education and globalization is changing the world of internationalization" (2003b: 2) "Globalization and internationalisation are seen as very different but related processes" (2004: 8)	Both identify the increasing international activities and outreach of higher education (2001b: 253). Internationalisation can be seen as a response to globalisation (2001b: 253.	"Globalisation cannot be regarded simply as a higher form of internationalisation. Instead of their relationship being seen as linear or cumulative, it may actually be dialectical. In a sense the new globalisation may be the rival of the old internationalisation" (2001a). "One simple way to express these differences is to define internationalisation, as the word implies, as being concerned essentially with relationships between nation states […] Globalisation, in contrast, does not recognise this national principle; instead it gives voice to other principles, whether multinational capitalism and free markets […] or religious (and ethnic) identities that transcend national loyalties" (2005: 13).	"Globalisation does not refer to the growing importance of 'international' relations, relations between nations, per se… the term globalisation is reserved here for the growing of world systems "(2000: 24).

The authors' different backgrounds explain in part differences in their points of view. Both Knight and Van der Wende started their (earlier) work with a heavy focus on internationalisation in higher education; it is only logical that their approach towards globalisation takes internationalisation as a starting point. The focus of Marginson's work is on marketisation of higher education, which can be linked more to globalisation than internationalisation. His approach therefore starts from globalisation of higher education. Scott's work is different in nature. The main objective is the conceptualisation of globalisation with regard to higher education, whereas Marginson and Van der Wende attempt to clarify the concepts of globalisation and internationalisation. The work of Knight is more a combination of these two approaches.

The synopsis of viewpoints on internationalisation and globalisation shows there are some different, but also some shared views. Scott's and Marginson's definitions regard internationalisation as an external process, while Knight and Van der Wende see internationalisation more as an active policy or activity of an HEI. Though the approaches vary among the authors, there are no fundamental contradictions in their views.

Interestingly, all four definitions see globalisation as an external process affecting higher education. In addition, Scott perceives HEIs as agents of globalisation and Marginson argues HEIs are the most globalised institutions, whereas the others put forward the more national character of HEIs. These views do not necessarily contradict each other, as the starting point for the authors differs. HEIs can be said to be global institutions, considering the general idea of 'academia' and HEIs as places where knowledge is produced and transferred. Knowledge knows no boundaries. However, if we look at the place of an HEI in a nation state and the rules and regulation governing higher education, current HEIs are foremost embedded in the nation state (see chapter 1). As Van der Wende argues "since most institutions in Europe are (still) to a large extent state funded, it follows that higher education institutions are still strongly shaped by national context" (Van der Wende, 2001b:. 254).

HEIs also need to respond to globalisation. Marginson and Van der Wende (2007) jointly wrote a paper stating

> […] in a networked global environment in which every university is visible to every other, and the weight of the global dimension is increasing, it is no longer possible for nations or for individual higher education institutions to completely seal themselves of from global effects (5).

None of the aforementioned authors have actually developed a separate definition for globalisation of higher education as they have for internationalisation. Beerkens (2004: 24), however, has done so and his definition also reflects the changing role of the states in higher education systems, as pointed out particularly by Scott and Marginson. Beerkens definition resembles part of the general definition of globalisation of Held et al. (2000: 55):

> A process in which basic social arrangements within and around the university become disembedded from their national context due to the intensification of transnational flows of people, information and resources (Beerkens, 2004: 24).

The most fundamental differences in the definitions of globalisation of these four authors involve the intensity and impact of globalisation, the relation between globalisation and internationalisation, and the character of the university as a national or global institution. There seems to be a difference in opinion between Scott and Marginson on the relation between globalisation and the nation state somewhat similar to the general discussion on the influence globalisation might have on governance by nation states. Whereas Marginson argues that the role of the nation states changes, Scott perceives globalisation as hostile to the nation state. The difference can be explained by the fact that Scott approaches globalisation from a more conceptual perspective in which he argues that the role of the nation state is diminished in a truly globalised world. Marginson aims at a more empirical approach, looking at current events and concluding that the role of national governments is changing; that they are adapting to a new situation brought by globalisation.

The four authors do not appear to agree on the relation between internationalisation and globalisation. Though Knight and Van der Wende see the two processes as related to each other, Van der Wende clearly states that internationalisation can be seen as a response to globalisation and Knight does not. Scott sees the two as having a dialectical relationship and Marginson (2000) sees a growing role of the international world system in the process of globalisation.

> These world systems are situated outside and beyond the nation state, even while bearing the marks of dominant national cultures [...] The essential feature of the new global world systems is more intensive contact between people through the compression of space and time. (24)

Again, Scott's approach is more conceptual. The current world does not appear to be truly globalised, as nation states continue to play an important role and thus in today's world globalisation and internationalisation appear to be related to each other, similar to the arguments of Knight and Van der Wende. Internationalisation is both a response and a contributor to globalisation; this can also follow from Marginson's approach. He perceives globalisation in terms of a growing international world system with a changing role of nation states, and so growing internationalisation can contribute to globalisation.

Recently, Marginson and Van der Wende published a joint OECD-paper discussing (among other things) internationalisation and globalisation. They note that both globalisation and internationalisation are (in Europe) defined normatively instead of neutrally.

> [...] the normative distinction between ideal forms of globalisation and internationalisation is a dualistic over-simplication, that obscures from view both the differences between the two processes and the manner in which they feed each other. (2007: 11)

This also prevents overseeing the actual changes. In their recent paper (2007),

> [...] internationalisation is understood in the literal sense, as inter-national. The term refers to any relationship across borders between nations, or between single institutions situated within different national systems. This contrasts with globalisation, the processes of world-wide engagement and convergence associated with the growing role of global systems that criss-cross many national borders. (11)

This is in line with their earlier definitions of the two concepts. Furthermore, they explore the tendency to disembed higher education from national governance, raising questions on the current role of the state and where the "partly disembedded institutions are accountable for their international activities and outreach?"(2007: 28-31). These questions are similar to those put forward by several other political scientists (see section 2.2.4).

Europeanisation in higher education is not as widely discussed as internationalisation and globalisation. Some research on the role of Europe and the EU on higher education has been performed (see below). On the whole, it can be argued that, as Teichler (2003) states

> Europeanisation is the regional version of either internationalisation or globalisation. It is frequently addressed when reference is made to cooperation and mobility, but beyond that to integration, convergence of contexts, structures and substances as well as to segmentation between regions of the world. (180)

Van der Wende (2004b) also points to the connections:

> 'Europeanisation' is often employed for describing the phenomena of internationalisation on a 'regional' scale. Cooperation between EU countries and economic, social and cultural activities crossing their national borders are expanding quickly based on the notion that such cooperation is required for stability and economic growth within the region. Its link to globalisation consists in the fact that this regional cooperation also intends to enhance the global competitiveness of the European region as a whole. (10)

Marginson and Van der Wende (2007) point out that it might seem that since the EU is cooperation oriented the role of nation states is unchallenged, but that reality is more complex.

> Competition in higher education and research is starting to play a more important role within the EU; and some elements of the Bologna and Lisbon processes, reinforced by supra-national

> political mechanisms such as the EU itself, constitute a partial integration across European nations. (12)

On the whole it can be shown that similar to the use of internationalisation, Europeanisation is sometimes also perceived as both an external process putting forward new challenges and an internal process with responses to the external process.

2.3.2   Rationales, responses and implications

Defining internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation in higher education is one thing. Knowing why higher education and its institutions are responding to these concepts is another. According to several studies, there are four different rationales for internationalisation in higher education undertaking activities and setting out policies: Economic, political, educational and cultural (see also Blumenthal et al., 1996). The importance of these rationales differs per country and through time, as is also shown in the analysis by Kälvemark and Van der Wende (1997), using the model developed by Van der Wende to characterise these rationales. They conclude that the economic rationale has become more important over the last years in Europe, although a distinction needs to be made between short term (e.g., generating institutional income) and long term (e.g., an internationally trained labour force, brain gain, etc.) economic benefits. A further distinction needs to be made between cooperative and public oriented policy and more competitive and market oriented approaches. This finding was confirmed in a later study on rationales on national policies for internationalisation (Van der Wende, 2001a). In principle however, both cooperation and competition can be seen as a way to respond to the external pressures of globalisation and internationalisation (Van der Wende, 2007). Competition is often associated with globalisation and connected to English-speaking countries, whereas cooperation is associated with internationalisation, associated with academic exchange, quality and excellence, and linked to continental Europe (Van Vught et al., 2002). Deciding on a more cooperative or competitive response can thus be seen a part of the strategic options of both HEIs and national governments in responding to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. As summarised in

Figure 2.2, Van der Wende (2007: 282) combines this with the decision to be either more or less international, thus creating a mix of competitive/cooperative and national/international strategic options, to enhance the global competitiveness of a country or HEI.

Figure 2.2: Strategic options for enhancing global competitiveness (Van der Wende, 2007: 282)

International

Cooperation   Competition

National
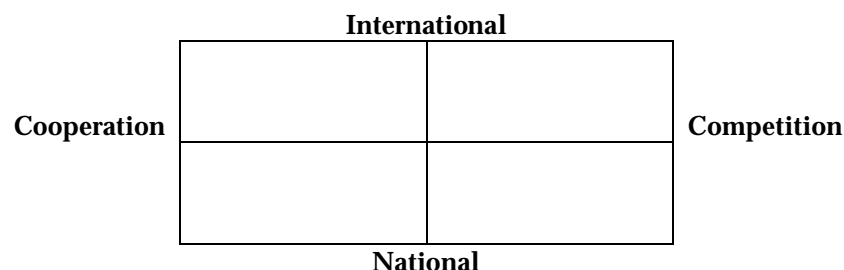
In continental Europe, higher education is looking more towards cooperation within Europe in order to compete on the world market. This was also part of the underlying thought of the Bologna Declaration (1999), which aims for increasing the competitiveness and attractiveness of European higher education through cooperation amongst the signatory countries. By doing so, Europe should be able to face the competition in the 'world market of higher education'. A similar, but broader aim was laid out at the Lisbon summit in 2000, where the leaders of the EU agreed that Europe should be "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-driven economy by 2010". This again underlines the idea of regional cooperation within the EU to face the global competition. Even though there are some clear differences between the processes, (with the Bologna process starting as a bottom-up initiative and aiming at cooperation and social-cultural aspects of higher education and the Lisbon-process being more economically driven) both seem to become more integrated over time (Van der Wende, 2004a: 240; Van der Wende, 2007: 286; Van der Wende, Forthcoming-a: 3).

Another strand in the debate about responses and implications of the three concepts, for higher education is about convergence or divergence as the outcome of the (responses to these) processes, in particular as an outcome of globalisation. Vaira (2004) states "the convergence thesis […] emphasises the homogenisation process" and that all higher education will become similar due to the process of globalisation. In the divergence thesis emphasis is placed on different possible outcomes of the globalisation process, as it looks towards localised responses (Vaira, 2004). It is argued that globalisation actually has a different influence on different countries, for example due to "a nation's individual history, traditions, culture and priorities" (Knight & Wit, 1997: 6). Douglas (2005) even argues that all globalisation is local, as it is subject to local (or national and regional) influences. For example, one of Douglas' arguments is that much reform in higher education still stems from national government regulatory initiatives and higher education is thus shaped nationally (see also Beerkens, 2004 and Marginson & Van der Wende, 2007) .
Marginson and Rhoades (2002) have tried to capture this multidimensional

shaping of the global environment of higher education in what they call a 'glonacal' analysis. In this glonacal analysis they try to bring together the global, national, and local dimensions which interact continually and shape higher education.

Van der Wende sees a need for both convergence and divergence in higher education. "Conceptual and practical issues are related to a need for convergence (system coherence and transparency) and more diversity (to allow for more access and excellence) at the same time" (Forthcoming-a: 1).

Finally, it should be noted that the four rationales (economic, political, educational, and cultural) are also used in the four (not mutually exclusive) policy approaches presented in the OECD publication *Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education* (2004a). These four rationales are: i) mutual understanding, ii) skilled migration, iii) revenue generation, and iv) capacity building; they are further discussed in chapter 5.

2.3.3 Internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation in this study

Central to this study are the responses and activities of higher education institutions to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation. Our starting point is an open and broad approach towards these processes and the HEIs responding to these processes within their environment. In the EU-research project in which the data used in this study were gathered (see section 1.3) a more general approach to defining the three processes was used. Different points of emphasis in each concept were noted:

- Internationalisation assumes that nation states continue to play a role as economic, social and cultural systems, but that they are becoming more interconnected and activities crossing their borders are increasing. Cooperation between nation states is expanding and national policies are placing a stronger emphasis on regulating or facilitating border-crossing activities.
- Globalisation emphasises an increasing convergence and interdependence of economies and societies. In contrast to internationalisation, a de-nationalisation and integration of regulatory systems as well as a blurring role of nation states are taken for granted. The liberalisation of international trade and global markets are often viewed as the strongest move in this direction.
- Europeanisation is often employed for describing the phenomena of internationalisation on a 'regional' scale. Cooperation between EU countries and economic, social and cultural activities crossing their national borders are expanding quickly based on the notion that such cooperation is required for stability and economic growth within the region. This regional cooperation is also intended to enhance the global competitiveness of the European region as a whole. (Luijten-Lub et. al, 2005: 5).

This study sought definitions with more reference to higher education and HEIs though not contradicting with the definitions of the EU-research project. The definitions of Knight and Van der Wende for internationalisation in higher education take into account the institutional viewpoint needed in this study.

Furthermore, the definition of Van der Wende also points to the interaction of HEIs with their environment when working on internationalisation, which is not part of the definition of Knight. Van der Wende is also clearer in how she perceives the relation between internationalisation and globalisation, internationalisation being a response to globalisation. Finally, the definition of Van der Wende is deducted from a definition of educational change (or innovation), pointing to the fact that internationalisation may not only be aimed at "improving the achievement of existing goals in [HEIs], it can also be observed that it introduces new goals, structures, and roles into HEIs" (1996a: 26). Therefore, Van der Wende's (1997) definition will be used throughout this study for internationalisation in higher education.

Internationalisation in higher education is:

> *Any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy, and labour markets (19).*

Following the general debate and the debate in higher education literature on globalisation, it is clear that any definition of globalisation of higher education should take into account the changing role of the state. Not many higher education researchers specifically define globalisation of higher education; often they express themselves in more general terms along the lines of the definition of Held et al. (2000). Beerkens (2004). however, has explicitly defined globalisation in higher education along the lines of the definition of Held et al. (2000) and is therefore the definition of globalisation of higher education used in this study.

Globalisation of higher education is:

> *A process in which basic social arrangements within and around the university become disembedded from their national context due to the intensification of transnational flows of people, information, and resources (24).*

Finally, as argued by Teichler (2003), Europeanisation is the regional version of either internationalisation or globalisation. Even though their role might be changing, nation-states are still likely to continue to play an important role in higher education. For example most current higher education organisations are traditionally closely linked to the nation state (Kwiek, 2001: 27) and remain closely linked, for example through the national funding base of higher education organisations. In this study Europeanisation is perceived as a regional version of internationalisation and is then also a response to globalisation.

2.4   Previous research on internationalisation in higher education

There is a substantial volume of practice-oriented or applied research into specific areas of internationalisation in higher education, as is confirmed by the recent

overview of research on internationalisation since the mid-1990s by Kehm and Teichler (2007). Based on the overview, they argue that:

1) there was a substantial quantative growth in the number of analyses on internationalisation of higher education;
2) analyses on internationalisation became a more visible component among general publications on higher education;
3) an emphasis is noted on internationalisation of higher education in particular among those publications targeting the practitioners and policymakers in higher education more strongly than the higher education researchers;
4) research on internationalisation in higher education today tends to be more closely linked to other topics (e.g. management, policy, funding, etc.);
5) a growing importance of the international argument (i.e. internationalisation as a 'priority' issue), a growing interest in international comparison, and a growing focus on macro policies and processes of coordination is noted;
6) systematic analyses on the international dimension of higher education became more complex;
7) internationalisation in higher education tends to be treated as a highly normative topic with strong political undercurrents. (261-262)

These last two arguments in particular also became clear in the previous discussion of different definitions of internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation. The other arguments will become clear in the following synopsis of previous research on internationalisation in higher education.

To build this study on previous research, we provide a brief, thematically organised overview of previous research on internationalisation in higher education. Themes addressed that are quite similar to the thematic landscape presented by Kehm and Teichler (2007: 264), are academic mobility and exchange, financial aspects, transnational education, consortia, curriculum, teaching and learning, and internationalisation policies.

This overview is mainly focussed on Europe[7]. As the emphasis in this study lies on (inter)national policies and organisational responses with regard to internationalisation in higher education, previous research in these areas will be more broadly discussed, including its main outcomes, than research in other areas of internationalisation in higher education.

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[7] For studies on other parts of the world see for example: Gacel-Ávila, 1999; H. d. Wit et al., 2005; Huang, 2006; and Picard, 2005.

2.4.1   Academic Mobility and Exchange

For several decades, internationalisation in higher education was mainly discussed in terms of mobility of students and occasionally mobility of staff; this theme continues to be in the foreground (Kehm & Teichler, 2007: 264). Consequently, a wide range of studies has been conducted on this theme and for a time they formed the main body of knowledge in the area of internationalisation in higher education. A comprehensive overview of publications on these issues is provided by Albert Over in his bibliography on academic mobility, which gives a good insight into the literature on this theme until the mid 1990s (In Blumenthal et al., 1996). These studies include evaluations of various mobility and exchange programmes in the US, Europe, and other regions. Teichler evaluated the European ERASMUS programme several times, with different accents in each study (Maiworm & Teichler, 1996; Teichler, 1994, 2002b; Teichler et al., 1990, 1993). Recurring topics in these studies, in addition to others, are the flows and patterns in student mobility, its effects, the recognition of credits or credit transfer, the influence of the use of foreign languages, and cultural aspects of mobility. For example, Van der Wende (1994) did a specific study into the transfer of credit for study abroad called: ***Study abroad: does it count?*** The experiences of students in the foreign countries and their knowledge on these countries was researched. Two of the last evaluations of the ERASMUS programme (Van Brakel et al., 2004; Teichler et al., 2000) took a closer look at the impact of the programme both on the institutional level and national policy level. They concluded that the view of the EU on internationalisation appears to be widening, looking further than just (promoting) the mobility of individuals and reaching into the policies and planning practices of higher education institutions and effects at the system level.

These topics also receive attention in other studies on mobility, such as ***Impacts of study abroad programmes on students and graduate*** (Opper et al., 1990). Another topic receiving specific attention in several of the mentioned studies is the influence of mobility on career and work. It was found that the period abroad not only has an impact on the studying period, but also on the transition to work and early career of graduates (Jahr & Teichler, 2002; Teichler, 2002b). In a recent study, based on research amongst former ERASMUS students and stakeholders involved in ERASMUS it was shown that,

> [...] a temporary period of study in another European country helps to enhance international competences, contributes to international mobility of graduates and places former ERASMUS students in visibly international professional positions. This study shows in addition that the employers consider the internationally experienced graduates superior to other graduates as far as many other competences are concerned, and many of them believe that formerly mobile students will be more successful in their long-term career. (Bracht et al., 2006: Xxii-Xxiii)

Finally, in 2006 the results of the Euro Data project were published. Euro Data was a one-year project which aimed at producing data on student mobility in 32 European countries (the 25 then EU countries, the four EFTA (European Free Trade Association) countries, as well as Bulgaria, Romania, and Turkey) of a quality and degree of differentiation unavailable from any other source at that time. These data are needed by national governments and the European union to measure progress towards the mobility-related objectives of European higher education innovation agendas (such as 'Lisbon' and 'Bologna') (ACA, see also Kelo et al., 2006).

Specific studies on the general mobility of academic staff are much less numerous than those on the mobility of students, although the ERASMUS evaluations also include data on this topic as staff exchange is part of ERASMUS. Van de Bunt-Kokhuis (1996) has done a study solely into the mobility of academic staff. The object was to identify the main determinants for international mobility of faculty and how these determinants influence the involvement of faculty. According to this study, determinants for staff mobility are academic position, discipline, age, and gender.

2.4.2   Financial aspects, transnational education, consortia

Cost-benefit analysis

Some publications have been published on the cost and benefits of international (higher) education. Alice Chandler (1999), for instance, performed a study into different sources of funding (or paying) of higher education, including public support, funding through foundation, and the role of partnerships with business. Several studies have been carried out on the economic costs and benefits of international students. They usually concern countries in which these issues are of primary concern, such as the UK, Australia, and the USA. In continental Europe these studies are less frequent.

The international market for higher education

Other studies with attention for the financial aspects of internationalisation are those on export and marketing of higher education. In reports on the marketing of (international) education, it is said that education and/or knowledge can be seen as an export product or service (Bremer & Van der Werve, 1996; Van Dalen, 2002; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2001; Garret, 2005a, 2005b). These publications speak of an international or global market for education and students. In this context Australia is often mentioned. Examples of studies on off-shore provision and off-shore partners campuses of Australian universities can be found in Davis et al. (2000), Zijlstra (1998) and Garret and Verbik (2003b).

Transnational education

Related to the previous point and to pressures of supply and demand is the feature of transnational education, which can be defined as educational activities where the student is in another (host) country than that where the degree

awarding educational institution is established. Besides various studies conducted on the Anglo Saxon countries, who are particularly active in this market (see above), a few studies look into the situation in Europe (Adam, 2001; Dos Santos, 2000). A follow-up study on the situation in Central and Eastern Europe was undertaken by Adam (2003). In 1999 the Journal for Higher Education in Europe had a special issue on transnational education "the changing face of transnational education: moving education-not learners" (UNESCO CEPES, 1999), while the aforementioned Observatory on Borderless Higher Education has more recently published several reports on the topic from external experts from around the world (see for example Bushan, 2006; Connely, 2006; Garret & Verbik, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c; and Verbik & Jokivirta, 2005a, 2005b).

International consortia

Although many higher education institutions engaged in international networks and consortia over the last decades, little research has been carried out on this phenomenon. Denman (2002) published an article which "attempted to determine whether globalisation, internationalisation, and other spheres of influence have direct and indirect relationships on the formation of international consortia." Based on empirical evidence he "suggests that international consortia have formed solely on the basis of economic need or financial incentives since World War II". Chan (2004) also published a paper on international cooperation looking into models and approaches to international university cooperation. Beerkens (2004) finished a study on cooperation in consortia, investigating in particular the success and failure factors of such cooperation. Also in 2004, Teather published a book on global consortia, which evaluated small, more homogeneous groups of universities.

Globalisation

In addition to research on internationalisation in higher education, recent decades an increasing stream of publications on higher education and globalisation have appeared (Altbach & Peterson, 1999; Breton & Lambert, 2003; Currie et al., 2003; Enders & Fulton, 2002; Kwiek, 2001; Marginson, 2004; Marginson & Van der Wende, 2007; P. Scott, 1998b, 2003; Vaira, 2004; Van der Wende, 2002a, 2004a). Some of these publications are based on empirical research; others reflect a policy (political) discussion between the opponents and proponents of globalisation of/in higher education.

Topics in studies on globalisation in higher education include national responses to globalisation (Verhoeven et al., 2005), the use and role of networks (Beerkens, 2004), privatisation of higher education and entrepreneurialism (Duczmal, 2006; Levy, 2003), and finally the GATS (General Agreement on Trades in Services) negotiations. PhD research by Vlk (2006) was undertaken on the impact of GATS on higher education; the conclusion was that the steering capacity of a nation state in higher education has not been weakened due to GATS.

> The choice to deregulate and liberalize the higher education market is a deliberate choice of a national government which by doing so may intentionally reduce its steering capacity. It is the nation-state as the most important player which constitutes and shapes its steering capacity in higher education, although it seems that, because of increasing interconnectedness of various policy levels, the steering capacity has become increasingly complex and less obvious to exercise than before. (234-235)

GATS is also a recurring topic in reports of the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (see for example OBHE, 2004).

2.4.3 *Curriculum, teaching and learning*

At the beginning of 1990s the need was recognised to extend the analysis of (activities concerning) internationalisation from simply the physical mobility of students to the more complex issues of internationalisation for all faculty and students through curricular, co-curricular, and other institutional adaptation. Since the mid 1990s these themes have become more important (Kehm & Teichler, 2007). The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) of the OECD initiated the first major research project in this area bringing together three major strands: curriculum development for internationalisation, analysis of financing and effects of internationalisation, and international aspects of institutional quality assurance (OECD/CERI, 1996). The findings of the study looking into the internationalisation in curricula across the range of OECD countries were published by (1995). Other studies in this area were conducted by Hudson & Todd (2000) and Mestenhauser & Ellingboe (1998). Topics in studies on international teaching and learning are for example the provision of international programmes, joint double degree programmes, and international co-operation in this area. The international classroom, often combined with the idea of internationalisation at home for non-mobile students, is also a recurring topic in research. Examples of this can be found in Bremer & Van der Wende (1995), Farkas-Teekens & Van der Wende (1997), Teekens (1997/1998), and Van der Wende (1996b). Another recurring topic is the use of a foreign language, especially English, in teaching and learning (Hudson & Todd, 2000; Klaassen, 2001; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; Vinke, 1995). Closely linked to this is the study of language studies (Hudson & Todd, 2000) and recruitment and selection of teachers for international classrooms and curricula (Teekens, 1997/1998).

With the changes in curriculum as well as changes in the number and diversity of students and institutions, collaborative partnerships, recognition and transfer of credits, and ever constraining resources, the need for quality assurance has become increasingly visible (DeWinter, 1996: 1). A number of studies on these topics have appeared: Bremer et al. (1995), Campbell & Van der Wende (2000), Van Damme (2002), DeWinter (1996), OECD/IMHE (1999), Van der Wende & Kouwenaar (1994) and Van der Wende & Westerheijden (2001). In several of these

publications, instruments for self assessment, self evaluation, peer review, or more in general quality assurance, are developed.

The use of ICT and technology in teaching and learning can be related to the activities concerning internationalisation. The use of ICT can bring education to foreign countries, without teachers going abroad. It can also bring foreign students into the classroom in through virtual mobility. The new technology also opens doors for more flexible delivery, both in time and space. The link between internationalisation in higher education and the use of ICT in teaching and learning is also shown by the authors of publications on these topics: Wächter (2002), Van der Wende (1998b), and Van der Wende & Collis (2002). These authors are also well known from other publications on internationalisation in higher education. For some years, the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education has also launched studies into this area, including work with a European focus (see for example Holtham & Courtney, 2005).

2.4.4   Internationalisation policies research

Many publications on policies on internationalisation in higher education have appeared over the last decade. These can be roughly divided into three categories: studies on internationalisation policies on a European level, including studies on the follow up of the Bologna Declaration; studies on internationalisation policies on a national level (including responses to the European level policies), and studies on internationalisation policies on an organisational level (including responses of organisations to higher level policies). For this last category, Kehm & Teichler (2007: 266) note that this has become an increasingly important theme.

Research on internationalisation policies is of particular interest to this study, as these policies may possibly provide explanatory factors for the responses of HEIs to internationalisation. The research on organisational policies will also help prepare the empirical research in particular, as this provides indications of possible responses of HEIs to internationalisation.

European policies research

Guy Neave (1984, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003) is one of the main scholars in the field of research on European policies in higher education. His analyses mainly build on a historical perspective. He participated in the project *Higher education and the nation state* (Huisman et al., 2001), which investigated forms of coordination or combined forms of coordination required in higher education, when taking into account the recent changes in Europe. Brouwer (1996) has also performed an historical overview of the educational policies of the European Union (EU). This study provides an insight into the process of cooperation and policy development in the area of education and vocational training. De Wit & Verhoeven (2001) who combine the historical analysis with a view from political science, continued this overview until the late 1990s.

De Wit (2002), compares Europe with the United States of America and provides another historical overview of internationalisation. He also goes into the rationales and strategies used for internationalisation in higher education. Finally, he discusses thematic issues in internationalisation in higher education: 1) globalisation, regionalisation, and internationalisation, 2) quality issues, 3) English as the common language, 4) rise of networks, and 5) research. The publication *Internationalisation in higher education* (Wächter, 1999b) also provides an overview of the situation in Europe. It addresses the reasons for (activities and policies concerning) internationalisation, what it is, as well as policies on different levels. The reasons for internationalisation discussed by Wächter are similar to the rationales discussed in section 2.3.2. Under the heading "what internationalisation is" Wächter discusses the themes as laid out here.

Enders has published about internationalisation and Europeanisation in higher education from a governance perspective (see section 2.2.4 for a general discussion on this topic).. He concludes that internationalisation, globalisation, and regionalisation (in European and German higher education) "seem to lead to higher education systems in which the national and the transnational coexist" (2002). In another article (2004) he discusses the strengths and weakness of multilevel governance theory to further understand these processes. He states that the major challenge will be

> to analyse the impact of changing governance structures and institutional environment on the identities, rules and rewards that govern the academic commons as the principal internal constituencies of the higher education fabric. (2004: 376)

Finally, various studies on European policies have been performed from a legal point of view. Examples are de la Porte & Zegveld, 1996; Van de Ven, 1996; Verbruggen, 2002.

European policies research - The Bologna Declaration
A specific body of research concerning European policies, although officially not a European Community policy, is the research on the follow up of the Bologna Declaration. In June 1999, 29 countries signed the Bologna Declaration aimed to reform the structures of higher education in a convergent way. Since then, follow-up meetings have been held and other countries have agreed on the goals stated in the Declaration. In preparation for these meetings, various studies, amongst which the EUA Trend reports (CRE, 1999; Crosier et al., 2007; Haug & Tauch, 2000, 2001; Reichert & Tauch, 2003; Reichert & Tauch, 2005) and reports by the Bologna Follow Up Group (Lourtie, 2001, Zgaga, 2003, BFUG-report, 2005) were performed to gain insight into the implementation of the Declaration. Another study providing an overview of the national implementation of Bologna in many European countries is the study by Eurydice (2003). Some studies have already been carried out on the implementation of the new degree structures in specific

countries or specific disciplines. Examples are: Alesi et al. (2005); Klemperer (2002); Klemperer et al. (2002); Lub & Van der Wende (2001); and Witte, 2006. These studies provide insight into the implementation of the declaration. The main outcome of the studies is that most countries have started working on implementation of the Declaration, but there are some differences in the way and speed with which it is implemented. For example, in Germany, Bachelor Master programmes are developed alongside the 'old' programmes, whereas in the Netherlands the Bachelor Master system has replaced the old system. Alesi et al. found that in the six countries studied "no uniform logic of system of degree programmes" could be identified (2005: 1). In 2002, Tauch and Rauhvargers found that

> although there is still a significant variety with regard to the duration and architecture of degrees in the European Higher Education Area, there is a dominant trend towards Master level degrees that require the equivalent of 300 ECTS credits, although examples of slightly longer and slightly shorter courses can be found (7).

Witte (2006), who undertook an international comparative study into the introduction of two-tier study structures in the course of the Bologna process in England, France, Germany, and the Netherlands, found that "the HE systems in England, France, the Netherlands, and Germany converged weakly between 1998 and 2004" and that "nearly all important changes in the seven dimensions occurred in the context of the Bologna process, with the exception of those in England". She also concludes however,

> that this does not necessarily mean that they were caused by the adaptation of degree structures. As we have seen, this reform often served to enable, sustain, and amplify developments driven by deeper underlying forces or particular interests. Sometimes it also simply provided a mental frame for developments that were as such unrelated to degree structures. But in all these functions, the adaptation of degree structures did contribute to the convergence of the four HE systems (464).

National policies research
One of the most comprehensive European studies on national policies for internationalisation in higher education has been performed by Kälvemark and Van der Wende (1997), which provides an analysis of these policies for several European countries. In 2004, a similar type of study was coordinated by Huisman and Van der Wende. As mentioned in section 2.3.2, it was concluded in 1997 that the economic rationale had become more important over the previous years in Europe, although a distinction needed to be made between short term (e.g., generating institutional income) and long term (e.g., an internationally trained labour force, brain gain, etc.) economic benefits. Kälvemark and Van der Wende also noted that a further distinction needed to be made between cooperative and public oriented policy and more competitive and market oriented approaches.

The need to distinguish between cooperation and competition as a driving force for internationalisation was confirmed by the 2004 study. In line with the increasing interest in economic rationale found in 1997, in most of the seven countries in the 2004 study, policies based on international competition in higher education and responses to it are increasing. However, interest in cooperation is also apparent. Competing and cooperating often go hand in hand (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004).

A regional study was performed by Maassen and Uppstrom (2004), who investigated internationalisation in Northern Europe and its Nordic cooperation. They concluded that

> Unlike institutions in other countries (inside and outside Europe) Nordic higher education institutions, with the exception of Danish universities, cannot profit economically from attracting foreign students other than through the national public funding model. Therefore the 'export' dimension is lacking from the Nordic cooperation in higher education (7).

The economic rationale is thus less explicit in the Northern region of Europe, as in the rest of Western Europe, shown by the before mentioned studies. Furthermore, they state

> Nordic cooperation in higher education is a successful, internally oriented 'regionalization' form of the internalization of higher education […] However, recent developments in Europe, and the apparent shift in student interest, at least in some countries, from exchange to studying abroad fully, might make it necessary to reconsider the way in which Nordic cooperation is currently organised and implemented (7).

Several separately published studies have been carried out on internationalisation policies in particular countries, focusing on the national role of European policies, for example Ollikainen (1999) in Finland. The objective of his study was to determine whether Finnish education policy discourses had been infiltrated by European integration, and if yes, how, when and to what extent this had happened. He concludes that Finnish education policy discourses have been effectively Europeanised, adapted to the norms and beliefs furthered by the EU (15). Another recent study is by Groot et al. (2002). In this publication for the Education Council of the Netherlands, the authors explore current European developments in education and possible consequences for the Dutch situation. Their conclusion is that for higher education there are the matters of harmonisation and convergence which will go hand in hand with stressing distinguishing features and differentiation in quality, level, and methods and distinguishing by informing potential students and employers. They also state that to form a European labour market, a European higher education space is necessary (25).

Organisational policies research
Strategies for internationalisation in higher education (H. d. Wit, 1995) compares institutional strategies for internationalisation in higher education in Australia, Canada, Europe, and the United States of America. Different rationales, strategies, and approaches are discussed. The same approach is used in a follow-up study on internationalisation in Asian Pacific countries (Australia, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, New Zealand, Singapore, South pacific and Thailand) (Knight & De Wit, 1997). As for the strategies in internationalisation, Knight & De Wit (1997) and H. d. Wit (1995) distinguish between programme strategies and organisational strategies. Programme strategies are categorised into academic programmes, research and scholarly collaboration, extra-curricular activities, and external relations and services. Examples of programmes strategies are student exchange programmes, joint research projects, and international campus events. Organisational strategies can be categorised into governance, operations, support services, and human resource development. Examples are active involvement of staff and faculty and support for international assignments and sabbaticals.

How higher education institutions try to internationalise and what policies they develop has been the subject of several studies. Examples are Barblan et al. (2000), Blok (1995), Hahn (2002), Kornpetpanee (1999), Söderqvist (2001, 2002), and Wächter (1999a, 1999b). The publication edited by Blok is broad. It provides both a theoretical framework for developing internationalisation policies at higher education organisations as well as the results of empirical research on the subject. The conceptual framework developed by Davies (1995) puts forward that internal and external factors can influence international strategy in universities. Davies further argues that the actual internalisation (or institutionalisation as he calls it) of the internationalisation strategy in the organisation should be considered along two dimensions: first, is internationalisation ad hoc or systematic and second is it a marginal or central activity (Davies, 1995: 16).

With the help of Davies' model, the situations at different organisations in Dutch and British business schools were assessed. Conclusions for the Dutch situation were that there is a strong correlation between output values (if an organisation is active and successful in one aspect, it is also successful in others). There is some correlation between investments and outputs and between support for the strategy and the outcomes. A clear outcome in the UK situation was that internationalisation is being driven by financial imperatives and incentives in the form of external UK and EC funding.

Another study on internationalisation in higher education organisations in a specific country is that of Hahn (2002). Her study describes the rising complexity of the policy field of higher education and identifies the core processes of internationalisation at German universities. Core processes discussed are

academic mobility, virtual mobility, credit transfer, compatible study structures, internationalisation in curricula, the use of foreign languages, and cultural processes.

Publications by Barblan et al. (1998 and 2000) are based on research using the European policy statement (EPS) that higher education organisations submitted for Socrates support and on interviews at several of these organisations. This study observes that the organisations that have experience in internationalisation can make the most of the support provided by Socrates (Barblan et al., 2000: 30). Furthermore, they state that at the more well-to-do and fairly Europeanised institutions, meetings and activities that are regarded as necessary (while not supported sufficiently by Socrates) have been rationalised and continue. At less well-to-do institutions, such meetings are reduced to the minimum necessary (Ibid.: 31) Expansion, mobilisation, and strategic development was only successful in organisations that weren't much bothered by low awards and who had already planned the activities without the help of Socrates. The research states that it seems that Socrates might have overestimated the capacity of central institutional coordinators to safeguard the spring of all cooperation activities in times of limited resources (Ibid.: 31). It might also have underestimated the value of meetings between academics. The researchers are not all negative however; internationalisation is still alive in higher education, but it could use more or other support (Ibid.: 31).

In a later study by Van Brakel et al. which also used EPS, it was found that the impact of the ERASMUS programme, based on national policy documents and the interviews in all countries involved in the study, is predominantly visible at the level of the higher education institutions, both structurally and culturally. In itself, this is not so surprising given the objectives of the ERASMUS programme and previous studies on this issue, such as those of Barblan. It was also found that the ERASMUS programme had an indirect impact on national policies.

> The growing internationalisation activities of both students and higher education institutions (connected both to ERASMUS and other internationalisation policies and programmes) increased the awareness of national governments as regards the importance of internationalisation (Van Brakel et al., 2004: 83).

A study coordinated by Wächter (1999a) addresses internationalisation in European non-university higher education. This sector cannot look back on a tradition of internationalisation, which is said to be found in the university sector, related to its research function. Non-university HEIs are usually young and this leads to a "frequently made assumption that the non-university sector's efforts and activities in internationalisation and international co-operation cannot yet compare with those of universities" (Wächter, 199a: 11). Furthermore, for this sector it is said that with the non-university sector being less 'academic' and more focused on vocational training, the basic set-up and orientation of the non-university field is generally perceived as the reason for an 'internationalisation

deficit'. However, with EU mobility programmes it's possible that this deficit could be challenged. The outcome of the study is that it is in fact very difficult to assess the volume of international activity of the non-university sector, in absolute terms or in comparison with universities. The only subject on which some comparison is possible is student mobility, since there is some empirical data available in this area. "The general impression is that of a lower volume of activity than in the university sector [...] but such judgements do not take into account the size of the institutions" (Ibid.: 185).

Söderqvist (2001, 2002) performed a discourse analysis of internationalisation and its management at higher education institutions to better understand internationalisation in an HEI. She found there were three discourses on internationalisation. The first is related to obtaining funding, the second to an HEI being both competitive and cooperative, and the third is more cultural political, with internationalisation of an HEI contributing to a multicultural and more equal world (2002: 190-191).

Studies on European, national and organisational policies
A report combining all three categories is a study of NIFU-STEP (2003) edited by Gortnitzka, Gulbrandsen, and Trondal on internationalisation in higher education and research. The study discusses several topics, including the Europeanisation of research and higher education policies. They report that in Norway a moderate level of convergence on higher education and research policies is visible. Regarding internationalisation in higher education, which looks at a range of issues such as policy, mobility, and transnational education, it is argued that

> the high policy saliency of internationalisation is not yet matched by equal importance as a research field. Especially in terms of theory-driven research and the development of analytical frameworks the research field has not excelled. (Gornitzka et al., 2003: 12)

It must therefore be noted that this study is one of the few trying to use a theoretical approach towards the study of internationalisation and higher education. It suggests looking at neo-institutional theory, network theory, and national innovation system models.

2.5   Conclusions

On the basis of the overview of previous research, it can be concluded that the amount of studies on internationalisation in higher education is numerous, broadly oriented, and continues to grow. Furthermore, the overview shows that the interpretation of (activities concerning) internationalisation in higher education has been widened to include more than just mobility of students and staff, and that consequently the range of issues studied within this field has grown since the mid 1990s. As Kehm and Teichler argue, "systematic analyses on the international dimension of higher education became more complex [and]

links between various internationally oriented activities are scrutinized" (2007: 262).

It can also be concluded that internationalisation is becoming a more integral part of higher education and its policies. The connection between internationalisation policies and more general higher education policies appears to be strengthening. Teichler (2002a) even speaks of qualitative leaps. Examples are that international activities in higher education institutions are no longer viewed as casuistic activities, but as regular and systemic, which have to be systematic and embedded. It is also the case that international activities in higher education institutions are no longer marginal or completely handled by international committees and offices segmented from the main stream of the university life. Instead, international affairs are taken up in all areas of decision-making and administration (Teichler, 2002a.: 5). Van der Wende also concludes that with these more comprehensive approaches, internationalisation activities are changing from a marginal add-on aspect of higher education to a central strategic issue at the institutional level and an important dimension in national higher education policy development. At the level of national policies it can also be observed that internationalisation is becoming a more integrated part of higher education (Van der Wende, 2001a, 2001b). Kehm and Teichler conclude that "just as internationalisation in higher education has become clearly more multi-dimensional and multifaceted, so has research about internationalisation in higher education" (2007: 269).

Based on the observation that there is "an *increase of theoretically and methodologically ambitious studies* [but that] this has not led to the emergence of a dominant disciplinary, conceptual or methodological 'home' of research on internationalisation in higher education" (Kehm & Teichler, 2007: 263) and the earlier conclusion of Van der Wende (2002b) that research on internationalisation still has a weak theoretical basis, one of the objectives of this study is to contribute to the theoretical basis for research on internationalisation in higher education. By doing so, it aims to contribute to the understanding of internationalisation in higher education, a changing field, growing in importance that has become an increasingly complex subject to analyse (Kehm & Teichler, 2007). The following chapter lays out the theoretical basis of this study.

3 Theoretical approach

3.1 Introduction

The theoretical framework helps to guide as well as structure and explain findings of the empirical research (King et al., 1994: 19).

Chapter 2 concluded that much empirical research on internationalisation in higher education has been performed, though the theoretical basis for research on this subject is still weak. It is thus not possible to use and further build on earlier theoretical frameworks in this specific area of research, although currently there are a few research groups who are also working on internationalisation in higher education from a more theoretical perspective (see chapter 2). Where possible, the outcomes of these groups are incorporated in this study.

This chapter first explores which theoretical framework can be used for this study, followed by a description of this framework in sections 2 and 3. Section 4 explores the application of the theoretical framework to higher education as a first step in the operationalisation (see chapter 5) and as an answer to the second research question:

How are higher education institutions likely to respond to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation based on the theoretical framework?

Finally, section 5 formulates several expectations on the outcomes of the empirical research are formulated using the theoretical framework that is presented in this chapter.

3.1.1 Why institutional theory

The starting point for the choice of a possible theoretical framework is the central question in chapter 1. Action and change in organisations and their environments are central to this study. Organisations understood as open systems (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 27) in contact with their environment, are part of an organisational field in which they are subject to the influences of institutions (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991: 64; W. R. Scott, 2001b: 161). Therefore, the basis of the theoretical framework of this study will lie in institutional theory.

Institutional theorists study the role of institutions in society. Institutions are the rules of the game in a society, or more formally the humanly devised constraints that shape interaction. They reduce uncertainty by providing a structure to everyday life (North, 1990). Institutions include both the formal – such as rules human beings devise – and informal constraints such as conventions and codes of conduct that human beings devise to shape human interaction (North, 1990). This is just one of many definitions given in the literature. North particularly stresses rules, but there are also different approaches to institutional theory, for example the often cited classification (historical, rational choice, and sociological institutionalism) by Hall and Taylor (1996).

In a special issue of the Academy of Management Journal, Dacin et al. state that "institutional theory has risen to prominence as a popular and powerful explanation for both individual and organisational action" and it can help to indicate factors that influence how organisations respond to change (Dacin et al., 2002: 45 p(p)). For example, Fligstein (1991) used institutional theory to study change in large U.S. firms and Greenwood et al. (2002) used the idea in studying the role of professional associations in the transformation of institutionalised field. Furthermore, institutional theory has proven its worth in earlier research on higher education. Bartelse (1999) used an institutional approach to study policy innovations in the area of doctoral education and Stensaker (2004) used institutional theory in studying changing organisational identities. Recently, a NIFU-STEP-study on internationalisation in research and higher education was published (Gornitzka et al., 2003), which suggests examining institutional theory, as well as network theory and national innovation system models. Institutional theory should provide a good starting point to help guide this study and contribute to the theoretical basis for research on internationalisation in higher education.

Because responses of HEIs are also central to this study, the theoretical approach will also comprise some insights on organisational change in connection to institutional theory. Organisations are assumed to be influenced by institutional pressures from the environment of the organisation and internal to the organisation. These influences should be interpreted as both facilitating and constraining organisational behaviour.

3.1.2   Institutions and change

"If the nature of actors and their modes of acting are constituted and constrained by institutions, how can these actors change the very institutions in which they are embedded?" (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 181)

This question seems to indicate that institutional change may not be possible; along this line earlier research using an institutional approach was focussed more on persistence rather than change (Oliver, 1992; Stensaker, 2004: 30). However, "although institutions function to provide stability and order, they themselves undergo change, both incremental and revolutionary" (P. Scott, 2001a: 50) and later research using an institutional approach also looked into change in both institutions and organisations with an open view for more divergent outcomes (see section 3.4). Of particular interest in studying institutions is looking for forces that made organisations converge in their ways, what DiMaggio and Powell (1991) call isomorphic change. Some authors also speak of deinstitutionalisation, meaning that legitimacy of an established institution erodes or discontinues (Oliver, 1992), after which a new institution can come into place, possibly replacing the old institution (W. R. Scott, 2001b).

North (1990) describes changes in institutions with the help of a sports metaphor. Rules can constrain players, but sometimes one can get away with breaking the rules. This depends on the monitoring of these rules and the severity of punishment.

> The purpose of the rules is to define the way the game is played. But the objective of the team within that set of rules is to win the game – by a combination of skills, strategy and co-ordination; by fair means and sometimes by foul means. (4-5)

The rules of the game can be changed, though there will most likely be opponents that want the rules to stay as they are if the change will affect them in a negative way. Change can come from external factors, advertisers who want the game to be more attractive for example, but also from inside such as teams who want the rules changed because the new rules suit them better than the existing ones.

Following this metaphor, institutional change can thus be caused by factors exogenous as well as endogenous to the institution. This is also argued by Oliver (1992) who states that "political, functional and social mechanisms both within and beyond the organisation are proposed as determinants of deinstitutionalisation" (566). Possible external factors leading to changes in institutions are the introduction of new technologies, major changes in policies, major political upheavals, social reform, economic crises or dislocations and shifts in cultural beliefs and practices (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 187). The state is perceived as one of the major sources of stability or change, as it can define the rules of the game (Fligstein, 1991: 314). Endogenous factors leading to changes in institutions can work as follows. Social structures such as organisations can be influenced by more than one institution simultaneously. Institutions overlap and compete for attention and adherents. They can also conflict with each other, for instance conflicting norms or values and rules. Through this overlap, institutions can influence one another, and through this change may occur (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 188-193). This is part of what Oliver (1992) calls social pressures including state and societal forces. Oliver is less specific about which factors are endogenous and exogenous; in her interpretation internal and external factors can be related to each other and the difference appears to be a thin line, as she speaks of intra-organizational factors and organization-environments relations. In the view of Oliver determinants of change

> incorporate three broad types of change: changes in political distributions supporting an established practice, changes in the functional necessity or perceived utility of an established practice and changes in the social consensus surrounding the legitimacy of an established practice. (1992: 578)

3.2   Three pillars of institutions

One framework that attempts to work with many of the diverse approaches to institutional theory is the pillars of institutions by Scott (2001b). Scott describes institutions as "multifaceted, durable social structures, made up of symbolic elements, social activities and material resources" (49). However, it is important to note that whereas many sociological institutionalists say that institutions are resistant to change, Scott argues that

> although institutions function to provide stability and order, they themselves undergo change, both incremental and revolutionary. Thus our subject must include not only institutions as a *property* or state of an existing social order, but also institutions as *process*, including the processes of institutionalisation and deinstitutionalisation (50)

This study assumes that several institutional elements influence HEIs, and that – linking the theory to this study - internationalisation can lead to changes in these institutions.

The regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars are the three analytical elents that make up or support institutions (Ibid.:51). Each element operates through its own mechanisms and processes. Distinguishing between the different analytical elements or pillars should help identify the processes taking place and the different pressures that institutions can exert. However, as Scott also acknowledges, in reality the distinction between the pillars is not always that strict. In reality, inter-pillar communication is possible (Ibid.: 69-70, endnote 2).
The three pillars are described according to six principal dimensions "along which assumptions vary and arguments arise among theorists emphasising one element over the others" (Ibid.: 51). These dimensions are,(1) basis of compliance, (2) basis of order, (3) mechanisms, (4) logic, (5) indicators, and (6) basis of legitimacy[8].

3.2.1   The regulative pillar

Rules and regulations are almost by definition part of institutional theory; institutions are seen to provide structure just as rules and regulations. The regulatory process in the sense of the regulative pillar concerns "the capacity to establish rules, inspect others' conformity to them, and, as necessary, manipulate sanctions – rewards or punishments – in an attempt to influence future behavior" (Ibid.: 52). Actors are said to conduct expedient behaviour and expedience is considered the basis for compliance to an institution. Furthermore, some actors might have power over others, giving them the ability to enforce their ideas upon

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[8] Scott uses Suchman's definition of legitimacy: "legitimacy is a generalized perception or assumption that the sanctions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions" (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 59).

weaker actors with the help of the sanctions mentioned earlier. According to this pillar, a coercive mechanism takes care of conformation to institutions. Furthermore, rules and regulations are said to control these elements (coercion, expedience) of the regulative pillar. Laws, rules, and sanctions are indicators of institutions in the context of this pillar and institutions are thought of as legitimate because they are legally sanctioned.

3.2.2 The normative pillar

In this pillar "emphasis is placed on normative rules that introduce a prescriptive, evaluative and obligatory dimension into social life" (Ibid.: 54). Again, rules play an important role, however, these rules come in the shape of norms and values, which guide the behaviour of the actors. These type of rules are not coerced or legally binding, they portray what is appropriate or not for actors to do. With the guiding role of norms and values, expectations are also bound and these types of rules are perceived to be a stabilising factor. They are therefore an important ingredient of institutions. The basis of legitimacy for institutions in the context of the normative pillar is a moral one.

3.2.3 The cultural-cognitive pillar

Cultural-cognitive elements are "the shared conceptions that constitute the nature of social reality and the frames through which meaning is made" (Ibid.: 57). For cultural-cognitive theorists, compliance occurs in many circumstances because other types of behaviour are inconceivable; routines are followed because they are taken for granted as "the way we do these things" (Ibid.: 57). The basis for compliance to an institution is also this 'taking this for granted' and is spread through mimicking others. Further, "a cultural-cognitive view stresses the legitimacy that comes from adopting a common frame of reference or definition of the situation" (Ibid.: 61).

Figure 3.1 summarises the three pillars of institutions. Pillars are not necessarily exclusive; 'communication' between the pillars is possible and the borders of the pillars are not strictly defined. For example, it is difficult to draw a line between informal rules, which are part of the regulative pillar, and norms, that are part of the normative pillar. In reality, these borders are more fluid and the pillars are expected to interact, which is also how the pillars will be used in this study (see also (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 133).

Figure 3.1: Three pillars of institutions (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 52)

| | **Pillar** | | |
	Regulative	Normative	Cultural-cognitive
Basis of compliance	Expedience	Social Obligation	Taken-for-grantedness Shared understanding
Basis of order	Regulative rules	Binding expectations	Constitutive schema
Mechanisms	Coercive	Normative	Mimetic
Logic	Instrumentality	Appropriateness	Orthodoxy
Indicators	Rules Laws Sanctions	Certification Accreditation	Common beliefs Shared logics of action
Basis of legitimacy	Legally sanctioned	Morally governed	Comprehensible Recognisable Culturally supported

3.3   Institutions, organisations and change

The responses of certain organisations (HEIs) to developments in their environment (in relation to internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation) are central to this study. Institutions, as described above, are part of the environment of organisations. The underlying assumption is thus that organisations can respond to changes in their environment. The idea that the environment influences organisations is one of the basic assumptions of institutional theory (Oliver, 1991: 147). Organisations can respond to their environment because they are open systems (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1977; W. R. Scott, 1998c). According to contingency-theorists, organisations can take steps to adapt to their environment to better match the requirements of the environment (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 144). Furthermore, even though organisations may be confronted with the same or similar (institutional) environment, not all experience these influences the same way or will respond the same way (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 161). This means that organisations are, at least to some extent, responsive to their institutional environment. To some extent, as their response may also be more ceremonial, "making changes in their formal structures, to signal conformity but then buffering internal units, allow[s] them to operate independent to [external] pressures" (Ibid.: 173). HEIs are also loosely coupled, meaning that parts of the organisation are responsive, but will also try to preserve

their own identity and some evidence of its physical or logical separateness (Weick, 1976: 3)

If the environment changes, it can be expected that organisations influenced by this changing environment will respond to these changes in one way or another. It is one thing to know that organisations can respond to their environment, but another to know how they might respond.

3.3.1 Organisations

An organisation can be defined as a "social structures created by individuals to support collaborative pursuit of specified goals" (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 10). Organisations come in all sort of sizes and shapes, but generally every organisation has a set of goals, structure, technologies, participants, and physical limits that shape and constrain action (Fligstein, 1991: 312, W. R. Scott, 1998c: 17). This study uses Scott's model of an organisation adapted from Leavitt, (1965) in W. R. Scott, (1998c: 17). This model comprises most of the already mentioned concepts and also shows that organisation can interact with their environment. The elements of an organisation as described in Scott's model are the social structure, technology (activities), goals, and actors.

Figure 3.2: Organisational model (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 17) adapted from Leavitt (1965: 1145)
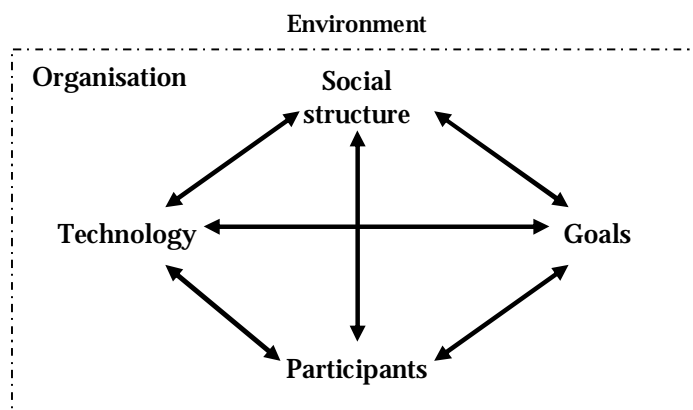
3.3.1.1 Goals

Scott (1998c) states "goals are tentatively defined as conceptions of desired ends - ends that participants attempt to achieve through their performance of task activities" (20-21). Goals can be used in different ways, which can make the concept somewhat confusing. To start, they can be used to provide directions for decisions and action in an organisation, as well as constrain them. They can also "serve as bases of attachment for both organisational participants and external

publics" (Ibid.: 286). From an institutional view, the symbolic function of goals is important. Through this, goals can help to acquire legitimacy and resources. Moreover, institutions can influence the goals that are set; for example if institutions provide the organisation with ideas about what is appropriate as well as what is legally expected of them. Lastly, goals can be used for the evaluation of the organisation and its participants.

What adds to the confusion is the fact that goals can originate from different sources and that individual participants can have somewhat different goals than the organisation on the whole. Finally, "behaviour sometimes precedes goals, and goals are then invented to serve as a justification for the actions taken" (Ibid.: 286).

3.3.1.2   Participants

"Organisational participants are those individuals who, in return for a variety of inducements, make contributions to the organisation" (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 19). An individual can be part of more than one organisation at the same time. These shared members are one possible way of organisations influencing each other.

Participants are particularly important in shaping an organisation. Participants are social actors; "it is their energy, their conformity, their disobedience that constitutes and shapes the structure of the organisation. Without their participation, there is no social structure, no organisation" (Ibid.: 20). Furthermore, the background and certain characteristics of the participants such as age, gender, or ethnic contributions, will have consequences for certain aspects of the organisational structure and functioning (Ibid.: 20).

3.3.1.3   Social structure

"Social structure refers to the patterned or regularised aspects of the relationships existing among participants in an organisation" (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 17). The social structure has two components, the normative structure and the behavioural structure. The normative structure includes values, norms and role expectations.

> Briefly, *values* are the criteria employed in selecting the goals of behaviour; *norms* are the generalised rules governing behaviour that specify, in particular, appropriate means for pursuing goals; and *roles* are expectations for the evaluative standards employed in assessing the behaviour of occupants of specific social positions (Ibid.: 17).

The behavioural structure is the actual behaviour in organisations and not the prescriptions for behaviour as given by the normative structure. Other authors use different terms for the concepts of normative and behavioural structure. Dawson (1996: 141) describes 'culture' as "shared values and beliefs which are seen to characterise particular organisations". Culture can then be compared with the normative structure. Dawson's definition of structure is "a social creation of rules, roles and relationships which at best facilitates effective co-ordination and

control" (Ibid.: 111), which can in part be compared to the normative structure, but also contains parts of the behavioural structure.

The normative and behavioural structures are related and influence one and other. The norms provided by the normative structure can constrain the actual behaviour while behaviour can also change the normative structure. In short, "behaviour shapes norms just as norms shape behaviour" (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 18). An example of a characteristic of the social structure of an organisation is the extent of formalisation. The social structure can be formal, where "social positions and relationships among them have been explicitly specified and are defined independently of the personal characteristics and relations of the participants occupying these positions" (Ibid.: 19). Or it can be informal; "…in an informal social structure, it is impossible to distinguish between the characteristics of the positions and the prescribed relations and the characteristics and personal relations of the participants" (Ibid.: 19). Often, a mixture of both can be found in an organisation. The two can be seen as the ends of a continuum.

3.3.1.4   Technology (activities)

Technology (activities) of an organisation is approached broadly. It is not just the pure technology such as machines and mechanical equipment that are used in an organisation it is also the technical knowledge and skills of participants as well as the activities that are undertaken.

> To focus on the technology of an organisation is to view the organisation as a place where some type of work is done, as a location where energy is applied to the transformation of materials, as a mechanism for transforming inputs into outputs (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 21)

This leads to the activities undertaken in and by the organisation. The way technology activities are used can vary among organisations depending on the understanding, routines, or efficacy of technology activities in the organisation.

3.3.2   *Changing institutions and organisations*

Many if not most institutional theorists expect that eventually organisations involved in a particular organisational field will become more homogeneous, which they name the process of isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991: 65, 67). An organisational field are "those organisations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognized area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products" (Ibid.: 64-65). Three types of isomorphism are distinguished: coercive, mimetic, and normative (Ibid.: 67), which can be associated with the regulative, cultural-cognitive, and normative pillars (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 213). On the whole, it is argued that due to powerful forces by competition, state or profession organisations in the same line of business

eventually become more similar to one another (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991: 65) and appear to follow the lead of key organisations in the field (Fligstein, 1991: 317). Furthermore, it is suggested that organisational change is least likely in stable fields that are heavily regulated by the state, although proposed change in these regulations is also likely to bring change in an organisation wanting to adapt to the changed environment. In turbulent, unstable fields without much state regulation, possibilities for change are higher (Fligstein, 1991: 316; Stark, 1998; Stensaker, 2004: 31) though there is no unidirectional relation between changing institutions and changing organisations.

Oliver (1991) argues that "…institutional theorists are capable of addressing a broad range of strategic responses to the institutional environment…" (151). She suggests five different responses of organisations: acquiesce, compromise, avoid, defy, and manipulate, depending on the perception of the institutional pressures and change on the organisation. Depending on the perception of why, who, what, how, and the context of the pressure, an organisation can choose a different strategy. As an organisation itself cannot actually perceive anything, the perception of the change lies in the eyes of participants in the organisation.

Although Scott is less outspoken about whether or not an organisation will show isomorphic tendencies, he too sees different strategies organisations follow in relation to their institutional environment (1998c: 211). He also points out that organisations can change at different rates, "moreover, different aspects of the organisation change at differing rates" (Ibid.: 218).

Organisations can respond to changes in their (institutional) environment with changes in their organisational elements. An example would be referring to legislative pressures that may lead to changing goals or changing normative pressures that may lead to changing social structures. Each element can influence one of the others; changes in one element can thus be followed by further change in the organisation. For example, a change in goals may require a different type of technology activity. Participants in organisations are expected to have a specific role in how an organisation responds to changes because "in order to make a decision to change an organisation, individuals must perceive a need and source for that change" (Fligstein, 1991: 315).

Changes in the institutional environment can influence organisations and vice versa. This reciprocal relationship makes it difficult to research causal relationship (see Gorges, 2001). Organisations are likely to respond to changes in their institutional environment, one way or another, in order to survive. Their actual response is likely to depend on their perception of the changes in the institutional environment. Change in the organisation or, to be more specific, in the organisational elements, can take place at different rates.

Schematically, the relationships between institutions and organisations are shown in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Institutional elements and organisations
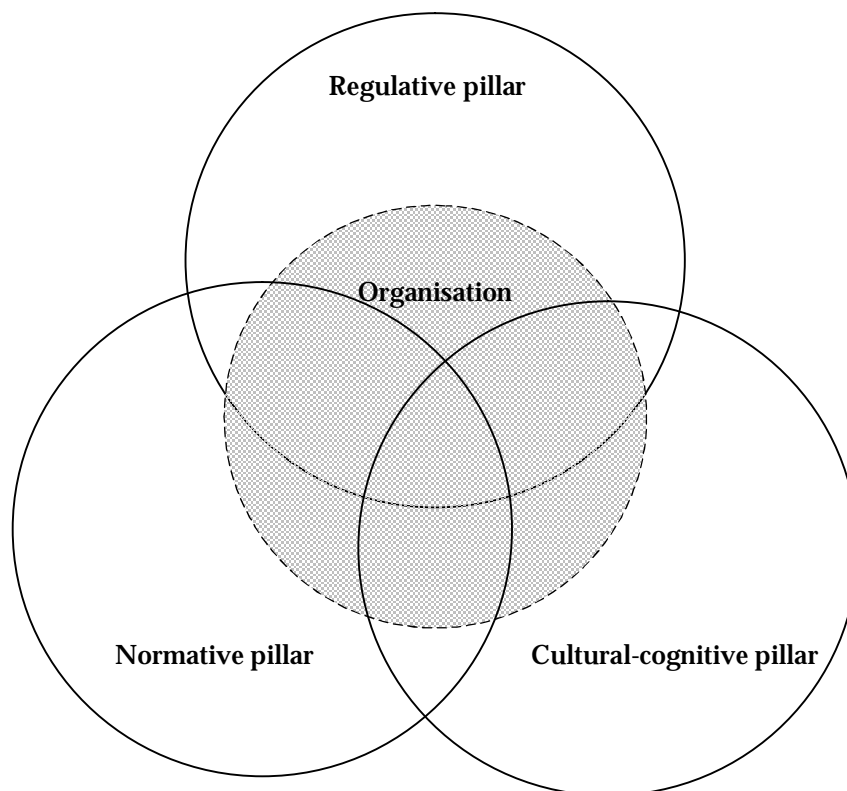
3.4   Institutions and organisations in higher education

We now explore the application of the theoretical framework to higher education as a first step in the operationalisation (see chapter 5) and as an answer to the second research question:

How are higher education institutions likely to respond to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation based on the theoretical framework?

Higher education is a unique field of research, with quite similar but distinctive higher education systems in different countries (see e.g., Goedegebuure et al., 1993). Chapter 1 already noted that current HEIs are foremost embedded in the nation state. These unique features of higher education, the combination of similar systems with different specifics, demands a certain caution in adopting the general theoretical outline to higher education. The theoretical framework has to allow for unique national features in higher education. We have seen that certain external pressures can bring change in institutional elements.

Internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation can be perceived as such an external pressure and as will be clear, the focus in this study is on how internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation affect institutional elements and how certain organisations, HEIs, are responding to these changes.

In the following sections the general theoretical outline presented above is applied to higher education, with special regard to internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation in higher education.

3.4.1 Institutions, change and internationalisation in higher education

The pillars of institutions can be used to describe and analyse the institutional environment of higher education.

3.4.1.1 Regulative pillar

In most countries higher education is part of the public sector and government is likely to regulate it to a certain extent. The extent of the regulation may differ per country, as some governments will leave more freedom (institutional autonomy) than others.

> Government regulation can be described as the efforts of government to steer the decisions and actors of specific societal actors according to the objectives the government has set and by using instruments government has at its disposal (Van Vught, 1989b: 21).

The regulative pillars refer to the state and the rules and regulations governing higher education. Included in these are the national funding arrangements and resource allocation. Many, if not most, HEIs rely primarily on national sources of funding provided by governments. However, HEIs may also receive funding through other sources such as research councils, income through student fees, and in some countries gifts from alumni or other third parties. Finally, rules and regulations concerning quality assurance need to be included as well. These are somewhat special rules and regulations, as they formally express guiding norms and values. There thus appears to be some overlap with the normative pillar.

Generally, there will be a special law or regulation governing the provision of higher education in a country. These are sometimes supplemented with regional regulations, if part of the governing responsibility for higher education is transferred to regional authorities. This is for example the case in Germany, where educational legislation and administration of the educational system are primarily the responsibility of the 16 *Länder* and in Belgium where education is primarily the responsibility of two communities, Flanders and Walloon (Van Heffen & Lub, 2003; Huisman, 2003). Internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation may be part of this law on higher education or ideas on these

concepts can be set out in separate policies (see for example Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004; Kälvemark & Van der Wende, 1997).

These laws and regulations governing higher education also lay out the national steering model and the extent of institutional autonomy in a country. Generally the state is perceived as one of the major sources of stability or change, as it can define the rules of the game (Fligstein, 1991: 314). Though it is indeed very likely that state laws and regulations are (highly) influential in higher education particularly when funding plays a role, higher education institutions often have substantive institutional autonomy, and there are certain limits to state control (Clark, 1983: 177).

International, global, and European developments can put forward challenges to national laws and regulation, which may then need to be adapted. For example, after signing the Bologna Declaration, which speaks of a two-cycle higher education system, the Dutch Higher Education Act was changed to adapt to this two-cycle system. International developments may thus challenge existing laws and regulations, which can lead to changes. In turn, these changes can influence HEIs, as in general laws and regulation are perceived as a major source of, in this case, change.

National laws and regulations change not only because of international, global and European developments. Other processes in a nation-state may also lead to changes, as for example changing insights on how to steer HEIs or on the types of institutions needed within a system. In 1992 the UK changed all HEIs within its higher education system to universities, significantly changing its higher education landscape which used to comprise both polytechnics and universities.

Not only rules and regulations on the national level may present challenges. Rules and regulations on the supra- or international level may also be formulated that demand a response from national HEIs. In Europe, the EU has developed several programmes aimed at higher education, which are sometimes difficult to ignore by HEIs.

Quality assurance not only shows characteristics of the regulative pillar, but also of the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar. Often, quality assurance is regulated in national laws (Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004a) and organised along the lines of academic disciplines; often quality is assessed by other academics (i.e., peer reviewed) (Becher & Trowler, 2001: 86). Certain standards are set with quality assurance, based on a shared understanding. As quality assurance systems are laid down in formal rules and regulations, quality assurance is at place as a part of the regulative pillar. International, global, and European developments are finding their way into quality assurance in more ways than one- bringing changes into the system of quality assurance.

So far, only written rules have been discussed. Scott argues that unwritten or informal rules are also part of the regulative pillar. However, the difference between informal rules and norms is difficult to define. This study takes informal rules into account in the normative pillar.

3.4.1.2   Normative pillar

Norms and values of the higher education profession are the main ingredient of the normative pillar in the context of higher education. These norms and values, likely influenced by tradition, guide the behavior of HEIs and delineate what is appropriate. In the context of the normative processes in higher education the focus should lie more on rules of an informal nature. The more formal rules have been addressed under the regulative pillar. In addition to these informal rules, quality is a topic in higher education that follows the logic of the normative pillar.

"Quality in the sense of achieving academic excellence has always been a central value in higher education" (Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004b: 4). The assurance of quality is often laid down in national rules and regulations. There is thus some overlap with the regulative pillar; the values expressed concerning quality that are part of the normative pillar are reviewed through quality assurance systems that are part of the regulative pillar. These systems are laid down in formal rules and regulations.

Finally, just as national laws and regulation change for reasons other than international, global, and European developments, thinking norms, values and traditions and quality can also change because of other influences (Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004b: 1).

3.4.1.3   Cultural-cognitive pillar

In terms of cultural-cognitive elements the focus is mainly on the academic disciplines in the context of higher education, (see Becher & Trowler, 2001; Clark, 1983; Groennings & Wiley, 1990). Compliance to an academic discipline is based on social obligations as well as shared understanding and a taken-for-grantedness. At the macro-level of the higher education system, the underlying 'education and research model' (for example Humboldtian, Newmanian, Napoleonic) can be understood as an important indicator of the cultural-cognitive institution.

The academic disciplines are an important element of higher education. They can be seen as the equivalent of a professional association or network, as "the discipline is clearly a specialised form of organisation in that it knits together chemists and chemists, psychologists and psychologists, historians and historians" (Clark, 1983: 29). In general, professional associations or networks are

perceived to have a strong influence (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991:71; W. R. Scott, 1998c: 211); Clark (1983) argues that the discipline rather than the organisation for higher education tends to become the dominant force in the working lives of academics (30). Furthermore, Groennings (1990) states that "it is ultimately in the disciplines that we see the extent to which colleges and universities adapt to their changing environments" (22). A discipline can thus be of important influence to academics actively involved in it. Becher and Trowler (2001) further argue that

> the ways in which particular groups of academics organise their professional lives are related in important ways to the intellectual tasks on which they are engaged... the ways in which academics engage with their subject matter, and the narratives they develop about this, are important structural factors in the formulation of disciplinary cultures[9]. Together they represent features that lend coherence and relative permanence to academics' social practices, values and attitudes across time and place (23).

Common beliefs, shared logic of action, and accreditation are also recognisable. This is further grounded by the work of Dressel and Marcus (cited by Stark, 1998: 450). They state that the structure of a discipline is divided into the value structure and the symbolic structure. The value structure is a set of embedded values, orientations, or ways of viewing the world and the symbolic structure is a symbolic communication system. This clarifies that compliance to the discipline is based on social obligations as well as shared understanding and a taken-for-grantedness.

Earlier research shows that there can be differences in internationalisation among different disciplines (see Groennings & Wiley, 1990). The differences in the thinking of disciplinary communities as described above can lead to a difference in acceptance of international, global, and European developments.

It is important to note that academic disciplines show overlap with the normative pillar, as within an academic discipline certain values and norms prevail. These norms and values can be of guidance to academics. Therefore, in the remainder of this study, the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar will be used jointly.

3.4.2 Higher education organisations

This section gives a general description of HEIs on the basis of Scott's organisational model (see 3.3.1).

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[9] By 'cultures' Becher and Trowler refer to sets of taken-for-granted values, attitudes, and ways of behaving articulated through and reinforced by recurrent practices among a group of people in a given context (2001: 23).

3.4.2.1   Goals

Higher education goals relate to the mission, vision and strategy of higher education in general as well as that of the specific HEI. Many HEIs will refer to the handling of knowledge (either refining this through research, transferring this through education, or both). It should be kept in mind that HEIs are service organisations and that the objectives of such organisations are often ambiguous.

Administration and management generally set the organisational goals, as they are responsible for the organisational policy. As far as academic goals are concerned, most likely they will want the organisation, especially the academic staff, to be good or even excellent at both teaching and research. The main interest for the students will be that they receive quality education in order to obtain a degree within a certain period of time. Academic staff should be concerned with providing this education as well as doing research of good quality. In practice, it is not always easy to combine these two. Often staff will let one have priority over the other.

The governing body may decide that responding to internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation is a priority goal, but the academic staff may think differently. An HEI is loosely coupled, the staff has academic freedom, and the norms of the academic discipline can be different to what administration and management thinks. This may lead to different outcomes than intended by administration and management.

3.4.2.2   Participants

The main participants in a university can be divided into administration and management, academic staff, support staff, and students. In a professional college, non-university sector academic staff are often termed teaching staff. In the remainder of this study, where academic staff is written, teaching staff can all be read.

The academic head of the HEI will generally be the rector (or a similar position), who together with a governing body or managers manages the HEI (administration and management).

Academic staff are the participants responsible for research and teaching in an HEI. In general there are different levels of academic staff, the highest being full professor. The academic staff in most universities will be divided into different faculties and departments, mostly according to the academic discipline they are involved in (Clark, 1983: 28-29). In most cases, a professor will be the head of a department. The academic staff are very important in the actual internationalisation in an HEI. They are the ones that in the end – if this is deemed appropriate - need to make the education and research more international. The specific role of individual actors was underlined in the general theoretical outline and in the description of academic disciplines.

The support staff of HEIs can be very diverse. There can be different units working on different themes such as teaching support, maintenance, and ICT. The unit working on international affairs is important to this study. It is expected that they will have some influence on the internationalisation in HEIs. Under the support staff, the policymakers of the HEIs are also taken into account. They are responsible for the general organisation policy, including policies on internationalisation and the response to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation.

Finally, there are several types of students in higher education. They can be categorised in several ways. One way is through programmes: bachelor, master, or Ph.D. Another is distinguishing between fee-paying and non-paying student. Finally, regular, national, students can be distinguished from international or mobile students. Two types of international or mobile students can be identified:

- Foreign degree students who register for the whole of a degree (or other) programme at an HEI outside their home country
- Exchange students who remain registered at their home HEI but take one or more modules of their courses at an HEI in another country.

Exchange students can be further distinguished as incoming and outgoing; at one institution they will be considered incoming and to their home institution they will be considered outgoing.

Students can play an important role in the internationalisation in HEIs. In the early days of internationalisation in higher education, the main indicator for was student mobility (see chapter 2). Student mobility remains important. Furthermore, international students are perceived as a new source of financial funds for the HEIs in certain countries (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004)). And in the end, internationalisation in the HEIs should show through their students, preparing them for an ever increasing internationalised and globalised world.

3.4.2.3   Social structure

Important elements of the social structure are the organisation of the main tasks of the organisation, the division of power and authority across different levels, and loose-coupling. One of the characteristics of higher education is that the organisations are loosely coupled systems. "By loose coupling [Weick] intends to convey the image that coupled events are responsive, *but* that each event also preserves its own identity and some evidence of its physical or logical seperateness" (Weick, 1976: 3). In the case of an educational organisation it may be that the principal's office and the counsellor's office are somehow attached, "but that each retains some identity and separateness and that their attachment may be circumscribed, infrequent, weak in its mutual effects, unimportant, and/or slow to respond" (Ibid.: 3). Central steering will be difficult when organisational parts want to preserve their own identity and separation. In the case of

internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation, it could be that a department feels that the proposed response does not fit with their identity and will be slow to change or not change. In this sense the role of leadership and the role of professionals are of particular importance to HEIs (Neave, 1992, quoted in H. d. Wit, 2002: 126; Van Vught, 1989a: 51).

3.4.2.4   Technology (activities)

In the context of higher education, the main technology (activities) is research and education. As Clark (1983) states:

> In varying combinations of efforts to discover, conserve, refine, transmit, and apply it, the manipulation of knowledge is what we find in common in the many specific activities of professors and teachers […] However broadly we define it, knowledge is the material. Research and teaching are the main technologies. (12)

At universities, education and research were, traditionally, internationally oriented and often related to the research function of the university. The non-university sector however, does not have such an internationally oriented research tradition. Non-university HEIs are usually young and this leads to a "frequently made assumption that the non-university sector's efforts and activities in internationalisation and international co-operation cannot yet compare with those of universities" (Wächter, 1999a: 11). Universities may thus respond differently to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation than non-universities.

3.4.3   Resuming

Organisations can respond to changes in their environment with changes in the organisational elements and vice versa. For example, changing legislative pressures may lead to changing goals; changing normative pressures might lead to changing social structures; but also new activities may also require new regulation. Each organisational element can influence others; changes in one element, can thus be followed by further change in the organisation. For example, a change in goals may require a different type of technology (activities). Participants are expected to have a specific role in how an organisation responds to changes, especially when it comes to the rate of the adoption of changes. The perceptions of the proposed changes by the participants are likely to influence the response.

It is expected that internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation have an impact on the institutional structure surrounding HEIs- the environment of the HEIs. This may (though not necessarily) lead to changes in institutional elements. These changing institutional elements may impact the organisational elements, and vice versa.

Figure 3.4 summarizes the main theoretical concepts and their application in higher education in relation to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, thus answering the second research question:

How are higher education institutions likely to respond to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation based on the theoretical framework?

3.5 Expectations

Several expectations can be formulated on the basis of the discussion of the theoretical outline and its application to higher education. This study takes a broad and exploratory approach to the responses of HEIs to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation, which will be reflected in these expectations. Central elements in the theoretical outline are the pillars of institutions and the organisational elements.

The central question of this study, combined with research question 3, brings the response of HEIs to challenges brought by international developments to the forefront; the expectations are also formulated around this topic.

3.5.1 Expectations regarding the regulative pillar

Developments in the institutional environment defined by the regulative pillar are expected to be of strong influence on HEIs, as the regulative pillar coercively defines 'the rules of the game'. HEIs thus need to respond to influences from the regulative pillar. It is likely that this response, in what they will and will not do, is first and foremost visible in the goals of an HEI. These goals express the formal desired ends of an HEI and also have a symbolic function in acquiring legitimacy and resources (see section 3.3.1). Other elements of the organisation may then follow the direction of these goals, although this may also depend on the perceptions of participants (see below). The following expectation can then be formulated:

Expectation 1
Goals of an HEI (with respect to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation) are more likely to be influenced by the regulative pillar than other elements of the organisation of the HEI concerning internationalisation.

Figure 3.4: Concepts and dimensions for empirical research
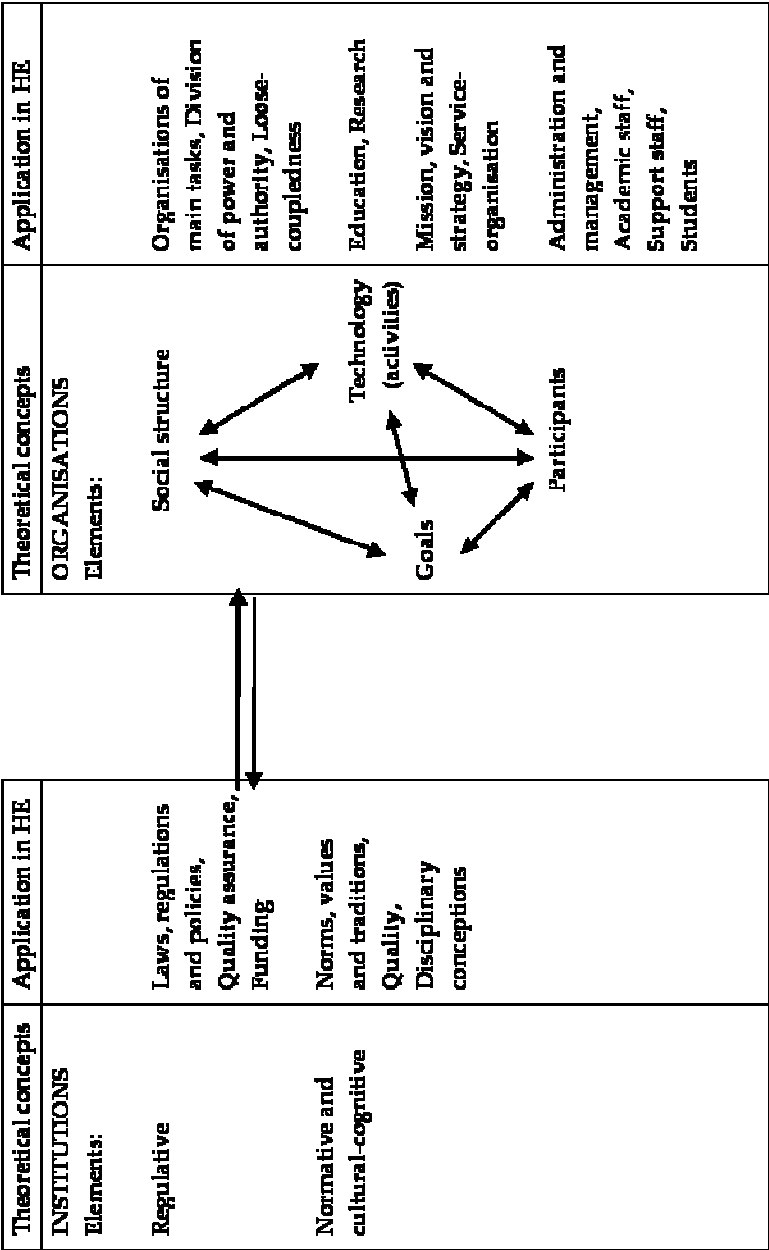
There are multiple levels within the regulative pillar; multi-level governance, allowing for other, higher levels of governance than just the national level (Jordan, 2001; Peters & Pierre, 2001; Scharpf, 2001). Multiple levels of the regulative pillar might influence HEIs, particularly their goals, as the idea behind multilevel governance is an *interaction* between the different, vertical layered levels of governance. However, knowing that most current HEIs are foremost embedded in the nation state (See: P. Scott, 1998a: 110; Neave, 2001; Huisman et al., 2001; Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004), and as policy issues such as funding and quality assurance are regulated at the national level, it is likely that the national level of the regulative pillar has more influence on the goals of HEIs with respect to higher education than the supranational level. This leads to the following expectation:

Expectation 2
The national level of the regulative pillar is more likely to be of direct influence to goals of an HEI (with respect to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation of HE) than the supranational level.

3.5.2   *Expectations regarding the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar*
What HEIs do is defined by their goals; however, how they act to achieve these goals however, particularly in terms of their technology (activities), is likely to be influenced by the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar.

Oliver (1991) suggests that the actual response of an organisation depends on the perception of why, who, what, how and the context of the change put forward to an organisation. Perception in any organisation takes place through the eyes of its participants, as other elements of the organisation are not capable of perceiving things; they are not living beings. Furthermore, participants are, in general, important in shaping the organisation and particularly its technology (activities).

Participants in an HEI, particularly academic staff, have an even more specific role than participants in most other organisation. Academic freedom makes the behaviour of an individual academic within an HEI difficult to predict, as he has a certain amount of academic freedom when wanting to deviate from the path set out by the HEI, for example in its goals, which are expected to be influenced by the regulative pillar. This argument is strengthened by the ideas of Mintzberg on professional bureaucracies. In a professional bureaucracy the professionals (academic staff) play a major role in arranging their own work, but also in trying to obtain collective freedom to act (1999: 207).

Furthermore, the perceptions of participants in an HEI, again particularly those of academic staff, are highly likely to be influenced by norms, values and cognitions of academic disciplines, as academic disciplines seem to be core to higher education (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Clark, 1983). Academic disciplinary networks

can be considered to be the professional associations of higher education and, according institutional theory, professional networks are perceived to have a major external influence on organizations and their participants (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991: 71; W. R. Scott, 1998c: 211). Previous research (Groennings & Wiley, 1990) confirmed that disciplines indeed deal differently with internationalisation. Academic disciplines, which contain elements of both the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar are thus highly likely to influence the perception of participants in an HEI, through which the technology (activities) are influenced.

On the whole, how an HEI responds to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation is given shape through its technology (activities). This response in technology (activities) is likely to be influenced by the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar, through the influence of the perceptions of participant in an HEI, which brings about the following expectation:

Expectation 3
Change in technology (activities) of an HEI (with respect to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation) is more likely to be influenced by the normative and cultural-cognitive pillars (which are formed through the perceptions of the participants in an HEI) than other elements of the organisation.

Furthermore, as the academic disciplines are likely to have a strong influence on participants in an HEI, the number of different disciplines may also influence the actual response of an HEI, through its technology (activities). In comprehensive HEIs, with a large number of different academic disciplines, the diversity of perceptions is likely to be higher than in specialised HEIs with one or just a few academic disciplines. In combining these different perceptions, comprehensive HEIs are likely to have a less consistent response to Europeanisation, internationalisation, and globalisation, bringing forth the following expectation:

Expectation 4
Responses to Europeanisation, internationalisation, and globalisation are likely to be less consistent within comprehensive HEIs than in specialised HEIs.

4 Research strategy and methodology empirical research

4.1 Introduction

There are many ways of conducting empirical research in the social sciences. Examples of research strategies are experiments, surveys, and case studies (Yin, 2003: 5); Van Hoesel, 1985: 172) and combinations of these strategies are also possible. The choice for one or more of these strategies should be based on the nature and subject of the research (Van Hoesel, 1985). The same applies to the choice in the units of analysis and the units of observation[10], which are linked to the choice for the data collection method. Examples of data collection methods are free observation, interviews, questionnaires, and desk-research.

This chapter lays out the general research strategy used in the empirical research of this study and discusses the methodological issues connected to the research strategy. The strategy for the empirical research of this study is based on a project funded under the Fifth Framework of EU (known as HEIGLO), as the results and data of that project are also used for further analysis in this study. The data were collected in 2003 and 2004. For the HEIGLO-project, research in seven Western European countries (Austria, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United Kingdom) was conducted by researchers from these countries.

4.2 Case study approach

Case studies form the core of the empirical research of this study. A case study is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 2003: 13). Each case is then one unit of analysis in the research (Ibid.: 22). Furthermore, case study research is useful in studies seeking to answer 'how' and 'why' questions. It allows an in-depth and detailed study of the phenomenon in relation to its context[11]. Case study research can be especially advantageous when this type of questions are to be answered "about a contemporary set of events [process], over which the investigator has little or no control" (Ibid.: 9). Van Hoesel (1985: 236) adds that case studies are more likely to be the preferred research strategy of researchers when the study is

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[10] "Units of analysis … are those units or things we examine in order to create summary descriptions of all such units and to explain differences among them" (p87). Although the units of analysis are often the same as the units of observation, this is not necessarily so. The units of analysis can a also be observed indirectly (Babbie, 1995).

[11] This is what Hoesel (1985: 243) refers to as one of the advantages of case studies, the contextual validity of the case study.

more comprehensive and involves multiple or higher levels (persons, groups, organisations, societies). The case study method can then be helpful in making a structured description of a case, basing explanations on the structured description. A case can also be compared to other cases described in a similar way. Comparing several, but a limited number of, cases, results in what King, Keohane and Verba (1994: 43-46) describe as comparative case studies.

Case study research also has its weaknesses. First, there is little or no control over the research subject. Then again, little control over the research subject is one of the reasons for choosing this research strategy, as it allows for a study of the phenomenon in its context (Yin, 2003: 13). Second, small n-research has the risk of an indeterminate research design, because of more inferences[12] than observations. To prevent this, as many observations as possible should be made. Finally, the selection of cases being representative of a larger field is a difficult point in case study research, especially in single case studies. A comparative case study research strategy, which, by its nature, has more than one case, is therefore preferred over the single case study, with careful selection of the cases. It is important that through an adequate selection insight is gained in the 'range' of the research subject.

With the considerations above in mind, a comparative case study approach with each HEI as a separate case, was chosen for this study for the following reasons. The research subject (responses of HEIs to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation) is a contemporary phenomenon as well as a process over time, which cannot be controlled by researchers. Combined with the research subject, which in terms of Van Hoesel is on a high level (organisations), and the complexity of the research subject, this is a first reason for choosing case study research as the main research strategy. Furthermore, the main research question is aimed at understanding the how and why of the responses of HEIs. To obtain a valid understanding of this, the context of the responses of the HEIs is important. HEIs do not operate in a vacuum; they are an important part of today's knowledge society. The theoretical outline also raised awareness of the importance of the environment of the HEIs if their responses are to be explained. Case study research allows taking this context into account and is a second reason for choosing a case study approach. Finally, we aim for comparison between the responses of the HEIs and case study research should help describe their responses in a structured way. This would in turn help the comparison of the cases and is a third reason for choosing this research strategy. Finally, this study

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[12] An indeterminate research designs means that little can be learned from the research about causalities (King et al., 1994: 118).
"Inference is the process of using facts we know to learn something about facts we do not know. There is a limit to how much we can learn from limited information. It turns out that the precise rule is that one fact (or observable implication) cannot give *independent* information about more than one other fact. More generally, each observation can help us make one inference at most" (King et al., 1994: 119).

is broad and exploratory oriented and one of the first in trying to study responses to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation from a more theoretical perspective, a final reason for choosing this approach (Van den Hauten, 2003: 97).

In case study research, several methods of data collection can be combined, as in principle almost all methods of data collection are open (Hirst & Thompson, 2000; Van Hoesel, 1985: 234). This offers possibilities for triangulation, which helps to increase the reliability of the research.

In the HEI cases in this study, data was collected using two complementary methods. First, written documentation on the cases, such as mission statements, annual reports, internationalisation policy documents, websites etc, were studied. These documents are the first type of units of observations. Second, semi-structured interviews were held with key actors on multiple levels of the HEIs, such as the holder of the internationalisation portfolio of the Governing Board, central level policy makers on research, education and internationalisation, heads of international offices, as well as deans of faculties and students. Through interviews an adequate understanding of the complex research subject can be reached, as more complex matters can be dealt with than in written questionnaires for example. The interviews allow for a more open approach and ask (more) explanatory questions. With the help of the interviews the story behind the written texts should become clearer and the findings from the documents can be triangulated. Researchers from each country involved in the HEIGLO-project collected the data and performed an initial analysis based on a theoretical framework similar to the theoretical outline of this study and a common methodological approach also similar to the approach outlined in this study. The results and data gathered are used for further analysis in this study (chapters 5 and 0).

4.3   Selection of cases

Cases can be selected in several ways, such as randomisation or conscious selection of the cases, depending on the goals of the research and the external constraints, such as budgetary constraints. For the HEIGLO-project, research was possible in seven (Western) European countries and five, in one country six, cases per country were possible, due to these external constraints.

A simple and usually rather unbiased way of selecting cases is randomisation (Cook & Campbell, 1979: 75). However, randomisation is often not appropriate with small n-research (first selecting 7 countries, followed by a maximum of 6 cases per country), , as one risks missing important cases or causing selection bias. With a small number of cases, inference problems may arise. The selection of cases should allow for at least some variation on the dependent variable. The easiest way to prevent this type of selection bias is to select on the basis of an/the

explanatory variable or a control variable. A sufficient range on this type of variable is necessary to make statements about effect (Van Hoesel, 1985: 247). Finding the values of the dependent variable is then the object of the research. Furthermore, if a small effect that is hard to distinguish from zero effect is expected, the easiest solution is to either increase the number of observations or to select observations on "very extreme values of the explanatory variable, so that small causal effect will be easier to spot" (King et al., 1994: 143). This study does not randomise the selection of cases but takes place on the basis of background variables. This also makes it possible to have a somewhat representative selection of European countries and cases per country.

To prevent bias, the selection of cases takes place on general background variables of (Western) European countries as well as background variables of HEIs within these countries. The selection of countries varies on size and their geographical location. The selection of HEIs per country, varies with respect to their size, age, geographic location, mission, range of disciplines offered, and the nature of the organisation.

4.3.1   Selection of countries
The following countries were selected:
- Austria
- Germany
- Greece
- The Netherlands
- Norway
- Portugal
- United Kingdom

The selection is constrained to Western Europe, to limit the background influences of the different countries. Including countries from Central and Eastern Europe would introduce another dimension because these countries are not (yet) part of the EU or have only recently joined. A similar situation would arise when introducing countries from other parts of the world.
The selection covers some of the largest (Western) European Countries, Germany and the UK, as well as some of the smaller, such as Austria and the Netherlands. The geographical spread is quite large, with a Scandinavian country as well as two countries from Southern Europe. For Norway, it needs to be noted that this country is not an EU-member state, but is part of the European Economic Area (EEA)[13]. Furthermore, one of the countries on 'the islands' is included, but also some from the middle of the mainland of Europe. This selection should make it

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[13] As part of the EEA Norway participates in the Internal Market, while not assuming the full responsibilities of EU membership. The Agreement that lays the basis for the EEA gives them the right to be consulted by the Commission during the formulation of Community legislation, but not the right to a voice in decision-making reserved exclusively for Member States.

possible to formulate statements about higher education in Western Europe, as it can be considered representative.

4.3.2   Selection of HEIs

The selection of HEIs takes into account several background variables of the higher education institutions (HEIs) to prevent bias in selection and based on the aim of representation. The selected HEIs vary with respect to their size, age, geographic location, mission, range of disciplines offered, and the nature of the organisation.

This led to a selection of cases that can generally be categorized into five groups:
- Alpha: large major national universities that teach and do research in a wide range of disciplines. They are usually among the oldest universities in the country and are located in a major city.
- Beta: younger and mostly smaller universities that are also involved in both teaching and research.
- Gamma: usually more professionally oriented in their teaching and less involved in basic research. Many have a regional focus.
- Delta: specialised institutions involved mainly in one discipline (for example arts, business, or technology).
- Epsilon: this group comprises the "odd cases" that are difficult to place in the previous groups but were included because they were expected to be interesting because of the particular interest in internationalisation (for example open universities, international institutes).

4.4   Useable cases

Through the HEIGLO-project, information on 36 cases (HEIs) was gathered. Not all cases were useable for this study, as not all underlying data was available in English. This applies to two Greek cases, two German cases, and two UK cases. Using only the aggregate data of the country reports leads to methodological problems, as certain specifics that are taken up in the case study reports are not mentioned in the country reports. These six cases are not included in the following analysis.

5 Operationalisation

Chapter 3 identified the key concepts and their application to higher education in this study (see Figure 3.4). They need to be further operationalised, as these concepts are still rather broad and only certain dimensions are relevant and need to be taken into account in the empirical research.

As this study is based on and uses the data of the HEIGLO-project, the operationalisation draws on the operationalisation of that study. However, to allow for a further analysis, the operationalisation differs slightly.

5.1 Institutions

5.1.1 Regulative elements

The main regulative elements in higher education identified in chapter 3 are laws, regulations, and policies (on multiple levels) and, more specifically, policies and regulations regarding quality assurance and funding and resources.

5.1.1.1 Laws, regulations and policies

Internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation can be part of the mainstream laws and regulations governing higher education. For example, if provision by foreign providers is regulated. However, often a separate national policy is set out for internationalisation in higher education, which can then include ideas on globalisation and Europeanisation[14] (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004). The influence of these national policies can vary, particularly if HEIs have significant institutional autonomy and as these policies are not as coercive as laws. Furthermore, as explained in section 3.4.1, international, European, and global developments can challenge existing national laws, regulations, and policies, which may change through these developments.

Following the line of reasoning leading to the first expectation (see section 3.5), developments in laws, regulations, and policies at the supranational level are also relevant to this study. More concretely, the EU is the main player on a supranational level.

Several dimensions of law, regulations, and policies need to be considered in the empirical research. In general, there is a national law on higher education in a

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[14] Often these policies are referred to as internationalisation policies. However, it is not unusual to include ideas on globalisation and Europeanisation.

specific country and its changes with regard to international European and global developments, followed by specific national law, regulations and policies on internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. This will be referred to as laws, policies, and regulations at the national level. Laws, regulations, and policies on the European and international level also need to be considered and studied in the empirical research. Part of these are the Bologna process and EU-programmes for education and research. This will be referred to as laws, policies, and regulations at the European and international level.

5.1.1.2   Quality assurance

Quality is a central value in higher education. Quality in higher education is reviewed through national quality assurance mechanisms laid down in specific laws, rules, and regulations. The first formal national quality assurance policies were introduced around 1985 (Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004b: 6), although not in all European countries.

Chapter 3 argues that international, global, and European developments are finding their way into quality assurance in more ways than one and so bring changes into a national system of quality assurance (see also Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004b; Van der Wende, 1998a). First of all, internationalisation can be one of the aspects to be taken up in the assessment of quality. For example, if it is stated that education or research of good quality needs to have an international orientation. Furthermore, quality assurance can be internationally organised (or within a certain region). An example of this is the joint quality initiative, which can be considered as an off-spring of the Bologna Declaration. "The joint quality initiative is an informal network for quality assurance and accreditation of bachelor and master programmes in Europe" (Joint Quality Initiative, 2001). Such initiatives might lead to international standards being used in quality assurance.

If these international, global, and European developments continue to find their way into quality assurance and international standards are set, it is likely that regulative (and normative) pressures are put on HEIs to respond to internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation. In the empirical research quality assurance is thus taken up as an element in the interviews with respondents and its role will be studied in policy documents.

5.1.1.3   Funding and resources

HEIs may have other sources of income in addition to national funding schemes for higher education as laid out by governments, which may have a specific incentive in them for HEIs to respond to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. Some are of particular interest as the processes can influence them as internationalisation may be a way to obtain new or other funding and resources. First, HEIs may receive income through student fees. In terms of internationalisation, globalisation, and Europeanisation, nowadays many HEIs

from different countries are competing on the international market for fee-paying students from foreign countries. These students are perceived as a new way to increase funds. Second, another source of income are international grants from research councils or grants from the EU Framework Programmes.

In terms of funding we look at the regular funding schemes, particularly as they relate to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation, as well student fees and international research grants or funding through international programmes, such as the EU Framework Programmes.

5.1.2   Normative and cultural-cognitive elements

Chapter 3 explained that certain norms and values may be of guidance to HEIs and their participants. Some institutional elements of the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar show some overlap, which is why these two pillars are dealt with together. The main institutional elements in these two pillars are (changing) norms, values ,and traditions, influenced by internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation, quality, and disciplinary conceptions.

5.1.2.1   Norms, values and traditions

Norms, values and traditions of an HEI are, based on the theory described in chapter 2, expected to influence the cases. Chapter 3 argues that norms and values guide the behaviour of organisations, as well as shared beliefs or traditions. What needs to be taken into account in the empirical study is the background of the cases and their history in internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation.

There are several rationales for internationalisation in higher education; the importance differs per country and throughout time (Kälvemark & Van der Wende, 1997). Recent studies (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004; Kälvemark & Van der Wende, 1997; Knight, 2004; Van Vught et al., 2002; see also section 2.3.2) show that on the whole, the economic rationale is becoming more important, but also that a distinction needs to be made in a cooperative and more competitive approach to respond to challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. Cooperation versus competition is thus a first dimension to consider in the empirical research when looking at changing norms and values.

Furthermore, what is also debated in higher education, influenced by international, European and global developments is whether higher education is a public or private good (see for example Nyborg, 2004). This discussion can also be connected to the discussions on GATS and trade in higher education (see for example Knight, 2002). Higher education being a public or private good is a second dimension to take into account with changing norms and values.

Both the debate on cooperation and competition and on public versus private good and trade are taken up in interviews.

5.1.2.2   Quality

"Quality in the sense of achieving academic excellence has always been a central value in higher education" (Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004b: 4). However, defining and measuring quality in higher education is difficult. Just as with internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, there is no single agreed definition of quality in higher education, as is also shown by Stensaker (2004: 75-78 and Van Vught, 1996: 187). These discussions of definitions show there are several aspects to quality, depending on those defining it and on the view on quality as input, output or process. In the words of Harvey and Green (1993), "Quality can be viewed as exception, as perfection, as fitness for purpose, as value for money and as transformative".

It is often expected that internationalisation will have a positive influence on quality in higher education.

> Statements on the relationship between internationalisation and quality are usually based on the assumption or expectation that international co-operation and the exchange of individual students, teachers or researchers add to the critical mass, allow for mutual learning, for a comparison and synthesis of best approaches and practices, for cross-cultural understanding, for foreign language acquisition, etc. It is at the individual, the project, the institutional and even the system level that this international co-operation and exchange is expected to contribute to the quality of processes and outcomes (Van der Wende, 1998a).

However, internationalisation may also be of negative influence on quality. For example if a teacher is expected to teach in a foreign language which (s)he does not command sufficiently, quality of the education can be expected to drop.
Thoughts and perceptions on quality in relation to internationalisation express a value in higher education which is taken into consideration in the empirical research as part of the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar.

5.1.2.3   Disciplinary conceptions

Several scholars have proposed frameworks to distinguish between the different disciplines and to group certain academics. Braxton and Hargens (1996) describe a number of these frameworks. Differences in disciplines are often analysed along the dimensions of hard-soft and pure-applied. Becher and Trowler (Becher, 1992; Becher & Trowler, 2001) also use these dimensions to distinguish between disciplines, or to be more precise, they use these dimensions to categorise academic knowledge. Becher argues that disciplines should be "classified in terms of both their subject matter (knowledge domains) and their social structure (social

features of knowledge communities)" (Braxton & Hargens, 1996: 8; see also: Becher & Trowler, 2001: 28). The dimensions lead to the following four domains in the overall framework: hard/pure, soft/pure, hard/applied, and soft/applied (Ibid: 35). Figure 5.1 summarises the characteristics of each of these domains.

Figure 5.1: Knowledge and disciplinary grouping (Becher & Trowler, 2001: 36; Becher, 1994: 152)

Disciplinary groupings	Nature of knowledge	Nature of disciplinary culture
Pure sciences (e.g., physics): 'hard-pure'	Cumulative; atomistic (crystalline/tree-like); concerned with universals, quantities, simplification; resulting in discovery/explanation	Competitive, gregarious; politically well-organised; high publication rate; task-oriented
Humanities (e.g., history) and pure social sciences (e.g., anthropology): 'soft-pure'	Reiterative; holistic (organic/river-like); concerned with particulars, qualities, complication; resulting in understanding/ interpretation	Individualistic, pluralistic; loosely structured; low publication rate; person-oriented
Technologies (e.g., mechanical engineering, clinical medicine): 'hard-applied'	Purposful; pragmatic (know-how via hard knowledge); concerned with mastery of physical environment; resulting in products/techniques	Entrepreneurial, cosmopolitan; dominated by professional values; patents substitutable for publications; role oriented
Applied social science (e.g., education, law, social administration): 'soft-applied'	Functional; utilitarian (know-how via soft knowledge); concerned with enhancement of (semi-) professional practice; resulting in protocols/procedures	Outward-looking; uncertain in status; dominated by intellectual fashions; publication rates reduced by consultances; power-oriented

5.2   Organisations

Chapter 3 described the elements of an organisation. Here these elements are operationalised for use in the empirical research and analysis. Starting with the operationalisation of goals, as these refer to the desired ends of organisations, which is followed by the operationalisation of the participants and the social

structure. Finally, the technology or activities are operationalised, as these refer to the actual undertakings of organisations.

5.2.1   Goals

Goals are most likely apparent in the policy, strategy, mission, and vision of an organisation; a common definition of policy is the aim to achieve certain goals with certain means and choices within time (Hoogerwerf, 1993):20). Previous research (Blumenthal et al., 1996; Kaiser et al., 2002; Kälvemark & Van der Wende, 1997; OECD, 2004a; see also section 2.3.2) has shown that internationalisation in higher education is undertaken for different reasons, to achieve different goals. The policy approaches described in the OECD-publication appear to be most comprehensive and seem to make use of the policy rationale (economic, political, educational, and cultural) described in the two other publications. This is why the OECD policy approaches are used for the operationalisation of the goals. These were originally used to describe *national* policy approaches to a single dimension of internationalisation, cross border education. However, they can also be useful in describing *institutional* policy approaches (or goals) including the other dimension of internationalisation in higher education, education at home. Internationalisation at home can be perceived as part of the other side of the coin of cross border education. Students coming to a certain country to study are likely to contribute to the international experience of domestic students, without them ever leaving the country. As the two dimensions of internationalisation are likely to be closely related, we can expect the policy approaches can also be useful in describing both of these dimensions.

Furthermore, generally national policy can be expected to have a certain influence on HEIs. National policies may for example create incentives to follow certain policies or "public institutions may be asked to carry out internationalisation programmes […] or receive a premium when they do so" (OECD, 2004a: 28). HEIs often appreciate internationalisation for similar reasons as national policy makers, although they are also likely to have other reasons for internationalisation. Finally, the OECD speaks of approaches as their descriptions also involve instruments to achieve a certain goal. Nevertheless, as the approaches express a certain goal in internationalisation in higher education, these can also be said to lay out certain goals.

For these reasons, the policy approaches described in the OECD-publication will be used in operationalising goals for this study. However, keeping in mind that these approaches originally seemed to be used in describing national policies, an open eye has to be kept for other approaches by the HEIs when analysing the empirical results.

5.2.1.1   Four policy approaches - four goals

Four policy approaches[15] were described in the OECD-publication (OECD, 2004a):
- o   **Mutual understanding**
- o   **Skilled migration**
- o   **Revenue generating**
- o   **Capacity building**

"Although they have some distinctive features, the four approaches have overlapping rationales and may to some extent be viewed as different ways of achieving similar objectives" (OECD, 2004a: 221). The four approaches are not mutually exclusive and may be combined by some countries, or in this study, HEIs. They are summarised in Figure 5.2.

5.2.1.2   Mutual understanding approach

The mutual understanding approach to internationalisation aims at a better understanding of other cultures and strengthening ties between countries. This approach is less economically oriented than the other three; although it may still have an economic impact, it is not part of a broader articulated economic policy. Also, this approach can be part of both an import and export strategy and is also more cooperation-oriented. This is reflected in the main policy instruments of this approach: student mobility programmes (and the academic partnerships usually involved) and development assistance. Figure 5.2 shows that the mutual understanding approach is rather broad and appears to form the basis or starting point of the other approaches. Such a broad approach does not seem useful for further analysis, which tries to distinguish the possible influences of certain approaches. The need for this distinction is supported by a conclusion in one of the articles of Van der Wende (2001a). She not only concluded, "that the economic rationale for internationalisation has indeed gained importance over the last five years", but also that this economic approach was broadly approached by the countries she studied. Therefore, two types of the mutual understanding approach are used in the analysis. The first is referred to as mutual relations and the second as mutual opportunities. In comparing the two, it has to be said that both are cooperation-oriented, but mutual relations has a weaker economical rationale than mutual opportunities. In the mutual opportunities approach cooperation is sought to eventually increase the flow of students and the quality of education, as well as to attract students. Cultural and political rationales are more important with mutual relations than with mutual opportunities, while the academic rationale plays a more important role with mutual opportunities than with mutual relations.

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[15] Where approach is written, goals can also be read.

Figure 5.2: Four approaches to internationalisation (adapted from OECD, 2004a: 232)

	Import strategies		Export strategies	
	Capacity building		**Revenue generation**	
	Rationales	**Main policy instruments**	**Rationales**	**Main policy instruments**
Strong economic rationales	Same as mutual understanding plus: - Meeting demand for higher education - Enhancing the country's human capital - Building a better higher education system thanks to spill-overs from partnerships with foreign institutions	- Encouraging foreign educational institutions and scholars to come to the country under regulated conditions - Facilitating the study abroad of domestic students and their return	Same as skilled migration plus: - Developing higher education as an export industry - Using internationalisation to finance the domestic higher education sector and change its governance	Same as skilled migration plus: - Full tuition fees for international students - Possibility for public educational institutions' for-profit operations abroad
			Skilled migration	
			Rationales	**Main policy instruments**
			Same as mutual understanding plus: - Attracting highly skilled people to build or maintain the receiving country's knowledge economy - Enhancing the competitiveness of one's higher education sector	- Marketing domestic higher education - Special programmes for international students - Facilitation of labour and migration in the receiving country subsequent to study

Mutual understanding	
Rationales	**Main policy instruments**
- **Academic**	- **Student mobility**
- **Cultural**	**programmes**
- **Geostrategic**	
- **Political**	
- **Social**	
- **Economic (through the creation of an international network of elites and enhancement of human capital)**	

Mutual understanding	
Rationales	**Main policy instruments**
- **Academic**	- **Student mobility**
- **Cultural**	**programmes**
- **Geostrategic**	- **Development assistance**
- **Political**	
- **Social**	
Economic (through the creation of an international network of elites and enhancement of human capital)	

5.2.1.3   Skilled migration approach

With the skilled migration approach the aim of HEIs is to attract skilled students who will contribute to academic life and research capacity and then also to the host country's knowledge economy. It is perceived as an export strategy. This approach is highly likely in countries with an ageing society and/or in countries that see a decline of national interest in certain disciplines. HEIs are likely to want to attract foreign students to compensate for the lessening national interest. This approach has a clear economic interest for both HEIs and countries, although the direct economical impact may be limited, particularly on a national level. To attract skilled students, main policy instruments are marketing programmes, special programmes for international students, and the facilitation of labour and migration in the receiving country subsequent to study.

5.2.1.4   Revenue generating approach

"Like any other market service, the revenue generating approach has as a goal the enrolment of a large number of foreign students or the control of a large share of the market" (OECD, 2004a: 26). Just as with the skilled migration approach, this approach is an export strategy.
HEIs following this approach are looking for other ways of funding and income and seek to attract full-fee paying foreign students. This fee should cover at least the cost of their education in the HEI's country or in the student's country.

As Figure 5.2 shows, there is some overlap between the revenue generating and the skilled migration approach. They both aim at increasing the number of foreign students and the effects of both approaches, in terms of contributing to academic life and the research capacity of HEI could be similar.

5.2.1.5   Capacity building approach

The fourth approach, the capacity building approach, is an import strategy. Internationalisation is seen "as a means to meet unmet [domestic] demand as well as to help build capacity for quality higher education" (OECD, 2004a: 229). HEIs will try to build a better higher education system with the help of foreign HEIs. Thus, HEIs from other countries are also involved, as their help is needed to build the system and train scholars; in fact, HEIs having one of the export approaches could be beneficial to HEIs with the capacity building approach. Another policy instrument is that HEIs will facilitate study abroad of domestic students and their return.   This approach shows similarities with the mutual understanding approach. The main difference is the interest in building the higher education system (or specific HEI) with the help of the policy instruments.

5.2.2 Participants

Chapter 3 described the main participants of an HEI:
- **Administration and management**
- **Academic staff**
- **Support staff**
- **Students**

Administration and management are responsible for the strategy and policy directions of an HEI; they lead the HEI.
Academic staff act in teaching and research of an HEI.
Support staff are not involved in administration and management or teaching and research; they provide support to the other types of participants.
Several types of students can be distinguished in relation to internationalisation:
- **Regular students**
- **Outgoing exchange students**
- **Incoming exchange students**
- **Foreign degree students**

All four groups of participants, administration and management, academic staff, support staff, and students are represented in the interview respondents.

5.2.3 Social structure

Elements of the social structure in an HEI are the organisation of the main tasks, the division of power and authority across different levels, and the loose coupling. The organizational strategies described by Knight (2005) take into account these different elements and provide the necessary dimensions for the empirical research. Based on Table 5.1, the main aspects of the social structure for the empirical research are the governance structure, operations and services, and human resources. These aspects are supplemented with the ideas on a leadership versus base driven model (Neave, 1992 quoted by H. d. Wit, 2002: 126) and the role of professionals, together with the diffusion of power within an HEI (Van Vught, 1989a: 51 and 58).

Some examples in Table 5.1, particularly where it concerns the role of participants and goals, have been discussed in the previous sections. This overlap can be explained as the model of elements of the organisation of Scott also shows that the different parts of the organisation are closely connected to each other and influence one another, and more in particular where it concerns the participants, as the social structure has to be filled in by participants. Furthermore, operations and services show some links and are dealt with jointly in the empirical research.

Table 5.1: Organisation strategies (adapted from Knight, 2005)

Organisational strategies	Examples
Governance	Commitment by senior leaders
	Active involvement of faculty and staff
	Articulated rationale and goals for internationalization
	Recognition of international dimension in institutional mission/mandate statements and in planning, management and evaluation policy documents
Operations	Integrated into institution wide and department/college level planning, budgeting and quality review systems
	Appropriate organizational structures
	Systems (formal and informal) for communicating, liaising and coordinating
	Balance between centralized and decentralized promotion and management of internationalization
	Adequate financial support and resource allocation systems
Services	Support from institution wide service units (student housing, registrar, fund raising, alumni, information technology)
	Involvement of academic support units (library, teaching and learning, curriculum development, faculty and staff training, research services)
	Support services for incoming and outgoing students (orientation programmes, counselling, cross-cultural training, visa advice)
Human resources	Recruitment and selection procedures that recognize international expertise
	Reward and promotion policies to reinforce faculty and staff contributions
	Faculty and staff professional development activities
	Support for international assignments and sabbaticals

A closer look at the division of power and authority across different levels reveals the role of leadership and the role of the base (Neave, 1992, quoted in H. d. Wit, 2002: 126). In the leadership driven model there is a "lack of formal connection below the level of the central administration, while the [base driven model] sees such central administrative units mainly as service oriented to activities coming from below" (H. d. Wit, 2002: 126). Furthermore, Van Vught stresses the role of the base (or professional experts) as he states that in "higher education many decisions can only be made by the professional experts. These are the decisions regarding the detailed knowledge-oriented academic activities of research and teaching" (Van Vught, 1989a: 51). The models should be seen as two ends of a

continuum and distinguishing between centralisation and decentralisation. Attention thus needs to be given to both central and decentralised levels of the cases to map the role of both levels in the empirical research.

The aspects of the social structure can help model the available data along the lines of Davies' model for internationalisation strategies (see also section 2.4.4). This model is based on two dimensions: i) is internationalisation an ad hoc or systematic activity and ii) is internationalisation a marginal or central activity (1995: 16).

Figure 5.3: *Institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation in universities (Davies, 1995: 16)*
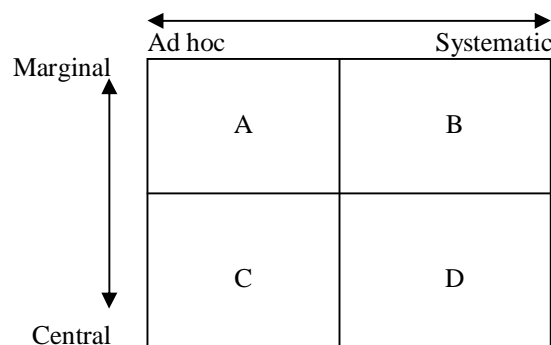
5.2.4 Technology: internationalisation activities

Education and research are the main technologies (or activities) in higher education. The dimension which needs to be taken into account in the empirical research is the actual range of activities undertaken by an HEI in responding to internationalisation. Actually, these activities show very concretely what HEIs do to respond to internationalisation and therefore form an important reference point for the analysis.

Knight has recently produced an updated version of an earlier overview of activities in the area of responding to, and working on, internationalisation, originally developed with de Wit (Knight, 2005; Knight & Wit, 1995). This overview helps identify possible responses of HEIs to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation in terms of the range of activities. The list is shown in Table 5.2, which shows that the main activities to be taken into account in the empirical research are:
- academic programmes (activities related to teaching)
- research and scholarly collaboration
- domestic and cross border activities
- extracurricular activities

Table 5.2: Institutional-level program strategies for internationalisation (Knight, 2005)

Programme activities	Examples
Academic programmes	Student exchange programmes
	Foreign language study
	Internationalised curricula
	Area or thematic studies
	Work/study abroad
	International students
	Teaching/Learning process
	Joint/double degree programmes
	Cross-cultural training
	Faculty/staff mobility programmes
	Visiting lecturers and scholars
	Links between academic programmes and other strategies
Research and scholarly collaboration	Area and theme centres
	Joint research projects and publications
	International conferences and seminars
	International research agreements
	Research exchange programmes
	International research partners in academic or other sectors
Domestic and cross-border activities	***Domestic***
	Community-based partnerships with NGOs or public/private sector groups
	Community service and intercultural project work
	Customised education and training programmes for international partners and clients
	Cross-border
	International development assistance projects
	Cross-border delivery of education programmes (commercial and non-commercial)
	International linkages, partnerships and networks
	Contract-based training and research programmes and services
	Alumni abroad programmes
	Student clubs and associations
Extra-curricular activities	International and intercultural campus events
	Liaison with community-based cultural and ethnic groups
	Peer support groups and programmes

6   Outcomes

The following chapter analyses the empirical findings from the 30 case studies[16]. Based on this analysis, we answer three of the research questions formulated in chapter 1.

The first section answers the third research question:

How are higher education institutions responding to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, in terms of (internationalisation) policies and activities?

As the responses of HEIs to challenges of internationalisation are at the forefront of this research question, this chapter starts with the analysis of the four elements: goals, participants, social structure, and activities of the organisation (section 6.1). These four elements are discussed using the same order as section 5.2; on the basis of this discussion, research question 3 can be answered. This first section is followed by an analysis of links between these elements (goals, participants, social structure and activities) in section 6.2. This part of the analysis is helpful in answering the fourth research question:

What internal factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?

Paragraph 6.3 discusses the empirical findings on the institutional pillars. These pillars refer to regulative elements (e.g., national laws, policies, and regulations) and normative and cultural cognitive elements (e.g., perceptions of cooperation and competition and academic disciplines). Paragraph 6.4 relates the findings on the pillars (regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive) and elements (goals, participants, social structure and activities)of the organisation to each other, which is helpful in finding external factors explaining the responses of the HEIs in research question 5:

What external factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?

The empirical findings on the cases are presented in an anonymous way, with the names of the cases referring to the five groups of different types of cases presented in section 4.3.2. These five groups take into account several (control/background) variables of the HEIs to prevent bias in selecting and based on the aim of representation. The selected HEIs vary with respect to their size,

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[16] Unless indicated otherwise, the information in this chapter is based on the information in the case study reports and other data collected in the framework of the HEIGLO research project. Quotes in this chapter are taken directly from the case study reports of the HEIGLO research project, unless indicated otherwise.

age, geographic location, mission, the range of disciplines offered, and the nature of the organisation.

The five groups are:

- **Alpha: universities-** large major national universities that teach and do research in a wide range of disciplines. They are usually among the oldest universities in the country and are located in a major city.
- **Beta: universities-** younger and mostly smaller than the previous group, but they are also involved in both teaching and research.
- **Gamma:** these institutions are usually more professionally oriented in their teaching and less involved in basic research. Many of these have a regional focus.
- **Delta:** specialised institutions, involved mainly in one discipline (e.g., arts, business or technology).
- **Epsilon:** this group comprises the 'odd cases' that are difficult to place in the previous groups but were included because they were expected to be interesting because of the particular interest in internationalisation (e.g., open university, international institutes).

All cases are thus indicated in one of these five groups, followed by their country of origin, for example, Alpha Nl, for the Alpha Case from the Netherlands. If there are two cases from one group with a similar country of origin, a number is added.

The data for these case studies was gathered under a research project funded under the Fifth Framework of the EU[17], which ran from 2002 until 2004.

6.1   HEIs and their responses

Following the operationalisation of elements of the organisation in section 5.2, this section first discusses the goals of the cases involved in this study, followed by a discussion of the role of participants and the social structure. Paragraph 6.1.4 examines the internationalisation activities undertaken by the involved cases.

6.1.1   Goals – policy approaches of HEIs

Paragraph 5.2.1 operationalised five main goals with regard to internationalisation in HEIs:

- **Mutual understanding (MU)** distinguished in:
  - o **Mutual relations (MR)**
  - o **Mutual opportunities (MO)**
- **Revenue generating (RG)**
- **Skilled migration (SM)**

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[17] The project referred to is the EU funded Fifth Framework Programme (Improving Human Potential and the Socio-economic Knowledge Base) research project "Higher Education Institutions' Responses to Europeanisation, Internationalisation and Globalisation" (HEIGLO), SERD 2002-00074. The results of this project have been reported in Huisman and Van der Wende, 2004; 2005. The author of this thesis contributed several chapters to these volumes, both as main and co-author.

- **Capacity building (CB)**

These five goals should not be seen as mutually exclusive, as will become clear in the analysis below.

All five goals were found amongst the cases. We first examine the 'pure' goals, followed by a discussion of the cases combining two or more goals and finally conclude with remarks concerning the policy goals of the cases.

6.1.1.1 Mutual understanding

Type 1: Mutual relations

Two cases (Delta Nl and Alpha Gr) appear to have a mutual understanding goal towards internationalisation with mainly cultural and/or political rationales underlying.

The goal of the first case, Delta Nl, is probably best characterised by working on internationalisation and intercultural awareness; this is also a recurring theme in other cases using this goal in combination with other goals. As an Arts school, the general viewpoint of Delta Nl is that art is international by its nature. Art crosses all sorts of borders, not just the borders of countries. It is influenced by, and reflects on, changes on a global scale and a global society with its different cultures all over the world. Delta Nl refers to this as inter-culturalisation. Delta Nl wants to expand the cultural awareness of an artist in training by acquainting him/her with other artistic expressions and cultures. Although inter-culturalisation seems to be the leading theme at Delta Nl, attention is also given to qualitative growth of the institution (but without any reference to an economic rationale, as with mutual opportunities). Finally, it is interesting to note that over the past years Delta Nl has been using internationalisation to achieve aims which simply could not be achieved within the national context. Before the introduction of the bachelor-master-system in the Netherlands, Delta Nl could not offer master or PhD-degrees on its own. To offer these degrees it had to seek foreign (English) partners, which led to the so-called 'u-turn-constructions'. The master-degrees were awarded through these English partners.

The other case with this goal is Alpha Gr. This case is very specific about its role in internationalisation; it appears to have a more politically oriented rationale underlying its internationalisation activities than most of the other cases. According to its European Policy Statement (EPS) Alpha Gr has "always played a vital role in the cultural affairs of Greece and of the Southern European area". Furthermore, Alpha Gr wants to promote Greek language, culture, and civilisation; especially strengthening links between ethnic and migrant Greeks and Greece as well as between ethnic and migrant Greeks and Alpha Gr. The case study report also states that these aims relate to the traditional role of Alpha Gr as the locus of training Greek elite all over the world. Finally, Alpha Gr is quite

outspoken about not being economically driven in internationalisation, as this quote from the Head of the International Relations Committee makes clear:

> The central administration of the university is not interested in developing any form of marketing strategy. By contrast to the practice of other European universities, Alpha Gr does not aim at attracting students from far-away countries, such as China or the countries of Asia and the Pacific.

Type 2: Mutual opportunities

Eight cases (see Table 6.1) appear to have a mutual opportunities goal. What these cases have in common is that they all emphasize the role of exchange and international cooperation in internationalisation, hoping to increase the flows of mobile students. Half of the group also states that they hope to improve the quality of their students and education with the help of internationalisation.

Reviewing the cases within this group, several things stand out. First, four of the six Portuguese cases in this study are in this group and second, no Greek, Dutch, or UK cases are part of this group. Finally, half (four) of all the Gamma cases in this study are part of this group and they also make up half of the total group with this goal.

The cases Alpha Au and Gamma No are exemplary for this group. At Alpha Au both promotion of academic exchange for teaching faculty and promotion and support of student mobility are declared major tasks in internationalisation. Exchange of teaching faculty is promoted to meet the demand for internationally experienced and qualified teachers, while the students "recognise the internationally-oriented study opportunities as part of their professional qualification as well as their personal development". The office of the vice-rector offers bursaries for both faculty and staff to support their mobility, which is rare for the other cases.

At Gamma No, internationalisation had not played a major role so far. However, with the current (quality) reform and introduction of bachelor and master programmes in Norway, attention has been raised for this topic. In the action plan of Gamma No (quoted in the case study report) student and staff exchange seem to be a priority. For example, the number of students studying abroad (three months or more) should increase and support for incoming students should be strengthened. Research cooperation is stimulated, including stays abroad for academic staff and arrangements for foreign research coming to Gamma No. Also, economic incentives for internationalisation should be developed. Finally, the informants generally seem to perceive internationalisation as a positive development, a sign of quality and "as a means to market Gamma No as a place worth coming to".

Finally, some specifics of two Portuguese cases in terms of their goals need to be mentioned for a better understanding of their situation. Gamma Pt 1 is

encountering an unintended outcome of its goal to increase the flows of mobile students and staff.

> The PhD awarded abroad pushes the researcher to seek for a position at the university. The polytechnic matrix is different from the university and our priority should be to support the PhDs awarded in Portugal, which makes it easier to maintain their liaison with the institution. Thus the challenge faced by Institution Gamma Pt 1 is how to become more international while preventing a brain drain situation.

Although Epsilon Pt gives priority to internationalisation and recognises that at least in some areas students consider that it represents an important added-value to their education, it is very difficult for this case to work on internationalisation. The former administration of the institution left the current administration with many legal and financial constraints as some members of the former administration were found guilty on several accounts of malpractice. Not only has this situation damaged the reputation of Epsilon Pt, but due to a payment agreement to settle outstanding debts "it cannot receive any public or EU funds until the debts are completely offset. Therefore Epsilon Pt has not been able to participate in programmes funded by the EU or other entities, and this includes funds for mobility programmes".

6.1.1.2   Skilled migration

Two of the Gamma cases seem to have a skilled migration goal; however, they each have their own underlying ideas for this goal.

Gamma Au 2 has a specific geographical location, which influences the work of this case on internationalisation. Gamma Au, located in the very eastern part of Austria, is close to the borders of Germany, Liechtenstein, and Switzerland. It feels connected to the interest of its region and tries to serve the economic interests of the regional economy. In terms of a skilled migration goal, Gamma Au 2 thus tries to build or maintain the regional economy.

Enhancing its competitiveness and status seem to be main goals for internationalisation at Gamma D. The president of Gamma D seems to have some worries about the competitiveness of his institution "as the degrees of *Hochschulen* are not put at the same level as those of the universities in Germany". Furthermore, the president states that "without an international dimension the institution would not be attractive and competitive".

6.1.1.3   Revenue generating

Two of the three UK cases have revenue generating goals concerning internationalisation. Both seek to increase the number of full-fee paying students

at their institution. These cases wish to find other means of generating income, as public funding of higher education in the UK has been stringent since the 1980s.

It is interesting to note that none of the cases from other countries follow a ´pure´ revenue generating goal. The other cases having this goal always seem to combine the revenue generating goal with at least one of the two mutual understanding goals, or even more goals.

Gamma UK is the more outspoken of the two about its goal to generate income through attracting foreign fee-paying students. It started a recruitment programme for foreign students, specifically trying to recruit students from China, Malaysia, and India. Financial reasons were the main reasons for this recruitment programme.

Alpha UK also competes actively on the international market for foreign fee-paying students and also has an international student recruitment strategy. Alpha UK has a very high international reputation and states that it does not compromise on quality. It wants to be a top global player. It thus seeks talented students and is highly selective in its student recruitment. Furthermore, 55% of the postgraduate students are foreign at Alpha UK, showing an implicit need for foreign students to do postgraduate work there, as is the case for many similar institutions in the UK. However, as the main objective seems to be to recruit foreign students and increase income, Alpha UK is considered to mostly have a revenue generating goal, and not so much a skilled migration goal.

6.1.1.4   Capacity building

Interestingly, none of the cases follow a 'pure' capacity building goal as a single strategy. A few cases combine this goal with other goals, as will be discussed in the following section.

6.1.1.5   Combination of goals

Table 6.1, which summarises the goals taken by the involved cases, clarifies that just over half of the cases combine two or more of the goals. Some cases have certain quite distinctive features, which is taken up in the discussion of the goals.

Table 6.1: Overview of (combination of) goals of cases studies (n=30)

| | Weaker economic rationale | | | Stronger economic rationale | |
	Mutual relations	Mutual opportunities	Capacity building	Skilled migration	Revenue generating
Alpha Gr	■				
Delta Nl	■				
Beta Pt	■	■			
Alpha Au		■			
Gamma Pt 1		■			
Gamma Pt 2		■			
Gamma No		■			
Gamma Au 1		■			
Beta D		■			
Delta Pt		■			
Epsilon Pt		■			
Alpha No	■	■	■	■	
Beta Gr 1		■	■		
Epsilon UK	■		■		■
Beta Gr 2	■			■	
Beta No	■			■	
Gamma Nl	■			■	
Alpha Pt		■		■	
Delta No		■		■	
Delta Au 1		■		■	
Beta Nl		■		■	
Delta Au 2	■	■			■
Epsilon No	■	■			■
Delta D	■	■			■
Epsilon Nl	■	■		■	■
Alpha Nl		■		■	■
Gamma Au 2				■	
Gamma D				■	
Alpha UK					■
Gamma UK					■
Total	12	20	3	12	8

Table 6.1 shows that all but 4 of the 30 cases have one of the two types of mutual understanding goals in internationalisation, either in the 'pure' form or in combination. The majority of these 26 cases (20) have a mutual opportunities goal. Such a high number of cases with one of the two types of mutual understanding as (part of) their goals in internationalisation is hardly surprising,

as in Europe the two types of mutual understanding are generally a common goal to internationalisation. This goal is also an underlying rationale to the major European Exchange programme, ERASMUS.

Furthermore, 12 cases have a skilled migration goal, while 8 have a revenue generating goal (either pure or combined). It thus seems that amongst the cases there is a certain spread of weaker and stronger economical rationales underlying the goals concerning internationalisation; the weaker economic goals appear to occur more often than the stronger economic goals.

The table also shows that the goals are not mutually exclusive, as indicated in the operationalisation in section 5.2.1. Looking again at Table 6.1, 16 cases combine two or more types of goals. Interestingly, all combinations involve one of the two types of mutual understanding goals. It seems that often a stronger economical goal is combined with a weaker economical goal.

Combining two types of mutual understanding

At Beta Pt both types of the mutual understanding goals appear present. One of the main principles for the internationalisation policy of Beta Pt is, according to its European Strategy Statement (2000, quoted in case study report), to face "internationalisation as a particular way of thinking and living in Europe". After the integration of Portugal in the European Union, Beta Pt took (financial) advantage of the European programmes for higher education. The institution is becoming more internationally oriented, though it has not developed any marketing strategy. According to the European Policy Statement (1996) Beta Pt is developing its European status and is "firmly devoted to international education and research partnerships, mainly with European and Brazilian [institutions]" (Guide for Erasmus Students, 2003: 14, quoted in case study report), thus more or less showing a combination of political, cultural, academic, and economic rationales through their devotion to partnerships, underlying the internationalisation goals of Beta Pt.

Combining mutual relations and skilled migration

The three cases (Beta Gr 2, Beta No, and Gamma Nl) with this combination of goals have in common that they desire to promote mobility to enhance their competitiveness and become more attractive for prospective students. Beta Gr 2 promotes mobility with raising intercultural awareness in mind, while Beta No and Gamma Nl both mention their interest in cooperation with developing countries.

At the start of Beta Gr 2 a clear role in the economic development of Greece was foreseen for this case. As stated in the proposal for the University's establishment, the result of an International Conference in August 1964,

> the role of the University is to set an example of highly qualified Institution of higher learning, serve as a stimulus for the modernisation of the entire Greek higher education system, with

priority given to fields where highly trained personnel will be needed for the economic development of the country.

Beta Gr *2* should also help attract Greek scientists and academics from foreign universities and facilitate their return to Greece. Beta Gr 2 has also supported local industry through technology transfer, the training of unemployed personnel to meet industrial needs, and the provision of the means for life-long education. Thus, Beta Gr 2 appears to be very active in terms of attracting highly skilled people to its institutions and contributing to its regional economy.

Even though the group of cases having the combination of the two goals is small, it is interesting to note that two of the three are Beta-type-cases and that the three cases are from three different countries.

Combining mutual opportunities and skilled migration
Four cases (Alpha Pt, Delta No, Delta Au 1 and Beta Nl) have this combination of goals. Just as the three cases combining mutual relations with skilled migration, these cases promote exchange and mobility of faculty and/or students. However, the four cases using the mutual opportunities goal do not refer to cultural or political rationales underlying their goal as the previous three cases.

Alpha Pt, Delta No, and Delta Au 1 want to enhance their competitiveness and become more attractive for prospective students. They are working on the image or profile of their institution. Beta Nl does not stress its competitiveness and attractiveness so much, but does see a need to attract foreign (master) students. Beta Nl wants to be able to remain offering bachelor, master, and PhD degrees and does not want to become a 'bachelor-university'. Beta Nl expects a drop in master students, as it expects mobility after obtaining a bachelor degree, both in- and outside the Netherlands will increase now that bachelor and master programmes have been introduced in the Netherlands and are being introduced throughout Europe.

Combining mutual opportunities, skilled migration and revenue generating
Alpha Nl combines the mutual opportunities goal with the goals of skilled migration and revenue generating. Alpha Nl participates in exchange programmes, but also seeks to increase the number of foreign full-fee paying students. This is not necessarily for profit, but to increase revenues to at least break-even and maintain a sufficient number of students in the years to come, as Alpha Nl fears that the number of national master students will drop with the introduction of bachelor and master programmes. Just as with Beta Nl, Alpha Nl considers the option that bachelor graduates may leave and wants to maintain its level of master programmes, a necessity for such a research-intensive university., It needs to compensate for this outflow of students by attracting bachelor graduates from other universities from the *hogescholen* (Universities for Professional Education), working people returning for a master degree and foreign students. Alpha Nl looks for highly talented students. This could be

perceived as a skilled migration goal. However, as they have set up a private enterprise to recruit foreign students and market the university, particularly in Asia, the revenue generating goal is also present.

Combining two types of mutual understanding, skilled migration and revenue generating

The combination of goals and the underlying rationales of Epsilon Nl appear to be quite similar to those of Alpha Nl. Epsilon Nl also participates in exchange programmes and seeks to increase the number of full-fee-paying students. Epsilon Nl saw the enrolment of national students drop and thus needed new markets, such as Asia, to recruit students. Some respondents even refer to internationalisation and attracting foreign students as a survival strategy, as the national market is decreasing. A difference in the goals of Alpha Nl and Epsilon Nl lies in the attention for development cooperation at Epsilon Nl. As an institution with an agricultural (life sciences) orientation, this seems to influence the thinking about internationalisation. The agricultural discipline is internationally oriented and Epsilon Nl has been, and still is involved in development aid to third world countries, the 'North-South' connection as it is sometimes referred to. It started with aid to mainly the former Dutch colonies, but has since expanded to other countries .

Combining two types of mutual understanding and revenue generating

Though Delta Au 2, Epsilon No, and Delta D appear to have the same combination of goals, their underlying thoughts vary greatly. As an arts school, Delta Au 2 works on internationalisation from the idea of international openness as a basic value of music and arts. It aims to support mobility and seeks cost-covering fees for foreign students certain of its programmes. Delta Au 2 was approached by a Chinese university and is negotiating a consultancy contract or perhaps even a long-term business partnership.

> It is also regarded as an opportunity for a collaborative effort of Austrian institutions to jointly set up a school of music in China, and to jointly position the Austrian universities of music in this new market. There could be two potential benefits from this initiative: to create job opportunities for alumni and to create revenues, since such an institution can charge higher fees than Delta Au 2 is allowed to in Austria.

At Epsilon No the orientation of the case also appears to influence the goal for internationalisation, similar to the influence of the orientation of Delta Au 2. Epsilon No is a school in Lutheran theology; bringing Lutheran theology to other parts of the world is one of its objectives in internationalisation. Other underlying rationales to the internationalisation goal of Epsilon No are increasing quality and improving the economy at Epsilon to increase the number of students and trigger more state funding. Epsilon No thus has a combination of the (two types of the) mutual understanding and revenue generating goals.

At Delta D student exchange together with establishing international partnerships for exchange and research cooperation are central themes for internationalisation. Some disciplinary influences also appear to be present at Delta D; the faculties that traditionally have good connections with industry appear to be more entrepreneurial in their approach, while faculties such as agricultural sciences seem more interested in development cooperation. Finally, interest in cooperation and recruitment of students in countries in Asia and Latin America is raised as part of what some informants refer to as a marketing strategy. One faculty is also considering fees for foreign students. Therefore, although the revenue generating goal may not be present in a very outspoken way as in some of the other cases, some initial signs are present at Delta D.

Even with the varying underlying thoughts of the three cases in this group, it is interesting to see that two of the three cases are specialised institutions (Delta-type).

Combining capacity building with other goals
No case has a 'pure' capacity building goal in internationalisation, but three cases combine this with other goals. Beta Gr 1 has little in common with Alpha No and Epsilon UK, as Beta Gr 1 is 'using spill overs from partnerships to build a better HEI' (see Figure 5.2), while Alpha No and Epsilon UK are working on building local competence in developing countries. The three cases have few other things in common in their goals.

At its beginning, a large number of Greek scientists working with universities in the United States were invited to join the staff of Beta Gr 1. Beta Gr 1 was thus hoping to benefit from the experiences of these Greek scientists to build the institution. Furthermore, the science faculties also looked at US models for structuring their postgraduate programmes. Today, Beta Gr 1 continues an international rather than just European view and cooperation. As stated in the European Policy Statement (quoted in case study report) "links of the university are mainly in Europe but also extend to US, Australian and Middle Eastern academic institutions". Finally, as in most cases, Beta Gr 1 tries to promote mobility of students and staff.

Both Alpha No and Epsilon UK are building local competence in developing countries. Epsilon UK combines this goal with a commercial approach in other working areas of the institution (e.g., selling a licensed product or selling a product on a one-off basis), where Alpha No seems to be more cooperation oriented in its work, for example with the Nordic Cooperation. Alpha No also shows signs of a skilled migration goal. Just as in several Dutch cases, Alpha No expects a decrease in national student enrolment and competition for students on the international market.

6.1.1.6   Further findings on goals

Now that the goals and combination of goals of the cases have been described, further analyses, taking into account the countries and types of cases, can be addressed.

Reviewing the distribution of goals over the seven countries involved in this study (see Table 6.2), we note that none of the Greek or Portuguese cases take a revenue generating goal. What's more, only one of the Portuguese cases has a goal other than mutual understanding; Alpha Pt is the only Portuguese case to combine the mutual understanding goal with a skilled migration goal. While Greek and Portuguese cases appear to have little interest in the revenue generating goal, the UK cases all have an interest in this goal and very little interest in other goals, as only Epsilon UK seems to combine the revenue generating goal with other goals.
Finally, it is interesting to see that four of five Dutch cases follow a combination of goals in which the skilled migration is present.

Table 6.2: Number of cases per country per goal (N=30)

	Weaker economic rationale			Stronger economic rationale	
	MR	MO	CB	SM	RG
Austria (N=5)	1	4	0	2	1
Germany (N=3)	1	2	0	1	1
Greece (N=3)	2	1	1	1	0
The Netherlands (N=5)	3	3	0	4	2
Norway (N=5)	3	4	1	3	1
Portugal (N=6)	1	6	0	1	0
UK (N=3)	1	0	1	0	3
Total	12	20	3	12	8

Table 6.3: Number of cases per case-type per goal (N=30)

	Weaker economic rationale			Stronger economic rationale	
	MR	MO	CB	SM	RG
Alpha-cases N=6)	2	4	1	3	2
Beta-cases (N=6)	3	4	1	3	0
Gamma-cases (N=8)	1	4	0	3	1
Delta-cases (N=6)	3	5	0	2	2
Epsilon-cases (N=4)	3	3	1	1	3
Total	12	20	3	12	8

Table 6.3 compares the five different types of cases to the goals taken by these different types of cases. The only really noticeable thing here is that none of the

Beta cases appears to have a revenue generating goal, while three of the four Epsilon cases do (in combination with other goals).

Finally, reviewing all the different combinations of goals, several models based on these goals are visible. These models are formed by cases with similar goals. The models are summarised in Table 6.4 and Figure 6.1.

Table 6.4: Overview of cases per model of goals (N=30)

Goals			Cases
Weaker economical rationale	**MU**	**MR**	Alpha Gr Delta NL
		MR+MO	Beta Pt
		MO	Alpha Au Beta D Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2 Gamma No Gamma Au 1 Delta Pt Epsilon Pt
Stronger economical rationale	**Combinations with CB**		Alpha No Beta Gr 1 Epsilon UK
	MR,SM		Beta Gr 2 Beta No Gamma Nl
	MO, SM		Alpha Pt Delta No Delta Au 1 Beta Nl
	MO, MR, RG		Delta Au 2 Delta D Epsilon No
	MU or MO, SM, RG		Epsilon Nl Alpha Nl
	SM		Gamma Au 2 Gamma D
	RG		Alpha UK Gamma UK

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Figure 6.1: Main models based on goals (number of cases between brackets)
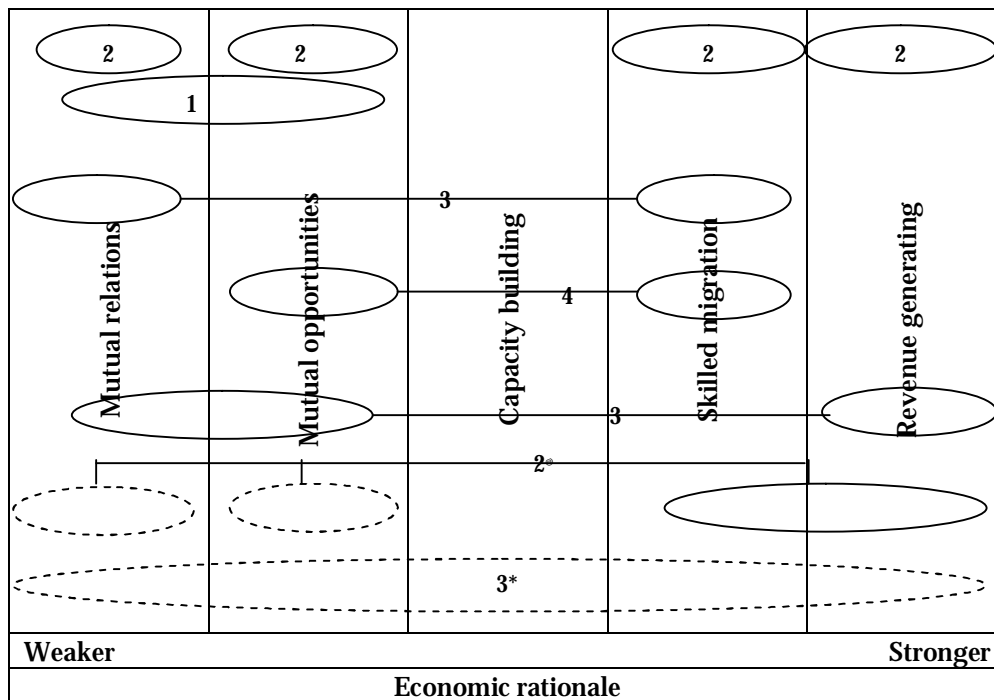
*: three cases combine capacity building with one or more of the other goals

◎: two cases combining skilled migration and revenue generating with either mutual understading or mutual opportunities

These ten groups are used for further analysis in sections 6.2 and 6.4.

6.1.2   Participants

Examining the empirical findings is continued with a discussion of the roles of different participants in the cases. Ultimately, the participants shape the organisation, for without them there would not even be an organisation (see chapter 3). Chapter 5 identified four different types of participants within higher education institutions: administration and management, academic staff, students and support staff.

6.1.2.1   Administration and management

Participants in administration and management are those responsible for the policy directions taken in a HEI; they lead the HEI (see also section 6.1.3). For only a few cases (five), was something reported about the role of administration and management in relation to internationalisation. Perhaps the actual role of administration and management in internationalisation is not visible to most of the respondents in the empirical research and therefore not reported; perhaps

during the empirical research more attention went to policies and activities of the cases, as these appear to be more prominently reported than the role of administration and management.

Eight cases show that administration and management are positively involved with internationalisation activities. At Delta D for example, it is reported that the central body actively promotes internationalisation, providing funds for such as the fund for free moving students. At Beta D management has declared internationalisation a major affair.

At two of the eight cases senior leaders expressed interest in a specific part of internationalisation. Leadership at Alpha Gr finds the link to ethnic Greeks and Greeks abroad important; the General Secretary of the university states as a major goal: "the promotion of the Greek language, culture and civilisation and especially the strengthening of the links of ethnic and migrant Greeks with Greece and the University". At Epsilon UK senior leaders expressed commitment particularly in the area of North-South cooperation.

In one of the case study reports (Gamma No) that includes information on the role of administration and management, it is said that management has little interest in internationalisation. Nevertheless, internationalisation may still be taken up by some entrepreneurial staff members. And at Gamma Pt 2, even though the president is interested in internationalisation, the president is not concerned that the international activities seem to be sporadic and the result of individual efforts of teachers. According to the president, the advantages of having an international office remain to be seen:

> I have some doubts about the efficacy of a big international affairs office in such diversified areas as we have, from education to agricultural studies, to technology. It can turn into a white elephant […]. Because each school has an interventionist action and each school has its field of action (...) I have doubts about the benefits of concentrating all the international activities under the scope of a single office, essentially because this will lead to a minor interventionist role of the schools and their directions.

Finally, the president of Gamma Pt 1 regrets "that internationalisation has a marginal role due to the barriers and constraints identified at political level".

6.1.2.2   Academic staff

In 40% of the case studies (12), the reports show that academic staff is actively or increasingly involved in internationalisation or that some academic staff members show interest and use their personal contacts in internationalisation. One case (Delta Au 1) reports limited mobility of academic staff.

It is somewhat unexpected that more cases have not reported on the role of academic staff on relation to internationalisation, as it is generally understood

that internationalisation in HEIs is fed through international (research) contacts of academic staff. Perhaps the involvement of academic staff is already so common, that for these cases it was deemed unnoteworthy or simply forgotten. It is also common that much of the internationalisation activities undertaken by academic staff is not centrally registered or reported (unless perhaps at departmental level), as involvement of academic staff in internationalisation in many cases takes place using personal contacts of these staff members. Or, perhaps these cases actually do not have involvement of staff in internationalisation. The reasons above may explain why little is known about the role of academic staff for 17 case studies.

Active or increasing involvement of academic staff
Active or increasing involvement of staff in internationalisation is reported in this group of cases. The basis for this involvement usually seems to lie in personal contacts of staff members or exchange programmes.
The quote from the report of Alpha Au is exemplary for this group of cases.

> Alpha Au distinguishes itself in the great mobility of its teaching staff, which contributes to the expansion of the curriculum and the innovative methodologies in education and research thanks to its international experience. Towards this end, researchers of Alpha Au can take full advantage of the numerous multinational education programmes, such as SOCRATES, CEEPUS (Central European Exchange Programme for university Studies), TEMPUS (Trans-European mobility scheme for university studies), WTZ (*Wissenschaftlich-Technische Zusammenarbeit*), etc. However, mobility of teaching staff is also realised within individually negotiated activities on the basis of bilateral contracts with partner universities. The latter are more flexible in terms of the individual needs of the participants, with the priorities and concentration being placed on the cooperation with certain partner institutions.

Another example can be found at Epsilon No, which

> emphasised early the need for strong academic involvement in student exchange schemes, and have as a rule always one academic and one administrative person in charge of a given exchange scheme. This is functioning well, and seems to hinder a de-coupling of academic responsibility that is more visible at other Norwegian institutions.

The cases in this group are from several different countries and represent all types of cases.

Some entrepreneurs using personal contacts
Just as with the group of cases with active or increasing involvement of staff, personal contacts of academic staff play an important role amongst this group. However, the difference is that with this group personal contacts appear to be the main issue in the role of the academic staff in internationalisation, whereas the orientation of the previous group seems broader. An example of the group of entrepreneurs is Gamma No, where management has little interest in internationalisation (see previous section), but some entrepreneurial staff

members use their personal contacts to work on internationalisation. The importance of personal contacts for international cooperation is also seen at Gamma 2 Au, where it is mentioned that "personal relationships and joint research interests are a valuable basis for sustainable cooperation".

Finally, it is interesting to see that three of the four cases in this group are Gamma-type cases and that three of the four are from Austria.

Limited staff mobility
At Delta 1 Au academic staff does not appear to be very involved in international exchange and are not often going abroad. However, the institution tries to increase faculty mobility, as it hopes to use the personal contacts that are made to develop further research contacts, similar to some of the cases in the previous group.

The previous examples show the possibilities these personal contacts may bring, not only for the particular academic involved, but also for the faculty or even the whole institution.
Furthermore, these examples and the overview of cases in Table 6.5 show that the cases that report on the role of academic staff are varied. It is a combination of cases that are old, new, broadly oriented, specialised, university- and non-university type. None of the Dutch or UK cases are present in this table. Looking at other activities, their goals, and social structure, this does not seem logical. It seems likely that during the research in these countries this subject was not taken into account or perhaps was not reported on as it is already very common to do in relation to internationalisation. What may also play a role is that this type of activity is generally not centrally registered by HEIs.

Table 6.5: Role of staff per case (N=13)

Active or increasing involvement	Some entrepreneurs/ personal contacts	Limited involvement
Alpha Gr	Gamma No	Delta Au 1
Alpha No	Gamma Au 1	
Alpha Au	Gamma Au 2	
Beta D	Delta Au 2	
Gamma D		
Gamma Pt 2		
Delta D		
Epsilon No		

6.1.2.3   Students

Students, together with academic staff, appear to be the main participants in internationalisation in higher education. As stated in the case study report of Alpha No "…internationalisation is driven both by researchers and by students. [having] Foreign researchers at campus stimulates both research relations and inspires students to go abroad, as well as attracting students from abroad may be linked to research collaborations".

For a clear analysis of the role of students, the results suggest distinguishing different types of students in relation to internationalisation. Using the identification of different types of students in relation to internationalisation put forward in chapter 3, we find three types:
- Outgoing exchange students
- Incoming exchange students
- Foreign degree students (FD students)

Statistics are available for these three types. Other statistics, such as the number of students going abroad on an internship, are rarely available, and if so are not easily comparable between institutions, let alone countries.

Outgoing exchange students

Table 6.6: Percentage of outgoing ERASMUS/mobility students at case study institutions (N=30)

Case	percentage	Case	percentage	Case	percentage
Beta Nl	9,3%	Gamma D	1,0%	Delta No	0,05%
Gamma Au 2	8,6%	Gamma Pt 1	1,0%	Gamma No	0,04%
Gamma Au 1	3,6%	Delta Pt	1,0%	Epsilon No	0,03%
Alpha Pt	2,0%	Epsilon Nl	1,0%	Gamma UK	Negligible
Beta Pt	2,0%	Alpha No	0,8%	Epsilon UK	N/a
Alpha Nl	2,0%	Beta No	0,6%	Epsilon Pt	N/a
Alpha UK	1,7%	Beta D	0,5%		
Beta Gr 1	1,6%	Gamma Pt 2	0,5%		
Alpha Au	1,5%	Delta Nl	0,4%		
Alpha Gr	1,3%	Beta Gr 2	0,4%		
Delta 1Au	1,3%	Delta Au 2	0,4%		
Delta D	1,1%	Gamma Nl	0,3%		

The interest of regular students in internationalisation in terms of going abroad as an exchange student varies amongst the cases as shown in the table above. It is interesting to see that many of the cases score around the average of ERASMUS

students as a proportion of the entire student population (0,9%)[18]. Three cases (Beta Nl, Gamma Au 1, and Gamma Au 2) are clearly above this average. Furthermore, three of the five Norwegian cases (Gamma, Delta, and Epsilon) score very low (<= 0,05%). Taking the different types of cases into account, it stands out that five of the six alpha cases are in the 'top ten' of these thirty cases.

In the case study report of Beta Nl no specific explanation is given for the relatively high percentage of outgoing exchange students. It is stated that internationalisation comes natural to Beta Nl due to its location near the German and Belgian borders, which may also explain the high percentage of outgoing exchange students.
In some cases, such as number two in the table above (Gamma Au 2), there is a high demand for mobility by the students themselves reported in the case study report. This is also reflected in the percentage of outgoing ERASMUS/mobile students of Gamma Au 2. The high demand forces Gamma Au 2 to have a large network available to its students to provide the opportunity to actually go abroad. Another Austrian case, Delta 1 Au, claims to have a high percentage of students with foreign experience, even though the numbers in Table 6.6 do not show it. Perhaps this foreign experience is obtained through other international activities. Delta Au 1 aims to increase this percentage of student with foreign experience. It is stated that "by 2000/2001 nearly half of the graduates had international experience: studies at a foreign university (20%), foreign placement (11%), both study and placement (14%)".

In other cases, students appear to be less interested in international experience. At Gamma UK, the case with the least outgoing exchange students amongst the 30 cases, there is also little interest in internationalisation from the students. A faculty leader even states "none of our students has ever opted to do any part of their programme abroad", even though there are arrangements in place for exchange. Gamma Nl, also one of the lower scoring cases, mentions that they also have a number of students who simply prefer to stay at home and have no interest in going abroad.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that Delta No reports different patterns of mobility for students going away for a short period and those that go abroad for a longer period. Students travelling for shorter periods, "often in connection with specific projects, go to Africa, Asia and some to Eastern Europe and the Baltic States". Students travelling for longer periods travel to Europe, though Australia and the USA are becoming more popular.

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[18] The average proportion of ERASMUS students of the entire student population (EUR 18, Be, Dk, De, Gr, Es, Fr, Ie, It, Lu, Nl, At, Pt, Fi, Se, UK, Is, Li and No) is around 0.9% in 2004/05 (http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/erasmus/statisti/chart4.pdf)

Incoming exchange students

Table 6.7: Percentage of incoming ERASMUS/mobility students at case study institutions[19] (N=25)

	Very high	High	Average	Low
Gamma Au 2	8,8%			
Epsilon Nl	7,0%			
Beta Nl	5,3%			
Alpha Nl		2,5%		
Gamma D		2,3%		
Alpha UK		2,0%		
Beta Pt		2,0%		
Delta Nl		1,9%		
Gamma Au 1		1,8%		
Alpha Pt		1,5%		
Alpha No		1,4%		
Delta Au 1		1,3%		
Delta Au 2		1,3%		
Gamma Pt 2			1,2%	
Alpha Au			1,2%	
Gamma UK			1,1%	
Gamma Pt 1			1,0%	
Beta No			0,9%	
Delta D			0,5%	
Beta D				0,3%
Gamma Nl				0,3%
Delta Pt				0,1%
Delta No				0,08%
Epsilon No				0,06%
Gamma No				0,02%
Epsilon UK	N/a			
Epsilon Pt	N/a			
Alpha Gr	N/a			
Beta Gr 1	N/a			
Beta Gr 2	N/a			

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[19] The average proportion of ERASMUS students of the entire student population (EUR 18, Be, Dk, De, Gr, Es, Fr, Ie, It, Lu, Nl, At, Pt, Fi, Se, UK, Is, Li and No) is around 0,9% in 2004/05 (http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/erasmus/statisti/chart4.pdf). The other groups have been formed with this average and the further analysis in mind; these groups are rather homegene with quite similar percentages.

Regarding incoming exchange students, two cases (Alpha Au en Alpha Pt) reported that regular students, often with international experience, help and support incoming foreign students.

Table 6.7 shows that the percentages differ from 8,8% for the highest cases (Delta Au 2) to 0,02% for the lowest case (Epsilon No). Again Gamma 2 Au en Beta Nl stand out at the top, now joined by Epsilon Nl, while the same three Norwegian (Gamma, Delta and Epsilon) institutions are again at the lower end.

An explanation for the relatively high scores of Gamma Au 2 and Beta Nl might be that in principle exchange programmes are usually aimed at a balanced number of incoming and outgoing students. The large network of Gamma Au 2 needed to provide opportunity to its own students to go abroad is also likely to bring in students. A similar explanation might be true for the lower scoring cases: little going out means little coming in.

While the percentage of incoming and outgoing ERASMUS/mobile students is more or less balanced with the majority of cases, a few cases show a considerable in balance. In six cases (Gamma D, Epsilon Nl, Gamma Pt 2, Delta Nl, Delta Au 2 and Epsilon No) the percentage of incoming ERASMUS/mobile students is at least twice as high as the percentage of outgoing students. This is particularly interesting for the German and Austrian cases, as the general trend in these countries is the opposite: sending more than hosting (see Table 6.8).
In three cases (Gamma Au 1, Delta D, and Delta Pt) the percentage of outgoing ERASMUS/mobile students is at least twice as high as the percentage of the incoming students. Although at Beta Nl it is less than twice as much, the difference is still considerable (9,3% outgoing versus 5,3% incoming). This finding for Delta Pt and Beta Nl is interesting, as for the whole of Portugal and the Netherlands, HEIs host more exchange students than they send out (again see Table 6.8).
A few of the case study reports address imbalanced incoming and outgoing students. In Beta 1 Greece it is stated that

> the implementation of [the Socrates programme] has in overall terms been successful… although the geographical location but also and chiefly the language barrier has always affected the 'balance' of student 'flows': as a rule there have been more outgoing than incoming.

Gamma UK has the opposite problem, with more incoming than outgoing students, which they also attribute to a language barrier: "we have fewer exchanges with Europe than many other modern universities. This is partly because the Gamma UK students are such a diverse group. And they don't have European languages".

Finally, Epsilon NL is one case where the number of incoming ERASMUS/mobile students differs greatly from the number of outgoing students (7,0% incoming versus 1,0% outgoing). According to the case study report, Epsilon Nl is working towards a better balance between the two groups, by informing its regular students about the opportunities of the ERASMUS programme.

Table 6.8: ERASMUS student mobility: actual numbers of students sent and hosted by country (2004/2005)

	Hosted	Sent	2004/2005 ratio
United Kingdom	16266	7214	2.25
Netherlands	6842	4743	1.44
Norway	1841	1279	1.44
Portugal	4166	3845	1.08
Austria	3536	3809	0.93
Germany	17273	22427	0.77
Greece	1658	2491	0.66
Total Europe	144037	144037	1

Source: http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/erasmus/stat_en.html

Foreign degree students

From the discussion of the goals (see section 6.1.1) it was apparent that many of the cases are looking to attract foreign degree students for different reasons. Table 6.9 shows that some cases apparently are more successful than others; the difference in percentages of foreign degree students registered is large, ranging from 55,8% to 0,03%. Again the three Norwegian case studies (Epsilon, Gamma, and Delta) are at the lower end of the table, now also joined by Beta No.

At the top end, four of the six Delta cases are amongst the 10 highest scoring cases. With Epsilon Nl also quite a specialised institution (life sciences, agriculture), half of the 10 highest scoring cases are thus specialised. In terms of nationalities it is interesting to note that all three German cases are in the top 10, as well as the majority of Dutch and UK cases. For the Dutch cases this is most remarkable, as the Netherlands on the whole score relative low on foreign degree students (3,9%), even scoring below the OECD average of 7,3% for tertiary education (OECD, 2006). But the percentages of the three German cases are also above the German OECD percentage (11,2%) and two of the UK cases score higher than the the OECD UK percentage (16,2%).

Delta Au 2 has the highest percentage of registered foreign degree students: this is also one of the highest rates of foreign degree students in Austria. In the future Delta Au 2 plans to focus more on quality, although the quality of the current international students is regarded as high enough. As an institution specialised in arts, students take an entrance examination; a language test is not part of this. Another case specialised in the arts, Delta Nl also has a relatively high percentage of international students, which they partially explain through the specifics of

education in arts and the arts students. These students often look for a specific teacher with whom they want to study more sthan focussing on the country or city where they wish to study. The Portuguese case specialised in arts (Delta Pt) has relatively few incoming students (10), although it aims to increase its student (and staff) mobility.

Table 6.9: Percentage of foreign degree students registered at case study institutions[20] (N=27)

	High	Average	Low	Very Low
Delta Au 2	55,8%			
Delta D	25%			
Epsilon Nl	24,7%			
Beta Nl	23,1%			
Alpha UK	22,7%			
Gamma UK	22,4%			
Delta Au 1	20,8%			
Delta Nl	17,8%			
Gamma D	16%			
Beta D	14,7%			
Gamma Au 2	13,0%			
Epsilon UK		9,0%		
Alpha Au		8,3%		
Alpha Gr		7,2%		
Beta Gr 1		7,2%		
Alpha Nl		5,8%		
Beta Pt		5,2%		
Beta Gr 2			4,5%	
Gamma Nl			4,0%	
Alpha No			3,5%	
Alpha Pt			3%	
Gamma Au 1				2,8%
Beta No				1,9%
Epsilon No				1,8%
Delta No				1,3%
Gamma No				0,03%
Delta Pt				Negligible
Gamma Pt 2				N/a
Gamma Pt 1				N/a
Epsilon Pt				N/a

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[20] The OECD average is 7,3% for tertiary education in 2004 (see table C3.1 in OECD, 2006). The other groups have been formed with this average and the further analysis in mind; these groups are rather homegene with quite similar percentages.

Further thoughts on students

Reviewing the different tables with percentages on exchange and foreign degree students, the first thing we notice is that the majority of cases have a higher percentage of foreign degree students than incoming exchange students. In certain cases the percentage of foreign degree students is three or more times higher than the percentage of incoming exchange students. These cases are summarised in Table 6.10.

The table shows that half the cases amongst the 10 highest scoring cases on foreign degree students are also amongst the 10 highest scoring cases on incoming exchange. These five cases represent five different case-study types. However, three of these five cases are Dutch. Another group of these cases (Gamma Nl, Epsilon No, Delta Pt) are amongst the 10 lowest scoring cases for both foreign degree and incoming exchange students.

Table 6.10: Percentage of foreign degree students vs percentage incoming exchange student (N=30)

	% foreign degree students	% incoming exchange students
Delta Au 2	*55,8%*	*1,3%*
Delta D	*25%*	*0,5%*
Epsilon Nl	*24,7%*	*7,0%*
Beta Nl	*23,1%*	*5,3%*
Alpha UK	*22,7%*	*2,0%*
Gamma UK	*22,4%*	*1,1%*
Delta Au 1	*20,8%*	*1,3%*
Delta Nl	*17,8%*	*1,9%*
Gamma D	*16%*	*2,3%*
Beta D	*14,7%*	*0,3%*
Gamma Au 2	13,0%	8,8%
Epsilon UK	9,0%	N/a
Alpha Au	8,3%	1,2%
Alpha Gr	7,2%	N/a
Beta Gr 1	7,2%	N/a
Alpha Nl	5,8%	2,5%
Beta Pt	5,2%	2,0%
Beta Gr 2	4,5%	N/a
Gamma Nl	4,0%	0,3%
Alpha No	3,5%	1,4%
Alpha Pt	3%	1,5%
Gamma Au 1	2,8%	1,8%
Beta No	1,9%	0,9%
Epsilon No	1,8%	0,06%
Delta No	1,3%	0,08%
Gamma No	0,03%	0,02%
Delta Pt	Negligible	0,1%
Gamma Pt 2	N/a	1,0%
Gamma Pt 1	N/a	1,2%
Epsilon Pt	N/a	N/a

Ten highest scoring cases of foreign degree students in italic, ten highest scoring cases on incoming exchange in bold.

Finally, comparing the statistics of the cases on the percentages of outgoing exchange and foreign degree students, four different groups are visible (see Table 6.11). First, Beta Nl and Gamma Au 2 are amongst the highest scoring cases for both types of students. Second, Gamma Au 1 and Alpha Pt are amongst the top scores in outgoing exchange, but on the lowest scoring cases for foreign degree students. The opposite situation is visible for Beta D, Delta Nl, Delta Au 2 and

Gamma UK. Fourth and finally, there are five cases (Beta Gr 2, Gamma Nl, Delta No, Gamma No and Epsilon No) amongst the 10 lowest scoring cases for both outgoing exchange and foreign degree students.

Table 6.11: Foreign degree students and outgoing exchange students (N=13)

	Outgoing exchange	
Foreign degree students	**High**	**Low**
High	Beta Nl Gamma Au 2	Beta D Delta Nl Delta Au 2 Gamma UK
Low	Gamma Au 1 Alpha Pt	Beta Gr 2 Gamma Nl Delta No Gamma No Epsilon No

6.1.2.4   Support staff

Support staff of the cases is mainly involved through the international offices (IO) or offices or committees with a different name, but similar functions. The role of the IOs, and thus support staff, is part of the social structure of the cases and is therefore discussed in the following section (6.1.3). As mentioned below, the social structure has to be brought to life by participants.

6.1.3   Social structure

Knowing the goals and participants involved in internationalisation, the following sections discuss the social structure of internationalisation within the cases. Social structure refers to the organisation of main tasks of the organisation, the division of power and authority across different levels, and the loose coupling often seen within HEIs (Weick, 1976). Using the organisational strategies of Knight (2005), chapter 5 operationalised the elements of the social structure. The main aspects of the social structure were operationalised in terms of governance structure, operations, and services and human resources. These were supplemented with the ideas on a leadership versus base driven model (Neave, 1992, quoted by H. d. Wit, 2002: 126) and the role of professionals, together with the diffusion of power within a HEI (Van Vught, 1989a: 51 and 58). Using this operationalisation, the following sections discuss the social structure as reported by the cases.

On the whole, internationalisation seems increasingly part of the social structures of the cases involved in this study. This is particularly clear in the established IOs (or similar support structures), discussed below (see section 6.1.3.2). To a lesser extent, this is shown in other aspects of the social structure, also discussed in the

following section. Little was reported on other aspects of social structure. Perhaps internationalisation is already so integrated in the social structure that it was deemed not worth reporting, but it may also be that it was only reported when something was actually done and not reported on when nothing was done.

Looking back at the examples provided for the several aspects of social structure in section 5.2.3, we notice that some examples concerning participants and goals have already been discussed in the previous sections. As mentioned in section 5.2.3 this overlap can be explained as the model also shows that the different parts of the organisation are closely connected to and influence each other, in particular where it concerns the participants, as the social structure is filled in by participants. Nevertheless, the following can be reported on governance structure, operations, services, and human resources.

6.1.3.1   Governance structure

Although all cases involved appear to have a certain (combination of) goal in internationalisation, only a few (Alpha No, Alpha UK, Beta Gr 2 and Delta Nl) case study reports mention that internationalisation is part of the mission or similar statement of the case. Alpha No "believes that for internationalisation to be an integrated part of research and teaching, it has to be defined into the overall strategy". Internationalisation is also integrated in the action plan of this case. At Delta Nl internationalisation is also a central part of the general strategy. From the very start internationalisation has been taken up in a proactive way and it is felt that art is international by its nature: "[Art] crosses all sorts of borders, not just the borders of countries. Art is influenced by, and reflects on changes on a global scale and a global society with its different cultures all over the world". At Beta Gr 2 internationalisation has also played a role from the very start of the institutions, as at the time of establishment it was expected that this new case would contribute "to the reduction in the number of Greek students studying abroad" and would "facilitate the return of Greek scientists and academics working in foreign universities".

When looking at the social structure of the cases in terms of a leadership (central) model versus a base driven (decentralised) model, 10 cases have given indications about their model. The majority of these 10 (8) appear to have a combined model. These cases report working on internationalisation both top down and bottom up. Two cases seem to have a more leadership driven model. Taking a closer look at the group of eight cases reporting on a combined top down and bottom up approach, it is interesting to see that all five Dutch cases are amongst this group, which might also be explained by the fact that this subject received more attention in the Dutch case studies than in other countries. The other cases are Austrian and Norwegian.

The general thought amongst the eight cases with a combined model seems to be that, both the central and the decentral level are needed for internationalisation to work, with the IO being one of the main players at central level. Furthermore, it seems that particularly internationalisation in research may be difficult to simply steer top down as the input of researchers is needed. The following examples further clarify this view. At Alpha No the IO takes care of the administration needed in internationalisation, but Alpha No "underlines the departments' responsibility in accomplishing the infrastructure in relation to student exchange". At Beta Nl

> all the deans are officially part of the management team of the university and thus have their influence on the institutional policy. This also means that they commit themselves to the choices made and the goals set in this policy and that they are actively engaged in working on the institutional policy with their faculty… The internationalisation in research is more a bottom up process according to some of the respondents. It is difficult to steer researchers in this, although in some faculties this bottom up process seems to be changing to a more top down process. It is also difficult for the Executive Board to steer more in the internationalisation in research, as the Executive board would then tread on the content of research, which is the responsibility of the faculty.

Gamma Au 2 also uses a combination of top down and bottom up processes.

> The individual needs of the different study programs and the needs of the whole institution have to be linked to each other. One way to do this is by developing strategies for internationalisation both on the institutional level and on the level of the study program. International contacts are shared and coordinated. Bottom up initiatives are very important as internationalisation depends in a high degree on the commitment of individual persons.

Two cases (Epsilon No and Gamma Au 1) reported a tendency to a more centralised approach to the organisation of internationalisation. For both cases it seems that previously the base was of more importance than currently. Epsilon No is a relatively small case; its report states that "one can detect a tendency towards formalisation, centralisation and professionalisation of the work. Ad hoc exchange agreements established by the individual study program have been replaced by institutional exchange agreements negotiated at the institutional level". At Gamma Au 1 "the newly installed [holding] seeks more coordination of central and individual/local activities, whereas before there was a historically grown predominance of the different locations where this case is located".

Even though only a limited number of cases reported clearly on the division of power and authority across the different levels within the institution, it seems safe to say that the general trend is a combination of a leadership and base driven model. It appears that, particularly in internationalisation in research, the expertise of the "professionals" is needed.

Finally, the eight cases with committed senior leaders in internationalisation it was reported that an executive board member (or member to a similar body) with internationalisation as a specific task had been appointed. Alpha Au for example, established a vice rectorat for international affairs. "Since then, internationalisation is regarded as a process on all tiers of the university, an important aspect of the university profile and a fundament of the international positioning".

6.1.3.2   Operations and services

In terms of operations and services, it is interesting to note that internationalisation rarely seems to be integrated in institution wide and department planning, budgeting, and quality review systems. This might also be due to less reporting on these subjects in the case studies, which means it is unknown whether internationalisation is integrated in these subjects. Services in terms of support for incoming and outgoing students are mainly provided by the IO's (or similar support structures). None of the cases reported the involvement of academic support units (library, teaching and learning, curriculum development, faculty and staff training, research services) in the services they provide concerning internationalisation.

Only Gamma No, Delta D, and Alpha No reported on the integration of internationalisation in institution wide and department planning, budgeting and quality review systems. Gamma No's action plan states that "internationalisation should be incorporated in the new budget model, and economic incentives for rewarding internationalisation should be developed". At Delta D internationalisation is part of the institutional development plan. As mentioned before, Alpha No feels that internationalisation has to be part of the overall strategy. One reason for this is, because "otherwise it might become an activity for those who are especially interested, or it might be downsized based on lack of finances", indicating that an annual budget is available for internationalisation.
Certain organisational structures seem to be in place for 29 cases, as these all have an IO (or similar support structure) in place. Epsilon No does not have an IO, as they are a very small institution and a separate IO would, in their view, not make sense for them. The majority of the offices appear to have been set up either recently or during the 1990s. However, the case study report of Alpha No mentions that they have had an IO for over 40 years; the UK cases have also had international offices for many years.

The basic pattern for the support provided by the IOs (or similar support structures) is that these offices facilitate mobility and take care of administration concerning internationalisation (e.g., of exchange programmes). These offices try to promote internationalisation within the institutions. The majority appear to focus more on supporting students than staff. For example, at Gamma Au 2 the international office is involved in answering the demand of its students for

international experience. "Nevertheless, demand sometimes exceeds the number of available places. Selection mechanisms like assessment centers are used to distribute scarce places, but can be disappointing and stressful for students".

Other functions or support may also be provided by the IO's (or similar support structures). Three case study reports (Alpha Au, Beta Nl and Delta Nl) mention that their IOs are also involved in policy and strategy concerning internationalisation. For example, at Alpha Au

> the employees [of the office for international affairs] are also involved in developing strategies and in implementing measures to realise international mobility of students, faculty, researchers and staff. For this purpose, the office was recently restructured into a 'front office' (for service) and a 'back office' (for strategy).

A few IOs are also involved in setting up cooperation with foreign HEIs, while this is unclear for the others. Quoting again from the case study report of Alpha Au: "The office forges links with international partner institutions…".

Two other cases (Alpha Pt and Beta No) explicitly state that their IO does not deal with support in the area of internationalisation in research. Only Beta No states that internationalisation in research lies with the research departments, although it is likely that this will be similarly organised at many of the other cases.

In Germany, a major reorganisation of international offices was implemented at both Beta D and Delta D. In these cases different parts of the organisation were reorganised to become part of the international office. The tasks were broadened. Intra- and cross-institutional cooperation and networking was enhanced.

One case needs a closer look; Alpha Nl has two units at the central level providing support in internationalisation in the institution: the international office and a private enterprise. This private enterprise was set up in 1999 to recruit foreign students and market master programmes offered by Alpha Nl in foreign countries. It was set up as a private enterprise (a Dutch B.V.), because it was felt that in order to quickly achieve the ambitions set out, a dynamic and new organisation was needed. In 2003 evaluation of the private enterprise showed that apparently the organisation was successful, recruiting more foreign students than targeted. But there is also still room for improvement. Some faculties are rather critical about the functioning of the private enterprise and feel they have to pay too much to it.

The IO is the more traditional unit in Alpha NL's organisation working on international cooperation and exchange. This unit is responsible for EU scholarship programmes as well as other international scholarship programmes. The IO is also the admission office for international students who want to enrol in bachelor and master programmes taught in Dutch and has some facilitating responsibilities such as housing for international students.

Both the internal steering group internationalisation and education and the evaluation committee recommended combining the tasks of the private enterprise and the IO in one unit, in which the dynamic culture of the private enterprise is upheld.

No case reported on specific systems (formal and informal) for communicating, liaising, and coordinating other than through the IO (or similar support structures). Nevertheless, it can be said that internationalisation is often worked on both top down and bottom up and the central and decentralised levels seem to need each other to really make internationalisation work.

A general trend amongst the cases seems to be that they believe that a lack of funding can impede internationalisation. Even though less than half of the cases reported on their financial support and resource allocation system, the general trend is visible through other remarks in the case study reports, for example when cases are asked to comment on impeding factors to internationalisation. All three German cases have changed their internal funding system and report on their financial support and resource allocation system. Alpha Pt reports that financial support given by the case itself to internationalisation in research is marginal. Researchers need the support from national entities. Gamma Au 1

> underlines that mobility programs are inferior to research activities as they do not provide money to the institution. Mobility programs on the contrary are big work for no income! Research programs respective projects bring some financial benefit although it is not possible that they are cost-covering.

Furthermore, this case feels that the national authorities might need to have more funding available as they put forward new requirements to the *Fachhochschulen*. Finally, as was mentioned before (see section 6.1.1.1), Epsilon Pt lacks financial resources due to the former administration, making it hard to work on internationalisation.

6.1.3.3 Human resources

In terms of human resources, it seems that only two cases (Beta Gr 2 and Delta Nl) raised attention for international expertise when recruiting and selecting staff, though international expertise is not specifically required. One of the two, Beta 2 Gr, mentions that it would like to attract staff "of international reputation". None of the other cases reported on human resources and internationalisation.

6.1.3.4 Further thoughts on social structure

Table 6.12 can be constructed based on the discussion above, showing whether internationalisation plays a central or marginal and ad hoc or systematic role in the social structure of the cases involved, based on Davies' model (1995: 16). Although it has to be said that in this model not all aspects of social structure as described above are taken into account (e.g., a top down or bottom up approach does not necessarily say something about central/marginal or ad hoc/systematic role of internationalisation in the social structure; see paragraph 5.2.3.).

Cases Alpha No, Alpha UK, Beta Gr 2, and Delta Nl mention internationalisation as part of their mission or similar statement; it can be said that internationalisation plays a central role in the social structure of these cases. Furthermore, having a senior leader committed to internationalisation can also be a sign of a more central role of internationalisation in the social structure. The previously mentioned quote from Alpha Au, where a vice rectorat for international affairs was established, shows: "Since then, internationalisation is regarded as a process on all tiers of the university, an important aspect of the university profile and a fundament of the international positioning".

Gamma No, Delta D, and Alpha No) reported that internationalisation is part of institution-wide planning; it may be said that internationalisation plays a systematic role in the social structure, as it is part of institution wide systems. Based on what was reported on the role of IOs it is not possible for most cases to make statements whether their role is more ad hoc or systematic. Only for Alpha Au, Beta Nl and Delta Nl, where it was reported that their IOs are also involved in policy and strategy concerning internationalisation, it follows that the role is more systematic. The description of the support function of Alpha Nl also shows a more systematic role of internationalisation in the social structure.

Finally, reviewing the reports we see that little was reported on other aspects of social structure than IOs and it is difficult to make reliable statements about the other cases; perhaps the role of internationalisation is marginal as it was not reported on, perhaps it is already so integrated in the social structure of these that it was felt not worth reporting. This also means that little can be said about the ad hoc or systematic role of internationalisation in the social structure of the organisation.

Table 6.12: Overview of role of internationalisation in social structure(N=9)

Institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation in universities	Ad hoc	Systematic	Unknown
Marginal			
Central		Alpha Au Alpha No Delta Nl	Alpha UK Beta Gr 2 Gamma No Delta D Alpha Nl
Unknown		Beta Nl	

Based on: Davies, 1995: 16

6.1.4   Technology: internationalisation activities

The final aspect of the elements of the organisation is the actual activities undertaken by the cases. The case studies reported many activities aimed at

internationalisation. The structure for this section is based on the operationalisation of 'technology' or internationalisation activities in chapter 5, where the overview of internationalisation activities of Knight was presented. Main activities according to Knight (2005) are: academic programmes (activities related to teaching), research and scholarly collaboration, domestic and cross border activities, and finally extra curricular activities.

6.1.4.1   Academic programmes activities: activities relating to teaching

Reviewing all the different activities concerning academic programmes (activities related to teaching), a basic pattern of activities per case becomes visible. Student mobility forms the core of the activities; all cases are, more or less (see Table 6.6, Table 6.7, and Table 6.9), involved in student exchange and attracting foreign degree students. Table 6.13 shows that most cases combine these two basic activities with offering (or planning to offer) programmes in a foreign (mainly English) language and the majority of the cases then also combine this with involvement in joint/double degree programmes. Furthermore, 11 cases seem to combine student exchange, foreign degree students, foreign language study, joint/double degree programmes and internationalising curricula, while a few add one or two other activities to this spectrum.

More than half of the cases (19 excluding the UK cases, whose main language is English) reported offering (or plan to offer) programmes with a foreign language as the language of instruction, mainly English. Amongst these 19 cases are all the Dutch and German cases as well as the majority of the Norwegian cases. The majority of the Alpha cases are included in these 19 cases.

Several case study reports, such as the one of Beta Nl, mention that "part of the precondition for recruiting more international students, is changing the language of instruction to English". In some cases, particularly the Portuguese cases, offering English taught courses was considered, but having a strong cooperation with other Portuguese speaking countries does not lead to a demand for English taught programmes. Foreign students are mainly coming in from Portuguese speaking countries.

Table 6.13: Overview of academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) per case(N=30)

	Student exchange	Foreign degree students	Language activities	Joint/double degree programmes	Internationalised curricula	Staff mobility programmes	Area/thematic studies	Cross cultural training	Works/study abroad	Other activities
Epsilon Pt	N/a	N/a		■						
Gamma Pt 1	■	N/a	■							
Epsilon UK	N/a	■		■	■					
Gamma Pt 2	■	N/a	■					■		
Gamma UK	■	■			■		■			
Beta No	■	■								
Epsilon No	■	■								
Beta Gr 1	■	■				■				
Beta D	■	■	■							
Gamma No	■	■	■	■						
Gamma D	■	■	■							
Delta D	■	■	■							
Alpha Au	■	■	■			■				
Gamma Au 1	■	■	■	■						
Delta Au 2	■	■	■	■						
Gamma Nl	■	■	■	■						
Delta Pt	■	■	■	■						
Gamma Au 2	■	■	■	■				■		
Alpha Pt	■	■	■	■		■				
Beta Nl	■	■	■	■	■					
Alpha Nl	■	■	■	■	■					
Delta Au 1	■	■	■	■	■				■	
Alpha UK	■	■	■	■	■				■	
Epsilon Nl	■	■	■	■	■				■	
Beta Pt	■	■	■	■	■				■	
Beta Gr 2	■	■	■	■	■					1
Delta No	■	■	■	■	■					1
Delta Nl	■	■	■	■	■					1
Alpha No	■	■	■	■	■	■				1
Alpha Gr	■	■	■	■	■	■				1
Total	28	27	24	20	13	5	1	2	4	5

Finally, some cases reported a low willingness of academic staff to teach in a foreign language. For example, at Alpha Au general willingness to teach in English is low, even though there are some interesting examples of staff who are very willing to teach mandatory seminars in English if a very promising student is not fluent in German. Some respondents also see a danger for quality in teaching in English as not every staff member is sufficiently trained, as may also be the case for students. This danger is also recognised by several other cases.

Concerning another language aspect, 10 cases reported on looking to improve the (foreign) language skills of their students. These cases do not include any of the Dutch or Norwegian cases, while three of the five Portuguese cases report to be working on improving the language skills of their students. The eight cases include all types of institutions except the Epsilon-type.
Most of the time the foreign language courses are available on a voluntary basis for the students. However, at Gamma Au 1 and 2 and for some courses of Delta Au 1 foreign language courses are obligatory.
Finally, five cases offer both programmes in a foreign language and work on improving the language skills of their own students.

Table 6.14: Cases involved in language activities (N=24)

Programmes with foreign language as language of instruction	Improving language skills of students	Both
Alpha Gr	Alpha UK	Gamma Pt 1
Alpha Nl	Gamma Au1	Delta Pt
Beta Nl	Gamma Pt 2	Gamma Au 2
Gamma Nl	Beta Gr 1	Delta Au 1
Delta Nl	Beta Gr 2	Beta D
Epsilon Nl		
Alpha No		
Gamma No		
Delta No		
Alpha Au		
Alpha Pt		
Beta Pt		
Gamma D		
Delta D		

A rather popular activity related to teaching and internationalisation is joint/double degree programmes. Nineteen case study reports mention this activity. Amongst these cases are all Dutch cases and all types of cases are included. Five of the six Alpha cases and five of the six Delta cases are amongst these cases.

The experiences of the cases with setting up joint/double degree programmes differ, as the following examples show. Gamma Au 1 thinks that "joint degrees will play an important role in the bachelor/master system as mutually recognised studies will become one key factor to attract students" and Gamma Au 2 is preparing two joint degrees with British HEIs. Dutch cases experienced that it is not always easy to set up joint/double programmes, due to differences in national laws of the countries involved.

Internationalising curricula is relatively popular amongst the cases. Thirteen of the case study reports mention something about adding a European or international dimension to the curriculum, while many cases, particularly the Dutch, Norwegian, German, and Austrian cases report on restructuring their curricula as a follow up to the Bologna Declaration. These cases are restructuring their curricula into a two tier study structure (bachelor and master). In Greece academics are resistant to change following the Bologna Declaration and Portuguese cases mention that as long as their government has not made a decision on the follow up of the Bologna Declaration they cannot act[21].

In terms of curriculum development, two cases attract attention. First, Epsilon UK states explicitly that it has developed a curriculum for the Western market. Second, the faculty of law of Beta Nl has introduced many European and international elements into all its programmes, especially in the European Law School. The programme is now so international that it may not be fully approved by a nationally oriented accreditation committee accrediting Dutch law programmes. The suggestion of this faculty is to, in the future, come to a European law degree for these types of programmes with a European quality standard.

6.1.4.1.1   Further thoughts on academic programmes (activities related to teaching)

Student mobility still seems to be the main activity concerning internationalisation in higher education. Another rather popular activity seems to be related to language activities, offering programmes in a foreign language of instruction and improving the language skills of students. Internationalising curricula is also relatively popular amongst the cases.

Reviewing the distribution of activities over the seven countries involved in this study (see Table 6.15) it seems that the Dutch cases are, on the whole, most broadly oriented in their activities related to teaching, with almost all Dutch cases undertaking five activities or more, while the German cases appear to be least broadly oriented in terms of the number of activities undertaken per case.

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[21] Legislation relating to the Bologna follow-up in Portugal has been approved and published in 2005 and 2006.

Continuing with the overview of activities per case-type, both the Alpha and Delta cases appear to be relatively broadly oriented, while the Epsilon cases are relatively less broadly oriented. What also stands out is that only some of the Alpha and Beta cases appear to be involved in staff mobility and that none of the Gamma cases are involved in work/study abroad.

Table 6.15: Number of cases per country per activity related to teaching(N=30)

	Student exchange	Foreign degree students	Language activities	Joint/double degree programmes	Internationalised curricula	Staff mobility programmes	Area/thematic studies	Cross cultural training	Works/study abroad	Other activities
Austria (N=5)	5	5	5	4	1	1	0	1	1	0
Germany (N=3)	3	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Greece (N=3)	3	3	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	2
The Netherlands (N=5)	5	5	5	5	4	0	0	0	1	1
Norway (N=5)	5	5	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	2
Portugal (N=6)	4	3	5	5	1	1	0	1	1	0
UK (N=3)	3	3	1	2	3	0	1	0	1	0
Total	28	27	24	20	13	5	1	2	4	5

Table 6.16: Number of cases per case-type per activity related to teaching (N=30)

	Student exchange	Foreign degree students	Language activities	Joint/double degree programmes	Internationalised curricula	Staff mobility programmes	Area/thematic studies	Cross cultural training	Works/study abroad	Other activities
Alpha-cases (N=6)	6	6	6	5	4	4	0	0	1	2
Beta-cases (N=6)	6	6	4	3	3	1	0	0	1	1
Gamma-cases (N=8)	8	6	7	4	1	0	1	2	0	0
Delta-cases (N=6)	6	6	6	5	3	0	0	0	1	2
Epsilon-cases (N=4)	2	3	1	3	2	0	0	0	1	0
Total	28	27	24	20	13	5	1	2	4	5

Taking another look at Table 6.13 and reviewing the different combinations of activities, several models of internationalisation activities are visible amongst the cases. These are formed by several cases with the same or very similar combinations of activities. In the basic model activities related to exchange students, foreign degree students, and language activities, and for two cases also staff mobility programmes, are combined. In the basic+ model joint or double degree programmes are also part of the activities, thus combining exchange students, foreign degree students, language activities, and joint and double degree programmes. The comprehensive model combines the activities of the basic+ model with one or two other activities from one of the following activities: staff mobility programmes, internationalised curricula, cross-cultural training, and work/study abroad. The comprehensive+ model is somewhat special, as it combines cases that undertake the activities of the basic+ model supplemented with internationalised curricula and activities not undertaken by many of the other cases, such as having visiting lecturers. These models are summarised in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2: Main models of activities (number of cases between brackets)
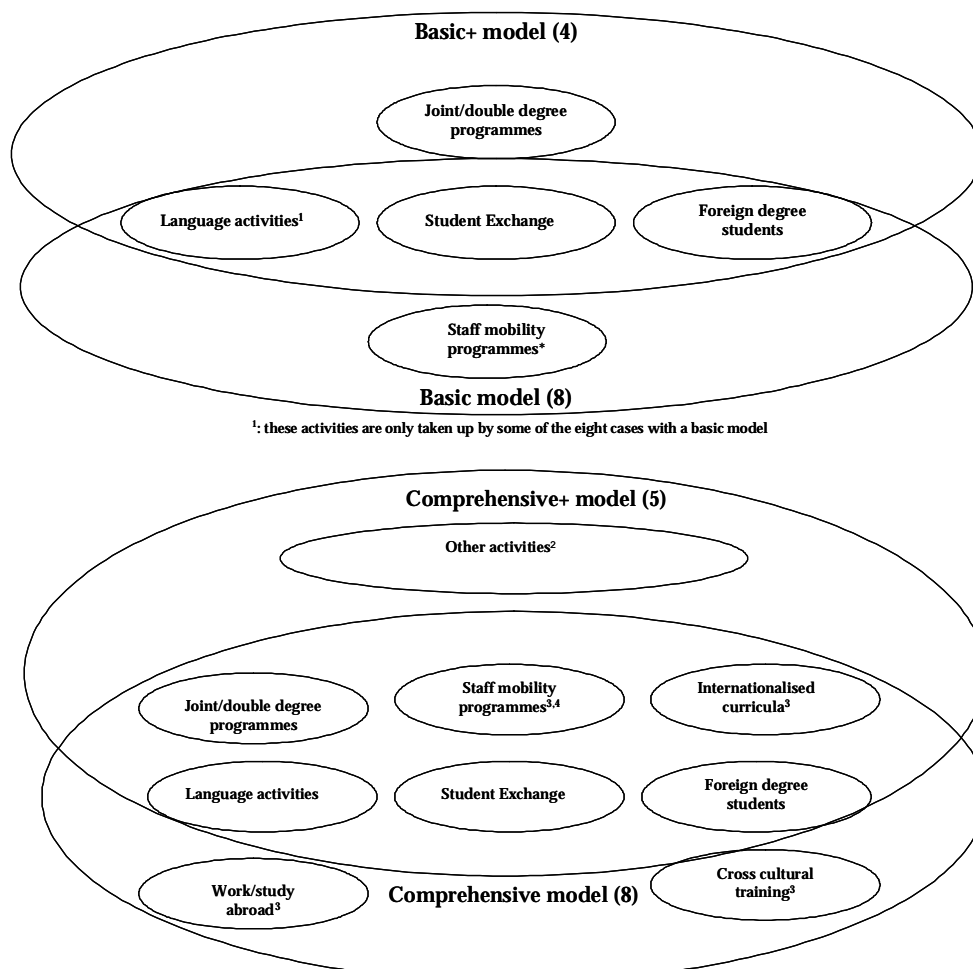
Basic+ model (4)

Joint/double degree programmes

Language activities[1]   Student Exchange   Foreign degree students

Staff mobility programmes*

Basic model (8)

[1]: these activities are only taken up by some of the eight cases with a basic model

Comprehensive+ model (5)

Other activities[2]

Joint/double degree programmes   Staff mobility programmes[3,4]   Internationalised curricula[3]

Language activities   Student Exchange   Foreign degree students

Work/study abroad[3]   **Comprehensive model (8)**   Cross cultural training[3]

[2]: e.g. visiting lecturers, changes in the teaching/learning process; [3]: these activities are only taken up by some of the cases with a comprehensive model;

[4]: Staff mobility programmes are taken up by two of the cases with a comprehensive+ model.

It should be noted that the cases for which no data were available on their percentages of incoming exchange students or foreign degree students have not been taken into account in these models, while Gamma UK has such a combination of activities that this case does not logically fit into one of the models.

Table 6.17: Cases according to models of internationalisation activities (N=25)

Basic model	Basic+ model	Comprehensive model	Comprehensive+ model
Alpha Au	Gamma Au 1	Alpha Pt	Beta Gr 2
Beta D	Delta Au 2	Alpha Nl	Delta No
Beta No	Gamma Nl	Alpha UK	Alpha No
Beta Gr 1	Delta Pt	Beta Nl	Delta Nl
Gamma No		Beta Pt	Alpha Gr
Gamma D		Gamma Au 2	
Delta D		Delta Au 1	
Epsilon No		Epsilon Nl	

It stand out in Table 6.17 that three of the six alpha-cases seem to have a comprehensive model of activities, while two appear to have comprehensive+ model. Also, three of the six beta-cases seem to have a basic model of activities. The other three beta-cases have a comprehensive-or comprehensive+ model. The other types of cases no pattern is visible. Cases from the same country seem to have different types of models of activities.

6.1.4.2   Research and scholarly collaboration

One often hears the phrase that research is international by nature. Looking at the case study reports, interestingly enough not many case study reports provide references to specific activities in the area of internationalisation in research, such as in Table 5.2 (Area and theme centers, Joint research projects and publications, International conferences and seminars, International research agreements, Research exchange programmes and International research partners in academic or other sectors). Perhaps internationalisation in research is already so common, that the cases did not find their research activities worth mentioning or they indeed have less attention for internationalisation in research than for internationalisation concerning education (see previous section). Another explanation might be that although lots of policy and steering seems to be in place regarding internationalisation in education (see previous section), there is little or no policy or steering towards internationalisation in research at central level.

Even though few activities in the area of internationalisation in research are reported on, several cases still state that they are internationally oriented in their research. For example of the German cases it is said that

> German universities, as a rule, consider themselves as 'internationalised'. They are strongly involved in international research cooperation, internationally oriented study programmes and cross-border exchanges. This is also partly true for the more practically or professionally oriented universities of applied sciences (***Fachhochschulen***).

Another example can be found in Alpha No, which perceives internationalisation as a natural part of its research activities.

Looking at the research activities reported on, it is obvious that the main activity is involvement in joint/international research projects. Around half (13) of the cases have reported to be undertaking this activity, amongst which are cases from all seven countries and all types of cases. It is interesting to note that all Alpha and Beta cases are involved in joint/international research projects. For the other types of the cases this activity seems to be less systematically developed.

Furthermore, with the joint/international research projects specific reference is made to EU funded research and development projects. For example, in the case of Beta Gr 2 internationalisation in research is "pursued through the University's participation in all major European Research Programmes". At Beta Nl it is acknowledged that "the research framework programmes have helped international cooperation underway… And once this gets underway, it sort of automatically continues and expands". However, there are also some reservations towards EU-programmes with some respondents at Beta Nl, as one dean argues that the European bureaucracy has become too large and the faculty needs to invest a great deal of money to receive any money from Brussels. The administrative burden the EU Framework programmes bring is also seen by many UK cases. These cases also feel that EU activities are less financially viable than other activities of these cases, although benefits of participation are also seen.

Nevertheless, the EU remains one of the main, if not the most important, funding organisation for research undertaken by international research groups.

Beta Gr 2 reported organising international conferences. International research agreements and research partners can be seen in the light of cooperation agreements, discussed in the next section. Other activities (Area and theme centers and Research exchange programmes) were mentioned in the case study reports.

6.1.4.3   Domestic and cross-border activities

International partnerships with other HEIs and participating in international networks is the main cross border activity undertaken by the cases participating in this study. Fifteen cases reported this activity (not including joint/international research project). Amongst these 15 are cases from all seven countries and all types of cases.

Some of these cases have an impressive number of cooperation agreements with other HEIs. For example Alpha Pt has 85 agreements, Beta Pt has about 90 agreements, and Delta No even has approximately 120 agreements. For Alpha No the number of agreements is not stated, but Alpha No has agreements with institutions on every continent. Having many international cooperation agreements does not necessarily say something about the further

internationalisation in the case. As is stated in the case study report of Beta Pt, "despite the large number of partnerships the degree of internationalisation is reduced. For example, the percentage of mobile students under the framework of the EU education and training programmes is well below 1% of the enrolled students".

Being part of international networks can take place at multiple levels within the cases. For example, at the institutional level Alpha Nl is part of LERU (League of European Research Universities), a network of research-intensive, highly ranked universities. At the faculty level international cooperation is also sought with those HEIs or faculties of HEIs that fit the objectives of the faculty, and not necessarily of the entire HEI. The faculty of law thus participates in SARFaL (the Strategic Alliance of Research Faculties of Law), which is a group of research-intensive law faculties committed to facilitate and enhance international research cooperation.

The other activities mentioned in the operationalisation in Table 5.2 (Community-based partnerships with NGOs or public/private sector groups, Community service and intercultural project work, Customised education and training programmes for international partners and clients, International development assistance projects, Cross-border delivery of education programmes (commercial and non-commercial), Contract-based training and research programmes and services and Alumni abroad programmes) were not reported on in the case study reports.

6.1.4.4   Extra-curricular activities

Organising internationally oriented extra-curricular activities does not appear to be high on the agenda of the cases involved in this study. The main type of activity found is international and intercultural campus events. Eight cases have reported on this activity: all Austrian, two Greek, and one German case. The actual activities undertaken vary. For example, Alpha Gr organises a six-week Greek language summer studies programme, in operation since 1988. This is in line with Alpha Gr's ideas on promoting Greek culture. Two hundred and fifty students and academics from foreign universities participate yearly in this programme. Another example, and a very active case in terms of international campus events, is Delta Au 2, which organises a Summer Academy every year. Each summer, over 60 master-classes are taught by internationally renowned, even famous musicians. The summer academy attracts a world-wide audience. Although open to Austrian participants as well, the majority comes from abroad. Furthermore, Delta Au 2 also organises concerts and contests, which are important forms of communication and exchange in the field of classical music. On an institutional base, the university regularly welcomes foreign musicians and orchestra to give concerts at Delta Au 2 and at other places in the area. At the same time, concerts given by faculty members and students and by the own

symphonic orchestra, its chamber orchestra and a symphonic brass orchestra represent Delta Au 2 in its hometown, Austria, and abroad.

About the other activities in Table 5.2 (Student clubs and associations, Liaison with community-based cultural and ethnic groups and Peer support groups and programmes) nothing was mentioned in the case study reports.

6.1.4.5   Answer to the third research question

This first section provides the answer to the third research question:
How are higher education institutions responding to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation, in terms of (internationalisation) policies and activities?

Looking at the responses described above, it seems the goals of the HEIs vary considerably and different goals are combined. The models seem to vary from weaker to a stronger economic rationale, as the summary in Figure 6.3 shows.

The most popular model amongst the cases is mutual opportunities (eight cases), while the models with a stronger economical rationale appear to be less popular ; Skilled migration and revenue generating are only followed by two cases each. These models are used for further analysis in sections 6.2 and 6.4 of this chapter.

Figure 6.3: Main models based on goals (number of cases between brackets)
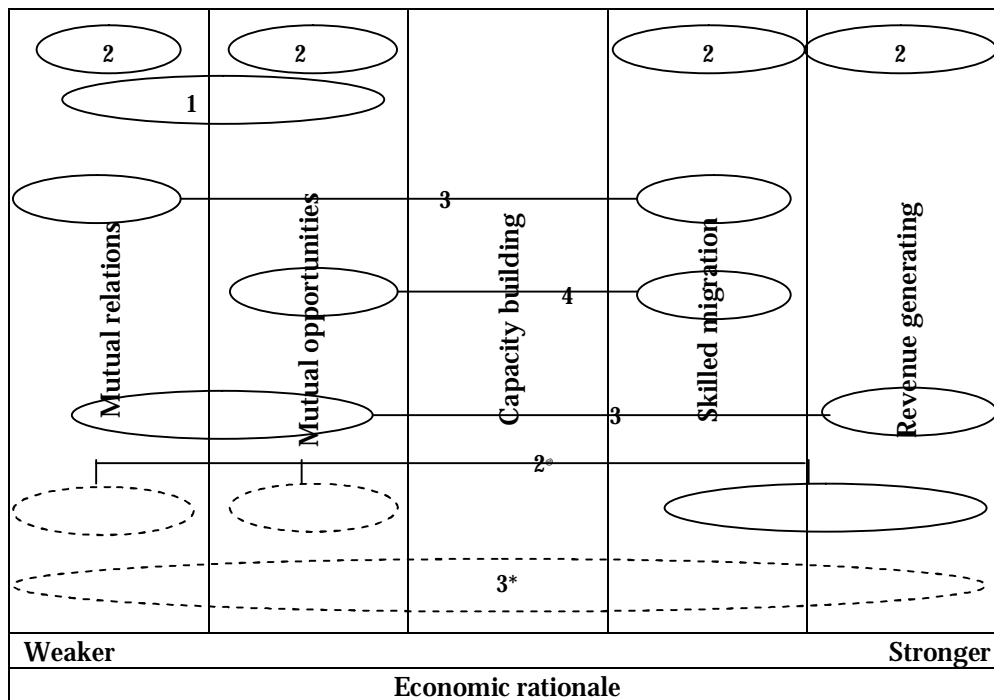
*: three cases combine capacity building with one or more of the other goals

⊚: two cases combining skilled migration and revenue generating with either mutual understading or mutual opportunities

The role of the different types of participants (administration and management, academic staff, students and support staff) varies amongst the cases. Relatively little was reported on the different types of staff, which was somewhat unexpected particularly for the academic staff, as it is generally understood that internationalisation is fed through international (research) contacts of academic staff. As mentioned in section 6.1.2.2 there might be several reasons for the dearth of reporting on academic staff. It could already be a very common activity, not considered to be worth reporting, or not centrally registered, making it impossible to report. Or it could also be that this activity is not undertaken by the cases not reporting on it. For the 13 cases that did report on involvement of their academic staff, it can be said that the majority (eight) report an active or increasing involvement of their academic staff.

Looking at the role of students, for which much more data is available, it is also apparent that this role varies considerably amongst the cases. The differences between the percentages of incoming exchange students, as well as the differences between foreign degree students, are large. Gamma Au 2 has the highest percentage of incoming exchange students with 8,8%, while Gamma No with 0,02% has the lowest percentage. Delta Au 2 has the highest percentage of

foreign degree students (55,8%); Delta Pt scores the lowest, as it considers its percentage of foreign degree students to be negligible.

The main conclusion on the social structure of the cases is that it seems that internationalisation is increasingly becoming part of this social structure. Particularly the establishment of international offices (or similar support structures) plays a role. Twenty-nine cases reported such an office, while Epsilon No reported that having an international office would not make sense for them, in their view, as they are only a very small institution.

Finally, four main models of internationalisation activities were perceived amongst the cases. The models represent cases with the same or very similar activities present at their organisations and range from more to fewer activities undertaken by a case. The models are summarised in Figure 6.4. The two most popular models appear to be the basic and comprehensive model, as both have eight cases each.

On the whole, many different responses are visible amongst the cases, differing within countries and similar types of cases, making it interesting to see if these different responses can be connected to other internal and external factors of the cases. This analysis follows in the next section and in section 6.4.

Figure 6.4: Main models of activities (number of cases between brackets)

Basic+ model (4)

Joint/double degree programmes

Language activities[1]   Student Exchange   Foreign degree students

Staff mobility programmes*

Basic model (8)

[1]: these activities are only taken up by some of the eight cases with a basic model

Comprehensive+ model (5)

Other activities[2]

Joint/double degree programmes   Staff mobility programmes[3,4]   Internationalised curricula[3]

Language activities   Student Exchange   Foreign degree students

Work/study abroad[3]   **Comprehensive model (8)**   Cross cultural training[3]

[2]: e.g. visiting lecturers, changes in the teaching/learning process; [3]: these activities are only taken up by some of the cases with a comprehensive model;
[4]: Staff mobility programmes are taken up by two of the cases with a comprehensive+ model.

6.2   Links between elements of the organisation

Having set the stage with analyses per variable, now the possible connections between these variables can be analysed. This part of the analysis is helpful in answering the fourth research question:
What internal factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation?

With the help of the different groups of cases identified for each of the variables in the previous sections, connections between the different variables (elements of

the organisation) are sought. According to Scott's model presented in chapter 3, all variables are likely to be somehow connected to each other.

Figure 6.5: Organisational model (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 17, adapted from Leavitt, 1965: 1145)

Environment

Organisation

Social structure

Technology

Goals
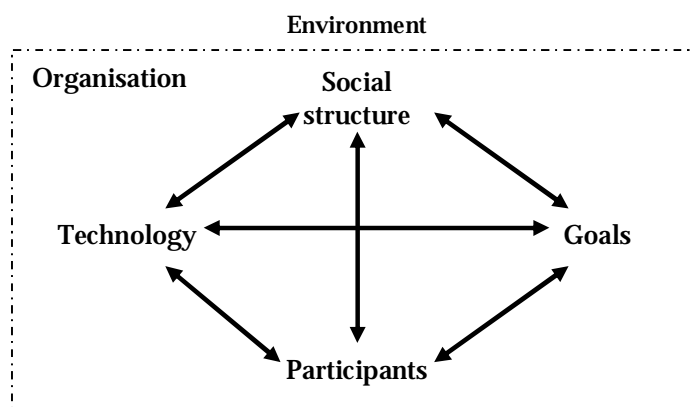
Participants

First, we analyse the connections between goals and the other elements of the organisation, followed by the connections between participants and other elements and finally, the remaining connections between activities and social structure.

6.2.1 Connecting goals to other variables

Section 6.1.1.6 identified ten models of cases with similar (combinations of) goals concerning internationalisation. In this section analyses whether these different models have a connection with one or more of the groups concerning the other elements of the organisation (participants, social structure, and activities) identified in the previous sections. First we analyse the connection with participants, followed by the connection with social structure, and finally with activities.

6.2.1.1 Connecting goals and participants

As mentioned in section 6.1.2, little was reported on the role of participants other than students. Therefore, students play a central role in the analysis of connections between goals and participants. Both types of incoming students (foreign degree students and incoming exchange students) are further analysed in connection to the goals of the cases. Section 6.1.2.3 divided the cases in four groups with relation to the percentage of foreign degree students as well as percentage of incoming exchange students within a case.

Table 6.18: Goals and percentage foreign degree students (N=27)

	Percentage foreign degree students			
Goals	**High**	**Average**	**Low**	**Very low**
MR	Delta Nl	Alpha Gr		
MR+MO=MU		Beta Pt		
MO	Beta D	Alpha Au		Gamma No Gamma Au 1 Delta Pt
Combinations with CB		Beta Gr 1 Epsilon UK	Alpha No	
MR, SM			Beta Gr 2 Gamma Nl	Beta No
MO, SM	Delta Au 1 Beta Nl		Alpha Pt	Delta No
MO, MR, RG	Delta Au 2 Delta D			Epsilon No
MU or MO, SM, RG	Epsilon Nl	Alpha Nl		
SM	Gamma Au 2 Gamma D			
RG	Alpha UK Gamma UK			

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Beginning with the connection between foreign degree students and goals, a few things stand out in Table 6.18. It seems that on the whole, the more economically oriented cases mostly have a higher percentage of foreign degree students than the less economically oriented cases. This seems logical as cases with such goals explicitly try to recruit these types of students. More than half (3 of 5) with mutual opportunities as a goal score very low on the percentage of foreign degree students. This also seems rather logical as cases having one of the types of mutual understanding goals are primarily interested in student mobility programmes, and not necessarily in attracting foreign degree students (see also section 5.2.1.2). Looking at the percentages of incoming exchange students for these cases, Gamma No and Delta Pt are amongst the lowest scoring cases; the percentage of foreign degree students and incoming exchange students is almost similar (see Table 6.10). Gamma Au 1 is indeed in the top 10 of the cases scoring highest on incoming exchange students. Interestingly, one of the two cases with a mutual relations goal scores high on its percentage of foreign degree students; Delta Nl also scores relatively high on its percentage of incoming exchange students.

The three cases combining with capacity building show an average or low score. As this group is still very varied in their goals, an explanation for this finding is difficult to provide.

Cases with mutual opportunities and skilled migration goals show a varied picture on the scores of foreign degree students within their institutions, while the three cases with mutual relations and skilled migration all score low or very low. From their mutual understanding goal a relatively low score on foreign degree students can be explained, though as these cases also show an interest in skilled migration, their relatively low score was less expected. Two of the three cases with mutual opportunities and relations and revenue generating goals score high on the number of foreign degree students. Epsilon No is a fairly small institution and perhaps there the mutual understanding part of their goal has more influence than the revenue generating goal. The high scores of the other two institutions might be explained by the influence of the revenue generating part of their goals in internationalisation.

Overall, it seems there is a connection between having a more economically oriented generating goal (either combined, such as Alpha Nl en Epsilon Nl, or 'pure') and the relative number of foreign degree students within a case. The table also indicates that their might be a (negative) connection between a mutual opportunities goal and the relative number of foreign degree students within a case, although this connection is not as clear as the connection between a more economically oriented goal and the relative number of foreign degree students.

Table 6.19 shows a varied picture. As expected, the few cases with a mutual relations or mutual understanding goal (two are represented in Table 6.19, as the percentage of incoming exchange students for Alpha Gr is not available) have a relatively high percentage of incoming exchange students. That these cases are active in this area is not surprising considering their goal. However, it seems that having a mutual opportunities goal does not necessarily coincide with a high percentage of incoming exchange students, as three of the cases with this goal score relatively low on the percentage of incoming exchange students.

If the mutual opportunities goal is combined with a skilled migration goal, it seems some connection with incoming exchange students is present, as three of the four cases in this model score very high or high on the percentage of incoming exchange students. For the other models, no connection between (combination of) goals and percentage of incoming exchange students seems visible.

Table 6.19: Goals and percentage incoming exchange students (N=25)

Goals	Percentage incoming exchange students			
	Very high	High	Average	Low
MR		Delta Nl		
MR+MO=MU		Beta Pt		
MO		Gamma Au 1	Alpha Au Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2	Beta D Gamma No Delta Pt
Combinations with CB		Alpha No		
MO, SM	Beta Nl	Delta Au 1 Alpha Pt		Delta No
MR, SM			Beta No	Gamma Nl
MO, MR, RG		Delta Au 2	Delta D	Epsilon No
MU or MO, SM, RG	Epsilon NL	Alpha Nl		
SM	Gamma Au 2	Gamma D		
RG		Alpha UK	Gamma UK	

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.2.1.2   Connecting goals and social structure

Section 6.1.3 divided the cases in three groups related to the social structure.
In analysing the possible connection between goals and social structure, it turned out that not many (nine) cases could be used in the analysis, as explained in section 6.1.3.4. As for most of the models only one case is present in Table 6.20; not much can be said about the connections between the goals of a case and the social structure of the organisation concerning internationalisation.

Table 6.20: Goals and social structure (N=9)

	Social structure		
Goals	**Central/systematic**	**Central/unknown**	**Unknown/systematic**
MR	Delta Nl		
MR+MO=MU			
MO	Alpha Au	Gamma No	
Combinations with CB	Alpha No		
MR, SM		Beta Gr 2	
MO, SM			Beta Nl
MO, MR, RG		Delta D	
MU or MO, SM, RG		Alpha Nl	
SM			
RG		Alpha UK	

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

6.2.1.3   Connecting goals and activities

Section 6.1.4.1 identified four main models of cases undertaking similar activities. The following table shows which (combination of) goal(s) in internationalisation these cases have.

One thing that stands out in Table 6.21 is that the more economically oriented cases (the last three rows) appear to combine many activities. Perhaps these cases seek to attract many foreign degree students (see also above) by offering a large number of internationally oriented activities. Models of goals that are less economically oriented show a more varied picture with cases with mutual opportunities and the combined models of mutual relations and mutual opportunities, mutual relations and revenue generating having one of the two basic models of activities, while cases with mutual relations and a combination of mutual opportunities and skilled migration have one of the two comprehensive models of activities.

Table 6.21: Goals and Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching (N=25)

	Models of activities			
Goals	**Basic**	**Basic+**	**Comprehensive**	**Comprehensive+**
MR				Alpha Gr Delta Nl
MO	Alpha Au Beta D Gamma No	Gamma Au 1 Delta Pt		
MR+MO=MU			Beta Pt	
Combinations with CB	Beta Gr 1			Alpha No
MO, SM			Alpha Pt Beta Nl Delta Au 1	Delta No
MR,SM	Beta No	Gamma Nl		Beta Gr 2
MO, MR, RG	Delta D Epsilon No	Delta Au 2		
MU or MO, SM, RG			Alpha Nl Epsilon Nl	
SM	Gamma D		Gamma Au 2	
RG			Alpha UK	

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Reviewing the connections of the goals of the cases with other elements of the organisation (participants, social structure, and activities), it is remarkable that the three models most economically oriented seem to have similar connections with both foreign degree students and activities. The picture is more varied for the cases with models of goals that are less economically oriented.

6.2.2   Connecting participants to other variables

Little was reported on the role of participants other than students. Therefore, the role of students is central in the analysis of connections between goals and participants. Both types of incoming students (foreign degree student and incoming exchange students) are further analysed in connection to the goals of the cases.

Section 6.1.2.3 divided the cases in four groups related to the percentage of foreign degree students as well as percentage of incoming exchange students within a case. This section analyses whether the four groups of both types of

students have a relation with one or more of the other groups concerning the other elements of the organisation identified in the previous sections. The possible relation between students and the goals of the cases concerning internationalisation were discussed in section 6.2.1.1.

6.2.2.1   Connecting participants and social structure

Section 6.1.3 divided the cases three groups related to the social structure.

Table 6.22: Percentage foreign degree students and social structure (N=9)

		Social structure		
		Central/ systematic	Central/ unknown	Unknown/ systematic
Percentage foreign degree students	**High**	Delta Nl	Alpha UK Delta D	Beta Nl
	Average	Alpha Au	Alpha Nl	
	Low	Alpha No	Beta Gr 2	
	Very Low		Gamma No	

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2% , Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

The picture in Table 6.22 is highly varied. There does not seem to be a connection between the percentage of foreign degree students of a case and its social structure. It is interesting to see that even with cases that have a relatively high number of foreign degree students, internationalisation does not necessarily play a central and/or systematic role in the social structure, as one would think accommodating many foreign degree students would put specific demands on the organisation and its social structure.

Table 6.23: Percentage incoming exchange students and social structure (N=8)

		Social structure		
		Central/ systematic	Central/ unknown	Unknown/ systematic
Percentage incoming exchange students	**Very High**			Beta Nl
	High	Delta Nl Alpha No	Alpha UK Alpha Nl	
	Average	Alpha Au	Delta D	
	Low		Gamma No	

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3% , Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

Again, we find a varied picture in Table 6.23 and no connection between the percentage of incoming exchange students and the social structure of the cases. It is again interesting to see that a high number of incoming exchange students

apparently does not have to coincide with a central and/or systematic role of internationalisation in the social structure.

6.2.2.2   Connecting participants and activities

Table 6.24: Percentage foreign degree students and academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) (N=23)

		Models of activities			
		Basic	Basic+	Comprehensive	Comprehensive+
Percentage foreign degree students	High	Beta D Gamma D Delta D	Delta Au 2	Beta Nl Delta Au 1 Alpha UK Gamma Au 2 Epsilon Nl	Delta Nl
	Average	Alpha Au Beta Gr 1		Alpha Nl Beta Pt	Alpha Gr
	Low		Gamma Nl	Alpha Pt	Beta Gr 2 Alpha No
	Very Low	Beta No Gamma No Epsilon No	Gamma Au 1		Delta No

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Examining Table 6.24 we find that the cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students do not seem to undertake many different types of activities. As these cases have only few foreign degree students, they might not see a need to offer many activities concerning internationalisation; it may also be that having fewer activities concerning internationalisation makes these cases less attractive for foreign degree students. It also seem that cases with a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students tend to undertake more internationalisation activities, although this connection is not very clear based on Table 6.24. Other than this, it seems there is no connection between the percentage of foreign degree students within the cases and the activities these cases undertake. Cases with similar activities have different percentages of foreign degree students, and cases with similar percentages of foreign degree students undertake different types of activities.

Table 6.25: Percentage incoming exchange students and activities (N=22)

		Models of activities			
		Basic	Basic+	Compre hensive	Compre hensive+
Percentage incoming exchange students	Very high			Beta Nl Gamma Au 2 Epsilon Nl	
	High	Gamma D	Gamma Au 1 Delta Au 2	Alpha Pt Alpha Nl Delta Au 1 Alpha UK Beta Pt	Alpha No Delta Nl
	Average	Alpha Au Beta No Delta D			
	Low	Beta D Gamma No Epsilon No	Gamma Nl Delta Pt		Delta No

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

Table 6.25 shows that the majority of the cases scoring average or low on the percentage of incoming exchange students undertake fewer activities than the majority of cases scoring high or very high on the percentage of incoming exchange students. Perhaps cases with fewer incoming exchange students do not see a need to offer many activities concerning internationalisation, but it might also be that as these cases do not offer many of these types of activities, they are less attractive for these students.

6.2.3   Connecting activities and social structure

The final two elements of the organisation analysed in their relation to each other are activities and social structure. Section 6.1.4.1 identified four main groupings of cases concerning their internationalisation activities. Section 6.1.3 divided the cases in three groups related to the social structure.

A few (nine) cases are represented in Table 6.26. Not much can be said about the connection between social structure and activities, as the picture in Table 6.26 is varied. One thing that can be remarked is that two of the cases that have a relatively broad range of activities, the comprehensive+ model, appear to have a social structure in which internationalisation plays a central and systematic role, as expected with cases that have such a broad range of activities. The majority of the cases in the other models of activities seem to also have a central approach, but it is unknown whether their approach is systematic or ad-hoc.

Table 6.26: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and Social structure (N=9)

		Social structure		
		Central/ systematic	Central/ unknown	Unknown/ systematic
Models of activities	**Basic**	Alpha Au	Gamma No Delta D	
	Basic+			
	Comprehensive		Alpha Nl Alpha UK	Beta Nl
	Comprehensive+	Alpha No Delta Nl	Beta Gr 2	

6.2.4   Internal factors related to responses to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation

Having analysed the possible connections between the different elements of the organisation an answer can be formulated to the fourth research question:
What internal factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation?

To answer this question the connections found in the previous sections have been summarised in Table 6.27. The connections have been scaled from strong (meaning that a clear connection for all or most of the different models or groupings of variables involved is visible) to medium (meaning that such a connection is visible for some of the groupings involved) and weak (meaning that for only one or two of the groupings such a connection is visible). For analysis of connections based on six or less cases, it is not possible to say anything reliable or valid about these connections. As mentioned in section 6.1.2, little was reported on the role of participants other than students. Therefore, in the analysis of connections between goals and participants, only the role of (two types of incoming) students was taken into account.

Table 6.27: Overview of connections between elements of the organisation

Connection	Strong	Medium	Weak	Unclear connection
Goals-FD students		X[22]		
Goals-Exchange students			X[23]	
Goals-Social structure				X
Goals-Activities		X[24]		
FD students-Social structure				X
Exchange students-Social structure				X
FD students-Activities			X[25]	
Exchange students-Activities		X[26]		
Activities-Social structure			X[27]	

As Table 6.27 shows, no clear and strong connections were found amongst the connections between the different elements. The strongest connections were found between goals and the percentage of foreign degree students, goals and activities, and activities and the percentage of incoming exchange students. One other connection with goals was also found as well as two other connections with activities.

According to these statistics, there is a connection between having a more economically oriented goal and the relative number of foreign degree students. Cases with a skilled migration and/or revenue generating goal consider recruiting foreign degree students, though for different reasons, as one of their policy instruments (see chapter 5). The majority of cases having these more economically oriented goals, combined with a relative high percentage of foreign degree students, are from countries (four cases from the UK and the Netherlands) where

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[22] Based on economically oriented cases showing a connection with a high percentage of foreign degree students and on MO cases showing a connection with low/very low percentages of foreign degree students.

[23] Based on six cases with mutual opportunities scoring low or very low on the percentage of incoming exchange students and three of four cases in the model combining MO with skilled migration scoring very high or high on percentage of incoming exchange students.

[24] Based on the three more economically oriented cases appearing to combine many activities. And model with less economically oriented goals showing some connections, though not in a similar direction.

[25] Based on cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students, not undertaking many different types of activities. And a tendency amongst cases with a high percentage to undertake more activities.

[26] Based on the majority of the cases scoring average or low on the percentage of incoming exchange students undertaking fewer activities than the majority of cases scoring high or very high on the percentage of incoming exchange students.

[27] Based on two of the cases with comprehensive+ model, appearing to have a social structure with a central and systematic role.

it is allowed to charge higher fees to foreign degree students. Furthermore, these more economically oriented goals also appear to have a connection with activities, as this kind of goal seems to combine many different activities. As such, the relationship between foreign degree students and activities is considered weak, as the connection in Table 6.24 was not very clear on this point. The previous is summarised in Figure 6.6.

Figure 6.6: Connections relating to economically oriented goals
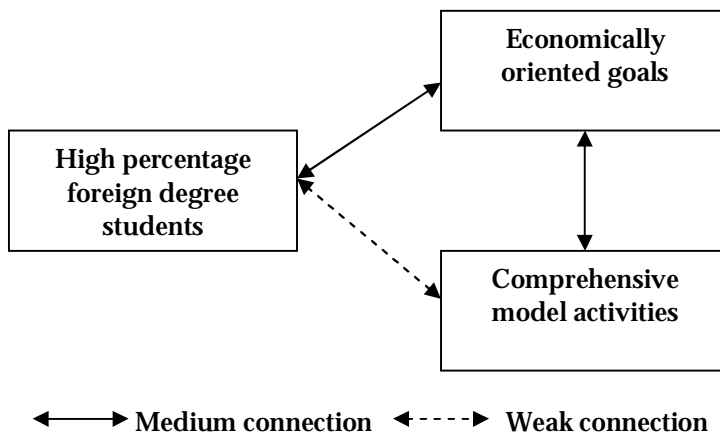
There are also indications that there might be a (negative) connection between having a mutual opportunities goal and the relative percentage of foreign degree students within a case, although this connection is not as clear as the connection between the cases with a more economically oriented goal and the relative number of foreign degree students. Looking back to the general policy instruments and rationales of the mutual understanding goal on which the mutual opportunities goal is based (see chapter 5), this goal is less explicit in its economic drive than the skilled migration and revenue generating goals and its main policy instrument is mobility programmes, not recruiting full fee paying students.

A weak connection is visible between the goals of the institutions and the percentage of incoming exchange students. What is particularly noteworthy about this connection is that a mutual opportunities goal seems to connect to having a relatively low percentage of incoming exchange students. This is somewhat unexpected as mobility programmes are the main policy instrument for institutions with this goal. Perhaps an extra interest in attracting highly skilled people (part of the skilled migration goal) is needed to really work on attracting incoming exchange students, as the analysis seems to indicate. These students may also be perceived as of value to future (PhD) research, as they may stay to continue their studies and research, making it more attractive to bring in these exchange students.

The connection between goals and incoming exchange students might be weak, but the connection between incoming exchange students and activities seems to be medium. Cases that have a relatively low percentage of incoming exchange students do not undertake many different activities concerning internationalisation, while cases with a relatively high percentage of incoming exchange students do. Perhaps a broad offer of activities attracts incoming exchange students, which would imply a more pro-active approach of the cases, or having many exchange students leads to a broad offer of activities, implying a more reactive approach of the cases.

The answer to the fourth research question is thus that goal setting, particularly more economically oriented goals, as an internal factor seems to have a clear connection to other internal factors, namely the (attraction of, and thus the) percentage of foreign degree students, the number of activities concerning internationalisation, and a certain connection with incoming exchange students. The activities themselves also are an important internal factor, as these are connected to not only goals, but also incoming exchange students, foreign degree students, and activities. This is visualised in Figure 6.7.

Figure 6.7: Connections between elements of the organisation
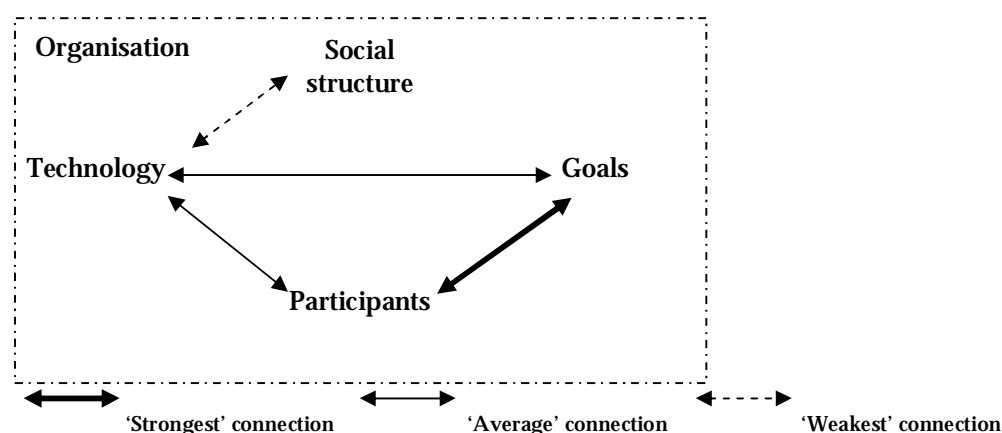
6.3   Pillars in practice

Section 3.2, where institutional theory was discussed, distinguished three analytical elements, the regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars that make up or support institutions (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 51). These pillars were operationalised in section 5.1, showing an overlap between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar when applied to higher education. Scott also acknowledges that in reality the distinction between the pillars is not always that strict (Ibid.: 69-70).

6.3.1   Regulative pillar

Sections 3.2 and 5.1.1 outlined the various aspects of the regulative pillar with regard to higher education and particularly the empirical research of this study. Following the structure of operationalisation in section 5.1.1, first law, regulations, and policies are discussed, with a distinction between national law, regulations, and policies and European and international laws, regulations, and policies (and similar developments; developments as some initiatives are not laid down in official policies or eventually need to be laid down in national policies and regulations). This is followed by a section on (the regulative aspects of) quality assurance and finally some comments on funding in relation to internationalisation.

6.3.1.1   Laws, regulation and policies

National level

Part of the HEIGLO-project comprised an extensive overview of laws, regulations, and policies for internationalisation in higher education in the seven countries in the study (see (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004). The comparison of the outcomes per country shows the relevance of certain of these policies when studying internationalisation, as it is argued that history and geographical location are powerful influences on national policies for internationalisation in higher education. These policies show many connections along dimensions of other areas of politics and social, cultural, and economic policy. Today, these historical, geographical, political, social and cultural influences are still visible in higher education policies and practices. However, with increasing globalisation and internationalisation, more and more information between all seven countries in this study is frequently exchanged.

The study revealed that in most of the seven countries national policies for internationalisation in higher education are increasingly based on international competition in higher education. Nevertheless, cooperation in these national policies is also present. Competing and cooperating often go hand in hand. As explained in section 2.3.2, cooperation and competition can both be responses to internationalisation. The policies to improve competitiveness are diverse. On the one hand are policies directed at improving the competitiveness of the national higher education system itself. On the other hand are policies in which strong universities and colleges are seen as major contributors to successful performance of the national economy as a whole. The issue of cooperation-competition is further addressed in section 6.3.2.1.

It is interesting to see what the cases involved in this study think of and how they tend to respond to the general tendencies in national laws, regulation, and policies. Ambivalent or mixed feelings, might be the best words to describe the descriptions for many (11) of the cases; parts of policies are considered positively by cases and other parts might be more negatively appreciated. Four cases appear to be mainly critical, while two seem to be mainly positive. For four (Norwegian)

cases it is reported that national laws, regulations, and policies influence them, without further qualifying these policies. On the whole, though, the actual influence of national policies and regulations on HEIs with regard to internationalisation can be questioned looking at the information in the case studies.

An example of the mixed feelings in several of the cases is Delta Au 2, which is rather active in the field of internationalisation and attracts a high number of foreign students,

> [t]he management of the university found several problems in current legislation: the rector is responsible for institutional quality, but the examination board (*Prüfungssenat*) is more or less free in deciding upon new entrants; tuition fees should be a new form to generate revenues, but student representatives have a strong stake in deciding upon their use; universities of art and music have to charge the same tuition fee as research universities, even if they have a different student/teacher ration, which is essential for teaching their topics; and they are forced to compete with respect to quality, but are not allowed to compete economically by charging realistic tuition fees.

At Beta Gr 1, mixed thoughts on national policies are expressed, with a special focus on setting up joint degrees. "Generally joint degrees are seen as a positive development and as enhancing the qualifications of students… Currently the development of joint degrees is hampered by the 'lacunae' of the legal framework". Even when a foreign HEI and Beta 1 Gr agree on a joint degree, bureaucracy in the form of administrative personnel and the state prevent a joint degree from being delivered to the students.
At Beta Nl some mixed thoughts about Dutch policies are also expressed.

> Although national policy for internationalisation might be of support to the thinking at Beta Nl, it is also felt by some that national regulations are holding back international developments at the Beta Nl, and that despite of what is being said, national policy is not supporting internationalisation. Furthermore, a few respondents at central level state that the government hardly communicates with the HEIs about the policy, and choices are made, for example in specific countries on which the marketing policy is aimed, which are not supported.

Most of the Portuguese cases also portray a mixed view, as at the time of data collection for this study, they are all waiting for their government to take a final decision on a proposed change in the law on higher education following the Bologna Declaration. As a quote from a senior leader of Gamma Pt 2 shows:

> the new law will be published [...] but we still do not know very well how this new law will be. [...] The institutions are dynamic, they prepare their things according to what is under discussion, that may well not be what is going to be decided. So, Bologna is perfectly assumed, discussed [inside the institution], we only say one thing [to government] 'please take a decision, so we can

act!' [...] Anyway, we are prepared for Bologna, we have our curricula prepared and ready to be put in place, we are just waiting for someone to tell us how it is.

At Gamma Pt 2 it is also argued that,

until now the Portuguese law for the polytechnics does not allow these higher education institutions to award master degrees. As the new law is about to be passed, polytechnics are expecting to finally have the opportunity to award this degree and efforts are being made in Gamma Pt 2 to offer this type of programmes.

A few (four) cases take a more negative stand towards their national laws, regulations and policies. A respondent at Alpha UK sees a problem in the UK government ignoring changes in Europe, as for example with the length of degrees being different from the rest of Europe. Alpha UK also states that there are no major problems with visas, although they do take steps to facilitate things for students from partner institutions. Perhaps UK HEIs are more moderate in their comments as early as 1999 an initiative was taken by the Prime Minister to relax visa restrictions and encourage HEIs to increase the number of international students. The problems with visas are also raised by some Dutch cases (Alpha Nl, Epsilon Nl). At Gamma Nl, most respondents are not positive about Dutch policies aimed at internationalisation in higher education, particularly when it comes to the Bologna process.

To start, the position of the educational programmes of Dutch *hogescholen* in the international field of higher education is unclear, as stated by the president of Gamma Nl. This is mainly due to two reasons, according to the president. First, in the Netherlands the denotation 'of Science' and 'of Arts' for bachelor or master programmes may only be used for academically oriented programmes and not for the former four-year programmes offered by the *hogescholen*. This makes it more difficult to explain to foreigners the status and level of the programmes offered. Second, the official translation of *hogescholen* to Universities of Professional Education also makes it somewhat difficult to explain the status and level of the programmes offered abroad, as it is said that professional education is often associated with vocational training. However, hogescholen are not involved in vocational training [...] Another major point of discussion raised by some respondents at Gamma Nl, is the decision to, in principle, not publicly fund master programmes offered by *hogescholen*, whereas master programmes offered by universities are publicly funded.

Delta Nl criticises that it is unable to offer PhD degrees. Delta Nl has therefore resorted to internationalisation as a way around these constraints in national laws and regulations. "To be able to offer these (PhD) degrees, they had to seek foreign (English) partners, which led to the so-called u-turn-constructions. The master-degrees were awarded through these English partners".

Gamma Au 2 and Epsilon No are mainly positive about the laws, regulations, and policies concerning internationalisation in their countries, reporting that these

regulatory aspects have provided opportunities and/or eased changes within these cases. For example, at Gamma Au 2

> [e]specially the Bologna process [which led to an amendment of the Act on University Studies] was used as an opportunity and a tool to perform some substantial changes. Change is used to lever further change. At Gamma Au 2, this process was used to overcome the concept of too rigidly separated study programs and to create a new concept of an integrated school.

For four Norwegian cases (Alpha, Beta, Gamma, and Delta) it can be said that national laws, regulations, and policies influence work on internationalisation; these cases do not report on their positive or negative thoughts on these regulative aspects, but it is reported that the Quality Reform, which is connected to the national internationalisation policy, is high on the agenda and of influence to the work of the cases.

Table 6.28: Perceptions on national laws, regulations and policies (N=21)

Influential	Mainly positive	Mixed	Mainly critique
Alpha No	Gamma Au 2	Alpha Nl	Alpha UK
Beta No	Epsilon No	Alpha Gr	Gamma Nl
Gamma No		Alpha Pt	Delta Nl
Delta No		Beta Gr 1	Delta Pt
		Beta Pt	
		Gamma Au 1	
		Gamma Pt 1	
		Gamma Pt 2	
		Beta Nl	
		Delta Au 2	
		Epsilon Nl	

Looking at the summary in Table 6.28, it stands out that four of the five Norwegian cases seem to consider national laws, regulation, and policies influential. It also stands out that none of the German cases is represented, which may be due to several reasons. It could be that in Germany it is natural that national laws, regulations, or policies do or do not play a role within the cases and is therefore not found worth reporting on. For the other countries involved in the study, the picture is varied, which is also the case for the different types of institutions in this study.

European and international level
Regarding European and other international developments in the area of the regulative pillar, the main issue amongst the cases appears to be the Bologna process. Other issues raised by the cases are the EU programmes for education and research and the possible influence of GATS on higher education.

The Bologna process is an important example of a European development which has been of (strong) influence on national higher education (internationalisation) policies of the countries in this study. For some respondents the Bologna process has even become more a domestic than European affair. For example, a German respondent argued that: "Bologna has nothing to do with internationalisation, it is about national reform". There are also cases that perceive the introduction of bachelor and master programmes as an incentive for internationalisation in the institutions, as for example Alpha Nl. "The bachelor-master-system does not only open up to the European market for higher education, but also the world market".

Most cases in Austria, Germany, Norway, the Netherlands, and the UK are working on the follow up of the Bologna Declaration, though their actual responses and thoughts about the declaration vary. These cases (10 in total, see table below) are, for example, changing all or some of their programmes to a two tier study structure or introducing ECTS, but may also have some doubts about certain parts of the follow up of the Bologna Declaration or doubt within certain parts of the cases, often depending on the disciplinary field. To give some examples: Alpha Au

> has restructured only some of the programmes as bachelor/master. The opinions about the system differ very much across faculties and also across and inside individual subjects. One reason for the reluctance was given by a faculty member stating that the necessity to offer qualifying (*berufsqualifizierende Studiengänge*) bachelor degrees (which means that with the degree the graduate receives a full qualification for a particular job or profession), causes confusion: it is unclear what the legislator wants.

At Beta Pt, as at several of the other Portuguese cases, the central level is waiting for a change in the national legal framework to continue with the Bologna process. Meanwhile, "as there is no decision from the political level about the two-tier structure, the Faculties of Institution Beta Pt present different reactions according to the field of study."
In Greece "there has been a collective resistance on behalf of academics to the Bologna process". As can be read in the case study report of Alpha Gr, academics feel that the Bologna Declaration compromises certain wide spread values amongst the academics. This is further explained:

> Academics have exhibited a high degree of agency, resisted institutional pressures to the implementation of the proposed evaluation process and have done so publicly. Such a response can be related to:
> - Some conflict of interest between academics and the Ministry of Education. In this instance, the Ministry of Education's interest, in alignment with the EU, was the promotion of the European Higher Education Area. By contrast, the allegiance of academics lies primarily with their constituencies.

- The values of academics, who object to an evaluation process diverging from the core value of academic freedom and limiting their authority to control the content of curricula.

Half of the cases appear to be mainly positive about the Bologna process. For example, Gamma Au 2 has changed all programmes to the new structure in one go. At Beta Nl, "all programmes, except for Medicine, have been changed to bachelor and master programmes very quickly". Gamma UK has often discussed the Bologna Declaration in its academic board and has introduced ECTS. Interestingly, two Dutch cases portray a fear of 'losing' their students after graduating their bachelor programme, see a solution in attracting more international students, and are thus mainly positive about the follow up of the Bologna Declaration. As stated in the case study report of Alpha Nl,

the University needs to consider the option that many students could leave Alpha Nl after obtaining a bachelor degree. If Alpha Nl wants to maintain its level of master programmes, which is considered a necessity for a research-intensive university, it needs to compensate for this outflow of students by attracting bachelor students from other universities, the *hogescholen (universities of professional education)*, working people returning for a master degree and attracting foreign students.

The case study report of Beta Nl states that

it is felt that the new system brings both new chances and threats. At Beta Nl it is expected that, in the end, students will leave after graduating for their bachelor programme. This can be a threat, as Beta Nl does not want to become a 'bachelor-university'. To get enough master students to Beta Nl, recruiting foreign students is necessary, as there are not sufficient potential students in the region.

For two cases the Bologna Declaration does not appear to be an issue on the agenda, while none of the cases seem to be mainly critical of the Bologna process.

Table 6.29: Bologna process (N=27) [28]

Mainly positive	Mixed	Neutral
Alpha Nl	Alpha Gr	Gamma No
Alpha No	Alpha Au	Epsilon UK
Alpha UK	Alpha Pt	
Beta Nl	Beta Gr	
Beta No	Beta Pt	
Gamma Au 1	Beta Gr 2	
Gamma Au 2	Gamma Nl	
Gamma UK	Gamma Pt 1	
Delta D	Gamma Pt 2	
Delta Nl	Delta Au 1	
Delta No		
Delta Au 2		
Delta Pt		
Epsilon Nl		
Epsilon No		

If Epsilon Nl and Epsilon No, both rather specialised cases, are added to the Delta cases, almost half (seven) of the group of mainly positive cases is a rather specialised case.

Furthermore, the majority of the Dutch cases (four of five) are mainly positive, while the majority of the Portuguese cases (four of six) show a mixed picture. This might be explained be the fact that the Netherlands was one of the first countries to implement the Bologna Declaration within its national legal framework, while in Portugal HEIs are still waiting for action by the government.

Continuing with the perceptions of the cases on EU programmes for both education and research, it is clear that many cases have a (strong) interest in these programmes (as shown by the activities of the cases on education and research, see for example 0). Many cases participate in the programmes for mobility and research. For some cases, such as Gamma Pt 2, "the international profile of the institution can basically be characterised by its participation in the EU education and training programmes (namely the SOCRATES/ERASMUS and the LEONARDO DA VINCI)…".

The overall perception of the cases of the influence of the EU programmes on their own institutions is addressed in little over half (17) of the 30 case study reports. Ten of the thirty cases perceive EU programmes influential to their institutions, as can be read in for example the case study report of Alpha No:

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[28] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive , as is fore example shown by Alpha UK.

It is fair to say that establishment of EU programmes is perceived as important regulative forces at Alpha No. But this reframing must be compared to Alpha No's tradition of relating to Europe and the rest of the world. Alpha No had a comparably early focus on the importance of attracting international scholars […]

At Beta Nl, the EU programmes are considered an impulse to the internationalisation in the institution. Some cases also point out the more general influence of the EU programmes on higher education and research in Europe. As stated in the case study report of Epsilon Nl

The framework programmes have, furthermore, stimulated cooperation in research in Europe and increased the knowledge on the operations and research in other research groups in Europe, as one director states. This has also led to a better coordination of research activities in Europe between the groups involved.

A few cases (three) also argue that participating in EU programmes not only may lead to extra funds, but also costs. In the UK, opinions on EU programmes seem to be more sceptical. Not only the financial viability was questioned, but the bureaucracy involved was also criticised. Nevertheless, one of these same English cases also reports that the EU programmes have helped increase their funding, which is also reported by one of the Portuguese cases.

One case reports that the EU programmes are perceived to have raised the profile of the institution.

Finally, three cases seem to simply participate in EU programmes without further reporting on this subject.

Table 6.30: Perceptions on EU-programmes (N=17)

Raising profile	Increase funding	Participating and stating importance/ influence	"Simply" participating	Costs involved
Gamma UK	Alpha Pt Alpha UK	Alpha No Beta Gr 1 Beta Nl Beta Pt Beta No Gamma Au 2 Gamma Pt 2 Delta Nl Delta No Epsilon Nl	Alpha Gr Delta Au 2 Beta Gr 2	Alpha Au Alpha UK Beta Nl

Table 6.30 highlights that four of the five Beta cases in this study perceive the EU-programmes to be influential, while the fifth one also participates in these

programmes. Perhaps the EU programmes offer these relatively young institutions opportunities, such as improving their (international) reputation, that are of lesser interest to older institutions, such as the Alpha cases. The majority of these Alpha cases appear to be mainly interested in the funding and costs involved with EU programmes; perhaps because they have already built their reputation over the years. For the other types of cases, the picture is varied.

In terms of countries, it stands out that for the majority of the Dutch and Norwegian cases it is reported that EU programmes are influential. For the other countries, the picture is varied.

Looking at the remarks made by the cases on GATS, it is striking that only a few cases (six) have something to say about this subject. Perhaps this issue does not play a role at the other institutions or the issue might not have been addressed during the case study research.

Alpha No remarks that it tries to keep itself informed about the developments of GATS

> and is expectant with respect to the implications this might have for the university in the future. There was a certain concern that the interest of higher education has not been central up till now in the negotiations. However, it was also believed that if this was the future development of higher education, then Alpha No needed to be a part of it.

Some cases appear to be a bit fearful of what GATS might bring, for example the case study reports of Delta Nl and Gamma No:

> The respondent is afraid that with the implementation of GATS higher education will be privatised, which could endanger pure science and arts. Science will become more applied and arts could be minimised, as it does not bring high financial returns (Delta Nl)

and

"[…] the GATS negotiations are by the informants perceived as processes that, over time, might destroy vital characteristics of higher education" (Gamma No). At Alpha UK, GATS had not been broadly discussed; some informants state that it could cause enormous problems, but there could also be opportunities. In general, it was thought that distance learning or offshore campuses in London from foreign universities were unlikely to be a threat in Alpha UK's segment of the HE market. Furthermore, it is likely that these sorts of issues are addressed in the next internationalisation strategy document.

6.3.1.2   Quality assurance

The second main aspect of the regulative pillar is quality assurance. Quality in higher education is reviewed through national quality assurance mechanisms laid down in specific laws, rules, and regulations.

Quality assurance plays a part in the international activities of several of the cases. Developments in internationalisation and internationalisation in quality assurance are combined in some countries. Often, these developments can be related to the Bologna process, which is concerned with the introduction of a two tier study structure, bachelor and master programmes and harmonisation of degrees. Greater harmonisation should be of aid to institutions in ensuring compatibility of similar programmes at institutions in other countries and is in this sense related to quality assurance. This process should also help to improve credit transfer for students.

Quality assurance can also be linked to other national higher education policy developments. For example, the implementation of reforms in quality assurance in Germany took place in relation to other national higher education policies developments, introducing a new degree structure. Respondents of the German cases do not seem to agree on the value of the new degree structure, even though these changes are generally perceived to strengthen German higher education and it is said that an implicit goal of internationalisation is that of quality assurance.

In Norway quality assurance was introduced as part of "the so-called Quality Reform. This reform introduced a new degree structure (bachelor/master degrees), the ECTS and a new grading system (A-F), new commitments within quality assurance and evaluation, and a new incentive-based funding system" (Gornitzka & Stensaker, 2004: 105-107). The Quality Reform can be viewed as a potential driver for internationalisation in Norwegian higher education as the following quote from Alpha No's case study report shows: "At Alpha the understanding is that their current international activities should be understood with reference to implementation of the Quality Reform, by way of securing quality in the study programmes the students attend abroad." For some cases, such as Gamma UK, it would even be unthinkable to do international work without formal quality assurance.

Finally, a few cases (four) argue that they feel that whereas quality assurance nowadays usually is arranged through national regulations and policies, quality assurance should be taken up internationally. In the words of Alpha Nl: "Quality assurance, especially where it concerns master level programmes, should be taken up in an international fashion. Educational programmes should be measured on international standards and best international practices should be exchanged".

Table 6.31 shows that few cases have reported on their perceptions on quality assurance. Perhaps, as quality assurance is part of rules and regulations for higher education, this subject was not really addressed specifically by the cases. However, many more cases (16) reported on their perceptions on quality (see section 6.3.2.2).

Table 6.31: Perceptions on quality assurance (N=6)

Mainly positive	Mainly negative
Alpha Nl	Alpha Gr
Alpha No	
Beta Nl	
Beta Pt	
Gamma UK	

6.3.1.3   Funding and resources

Regarding funding and resources related to internationalisation and the regulative pillar, it is confirmed that internationalisation is used to obtain additional funds by many cases. For a number of cases (seven) it is clear in the case study reports that obtaining funding and resources through internationalisation are an important influence to these cases and to (expand) their work on internationalisation. For example, at Alpha Nl internationalisation is used to increase revenues (not for profit, but to break even) and maintain a sufficient number of students. In some cases a lack of funding and thus a need to increase funding, can play a role in the decision of a case to work on internationalisation. Gamma UK for example, reports that its public research funding is low and given the limitations of the institution in other ways of supplementing its income, international students were perceived as the obvious way to boost income from the government.

Additional funding is not the only reason for working on internationalisation; looking for access to certain resources such as laboratory facilities can also be influential to internationalisation in a HEI as Alpha Au mentions: "International contacts of the faculty for natural sciences, as far as 'hard sciences' are concerned, have one particular aim, the attempt to approach laboratories with equipment and specialisations not available at Alpha Au".

Funding also influences decisions at three other cases. But none of the cases makes this as clear as Alpha Gr, where it is stated that the Ministry can influence decisions of the institution through funding.

Many (10) of the cases, particularly the Portuguese, in this study expressed concerns that not enough financial resources are available for internationalisation, although some cases (three) do have resources specifically available for working on internationalisation. Cases report a lack of funding as impeding to working on internationalisation such as at Beta Pt:

> Although the institution has welcomed the support given by GRICES [international relations unit of the Portuguese Ministry for Science, Technology and Higher Education] to cover the costs of preparatory meetings aiming at presenting research project proposals under the EU Framework

Research Programme, it considers that this level of funding is not sufficient to implement a strategic plan.

Delta No is one of the cases that reports internal funding available for internationalisation; it has strategic funding reserved for internationalisation in its institutional budget.

Finally, two Dutch cases argue that in the future it might be needed to increase funding from other than public sources. The president of Gamma Nl makes a case that more private funding for higher education is necessary if it wants to keep on improving in comparison to countries such as Canada and the USA. These countries have a similar percentage of public funding for higher education as the Netherlands, but the private funds invested in higher education are much higher.

Table 6.32: Funding and resources (N=23) [29]

Internal funding available	Funding influential	Internationalisation to obtain funding and resources	Problematic/ (too) little internal funding available	Future increase in "private" funding
Beta D	Alpha Gr	Alpha Nl	Alpha Pt	Gamma Nl
Delta No	Beta No	Alpha Au	Beta Pt	Beta Nl
Delta Au 1	Delta No	Alpha UK	Gamma Nl	
		Beta Gr 1	Gamma Au 1	
		Gamma UK	Gamma Pt 1	
		Delta Nl	Gamma Pt 2	
		Epsilon NL	Delta D	
			Delta Au 2	
			Epsilon Pt	
			Delta Pt	

The main thing that stands out in Table 6.32, is that all Portuguese cases seem to have (too) little funding available for internationalisation. It is also interesting to note that four of the gamma cases seem to have (too) little funding available for internationalisation. Other than that, the picture in the table is rather varied.

6.3.2   Normative and cultural-cognitive pillar

Chapters 3 and 5 it show that some institutional elements of the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar show some overlap, which is why these two pillars are dealt with together. Central focus in these two pillars, with relation to internationalisation in higher education, lies with norms, values, and traditions of

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[29] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive , as is fore example shown by Delta No

the cases, in particular as they relate to their viewpoints on quality and disciplinary conceptions.

6.3.2.1   General norms, values and traditions

The general perceptions, the norms and values, concerning internationalisation may be influential to the way internationalisation is dealt with in the cases. Traditions as well as thoughts on the general debate in higher education with relation to internationalisation with specific topics such as cooperation-competition in higher education and higher education as a public or private good are discussed below.

Research is often considered international by nature, leading to HEIs desire to be international. In this study five cases explicitly mention their (research) tradition in internationalisation influencing their internationalisation today. These are a combination of old, broadly oriented HEIs and younger, specialised HEIs though all have an interest in doing research or expanding their research activities. Furthermore, two of these five cases also mention the international nature of the discipline of their institution. In the words of Delta No (one of the younger cases involved) "it is underlined that research activities have always been conducted in an international context. Delta No, being a college, strives to increase research activities and in that underscores that these activities are inherently international". One of the older cases, Alpha Nl, mentions their international research tradition and how it wants to use this asset in internationalisation today:

> […]of old, Alpha Nl has been internationally oriented, especially in the area of research. This line is continued nowadays, as Alpha Nl has stated it wants to be a top European research-intensive university. But not only does it want to be international in research, it also wants to be international in education. To attract the best academic researchers, it is necessary to also attract the best students and Ph.D.-students from inside and outside the Netherlands. To achieve this, the educational programmes need to have an international charisma.

In one case study report, Gamma Nl (young and education oriented), it is noted that the institution does not have a tradition in internationalisation and it is not something which is taken for granted.

Looking at other general thoughts of the cases perceived to be influential on their internationalisation efforts, two cases mention their geographic location.

> Internationalisation is something that comes natural to Beta Nl, partly due to its geographical location. Beta Nl is close to both the German and Belgian border and attracting students from the border region has been natural to the UM for a long time.

Nevertheless, Beta Nl is currently working on expanding its view, from 'Euregional' to international. Other cases near a border do not mention this

influence of geographic location on internationalisation efforts. And as Gamma Au 2

> identifies itself very much with the interests of its home province, it is clear, that this special geographic situation is crucial for the general importance of internationalisation for Gamma Au 2. Internationalisation is not merely a task among others, but one of the key issues for the institution. Cross-border cooperation became everyday business, an experience that helps for international cooperation on a long distance as well.

One case, Gamma Au 2, explicitly mentions,

> Internationalisation and the Bologna process are opportunities to overcome the status gap between *Fachhochschule* institutions and universities. While in the past there were more or less stable relationships and ranks in status hierarchies, internationalisation creates a competition for co-operations and good partnerships.

In general, certain HEIs perceive internationalisation, particularly the introduction of bachelor and master programmes, as an opportunity to improve their perceived status. Whereas before these HEIs would mainly offer professionally oriented programmes, they now also seek to offer more academic oriented programmes. This process is often referred to as academic drift, particularly by the HEIs currently offering academic programmes.

Chapter 2 highlighted that both cooperation and competition play a role in the thinking on internationalisation in higher education and can influence the thinking of the cases on internationalisation. As shown in chapter 2, cooperation and competition are broadly oriented subjects in higher education. For example, HEIs may compete internationally for talented students or simply for students, increasing their market share and income; on the other hand they may be looking for partners to strengthen their (international) position.

Several cases (10) do not see a clear-cut contrast between cooperation and competition in higher education. Cooperating to compete on an international level is what some cases perceive and state. Working together, forming partnerships or networks, is perceived as beneficial to competing on the international market or distinguish on the national market. The competitive position of an institution may improve through cooperation. Some respondents see cooperation and competition as two sides of the same coin, shown by the following quote from the cases study report of Epsilon Nl: "Epsilon Nl wants to be a top university and feels that it will be difficult to realise this on its own. Epsilon Nl needs international partners to profile itself abroad. In short, cooperation is sought to compete internationally." Three Alpha cases also express that cooperation and competition can go together. Some respondents at Alpha UK distinguish between competition and cooperation in education and research. It is

conceivable to be simultaneously competing for talented students and cooperating in research and the other way around.

Two of the art schools argue that competition in arts is something very specific, particularly the Dutch one, as students come to look for a specific sort of education or even teacher.

A few cases (four) explicitly state that they are cooperation oriented and not oriented towards competition. Greek academics are most outspoken about having a cooperative approach.

Finally, an interesting combination of a cooperative and competitive approach can be found with Epsilon UK, working on partnerships and collaboration but aiming to sell its products abroad.

Table 6.33: Perceptions on cooperation and competition (N=16)

More cooperation oriented	Combination	More competition oriented
Alpha Gr	Alpha Nl	Delta Au 1
Beta No	Alpha No	Delta Au 2
Gamma Pt 1	Alpha UK	
Gamma Pt 2	Beta Nl	
	Gamma Nl	
	Gamma UK	
	Delta Nl	
	Delta No	
	Epsilon Nl	
	Epsilon UK	

The most remarkable thing in Table 6.33, is that all Dutch and UK cases in this study seem to see that cooperation and competition (can) go together. It is also interesting to note that the two Austrian Delta (an arts school and a business school) cases are more competition oriented.

Finally, reviewing the thinking of the cases about whether higher education is a public or a private good, the general starting point is that higher education is a public good. However, there is much nuanced thinking, making several exceptions when higher education might also be more private and the possible consequences in terms of public or private funding. Such a nuanced view is, for example, expressed by the president of Beta Nl.

> One of the main public good aspects of higher education for the president of Beta Nl is that there should be equal opportunities for all to access higher education. Especially the entrance to bachelor programmes should be accessible in terms of finance, e.g. low costs for students. This can be different for international students and master programmes. The president also distinguishes between public and private aspects of research. He states that research has private aspects when leading to innovations that can be held under national or international property rights. But there

> is also research that is more curiosity driven, which on the short run does not have these kinds of aspects and is then more of a public good. A university combines these two types of research.

The other Dutch cases perceive higher education as mainly public, however, for these cases that does not mean that students cannot be expected to invest in their own education or that certain types of education, such as post graduate education, come at a fee. Two Greek cases express similar thoughts on this topic.
A few cases also out their concerns with commercialisation of higher education, as this might conflict with the general thought of higher education as a public good. These thoughts can also be seen in the light of the developments concerning GATS and the thoughts of the cases on this topic, discussed in section 6.3.1.1. That section remarked on the 'fears' of some cases concerning GATS and with that trade and commercialisation of higher education.

6.3.2.2   Views on quality

After discussing the regulative aspects of quality in section 6.3.1.2, this section discusses the more general thinking about quality with respect to internationalisation in higher education.

In the perception of 11 cases internationalisation (and measuring quality internationally, see section 6.3.1.2) can help in maintaining or even raising the quality of an HEI. The following quote from the case study report of Delta No underlines the ideas that quality is an important aspect of internationalisation and why: "International cooperation is a mean to increase quality; having international qualities is a mean to compete on students; internationalisation is a mean to aid and they experience being a goal for those who trade." And in the words of Delta Nl "maintaining quality is one of the motives to work on internationalisation".

Some cases (two) state that quality already has to be high if an HEI wants to internationalise, particularly if a HEI wants to attract foreign students or that internationalisation is a sign of quality for a HEI. In the words of a respondent at Gamma Pt 2 "I would say that internationalisation is a step that can only be achieved by quality institutions. "[...] When quality is achieved, the internationalisation step is relatively easy to climb".
In line with this, two other cases argue that internationalisation is a sign of quality. As one of the interviewees at Gamma D said "if foreigners come to gamma then Gamma D is good".

Gamma UK mainly sees quality problems that may arise due to internationalisation. An example is when a student comes to study not only for the subject of the educational programme, but also to work on his/her English language skills. If there are several of these types of students in a classroom, this

may jeopardise the general quality of teaching, not only for these particular students, but for the rest of the classroom as well.

Finally, the case study report of Beta No states on the one hand that "several of the informants exemplify [the relationship between quality and internationalisation] when they argue that cooperation with some of the best universities world-wide also would have positive effects on the quality of Beta No", while on the other hand also states that "the relationship between quality and internationalisation is rather an assumption that should be considered as a more globally spread idea. As such it is one of the (macro-level) cultural institutions of higher education."

Table 6.34: Perceptions on quality (N=16) [30]

Quality has to be high to be able to international-lise	Internationali-sation as a sign of quality	Internationali-sation can maintain or raise quality	Internationali-sation can endanger quality	Relation between quality and internationali-sation is an assumption
Alpha Nl Gamma Pt 2	Gamma D Gamma No	Alpha Nl Alpha No Alpha Pt Alpha UK Beta Pt Beta No Gamma Nl Delta Nl Delta No Delta Au 2 Epsilon Nl Epsilon UK	Gamma UK	Beta No

It is interesting to see that four of the Alpha cases feel that internationalisation can help maintain or raise quality. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that two of three UK cases and four of the five Dutch cases share this view.

6.3.2.3   Disciplinary conceptions

Reviewing the different disciplines in this research, it seems that the original division laid out in the operationalisation is not very useful in describing the outcomes. The research design did not provide the information about academic disciplines in such a way that further analysis using the division in disciplines as put forward in section 5.1.2.3 is possible. Academic disciplines were part of the

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[30] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive , as is fore example shown by Alpha Nl

selection criteria of the cases, but only in the sense that both comprehensive and specialised HEIs were selected (see also section 4.3.2 and 7.4).

Looking at the available findings on disciplines, there is not much discipline-specific information available in the case study reports and second, the information that is available, the results put forward the idea that the influence of a discipline in relation to internationalisation is very discipline-specific and making aggregate groups will lead to a loss of information. The variation in outcomes does not appear to be coherent with the dimensions of hard/soft and pure/applied as presented in Figure 5.1.

Nevertheless, the discipline-specific information that is available shows that different disciplines deal differently with internationalisation and for different reasons. To start, it is argued that some disciplines are intrinsically more international than other as for example when the study object is nationally oriented. However, looking at a study with a national study object, law, it is interesting to note that, for example in the Netherlands there is an interesting difference in the approach of the Faculty of Law at Alpha Nl and the Faculty at Beta Nl. The faculty of law at Alpha Nl has a national orientation towards its education and its programmes will be taught in Dutch. The faculty of law at Beta Nl, on the other hand, is trying to include as many internationally oriented subjects as possible in their programmes, according to the dean, bearing in mind that it needs to be nationally accredited as a Dutch law programme. In addition, many subjects are taught in English and the faculty has established the European Law School for both Dutch and foreign students. But not only Dutch law programmes are becoming more internationally oriented; Alpha UK also mentions the European influences on its law programme and at Beta Pt Law offers a joint degree with a Spanish HEI.

Furthermore, some cases argue that technical sciences are intrinsically international, but others see all sorts of problems in educational programmes when looking for international cooperation due to the specifics of the programmes in each country. As mentioned in the case study report of Gamma Au 1

> the thematic scheme of each Study Course has an important impact on the meaning of internationalisation as well as on the role of cooperation partners abroad. [...] Technically oriented study programs have some difficulties in finding partners, since there curricula are highly specialised and rigidly structured.

Continuing, it is argued by some that some disciplines are so small within a single country, international cooperation is necessary for sufficient critical mass, as the example of the Faculty of Philosophy at Alpha Nl shows. "The faculty of philosophy is internationally oriented, as in the Netherlands there are only few researchers involved in this discipline. This naturally leads the staff of the faculty to internationalisation for its research".

Also, national regulations only applying to certain disciplines can influence internationalisation, as for example the numerus fixus for medicine in the Netherlands (see also 6.3.1.1). Not only does this limit the number of places available to foreign students, having limited intake of students may also have the unintended consequence that students will go abroad to study the subject of their first choice. For example, Dutch students who were drawn out for a place at one of the Dutch medical faculties sought a place at a medical faculty in Flanders.

Certain aspects of a specific discipline may motivate a discipline more to look for internationalisation or use internationalisation as for example in technical sciences where laboratory facilities are very expensive and it might be necessary to share facilities with (foreign) partners. An example is provided by Alpha Au (see also above).

> International contacts of the faculty for natural sciences, as far as 'hard sciences' are concerned, have one particular aim, the attempt to approach laboratories with equipment and specialisations not available at Alpha Au. It is not a matter of general disinterest in Eastern European institutions, but the need of high quality laboratories in research often makes post-communist institutions fall behind in attractivity compared to universities and research institutions from the western world.

Finally, one case puts forward the idea that different parts of a HEI can be in a different phase of internationalisation, which might also explain different responses by different disciplines within one HEI. However, with the available data it is not possible to verify this idea.

6.4   Links between elements of the organisation and "pillars"

Section 6.2 analysed the connections between the different elements of the organisation. This section analyses the connections between the elements of the organisation as described in section 6.1 and the pillars as described in the previous section, as laid out in chapter 3 in Figure 3.4 (see Figure 6.8).

Possible connections between the variables are analysed and will help to answer the fifth research question:
What external factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?

Figure 6.8: Concepts and dimensions for empirical research

Theoretical concepts	Application in HE
ORGANISATIONS **Elements:**	
Social structure	Organisations of main tasks, Division of power and authority, Loose coupledness
Technology (activities)	Education, Research
Goals	Mission, vision and strategy, Service-organisation
Participants	Administration and management, Academic staff, Support staff, Students

Theoretical concepts	Application in HE
INSTITUTIONS **Elements:**	
Regulative	Laws, regulations and policies, Quality assurance, Funding
Normative and cultural-cognitive	Norms, values and traditions, Quality, Disciplinary conceptions

First, we analyse connections between goals and pillars, followed by the connections between participants and pillars. Next, we analyse the connections between activities and pillars, and finally the connections between social structure and pillars.

6.4.1   Connecting goals to pillars

Five groups of cases with similar (combinations) of goals were found in section 6.1.1.6. The following section analyses whether these groups have a connection with one of the variables concerning the pillars.

6.4.1.1   Connecting goals to national laws, regulations and policies

Table 6.35: Goals and perceptions national laws, regulations and policies (N=21)

Goals	Perceptions on national laws etc.			
	Influential	**Mainly positive**	**Mixed**	**Mainly critique**
MR			Alpha Gr	Delta Nl
MR+MO=MU			Beta Pt	
MO	Gamma No		Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2 Gamma Au 1	Delta Pt
Combinations with CB	Alpha No		Beta Gr 1	
MR, SM	Beta No			Gamma Nl
MO, SM	Delta No		Alpha Pt Beta Nl	
MO, MR, RG		Epsilon No	Delta Au 2	
MU or MO, SM, RG			Alpha Nl Epsilon Nl	
SM		Gamma Au 2		
RG				Alpha UK

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

It is interesting to see that three of the Gamma cases with a mutual opportunities goal have a mixed perception of national laws, regulations, and policies. Also the majority of cases that combine the mutual opportunities goals with one or more other goals have a mixed perception of national laws, regulations, and policies. Other than this, the picture in the table above is varied.

6.4.1.2   Connecting goals to Bologna process

Table 6.36: Goals and Bologna process (N=27)

	Bologna process		
Goals	**Mixed**	**Mainly positive**	**Neutral**
MR	Alpha Gr	Delta NL	
MR+MO=MU	Beta Pt		
MO	Alpha Au Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2	Gamma Au 1 Delta Pt	Gamma No
Combinations with CB		Alpha No Beta Gr 1	Epsilon UK
MR, SM	Beta Gr 2 Gamma Nl	Beta No	
MO, SM	Alpha Pt Delta Au 1	Delta No Beta Nl	
MO, MR, RG		Delta Au 2 Delta D Epsilon No	
MU or MO, SM, RG		Alpha Nl Epsilon Nl	
SM		Gamma Au 2	
RG		Alpha UK Gamma UK	

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

The main point in Table 6.36 is that the more economically oriented cases all appear to be mainly positive about the Bologna process. Looking at their (combinations of) goals, these cases all have an interest in attracting foreign students. The Bologna process should help in internationalisation in higher education and should also help students travelling between countries, as their degrees should become more easily comparable. Amongst the cases with a weaker economically oriented goals there seems to be a tendency that of more mixed feelings about the Bologna process. For the other groups, more in the middle, the picture is varied.

6.4.1.3   Connecting goals to perceptions on EU programmes

Table 6.37: Goals and perceptions on EU programmes (N=19)

	Perceptions on EU programmes[31]				
Goals	**Raising profile**	**Increase funding**	**Participating/ stating impor- tance/influence**	**Simply partici- pating**	**Costs involved**
MR			Delta Nl	Alpha Gr	
MR+MO=MU			Beta Pt		
MO			Gamma Pt 2		Alpha Au
Combinations with CB			Alpha No Beta Gr 1		
MR, SM			Beta No	Beta Gr 2	
MO, SM		Alpha Pt	Delta No Beta Nl		Beta Nl
MO, MR, RG				Delta Au 2	
MU or MO, SM, RG			Epsilon Nl		
SM			Gamma Au 2		
RG	Gamma UK	Alpha UK			Alpha UK

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Although the picture in Table 6.37 is again rather varied, it can be noted that the majority of the cases in all different models of goals seem to perceive the EU programmes influential or participate in EU programmes. What can also be noted is that the two cases with a revenue generating goals seem to have a different perception of EU programmes than the majority of the cases within the other models based on goals.

6.4.1.4   Connecting goals to Quality assurance

Only six cases reported on their perception of Quality assurance. Combining these it turns out they are all part of a different model of goals..
Therefore, nothing can be reported on connections between goals and perceptions of QA.

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[31] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

6.4.1.5 Connecting goals to funding and resources

Table 6.38: Goals and funding and resources (N=25)

Goals	Funding and resources[32]				
	Internal funding available	Funding influential	Intern to obtain funding and resources	Problematic/ too little internal funding	Future increase in private funding
MR		Alpha Gr	Delta Nl		
MR+MO=MU				Beta Pt	
MO	Beta D		Alpha Au	Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2 Gamma Au 1 Delta Pt Epsilon Pt	
Combinations CB			Beta Gr 1		
MR, SM		Beta No		Gamma Nl	Gamma Nl
MO, SM	Delta Au 1 Delta No	Delta No		Alpha Pt	Beta Nl
MO, MR, RG				Delta Au 2 Delta D	
MU or MO, SM, RG			Alpha Nl Epsilon Nl		
SM					
RG			Alpha UK Gamma UK		

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Although the picture in Table 6.38 is rather varied, it stands out that five of the cases with a mutual opportunities model perceive funding and resources for internationalisation as problematic. It also stands out that the more economically oriented cases perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources. This is in line with the goals of these cases, particularly the revenue generating goal.

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[32] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

6.4.1.6   Connecting goals to cooperation and competition

Table 6.39: Goals and perceptions of cooperation and competition (N=16)

	Perception on cooperation and competition		
Goals	More cooperation oriented	Combination	More competition oriented
MR	Alpha Gr	Delta Nl	
MR+MO=MU			
MO	Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2		
Combinations with CB		Alpha No Epsilon UK	
MR, SM	Beta No	Gamma Nl	
MO, SM		Delta No Beta Nl	Delta Au 1
MO, MR, RG			Delta Au 2
MU or MO, SM, RG		Alpha Nl Epsilon Nl	
SM			
RG		Alpha UK Gamma UK	

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Based on Table 6.39, it can be noted that the more economically oriented cases seem to have a similar perception of cooperation and competition (combining them), while the less economically oriented cases appear to have different views. Having a both cooperation and competition oriented perception by these more economically oriented cases is not unexpected, as both cooperation and competition can be useful in attracting foreign students. The two cases with a mutual opportunities goal represented in Table 6.39 have a more cooperation oriented perception, while the two cases with a mutual relations goal both have a different perception, with one of the cases having a combined perception. It would have been more logical if all these cases would have had a cooperation oriented perception, as both goals are rather cooperation oriented.

6.4.1.7   Connecting goals to perceptions of quality

Table 6.40: Goals and perceptions of quality (N=18)

	Perceptions on quality[33]				
Goals	**Int can maintain or raise quality**	**Quality has to be high to internationa lise**	**Intern as a sign of quality**	**Intern can endanger quality**	**Relation between quality and internati onalisati on is an assumpti on**
MR	Delta Nl				
MR+MO=MU	Beta Pt				
MO		Gamma Pt 2	Gamma No		
Combinations with CB	Alpha No Epsilon UK				
MR, SM	Beta No Gamma Nl				Beta No
MO, SM	Alpha Pt Delta No				
MO, MR, RG	Delta Au 2				
MU or MO, SM, RG	Alpha Nl Epsilon Nl	Alpha Nl			
SM			Gamma D		
RG	Alpha UK			Gamma UK	

MU=Mutual understanding, MR=Mutual relations, MO=Mutual opportunities, CB=Capacity building, SM=Skilled migration, RG=Revenue generating

Looking at Table 6.40, apparently the perception of internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise quality can be connected to various (combinations of) goals. The picture in Table 6.40 is thus rather varied and no connections between perceptions of quality and goals are visible.

6.4.2   Connecting participants to pillars

As mentioned in previous sections, little was reported on the role of participants other than students. Therefore, in the analysis of connections between goals and participants, the role of students is central. Both types of incoming students

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[33] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

(foreign degree student and incoming exchange students) are further analysed in connection to the goals of the cases.

6.4.2.1   Connecting participants to national laws, regulations and policies

Table 6.41: Foreign degree students and perceptions on national laws, regulations and policies (N=18)

		Perceptions on national laws etc.			
		Influential	**Mainly positive**	**Mixed**	**Mainly critique**
	High		Gamma Au 2	Beta Nl Delta Au 2 Epsilon Nl	Alpha UK Delta Nl
Foreign degree Student	**Average**			Alpha Nl Alpha Gr Beta Gr 1 Beta Pt	
	Low	Alpha No		Alpha Pt	Gamma Nl
	Very Low	Beta No Gamma No Delta No	Epsilon No	Gamma Au 1	Delta Pt

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

In Table 6.41 it is interesting to see that half of the cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive national laws, regulations, and policies as influential, while the majority of cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students have either a mixed or critical perception. The majority of cases scoring (very) high on incoming exchange also perceive national laws as mixed or critical. Perhaps these high scoring cases have more to do with these national laws, having more foreign degree students, and are thus more experienced with these laws.

Table 6.42: Incoming exchange students and perceptions on national laws, regulations and policies (N=19)

| | | Perceptions on national laws etc. | | | |
		Influential	Mainly positive	Mixed	Mainly critique
Incoming exchange student	**Very High**		Gamma Au 2	Beta Nl Epsilon Nl	
	High	Alpha No		Alpha Nl Alpha Pt Beta Pt Gamma Au 1 Delta Au 2	Alpha UK Delta Nl
	Average	Beta No		Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2	
	Low	Gamma No Delta No	Epsilon No		Gamma Nl Delta Pt

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.4.2.2   Connecting participants to Bologna process

When connecting participants to national laws, regulations, and policies to some extent a difference in perceptions is visible between low and high scoring cases; when connecting participants to the Bologna process no real difference in thinking between lowest or highest scoring case on both types of incoming students is visible. What has to be noted when looking at Table 6.43 is that the majority of cases scoring average or low have a mixed perception of the Bologna process. The majority of cases having a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students, as well as the cases scoring relatively very low are mainly positive on the Bologna process. Perhaps the Bologna process has helped the cases with the relatively high percentage, while the cases with a relatively very low percentage hope that the Bologna process will eventually be of help to them and increase their number of foreign degree students.

Table 6.43: Foreign degree students and perceptions of Bologna process (N=25)

		Bologna process		
		Mixed	**Mainly positive**	**Neutral**
Foreign degree Student	**High**	Delta Au 1	Alpha UK Beta Nl Gamma Au 2 Gamma UK Delta D Delta Nl Delta Au 2 Epsilon Nl	
	Average	Alpha Gr Alpha Au Beta Gr 1 Beta Pt	Alpha Nl	Epsilon UK
	Low	Alpha Pt Beta Gr 2 Gamma Nl	Alpha No	Gamma No
	Very Low		Beta No Gamma Au 1 Delta No Delta Pt Epsilon No	

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Table 6.44 shows that on the majority of the (very) high scoring cases on the percentage of incoming exchange students are mainly positive about the Bologna process, while the picture is more varied for the average and low scoring cases. Perhaps the higher scoring cases perceive the Bologna process helpful in accommodating incoming exchange students.

Table 6.44: Incoming exchange students and perceptions of Bologna process (N=23)

		Bologna process		
		Mainly positive	**Mixed**	**Neutral**
Incoming exchange student	**Very High**	Beta Nl Gamma Au 2 Epsilon Nl		
	High	Alpha Nl Alpha No Alpha UK Gamma Au 1 Delta Nl Delta Au 2	Alpha Pt Beta Pt Delta Au 1	
	Average	Beta No Gamma UK Delta D	Alpha Au Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2	
	Low	Delta No Delta Pt Epsilon No	Gamma Nl	Gamma No

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.4.2.3   Connecting participants to perceptions of EU programmes

In Table 6.45 the percentage of foreign degree students is compared to the perceptions of the cases on EU programmes.

Four (almost half of this group) of the cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive EU programmes as influential. Then again, also half of the cases scoring average or low on the percentage of foreign degree students, perceive the EU programmes as influential. A similar picture is visible in Table 6.46 with the majority of the very high scoring cases as well as the majority of the cases scoring average or low perceiving EU programmes to be influential. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that high scoring cases of foreign degree students also point to the costs involved with EU-programmes.

Table 6.45: Foreign degree students and perceptions of EU programmes (N=16)

		Perceptions of EU-programmes[34]				
		Raising profile	Increase funding	Participating/ Stating importance/ influence	Simply participating	costs involved
Foreign degree student	**High**	Gamma UK	Alpha UK	Beta Nl Gamma Au 2 Delta Nl Epsilon Nl	Delta Au 2	Alpha UK Beta Nl
	Average			Beta Gr 1 Beta Pt	Alpha Gr	Alpha Au
	Low		Alpha Pt	Alpha No Beta No	Beta Gr 2	
	Very Low			Delta No		

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Table 6.46: Incoming exchange students and perceptions of EU programmes (N=15)

		Perceptions of EU-programmes[35]				
		Raising profile	Increase funding	Participating/ stating importance/ influence	Simply participating	costs involved
Incoming exchange student	**Very high**			Beta Nl Gamma Au 2 Epsilon No		Beta Nl
	High		Alpha Pt Alpha UK	Alpha No Beta Pt Delta Nl	Delta Au 2	Alpha UK
	Average	Gamma UK		Beta No Gamma Pt 2		Alpha Au
	Low			Delta No		

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.4.2.4   Connecting participants to quality assurance

Little can be said about connections between participants and quality assurance, as only six cases report on their perceptions. Nevertheless, what can be noted on

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[34] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.
[35] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

the connections between the percentage of foreign degree student and QA is that five of the cases score average or high reporting on quality assurance.

For the connection between the percentage of incoming exchange students and quality assurance, again only few cases (N=5) are left in the combined table. We see that none of the cases score low and all are mainly positive on quality assurance.

6.4.2.5 Connecting participants to funding and resources

Table 6.47: Foreign degree students and funding and resources (N=21)

		Funding and resources[36]				
		Internal funding available	Funding influential	Internat to obtain funding	problematic/ too little internal funding	Future increase in private funding
Foreign degree Student	High	Beta D Delta Au 1		Alpha UK Gamma UK Delta Nl Epsilon Nl	Delta D Delta Au 2	Beta Nl
	Average		Alpha Gr	Alpha Nl Alpha Au Beta Gr 1	Beta Pt	
	Low				Alpha Pt Gamma Nl	Gamma Nl
	Very Low	Delta No	Beta No Delta No		Gamma Au 1 Delta Pt	

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Table 6.47 shows that many of the cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding. This seems logical as in the UK and the Netherlands, higher fees may be asked for foreign degree students than for regular national students. It is also interesting to note that many of the (very) low scoring cases perceive funding and resources to be problematic. This might be explained by the fact that these cases do not have extra income through these foreign degree students as they score relatively low and asking higher fees for foreign degree students is not always allowed in the countries of these cases. Rather, these cases might expect extra funding from government for these types of students.

In trying to explain these connections, it could be argued that having more foreign degree students is mainly attractive if this leads to more income;

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[36] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

otherwise having more foreign degree students could be perceived as problematic, demanding specific support within the organisation.

The picture is more varied for the connection between incoming exchange students and funding and resources, as Table 6.48 shows.

Table 6.48: Incoming exchange students and funding and resources (N=22)

		Funding and resources[37]				
		Internal funding available	Funding influential	Internat to obtain funding	problematic/ too little internal funding	Future increase in private funding
Incoming exchange student	Very high			Epsilon Nl		Beta Nl
	High	Delta Au 1		Alpha Nl Alpha UK Delta Nl	Alpha Pt Beta Pt Gamma Au 1 Delta Au 2	
	Average		Beta No	Alpha Au Gamma UK	Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2 Delta D	
	Low	Beta D Delta No	Delta No		Gamma Nl Delta Pt	Gamma Nl

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.4.2.6   Connecting participants to cooperation and competition

Looking at Table 6.49 it is interesting to see that there seems to be a connection between the percentage of foreign degree students and the perceptions on cooperation and competition. It appears that cases with a high percentage of foreign degree students are more likely to be competition oriented that cases scoring low on the percentage of foreign degree students. A similar pattern, cases with a high percentage are more likely to be competition oriented that cases scoring low on the percentage of incoming exchange students, is visible in Table 6.50, although less strong than with foreign degree students.

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[37] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

Table 6.49: Foreign degree students and perceptions of cooperation and competition (N=14)

		Perceptions on cooperation and competition		
		More cooperation	Combination	More competition
Foreign degree Student	High		Alpha UK Beta Nl Gamma UK Delta Nl Epsilon NL	Delta Au 1 Delta Au 2
	Average	Alpha Gr	Alpha Nl Epsilon UK	
	Low		Alpha No Gamma Nl	
	Very Low	Beta No	Delta No	

High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Table 6.50: Incoming exchange students and perceptions of cooperation and competition (N=15)

		Perceptions on cooperation and competition		
		More cooperation	Combination	More competition
Incoming exchange student	Very high		Beta Nl Epsilon Nl	
	High		Alpha Nl Alpha No Alpha UK Delta Nl	Delta Au 1 Delta Au 2
	Average	Beta No Gamma Pt 1 Gamma Pt 2	Gamma UK Epsilon UK	
	Low		Gamma Nl Delta No	

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.4.2.7   Connecting participants to perceptions of quality

Table 6.51 highlights that the one case that perceives a danger for quality by internationalisation scores high on the percentage of foreign degree students. This is all the more interesting as the majority of these high scoring cases (as the

majority of the other cases) perceive internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise quality. Perhaps these cases have the perception to be competing for the best students and wish to select the best foreign degree students to come to their institution, and therefore do not see a danger for quality.

Table 6.51: Foreign degree students and perceptions of quality (N=16)

		Perceptions of quality[38]				
		Quality has to be high to interna tionalise	International isation as a sign of quality	Intern can maintain or raise quality	Intern can endanger quality	Relation between quality and inter is an assumption
Foreign degree Student	**High**		Gamma D	Alpha UK Delta Nl Delta Au 2 Epsilon Nl	Gamma UK	
	Average	Alpha Nl		Alpha Nl Beta Pt Epsilon UK		
	Low			Alpha No Alpha Pt Gamma Nl		
	Very Low		Gamma No	Beta No Delta No		Beta No

 High= 55,8%13,0%, Average=9,0&-5,2%, Low=4,5%-3%, Very low=2,8%-negligible

Little can be said about Table 6.52 as most of the cases perceive internationalisation as a means to raise or maintain quality. What can be noted is that the group scoring average on incoming exchange students has a more varied perception of quality and that one of the high scoring cases perceives the need for quality to be high to internationalise while another perceives internationalisation as a sign of quality. One of the low scoring cases also perceives internationalisation to be a sign of quality.

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[38] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

Table 6.52: Incoming exchange students and perceptions of quality (N=16)

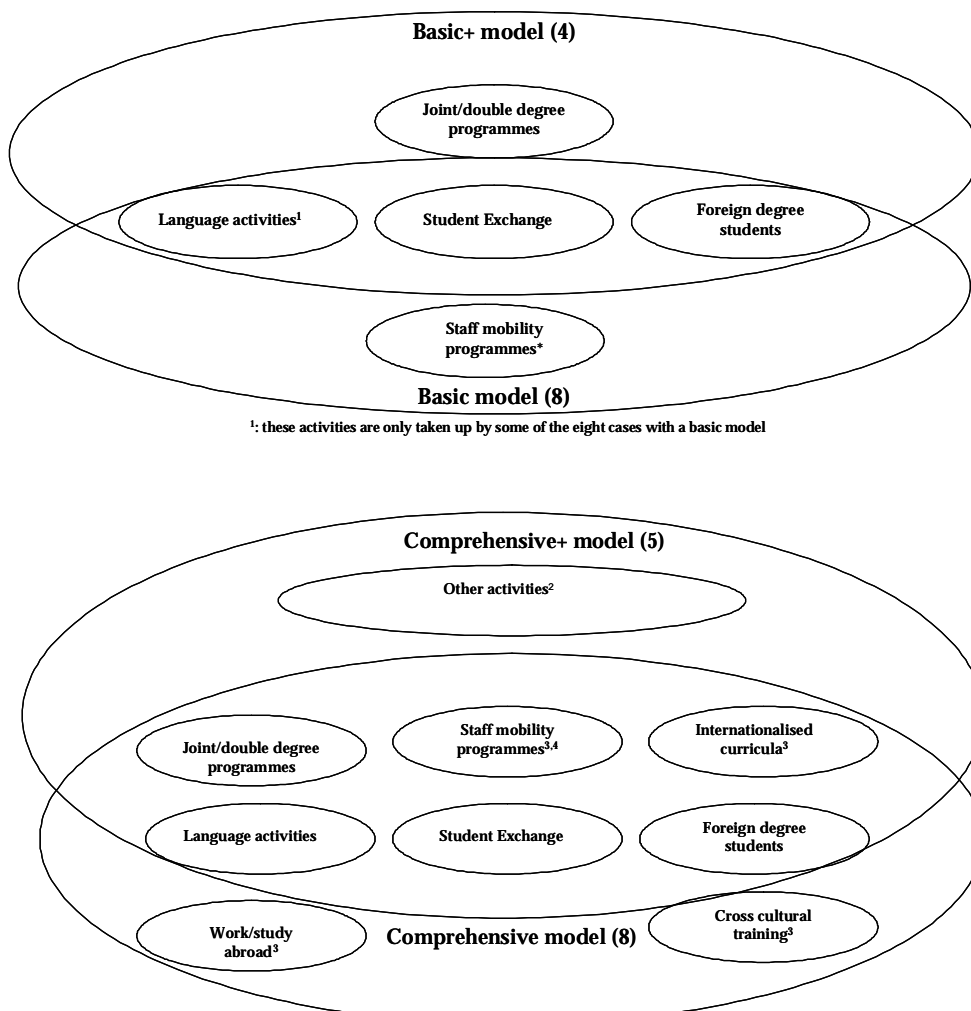|		Perceptions of quality[39]				
		Quality has to be high to internationalise	Internationa lisation as a sign of quality	Intern can maintain or raise quality	Intern can endanger quality	Relation between quality and inter is an assumption
Incoming exchange student	Very High			Epsilon Nl		
	High	Alpha Nl	Gamma D	Alpha Nl Alpha No Alpha Pt Alpha UK Beta Pt Delta Nl Delta Au 2		
	Average	Gamma Pt 2		Beta No	Gamma UK	Beta No
	Low		Gamma No	Gamma Nl Delta No		

Very high=8,8%-5,3%, High=2,5%-1,3%, Average=1,2%-0,5%, Low=0,3%-0,02%

6.4.3   Connecting activities to pillars

We now continue with the analysis of connections between the activities undertaken by the cases and the pillars. Section 6.1.4 found four models of cases with similar activities (see Figure 6.9). Connections between these groups and the outcomes of the analysis of the pillars are analysed in the following sections.

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[39] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

Figure 6.9: Main models of activities (number of cases between brackets)

Basic+ model (4)

Joint/double degree
programmes

Language activities[1]   Student Exchange   Foreign degree
students

Staff mobility
programmes*

Basic model (8)

[1]: these activities are only taken up by some of the eight cases with a basic model

Comprehensive+ model (5)

Other activities[2]

Joint/double degree
programmes   Staff mobility
programmes[3,4]   Internationalised
curricula[3]

Language activities   Student Exchange   Foreign degree
students

Work/study
abroad[3]   **Comprehensive model (8)**   Cross cultural
training[3]

[2]: e.g. visiting lecturers, changes in the teaching/learning process; [3]: these activities are only taken up by some of the cases with a comprehensive model;

[4]: Staff mobility programmes are taken up by two of the cases with a comprehensive+ model.

6.4.3.1   Connecting activities to national laws, regulations and policies

Table 6.53: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and perceptions of national laws, policies and regulations (N=19)

	Perceptions on national laws, regulations and policies			
	Influential	**Mainly positive**	**Mixed**	**Mainly critique**
Basic model	Beta No Gamma No	Epsilon No	Beta Gr 1	
Basic+ model			Gamma Au 1 Delta Au 2	Gamma Nl Delta Pt
Comprehensive model		Gamma Au 2	Alpha Nl Alpha Pt Beta Nl Beta Pt Epsilon Nl	Alpha UK
Comprehensive+ model	Delta No Alpha No		Alpha Gr	Delta Nl

The one thing that stands out in Table 6.53 is that the majority of cases with a comprehensive model of activities seem to have a mixed perception of national laws, policies and regulations. Perhaps if a case undertakes many different activities, there will eventually always be one more law, policy, or regulation that contradicts or conflicts with an activity or the other way around. It thus seems logical if cases with many different activities have a mixed perception of national, laws, policies and regulations. With this in mind, it may be said that it is somewhat strange that a similar picture is not visible for cases with the comprehensive+ model of activities.

6.4.3.2   Connecting activities to Bologna process

The majority of cases represented in Table 6.54 at all four groups, have a positive perception of the Bologna process. This is similar to the general perceptions of the Bologna process analysed in section 6.3.1.1. On the whole, no connections between activities and the Bologna follow up are visible in Table 6.54.

Table 6.54: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and Bologna process (N=23)

	Bologna process		
	Mainly positive	**Mixed**	**Neutral**
Basic model	Beta No Delta D Epsilon No	Alpha Au Beta Gr 1	Gamma No
Basic+ model	Gamma Au 1 Delta Au 2 Delta Pt	Gamma Nl	
Comprehensive model	Alpha Nl Alpha UK Beta Nl Gamma Au 2 Epsilon Nl	Alpha Pt Delta Au 1 Beta Pt	
Comprehensive+ model	Delta No Alpha No Delta Nl	Alpha Gr Beta Gr 2	

6.4.3.3   Connecting activities to perceptions of EU programmes

Table 6.55: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and perceptions of EU programmes (N=17)

	Perceptions of EU programmes[40]				
	Raising profile	**Increase funding**	**Participating/ Stating importance/ influence**	**Simply partici pating**	**costs involved**
Basic model			Beta Gr 1 Beta No		Alpha Au
Basic+ model				Delta Au 2	
Comprehensive model		Alpha Pt Alpha UK	Beta Nl Beta Pt Gamma Au 2 Epsilon Nl		Alpha UK Beta Nl
Comprehensive+ model			Alpha No Delta No Delta Nl	Alpha Gr Beta Gr 2	

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[40] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

Looking at Table 6.55, it seems that while on the whole the majority of cases are participating or state the importance of EU programmes (similar to the general picture of perceptions on EU programmes presented in Table 6.30), a few things can be noted. The two cases that perceived EU programmes as a means to increase funding are both part of the same, comprehensive, model of activities. Also, of the three cases that reported to simply participate in EU programmes, two have the same, comprehensive+ model of activities, while two of the three cases reporting on the costs involved with EU programmes are also part of the same, comprehensive model of activities.

6.4.3.4   Connecting activities to quality assurance

Just as with the analysis of the connections between quality assurance and goals as well as participants not much can be reported on the connection between activities and QA. When combining the six cases that reported on their perceptions of QA with the four models based on activities, only five cases remained. What can be noted is that three of these five cases have a comprehensive model of activities. A logical explanation for this is not readily present.

6.4.3.5   Connecting activities to funding and resources

Table 6.56: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and perceptions of funding and resources (N=21)

	Funding and resources[41]				
	Internal funding available	**Funding influential**	**Internat to obtain funding**	**problematic/ too little internal funding**	**Future increase in private funding**
Basic model	Beta D	Beta No	Alpha Au Beta Gr 1	Delta D	
Basic+ model				Gamma Nl Gamma Au 1 Delta Au 2 Delta Pt	Gamma Nl
Comprehensive model	Delta Au 1		Alpha Nl Alpha UK Epsilon Nl	Alpha Pt Beta Pt	Beta Nl
Comprehensive+ model	Delta No	Alpha Gr Delta No	Delta Nl		

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[41] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

The main thing that stands out in Table 6.56 is that almost all cases with a basic+ model of activities perceive funding and resources to be problematic. Perhaps this perception is also holding this group of cases back in undertaking more activities such as the cases with a comprehensive or comprehensive+ model of activities. On the other hand, the cases with these models might also be more active to increase their funding and therefore perceive funding and resources to be influential or as a means to obtain extra funding and resources. Other than this picture is varied.

6.4.3.6   Connecting activities to cooperation and competition

Table 6.57: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and perceptions of cooperation and competition (N=12)

	Perceptions on cooperation and competition		
	More cooperation	**Combination**	**More competition**
Basic model	Beta No		
Basic+ model		Gamma Nl	Delta Au 2
Comprehensive model		Alpha Nl Alpha UK Beta Nl Epsilon Nl	Delta Au 1
Comprehensive+ model	Alpha Gr	Alpha No Delta Nl Delta No	

Just as with the analysis in section 6.3.2 the majority of cases in the several groups perceive cooperation and competition in higher education to be combined. Although only twelve cases are represented in the table, it is interesting to note that a cooperative perception is present in one of the cases with a basic model of activities as well as one of the cases with a comprehensive model of activities. The two more competition oriented cases have different models of activities. Other than this, not much can be said about connection between activities and perceptions of cooperation and competition.

6.4.3.7   Connecting activities to perceptions of quality

Based on Table 6.58 it has to be noted that the two cases that perceive internationalisation as a sign of quality, both have a basic model of activities. As could be expected looking at Table 6.34, the majority of the cases perceives internationalisation to help maintain or raise quality.

Table 6.58: Academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) and perceptions of quality (N=10)

| | Perceptions of quality[42] | | | | |
	Quality has to be high to internatio nalise	Internation alisation as a sign of quality	Intern can maintain or raise quality	Intern can endanger quality	Relation between quality and inter is an assumption
Basic model		Gamma D Gamma No	Beta No		Beta No
Basic+ model			Gamma Nl Delta Au 2		
Comprehensive model	Alpha Nl		Alpha Nl Alpha Pt Alpha UK Beta Pt Epsilon Nl		
Comprehensive+ model			Alpha No Delta Nl Delta No		

6.4.4   Connecting social structure to pillars

What is left to analyse are the connections between the different groups concerning the social structure and the pillars. It should first be mentioned that only nine cases reported on their social structure in terms of central/decentral and systemic/ad hoc. When combining these cases with other groupings, which leaves out several of the cases that are not part of a certain group, it might be that only a few cases are represented in the tables combining the different variables.

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[42] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

6.4.4.1   Connecting social structure to national laws, regulations and policies

Table 6.59: Social structure and perceptions of national laws, regulations and policies (N=6)

		Perceptions on national laws, regulations and policies			
		Influential	**Mainly positive**	**Mixed**	**Mainly critique**
Social structure	**Central/ systematic**	Alpha No			Delta Nl
	Central/ Unknown	Gamma No		Alpha Nl	Alpha UK
	Unknown/ systematic			Beta Nl	

Only six cases are represented in Table 6.59 and these present a varied picture. There are no connections between social structure and perceptions of national laws, regulations and policies apparent.

6.4.4.2   Connecting social structure to Bologna process

Table 6.60: Social structure and Bologna process (N=9)

		Bologna process		
		Mainly positive	**Mixed**	**Neutral**
Social structure	**Central/ systematic**	Alpha No Delta Nl	Alpha Au	
	Central/ Unknown	Alpha Nl Alpha UK Delta D	Beta Gr 2	Gamma No
	Unknown/ systematic	Beta Nl		

Similar to the general picture of the Bologna process presented in section 6.3.1 the majority of cases represented in Table 6.60 have a positive perception of the Bologna process.

6.4.4.3   Connecting social structure to perceptions of EU programmes

Table 6.61: Social structure and perceptions of EU-programmes (N=7)

		Perceptions of EU-programmes[43]				
		Raising profile	**Increase funding**	**Participating/ Stating importance/ influence**	**Simply participating**	**costs involved**
Social struc-ture	**Central/ systematic**			Alpha No Delta Nl		Alpha Au
	Central/ Unknown		Alpha UK		Beta Gr 2	Alpha UK
	Unknown/ systematic			Beta Nl		Beta Nl

Table 6.61 shows a varied picture; no connections between social structure and the perceptions of EU-programmes are visible.

6.4.4.4   Connecting social structure to QA

Again, little can be reported on the connections of QA. When combining the six cases that reported on their perceptions of QA with the nine cases reporting on their social structure, only three cases remained.

6.4.4.5   Connecting social structure to funding and resources

Even though only six cases are represented in Table 6.62, it is interesting to see that four of the five with a central approach to their social structure perceive internationalisation as means to obtain funding. A possible explanation is that as internationalisation is perceived as a means to obtain funding and of therefore importance to the institution, central level wants to have influence.

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[43] **The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.**

Table 6.62: Social structure and perceptions of funding and resources (N=6)

		Funding and resources[44]				
		Internal funding available	Funding influent ial	Internat to obtain funding	problema tic/ too little internal funding	Future increase in private funding
Social struc- ture	Central/ systematic			Alpha Au Delta Nl		
	Central/ Unknown			Alpha Nl Alpha UK	Delta D	
	Unknown/ systematic					Beta Nl

6.4.4.6   Connecting social structure to cooperation and competition

Table 6.63: Social structure and perceptions of cooperation and competition (N=5)

		Perceptions on cooperation and competition		
		More cooperation	Combination	More competition
Social structure	Central/ systematic		Alpha No Delta Nl	
	Central/ Unknown		Alpha Nl Alpha UK	
	Unknown/ systematic		Beta Nl	

Table 6.63 shows an unambiguous picture, though no particular connection is visible between social structure and perceptions of cooperation and competition as cases within the different groups of social structure all perceive cooperation and competition to be combined.

6.4.4.7   Connecting social structure to perceptions of quality

Looking at Table 6.64, it can be noted that two (of three) of the cases with a central systematic approach to their social structure perceive internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise quality. The picture is varied for the other groups concerning social structure.

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[44] **The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.**

Table 6.64: Activities and perceptions of quality (N=6)

		Perceptions of quality[45]				
		Quality has to be high to internationalise	**Internationalisation as a sign of quality**	**Intern can maintain or raise quality**	**Intern can endanger quality**	**Relation between quality and inter is an assumption**
Social struc-ture	**Central/ systematic**			Alpha No Delta Nl		
	Central/ Unknown	Alpha Nl	Gamma No	Alpha Nl Alpha UK		
	Unknown/ systematic					

6.4.5 External factors related to responses to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation

The fifth research question:
What external factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation?
can be answered now that the possible connections between the elements of the organisation (goals, participants, social structure and activities) and the pillars (regulative and normative and cultural-cognitive elements) have been described and analysed.

The connections found in the previous sections are summarised in Table 6.65. Just as in section 6.2.4 the connections are scaled from strong (meaning that a clear connection for all or most of the different groupings of variables involved is visible) to medium (meaning that such a connection is visible for some of the groupings involved) to weak (meaning that for only one or two of the groupings such a connection is visible). For analysis of connections based on only six or less cases, it is not possible to say anything reliable or valid about these connections. And as mentioned in section 6.1.2, little was reported on the role of participants other than students. Therefore, in the analysis of connections between goals and participants, only the role of (two types of incoming) students was taken into account.

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[45] The categories of this variable are not mutually exclusive.

Table 6.65: Overview of connections between elements of the organisation and pillars

Connection	Strong	Medium	Weak	Unclear connection
Goals-National laws, policies, regulations			X[46]	
Goals-Bologna Process		X[47]		
Goals-Perceptions EU-programmes			X[48]	
Goals-QA				Little reported (N=6)
Goals-Funding and resources		X[49]		
Goals-Cooperation and competition		X[50]		
Goals-Perceptions of quality				X
FD students-National laws, regulations and policies		X[51]		
Exchange students-National laws, policies, regulations			X[52]	
FD students-Bologna Process			X[53]	
Exchange students-Bologna process			X[54]	
FD students-Perceptions EU-programmes			X[55]	

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[46] Based on three (all gamma) of five cases in group with MO with mixed perception of national laws, regulations and policies and the majority of cases that combine MO with one or more other goals, have a mixed perception of national laws, regulations and policies.

[47] Based on the more economically orietented cases all appearing to be mainly positive about the Bologna process and the cases with weaker economically oriented goals having a tendeceny to more mixed feelings.

[48] Based on majority of the cases in all different models of goals perceiving EU programmes of influence or participating in EU programmes and two cases with a revenue generating goals having a different perception of EU programmes.

[49] Based on five of the cases with a mo goal perceiving funding and resourses for internationalisation as problematic and the more economically oriented cases perceiving internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources.

[50] Based on the more economically oriented cases seeming to have a similar perception of cooperation and competition, while the less economically oriented cases appear to have different views.

[51] Based on "trend" in table 6.40 that half of the cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive national laws, regulations and policies as influential, while the majority of cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students have either a mixed or critical perception of national laws, regulations and policies.

[52] Based on the majority of cases scoring (very) high on incoming exchange perceive national laws as mixed or critical.

[53] Based on the majority of cases scoring average or low (6 of 10) having a mixed perception of the Bologna process.

[54] Based on the majority of the (very) high scoring cases (9 of 12) on the percentage of incoming exchange students being mainly positive about the Bologn process.

[55] Based on four of nine of the cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students perceiving the EU progammes as influential and four of eight of the cases scoring average or low on the percentage of foreign degree students, perceiving the EU programmes as influential.

Connection	Strong	Medium	Weak	Unclear connection
Exchange students-Perceptions EU-programmes			X[56]	
FD students-QA				Little reported (N=6)
Exchange student-QA				Little reported (N=5)
FD students-Funding and resources			X[57]	
Exchange student-Funding and resources				X
FD students-Cooperation and competition		X[58]		
Exchange students-Cooperation and competition		X[59]		
FD students-Perceptions of Quality			X[60]	
Exchange students-Perceptions of quality			X[61]	
Activities-National laws, policies, regulations			X[62]	
Activities-Bologna Process				X
Activities-Perceptions EU-programmes			X[63]	
Activities-QA				Little reported (N=5)
Activities-Funding and resources			X[64]	
Activities-Cooperation and competition				X
Activities-Perceptions of quality			X[65]	

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[56] Based on a similar picture as the connections between foreign degree students and EU-programmes.

[57] Based on many (four of nine) of the cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and many (four of eight) of the (very) low scoring cases perceive funding and resources to be problematic.

[58] Based on general "trend" that cases with a high percentage of foreign degree students are more likely to be competition oriented than cases scoring low on the percentage of foreign degree students.

[59] Based on general "trend" that cases with a high percentage of incoming exchange students are more likely to be competition oriented than cases scoring low on the percentage of incoming exchange students, although this connection is slightly weaker than the connection between foreign degree students and perceptions of cooperation and competition (but still qualifies as medium).

[60] Based on majority of cases (12 of 16) perceiving internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise quality, with some interesting exceptions to this general finding.

[61] Based on majority of cases (12 of 16) perceiving internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise quality, with some interesting exceptions to this general finding.

[62] Based on the majority of cases having a comprehensive model of activities seeming to have a mixed perception of national laws, policies and regulations.

[63] Based on the two cases perceiving EU programmes as a means to increase funding are both part of the same, comprehensive, model of activities, supplemented with two of the three cases reporting to simply participate in EU programmes, having the same, comprehensive+, model of activities, and two of the three cases reporting on the costs involved with EU programmes also having the same, comprehensive, model of activities.

[64] Based on all but one case with a basic+ model of activities perceiving funding and resources to be problematic.

Connection	Strong	Medium	Weak	Unclear connection
Social structure-National laws, policies, regulations				Little reported (N=6)
Social structure-Bologna process				X
Social structure-Perceptions EU-programmes				X
Social structure-QA				Little reported (N=3)
Social structure-Funding and resources				Little reported (N=6)
Social structure- Cooperation and competition				Little reported (N=5) (unambiguous[66])
Social structure-Perceptions of quality				Little reported (N=6)

Reviewing the connections found, it seems that many weak connections were found, a few medium strong connections were found, while it stands out that no strong connections were found. The majority of the weak connections involve the connections with the two types of students and the activities of the cases. The majority of the medium strong connections involve connections with goals. It needs to be noted that due to little information available on the social structure and on QA little can be said about connections with these variables.

Looking at the medium strong connections, three of these are connections with goals; a connection is visible with the Bologna process, funding and resources, and cooperation and competition. Interestingly, these all involve the more economically oriented cases when looking at the goals of these cases. They all appear to mainly positive about the Bologna process. For example, at Gamma Au 2, "Bologna was regarded as a useful instrument", though there were other motivations for changing the programmes as well. And "[i]nstead of aiming at incremental adaptation (study program by study program), Gamma Au 2 set a more ambitious goal to rebuild the study structure of the entire institution as a whole". The more economically oriented cases seem to perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources, as is clearly stated by Gamma UK which reports that its public research funding is low and given the limitations of the institution in other ways of supplementing its income, international students were perceived as the obvious way to boost income from the government. The cases with a more economically oriented goal seem to have a similar perception of cooperation and competition, namely combining cooperation and competition, as these examples from Epsilon NL and Alpha UK show. "Epsilon Nl wants to be a top university and feels that it will be difficult to

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[65] Based on two cases that perceive internationalisation as a sign of quality, both have a basic model of activities.

[66] Cases from different groups of social structure have a similar score on cooperation and competition.

realise this on its own. Epsilon Nl needs international partners to profile itself abroad. In short, cooperation is sought to compete internationally." Some respondents at Alpha UK distinguish between competition and cooperation in education and research. It is conceivable to be simultaneously competing for talented students and cooperating in research and the other way around.

Foreign degree students seem to have medium strong connections with the perceptions on national laws, policies, and regulations and the perception of cooperation and competition. Looking at the last medium connection between foreign degree students and national laws, regulations and policies we remarked that cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive national laws, regulation, and policies as influential, while high scoring cases have more mixed or critical perceptions of these. For example, at Beta Nl (23,1 % foreign degree students) it was argued that

> Although national policy for internationalisation might be of support to the thinking at Beta Nl, it is also felt by some that national regulations are holding back international developments at the Beta Nl, and that despite of what is being said, national policy is not supporting internationalisation

At Alpha UK (22,7 %) a respondent sees a problem in the UK government ignoring changes in Europe, as for example with the length of degrees being different in the UK from the rest of Europe. These cases with relatively high percentages of foreign degree students are also more likely to have a competition oriented perception of internationalisation in higher education. Perhaps national laws, regulations, and policies are perceived as holding these cases back in their competition for students, as the comments from Beta Nl and Alpha UK seem to indicate.
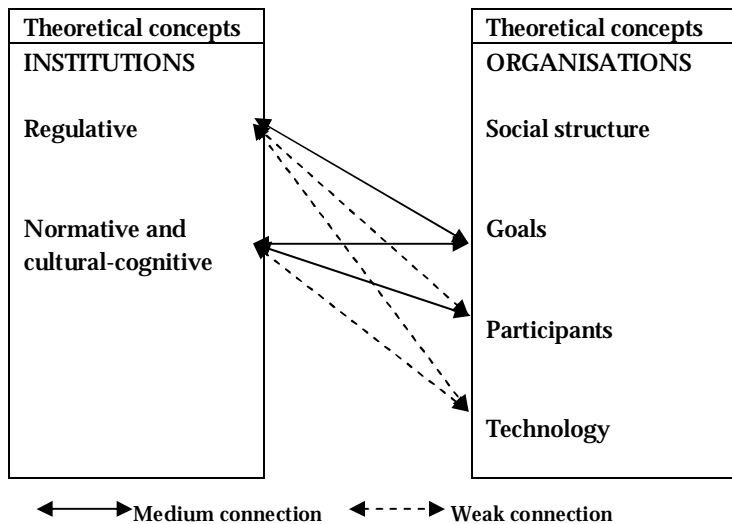
As for the connection with foreign degree students and the perception of cooperation and competition, a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students is more likely to go together with a more competition oriented perception of internationalisation in higher education and relatively low percentage of foreign degree students is more likely to go together with a more cooperation oriented perception of internationalisation in higher education.

A medium strong connection is also visible between the percentage of incoming exchange students and the perception of cooperation and competition (although it has to be mentioned that this connection is slightly weaker than the connection between the percentage of foreign degrees students and the perception of cooperation and competition). It appears that cases with a high percentage of incoming exchange students are more likely to be competition oriented than cases scoring low on the percentage of incoming exchange students. This is interesting as in general exchange is considered to be part of a more cooperation oriented approach to internationalisation, but apparently in practice cases with a relatively

high number of exchange students are looking towards a more competitive approach.

Based on these statements and looking at the connections summarised in Table 6.65 it seems that many external factors play a role in the responses of HEIs to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation as many different medium and weak connections are visible. It seems that for connections with external factors particularly normative and cultural-cognitive aspects (perceptions of cooperation and competition) play a role; medium strong connections with cooperation and competition are visible with goals, the percentage of foreign degree student and the percentage of incoming exchange students. What is interesting is that the more economically oriented cases (based on their goals) show an interest in both cooperation and competition in relation to internationalisation of higher education, while a high percentage of foreign degree students and/or high percentage of incoming exchange students is more likely to go together with a more competition oriented perception. A relatively low percentage of foreign degree students and/or incoming exchange students is more likely to go together with a more cooperation or combined perception of internationalisation in higher education. Other external factors with which medium strong connections were found (connected to goals) are the Bologna process, funding and resources, and national laws, regulations, and policies.
What is also clear from Table 6.65 is that both participants and goals play a central role in responding to internationalisation in higher education; these factors show a number of medium strong connections with external factors, while the other factors show weak or unclear connections.

The connections between the elements of the organisation (internal factors, goals, participants, social structure and activities) and the pillars (external factors, regulative and cultural cognitive elements) are visualised in Figure 6.10, using the theoretical aggregates.

Figure 6.10: Connections between elements of the organisation and pillars

Theoretical concepts	Theoretical concepts
INSTITUTIONS	ORGANISATIONS
Regulative	Social structure
Normative and cultural-cognitive	Goals
	Participants
	Technology

◄———► Medium connection   ◄- - -► Weak connection

6.5 Concluding remarks

Looking back at all connections found in sections 6.2.4 and 6.4.5, this concluding section analyses whether some further connections and patterns between these findings are visible.

Reviewing the medium connections found in sections 6.2.4 and 6.4.5, it should be noted that both foreign degree students and economically oriented goals of cases seem to play a central role. Three medium strong connections with goals were found: with the Bologna process, funding and resources, and cooperation and competition. These all involve the more economically oriented cases when looking at the goals of these cases. The more economically oriented cases all appear to be mainly positive about the Bologna process, seem to perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources and these cases seem to have a similar perception of cooperation and competition, namely combining cooperation and competition. As found in section 6.2.4 a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students and a comprehensive model of activities seem also to be connected to more economically oriented goals. Furthermore, the analysis shows that cases with a high percentage of foreign degree students are more likely to be competition oriented and have a mixed or critical perception of national laws, regulations, and policies. Finally, a weak connection is found between a high percentage of foreign degrees students and a comprehensive model of activities. These connections are summarised in Figure 6.11.

Figure 6.11: Connections relating to economically oriented goals and relatively high percentage of foreign degree students

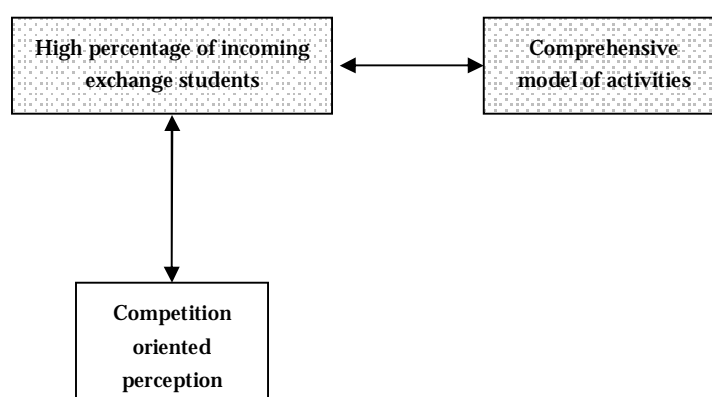← → *Medium connection*   ← - - - ► *Weak connection*
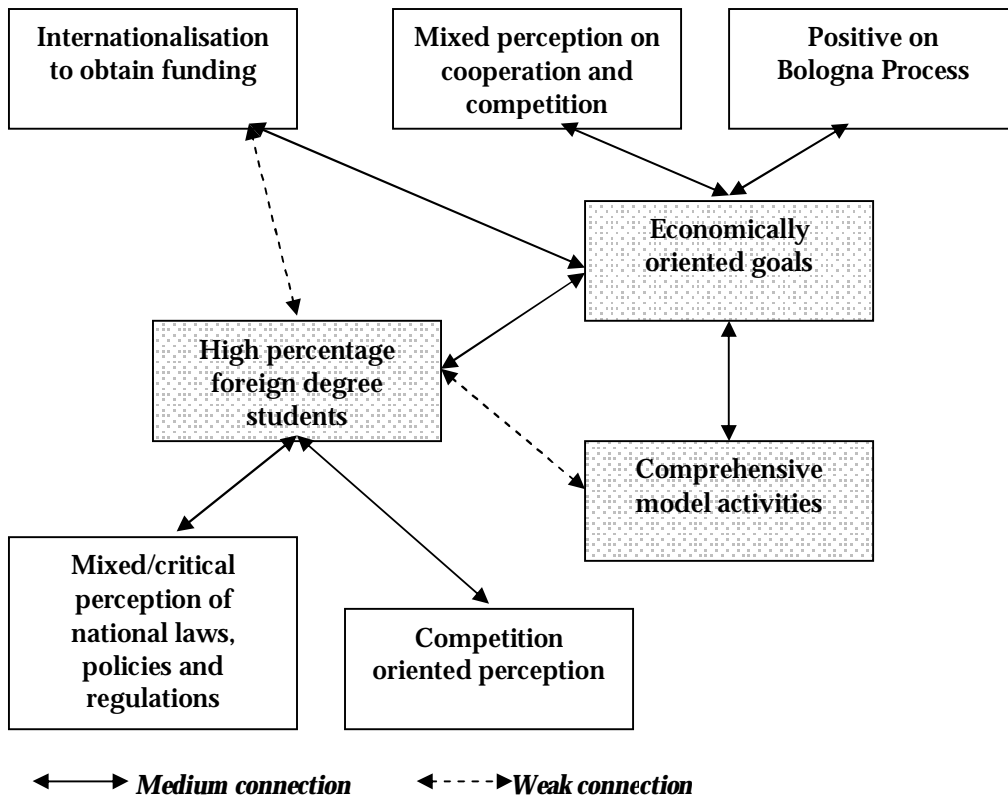
Shaded boxes are parts of the organisation, transparent boxes are elements of pillars of institutions.

In Figure 6.11 there is a possible contradiction. A high percentage of foreign degree students seems to be connected to a more economically oriented goals. This seems logical, as part of the economically oriented goals is the aim to attract international students (for different reasons). At the same time a high percentage of foreign degree students may be connected to a more competitive perception of higher education and internationalisation, while a more economically oriented goal may be connected to a more combined, cooperative and competitive, perception. These separate connections are logical, but in the whole of the connections in Figure 6.11 this is somewhat inconsistent. As there is a medium strong connection between the high percentage of foreign degree students and having economically oriented goals, it would have been consistent if the connections of these two variables with their perception on cooperation and competition would also have been similar.

A typical example of a case fitting in Figure 6.11 is Alpha UK, which has a high percentage of foreign degree students (22,7 %) and economic oriented goal (revenue generating goal). Alpha UK has a positive perception of the Bologna and perceives internationalisation as a means to obtain funding. And while Alpha UK is competing on the international market for foreign (fee-paying) students and has an explicit international recruitment strategy, they also perceive cooperation as part of internationalisation. Alpha UK is also critical about its national laws, policies and regulations, as argued by a respondent who sees a problem in the UK government ignoring changes in Europe, for example with the length of degrees being different in the UK from the rest of Europe.

Looking back at the connections between internal factors, it was found that there is a medium strong connection between incoming exchange students and activities. The majority of cases scoring relatively high on the percentage of incoming exchange students seem to have a comprehensive or comprehensive+ model of activities. Furthermore, a medium strong connection between a relative high percentage of incoming exchange students with their perception on cooperation and competition was found; a high percentage of incoming exchange students is connected to more competitive perceptions. Interestingly, no connection was found between activities and the perceptions on cooperation and competition. These connections are summarised in Figure 6.12.

Figure 6.12: Connections based on findings concerning incoming exchange students, activities and cooperation-competition

Shaded boxes are parts of the organisation, transparent boxes are elements of pillars of institutions

From both figures (6-11 and 6-12) it is clear that participants, students, seem to play a central role in the responses of the HEIs to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. This is logical as participants are social actors;

"it is their energy, their conformity, their disobedience that constitutes and shapes the structure of the organisation" (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 20; see also chapter 3). Participants are thus also the ones shaping norms-cultural/cognitive aspects within an organisation.

Reviewing the previous sections, only a few medium strong connections are visible; the majority of the connections are weak. The medium connections can particularly be related to an economic objective, which seems to be the main outcome of this analysis: the economic objective of cases often seem to be involved in the response of HEIs to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation; other objectives such as academic, cultural, geostrategic, political, and social objectives (see Figure 5.2) are not readily present.

7 Conclusion and reflection

This chapter looks back at the study to reflect on both the findings and the methodology, but also to look forward to questions for further research and implications for policy. This study has shown that HEIs react through many different activities to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. This wide range of activities, as much as the great variety among the HEIs makes it difficult to determine strong or uniform models and even more so to explain them in terms of unambiguous patterns of causality. However, several medium strength and some weaker connections between different parts of the organisation and between the organisation and its environment have been detected. Central to these connections are the role of goals, participants, and academic disciplines of HEIs. In short, HEIs with economically oriented goals have a relatively high number of foreign degree students and undertake many different activities in relation to internationalisation. HEIs with a relatively high number of foreign degree and incoming exchange students are also more likely to be competition oriented than those with lower percentages. Finally, half of the ten highest scoring cases on the percentage of foreign degree students are specialised institutions with a limited number of academic disciplines on offer, indicating these disciplines are likely to play a specific role in internationalisation of higher education.

We formulated several expectations before analysing the data, (see chapter 3). This chapter revisits these expectations. Next, the central research question is answered by summarising the conclusions from the previous chapters. This is followed by a reflection on the study as a whole, the applied theory and methodology, and the implications for policy and practice.

7.1 Revisiting expectations

Chapter 3 formulated four expectations based on the theoretical outline and its application to higher education. As the central research question put the response of HEIs to the challenges brought by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation to the forefront, the expectations are formulated around this topic. The central theoretical concepts, pillars of institutions (regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive aspects) and elements of the organisation (goals, participants, activities, and social structure) are also reflected in the expectations. We revisit these expectations with the help of the analysis in the previous chapter.

Expectation 1
Goals of an HEI (with respect to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation) are more likely to be influenced by the regulative pillar than other elements of the organisation of the HEI concerning internationalisation.

It was expected that developments in the institutional environment defined by the regulative pillar strongly influence HEIs, as the regulative pillar coercively defines 'the rules of the game'. HEIs should thus respond to influences from the regulative pillar. Furthermore, it was expected that this response, in what HEIs will and will not do, is first and foremost visible in the goals of an HEI. These goals express the formally desired ends of an HEI and also have a symbolic function in acquiring legitimacy and resources (see section 3.3.1). Other elements of the organisation may then follow the direction of these goals, although this may also depend on the perceptions of participants (see below).

Table 6.65 presented an overview of the connections between elements of the organisations and pillars. The links between goals and parts of the regulative pillar (national laws, policies and regulations, Bologna process, perceptions of EU-programmes, quality assurance, and funding and resources) are qualified as medium strong or weak. As little was reported on the connection of goals and quality assurance (N=6), this connection is considered unclear. As for the connection with goals and parts of the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar, the connection with cooperation and competition is qualified as medium strong, while the connection with perceptions of quality, just as the connection with quality assurance, is considered unclear.
The connection between the percentage of foreign degree students and the perceptions of national laws, policies, and regulations as part of the regulative pillar is qualified as medium; half of the cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive national laws, regulations, and policies as influential, while the majority of cases scoring high have either a mixed or critical perception of national laws, regulations and policies. All other connections with the regulative pillar and other parts of HEIs were qualified as weak or unclear. As goals are the only part of the organisation to have two medium strong and two weak connections with regulative aspects of the institutional pillars, expectation 1 cannot be rejected at this time.

Expectation 2
The national level of the regulative pillar is more likely to be of direct influence to goals of an HEI (with respect to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation of HE) than the supranational level.

Expectation 2 partially builds on expectation 1 with respect to the role of goals in relation to the regulative pillar, combined with the ideas on multilevel governance. It was expected that multiple levels of the regulative pillar influence

HEIs, particularly their goals, as the idea behind multilevel governance is an interaction between the different, vertically layered levels of governance. Knowing that most current HEIs are foremost embedded in the nation state (P. Scott, 1998a: 110; Neave, 2001; Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004), as policy issues such as funding and quality assurance are regulated at the national level, it was expected that the national level of the regulative pillar would have more influence on the goals of HEIs than the supranational level.

Table 6.65 qualified the connection between goals and national laws policies and regulations as weak, the connection with the Bologna process as medium strong, and the connection with perceptions of EU programmes as weak. The connections with quality assurance (unclear) and funding and resources (medium strong) are less helpful to test this expectation, as these aspects of the regulative pillar refer to both national and supra- and international characteristics. As the connection with the Bologna process is relatively stronger than the connection with national laws, policies and regulations, expectation 2 is rejected.

Rejecting expectation 2 does not necessarily mean that current HEIs are no longer foremost embedded in the nation state. The implementation of the Bologna Declaration is up to the signatory countries and in this sense the Bologna process is not simply a supranational process, but also a national process sometimes serving specific national interests. Witte states: "...this reform often served to enable, sustain, and amplify developments driven by deeper underlying forces or particular interests." (2006: 464). She also

> demonstrated that while joint declarations at the European level provide the formal framework for the Bologna process, the respective national institutional contexts soon dominated when it came to translating these declarations into actual adaptations of national degree structures. At crucial turning points in national policy formulation, all four HE systems included in [her] study [(Germany, the Netherlands, France and the UK)] displayed a remarkable extent of inward-orientation. The respective policy formulation processes followed their own nationally-driven dynamics; and international role models were only used to legitimate the preferences of national actors, not to bring about true convergence. (2006: 504)

Expectation 3
Change in technology (activities) of an HEI (with respect to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation) is more likely to be influenced by the normative and cultural-cognitive pillars (which are formed through the perceptions of the participants in an HEI) than other elements of the organisation.

Chapter 3 put forward the expectation that how HEIs respond, particularly in terms of their technology (activities), is influenced by the perception of the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar. This perception is combined with the role of participants, which led to expectation 3. This means there are three aspects to

expectation 3, (i) the connection between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar and activities, (ii) the connection between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar and participants, and (iii) the connection between the participants and activities.

Referring to the connection between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar and activities, Table 6.65 qualified the connection between activities and perceptions of quality as weak, while the connection with perceptions of cooperation and competition was unclear. This seems to indicate that there is only a (very) weak connection between the normative and cultural cognitive elements and activities. If the connections with other parts of the organisation and the normative and cultural-cognitive elements are taken into consideration, the connection between goals and cooperation and competition is medium strong, while the connection with perceptions of quality is unclear. Also, the connection with the two types of students and cooperation and competition is medium strong, while their connection with perceptions of quality is weak. The connections with social structure are unclear. It thus seems that elements of the organisation other than technology (activities) are more likely to be influenced by the normative and cultural cognitive elements. This part of expectation 3 is therefore rejected.

Continuing with the next aspect of expectation 3 (the connection between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar and participants), we find a medium strong connection between the percentage of foreign degree students as well as incoming exchange students and perceptions of cooperation and competition. We find that cases with a high percentage of foreign degree students are more likely to be competition oriented than cases scoring low on the percentage of foreign degree students. The same is true for incoming exchange students, although the connection is weaker.

We find a weak connection between perceptions of quality and foreign degree students as well as incoming exchange students. The majority of the cases perceive internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise quality. Based on these findings this part of the expectation should not be rejected, as a connection between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar and participants is visible.

As for the third aspect of expectation 3 (the connection between the participants and activities), Table 6.27 qualifies the connection between the percentage of foreign degree students and activities as weak. The connection between the percentage of incoming exchange students and activities is qualified as medium strong; it seems that the majority of cases scoring average or low on the percentage of incoming exchange students undertake fewer activities than the majority of cases scoring high or very high. These findings are in line with expectation 3 although it needs to be noted that the two types of students have a different strength in their connection with activities.

Considering that other elements of the organisation than technology (activities) seem more likely to be influenced by the normative and cultural-cognitive elements expectation 3 was rejected. However, part of the testing of expectation 3 indicated that there could also be an indirect connection between the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar and activities through the perceptions of participants. Based on the findings in this study this part of expectation 3 should not be rejected for the moment. On the whole, expectation 3 should thus be partially rejected.

Figure 7.1: Revisiting expectation 3
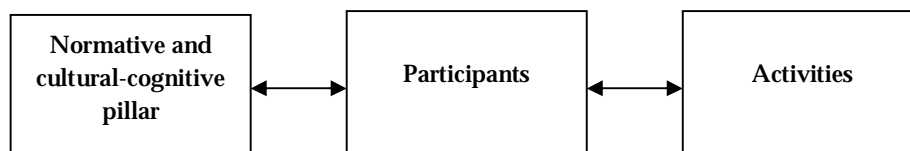
Expectation 4
Responses to Europeanisation, internationalisation, and globalisation are likely to be less consistent within comprehensive HEIs than in specialised HEIs.

It was expected that because academic disciplines have a strong influence on participants in a HEI, the number of different disciplines may also be of influence to the actual response of a HEI, through its activities. In comprehensive HEIs with a large number of different academic disciplines, the diversity of perceptions would likely be higher than in specialised HEIs with one or just a few academic disciplines.

As mentioned in chapter 6, the research design unfortunately did not provide the information about academic disciplines in such a way that a full analysis was possible. Nevertheless, based on the information gathered through the empirical research, the following can be said regarding the fourth expectation.
As argued in chapter 6, the discipline-specific information available shows that different disciplines deal differently with internationalisation and do so for different reasons. Even similar disciplines may choose a different approach.
For instance, technical sciences may seek international cooperation to gain access to large research infrastructure only available in a limited number of laboratories, while smaller disciplines such as philosophy may seek international cooperation to reach a sufficient critical mass and find other, likeminded researchers. An example of similar disciplines choosing different approaches was found with two faculties of law in the Netherlands. There is an interesting difference in the approach of the faculties of law at Alpha Nl and Beta Nl. The faculty of law at Alpha Nl has a national orientation; its programmes are taught in Dutch. The

faculty of law at Beta Nl according to the dean, is trying to include as many internationally oriented subjects as possible in their programmes while remaining nationally accredited as a Dutch law programme. Many subjects are taught in English and the faculty has established a European Law School for both Dutch and foreign students.

Examining the results concerning institutions with a specialised profile (Delta-type cases) it stands out that four of the six Delta cases are amongst the ten highest scoring cases on the percentage of foreign degree students. With Epsilon Nl also quite a specialised institution (life sciences, agriculture), half of the ten highest scoring cases are thus specialised institutions. Table 6.13 however, shows in the overview of academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) per case, that the activities undertaken as well as the number of different activities undertaken by the Delta cases do not differ from the other types of cases.
Based on these findings, it is not possible to draw a final conclusion on expectation 4. This expectation should thus for the moment not be rejected; further research on the influence of academic disciplines concerning internationalisation is needed.

7.2   Answering the central research question

The central research question can be answered after reviewing the theoretically based expectations and analysis of the data:

How do higher education institutions respond to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation and how are the different responses related to internal and external factors?

To answer to the central question to this study, this question was broken down into several research questions:

1.   *How can internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, particularly with reference to higher education, be conceptualised (based on the literature)?*
2.   *How are higher education institutions likely to respond to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation based on the theoretical framework?*
6.   *How are higher education institutions responding to the challenges set by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation, in terms of (internationalisation) policies and activities?*
7.   *What internal factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?*
8.   *What external factors to higher education institutions can be related to the responses of these organisations to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation?*

The previous chapters seem to prove that there are many different responses of the HEIs to the challenges of internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation.

To start, goals of HEIs vary greatly and different goals are combined. Just over half of the cases combine two or more of the types of goals. Goals may even differ to some extent for institutions with similar background variables. Nevertheless, reviewing all the different combinations of goals amongst the institutions, several models based on their goals were visible. These models are formed by cases with similar (combinations of) goals. Figure 7.2 provides an overview of the different models.

Figure 7.2: Main models based on goals (number of cases between brackets)
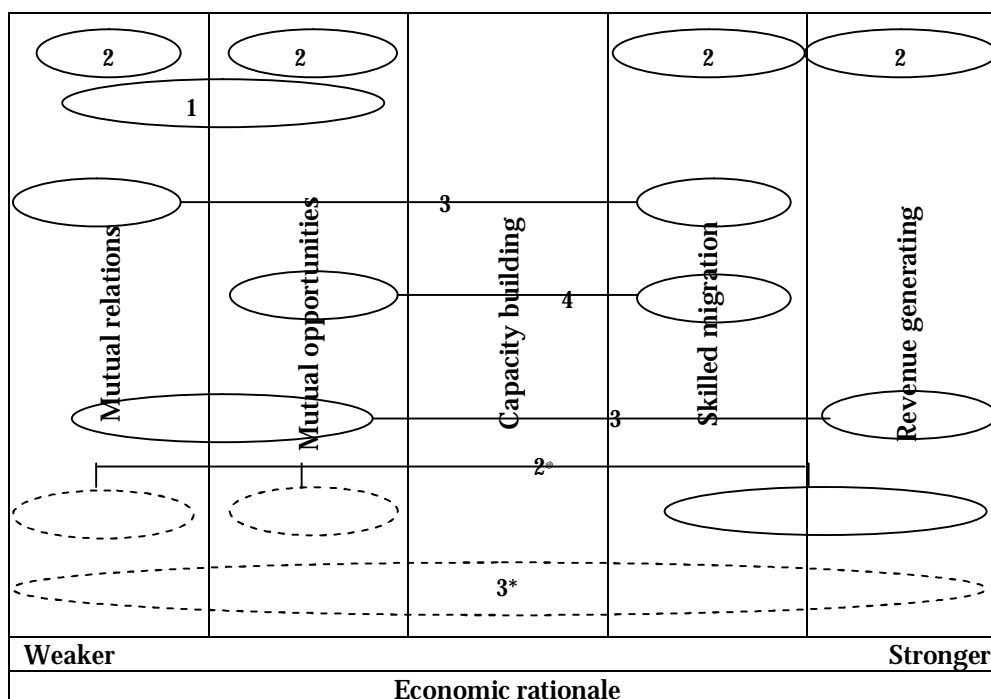
*: three cases combine capacity building with one or more of the other goals

⊚: two cases combining skilled migration and revenue generating with either mutual understading or mutual opportunities

What should be noted is that even though the combinations of goals differ within certain countries, some similar patterns are visible within some of the countries. For example, while Greek and Portuguese cases appear to have little interest in the revenue generating approach, all UK cases and two of the Dutch cases do. The UK cases have very little interest in other approaches; only Epsilon UK seems to

combine the revenue generating approach with other approaches. The two Dutch cases combine the revenue generation goal with skilled migration and mutual opportunities or mutual relations.

The role of participants varies amongst the HEIs, with some with active involvement of staff while others have limited involvement. The way staff is involved in internationalisation differs, but usually the basis for the involvement lays in personal contacts of staff members or through participation in exchange programmes. These personal contacts of staff members are sometimes the basis for further cooperation-- for example when such a personal contact eventually evolves into a bilateral cooperation agreement between two faculties or even two institutions.
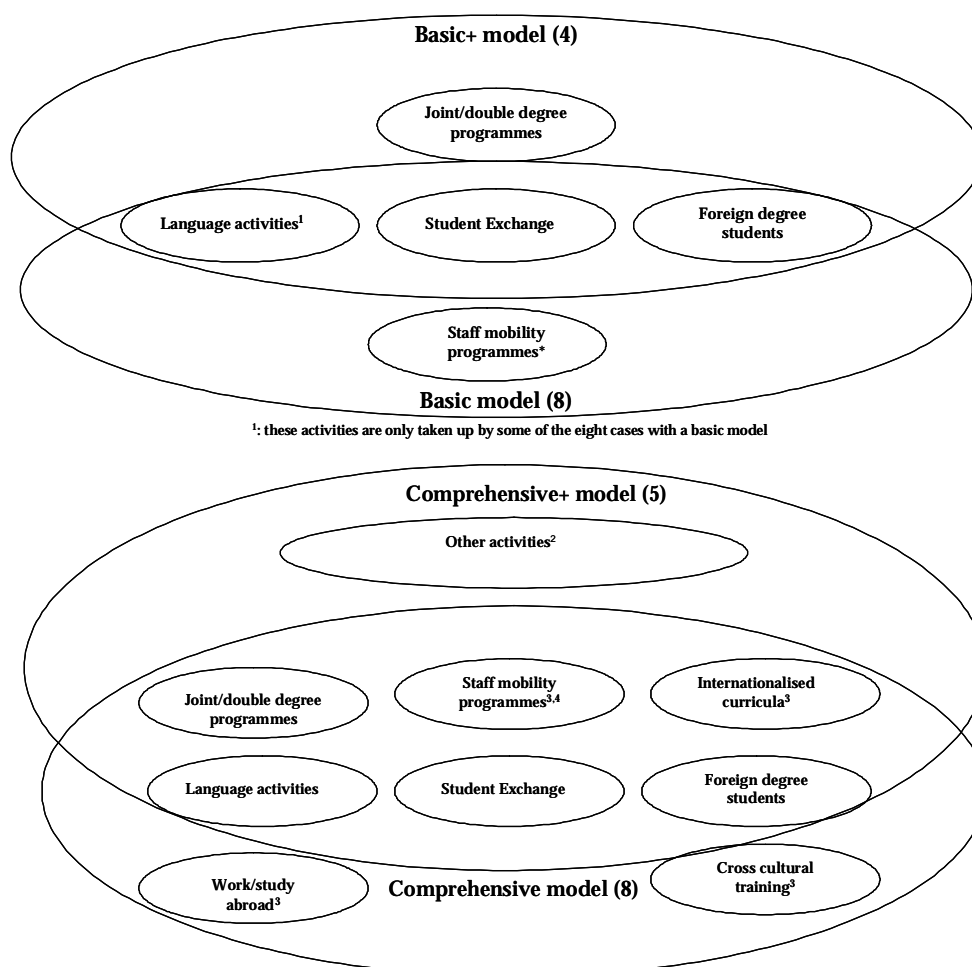
Amongst the institutions, the percentage of incoming exchange students varies from 0,02 % to 8,8 % and the percentage of outgoing exchange students varies from 0,0,3 % to 9,3 %. The difference between the highest scoring case on the percentage of foreign degree student is even larger, from 0,03 % to 55,8 %. Half of the ten highest scoring cases on the percentage of foreign degree students are specialised institutions with a limited number of disciplines.

It seems that the responses to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation become more and more part of the social structures of the HEIs, particularly through the establishment of international offices (or similar support structures). The basic pattern for the support is that these offices facilitate mobility of students, take care of administration concerning internationalisation (for example of exchange programmes) and try to promote internationalisation within the institutions. The majority of these offices appear to focus more on supporting students than supporting staff.

In terms of the academic programme activities (activities related to teaching) undertaken by the HEIs, many (combinations of) activities are visible. The Dutch institutions seem to be most broadly oriented, while the German institutions appear to be more narrowly oriented in comparison. In terms of the five different types of cases categorised in chapter 4 (with the categories based on background variables of the institution), both the Alpha (old research universities) and Delta (specialised institutions) cases appear to be relatively broadly oriented in their activities, while the Epsilon (special) cases are relatively less broadly oriented. What stands out is that only some of the Alpha and Beta (new universities) cases are involved in staff mobility. This seems logical, as these types of cases are research-oriented institutions. In many disciplines, research is international by its nature and often involves international cooperation. Staff mobility programmes can support international research cooperation. What also stands out is that none of the Gamma cases are involved in work/study abroad. These institutions are usually more professionally-oriented in their teaching and less involved in basic research. Many have a regional focus. Apparently, an international focus is less

obvious for professionally-oriented institutions than for research-oriented institutions. This type of HEI attracts different types of students than the research oriented HEIs. As some of the Gamma cases reported, their students do not show much interest in internationalisation. They wish to stay at home and learn their profession. Other types of activities, such as international research projects, participation in networks or extracurricular activities with regard to internationalisation happen, although not so much is reported on these activities as was reported on the activities related to teaching. Based on the activities reported, we construct four models of activities (see Figure 7.3).

Figure 7.3: Main models of activities (number of cases between brackets)

Basic+ model (4)

Joint/double degree programmes

Language activities[1]   Student Exchange   Foreign degree students

Staff mobility programmes*

Basic model (8)

[1]: these activities are only taken up by some of the eight cases with a basic model

Comprehensive+ model (5)

Other activities[2]

Joint/double degree programmes   Staff mobility programmes[3,4]   Internationalised curricula[3]

Language activities   Student Exchange   Foreign degree students

Work/study abroad[3]   **Comprehensive model (8)**   Cross cultural training[3]

[2]: e.g. visiting lecturers, changes in the teaching/learning process; [3]: these activities are only taken up by some of the cases with a comprehensive model;
[4]: Staff mobility programmes are taken up by two of the cases with a comprehensive+ model.

Looking at the different parts of the regulative pillar, we find that the majority of the cases have a mixed perception of national, laws, regulations, and policies. The HEIs seem to be more positive about laws, regulations, and policies at the European level as the analysis of the perceptions of the Bologna process and EU-programmes shows. Little was reported on quality assurance, making it difficult to further analyse this topic. In terms of funding and resources, it seems many HEIs use internationalisation to obtain additional funds. The majority perceive funding for internationalisation as problematic, while many also explicitly perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources.

Continuing with the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar, it is interesting to see that the majority of the institutions perceive both cooperation and competition in higher education as important, which can also be connected to some of the other variables (see Figure 7.5). In terms of quality, the majority of HEIs perceive internationalisation as a means to maintain or raise the quality of education and research. Finally, the discussion of the role of academic disciplines in section 6.3.2.3 shows that different disciplines are likely to deal differently with the response to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. Based on this study however, not much more can be said and further research into the role of academic discipline in responding to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation is needed to understand this relation.

Both internal and external factors seem to play a role in describing the overall responses of the HEIs. Nothing could be reported about connections with the social structure of the cases, as it proved difficult to categorise the cases according to Davies' model (see section 5.2.3.) based on the available data.

Figure 7.4 summarises the answer to the central research question showing all the connections and their strengths as found in chapter 6.

Figure 7.4: Connections between elements of the organisation and pillars
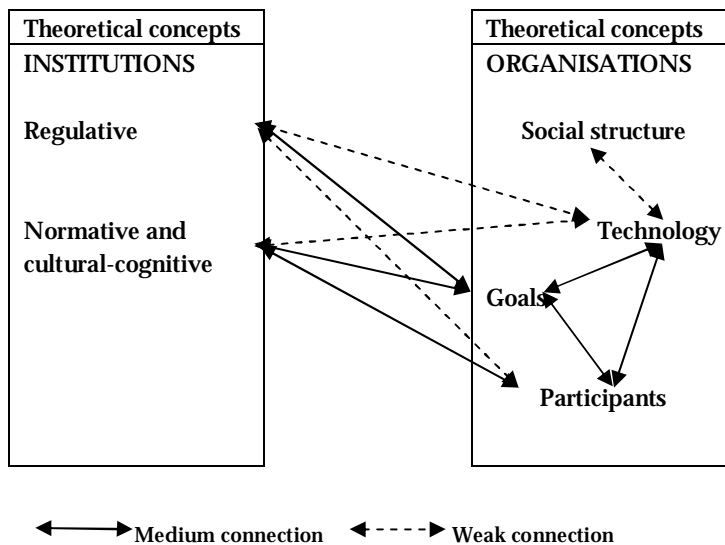
Many connections with goals and other parts of the organisation and aspects of the pillars are visible in Figure 7.4. These connections with goals are often (five out of eleven) of medium strength. Several connections with participants were also visible. Four of these twenty-two connections were qualified as medium strength. Amongst the connections with activities, only two, the connection with goals and incoming exchange students, were considered medium strength. Summarising the medium strong connections, we find them:

- Between goals and the percentage foreign degree students[67];
- Between goals and activities[68];
- Between goals and the Bologna process[69];
- Between goals and funding and resources[70];
- Between goals and cooperation and competition[71];
- Between the percentage of foreign degree students and perception of national laws, policies and regulations[72];
- Between the percentage of foreign degree students and the perception of cooperation and competition[73];
- Between the percentage of incoming exchange students and activities[74];
- Between the percentage of incoming exchange students and the perception of cooperation and competition[75].

Examining these medium strong connections, we see that both the percentage of foreign degree students and the type of goals of an institution play central roles in responding to internationalisation. Five medium strong connections with goals were found: with the Bologna process, funding and resources, cooperation and competition, the percentage of foreign degree students, and the model of

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[67] Economically oriented cases showing a connection with a high percentage of foreign degree students and mutual opportunity cases showing a connection with low/very low percentages of foreign degree students.

[68] The three more economically oriented cases appearing to combine many activities and cases with less economically oriented goals showing some connections, though not in a similar direction.

[69] The more economically oriented cases all appearing to be mainly positive about the Bologna process and the cases with weaker economically oriented goals having a tendency to more mixed thoughts.

[70] Five of the cases with a mutual opportunities goal perceiving funding and resources for internationalisation as problematic and the more economically oriented cases perceiving internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources.

[71] The more economically oriented cases seeming to have a similar perception of cooperation and competition, while the less economically oriented cases appear to have different views.

[72] 'Trend' that half of the cases scoring very low on the percentage of foreign degree students perceive national laws, regulations, and policies as influential, while the majority of cases scoring high on the percentage of foreign degree students have either a mixed or critical perception of national laws, regulations, and policies.

[73] 'Trend' that cases with a high percentage of foreign degree students are more likely to be competition oriented than cases scoring low on the percentage of foreign degree students.

[74] Majority of cases scoring average or low on the percentage of incoming exchange students undertaking fewer activities than the majority of cases scoring high or very high on the percentage of incoming exchange students.

[75] 'Trend' that cases with a high percentage of incoming exchange students are more likely to be competition oriented than cases scoring low on the percentage of incoming exchange students.

activities. These connections all involve cases with more economically oriented goals and all appear to be mainly positive about the Bologna process. Perhaps the Bologna process confirmed their goals and helped the cases to achieve their relatively high percentage of foreign degree students. These cases also seem to perceive internationalisation as a means to obtain funding and resources. Having an economic orientation, this is a logical connection.

Cases with more economic goals seem to have a similar perception of cooperation and competition, namely looking to combine cooperation and competition. Having both cooperation and competition oriented perceptions is not unexpected, as both can be useful in attracting foreign degree students, which is part of their aim (although for different reasons when considering the revenue generating or skilled migration goal). It was also found that having a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students, as well as a comprehensive model of activities, is connected to more economically oriented goals. The relation between the percentage of foreign degree students and the comprehensive model however, was not found to be very strong (compared to the connection between the percentage of incoming exchange students and the comprehensive model). Looking to attract foreign degree students is part of the economically oriented goals (though for different reasons when considering the differences between the revenue generating and skilled migration goal). And perhaps having many activities for this type of student attracts foreign degree students, though it may also be that having relatively many foreign degree students a HEI simply needs to offer many activities to meet their needs. Furthermore, the analysis showed that cases with a high percentage of foreign degree students are more likely to be competition oriented (see below) and have a mixed or critical perception of national laws, regulations, and policies. It could be that these cases find that national laws, policies, and regulations are constraining their efforts to attract these students. These connections are summarised in Figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5: Connections relating to economically oriented goals and relatively high percentage of foreign degree students

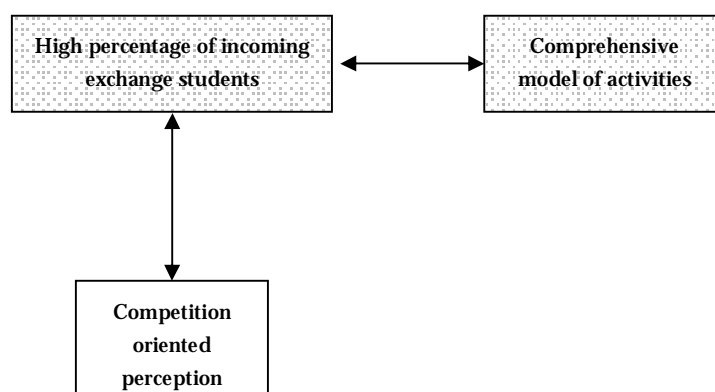Medium connection   Weak connection
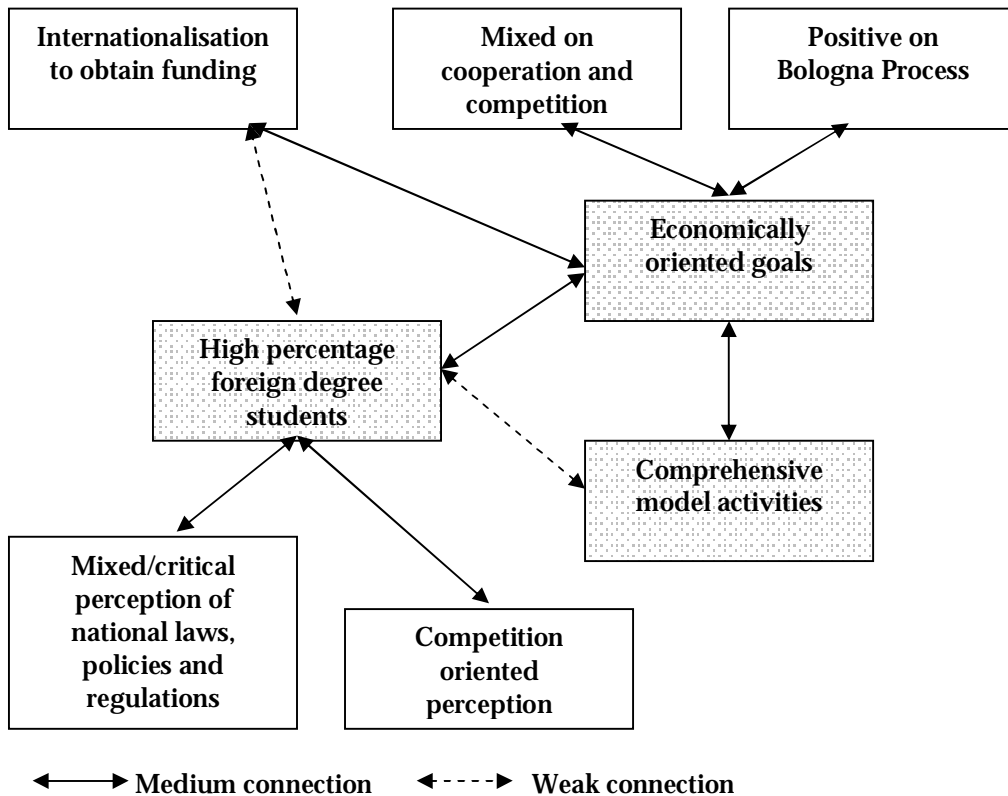
Shaded boxes are parts of the organisation, transparent boxes are elements of pillars of institutions

A high percentage of foreign degree students seems to be connected to more economically oriented goals. This seems logical, as part economically oriented goals is attracting international students (for different reasons). At the same time a high percentage of foreign degree students appears to be connected to a more competitive perception of higher education and internationalisation, while a more economically oriented goal may be connected to a more combined, cooperative and competitive, perception. These separate connections are logical, but in the whole of the connections in Figure 7.5 this is somewhat inconsistent. As there is a medium strong connection between the high percentage of foreign degree students and having economically oriented goals, it would have been consistent if the connections of these two variables with their perception on cooperation and competition would also have been similar.

We also found several connections for incoming exchange students. The majority of cases scoring relatively high on the percentage of incoming exchange students

seem to have a comprehensive or comprehensive+ model of activities. This seems logical as cases with a relatively high number of incoming exchange students will need to provide sufficient activities or – the other way around –the availability of these activities attracts these students. Furthermore, we found a medium strong connection between a relatively high percentage of incoming exchange students with the institution's perception on cooperation and competition; a high percentage of incoming exchange students is connected to more competitive perceptions. This is interesting as in general exchange is considered part of a more cooperation oriented approach to internationalisation, but apparently in practice cases with a relatively high number of exchange students look towards a more competitive approach. Interestingly, no connection was found between activities and the perceptions on cooperation and competition. The connections are summarised in Figure 7.6.

Figure 7.6: Connections based on findings concerning incoming exchange students, activities and perception of cooperation-competition

Shaded boxes are parts of the organisation, transparent boxes are elements of pillars of institutions

7.3   Reflection on theory

Research on internationalisation in higher education has undergone some changes since the early 1990s. Teichler (1994) stated that "most of the research available on academic mobility and international education seems to be occasional, coincidental, sporadic or episodic" (12). In a recent article, Kehm and Teichler (2007) argued that research on international dimensions of higher education is substantially growing in quantity, becoming a thematic priority to higher education research, practitioners and policy-makers, noting that "the proportion of literature addressing more or less exclusively international aspects

of higher education has declined". (261-262). They also "notice an increase of theoretically and methodologically ambitious studies (263).

However, a dominant theoretical approach has not (yet?) emerged. With this in mind, one of the objectives of this study was to see whether a certain theoretical perspective (institutional theory) would help explain internationalisation in higher education and contribute to the general understanding of internationalisation 'at work' in higher education, particularly concerning the responses and activities of HEIs.

How has the theoretical perspective been useful in this study? The main contribution of the theoretical outline described in chapter 3 was the structure it brought to the entire study. It helped to structure both the empirical field work and the analysis of the results of this empirical research. The theoretical perspective was particularly useful in analysing the different parts of a HEI and the way they are involved in internationalisation and in describing the different elements of the environment of HEIs. By neatly describing all these separate parts, the search for the connections between these separate parts was simplified.

The chosen theoretical perspective showed some weaknesses during this study, especially with respect to explanatory capacity, a particular expectation that one has in using theories (i.e., finding a coherent framework for not only describing but also explaining empirical phenomena). As presented in chapters 3 and 5, the pillars of institutions show a certain overlap. For example, it is difficult to draw a line between informal rules, which are part of the regulative pillar, and norms that are part of the normative pillar. This overlap also led to combining the normative and cultural-cognitive pillar in the analysis of the results and proved to be worthwhile.

Second, a specific topic in higher education that was difficult to classify in terms of the pillars was quality. Perceptions of quality express a certain norm in higher education, while quality assurance mechanisms lay down formal rules. The solution to this was that certain aspects of quality are discussed as part of the regulative pillar, while other aspects are taken up as part of the combined normative and cultural-cognitive pillar.

A third issue using this theoretical outline was the difficulty to analyse the direction of a connection between the variables; causality between variables in this sense could not be established, as indicated in section 3.3.2. This is almost inherent to institutional theory, where institutional change is a much debated topic (see section 3.1.2). Whereas some authors believe that "although institutions function to provide stability and order, they themselves undergo change, both incremental and revolutionary" (W. R. Scott, 2001b: 50), others are convinced that "new institutionalism fails to explain adequately the process of institutional change and institutionalisation" (Gorges, 2001: 137). A similar problem was encountered using the organisational model of Scott (see section 3.3.1), where the

model already shows that the different variables are of reciprocal influence on each other. The connections could be distinguished but a more precise causality (direction) between the different variables could not be established. A way to establish a more precise causality could have been to use a different methodological approach, following the cases longer, thus precisely following the changes taking place over time. In this study, the cases were studied at a certain moment in time. However, keeping records on cases over time, one would see the actual order of events and what changes are possibly triggering other changes. For future research using institutional theory, it is advised to consider a longitudinal approach.

Although the theoretical outline proved its use in the structuring and guiding the analysis of this study, the difficulties described above in classifying certain aspects in terms of a specific pillar raises the question of whether the pillars of institutions are defined clearly enough to be used for further research or that other theoretical perspectives might be of more explanatory value. A theoretical perspective that could be of use is historical institutionalism (see for example Pierson & Skocpol, 2002), as this perspective emphasises the conceptualisation of the relationship between institutions and individual behaviour in relatively broad terms (Hall & Taylor, 1996: 938). Considering the central role that participants seem to play in internationalisation of higher education, historical institutionalism might thus be of specific relevance in future research in further understanding the role of participants. Historical institutionalists also tend to have a view of institutional development that emphasises path dependence and unintended consequences. Looking at the development of the responses of HEIs to internationalisation over time might help explain the current responses. For example, with respect to the role of path dependency, the responses of the UK cases are influenced by a policy change in the 1980s when public funding was cut by government.

Because the economical perspective plays a central role in the empirical findings, a more economically and resource-oriented theoretical perspective could be useful to further understand and explain the responses of the cases to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. Such a perspective might be resource dependency theory. Central to this theory is that no organisation is self-sufficient and that organisations need to acquire resources from others to survive. This study shows that many HEIs wishing to compete on the international market of higher education seek to do so in cooperation with other HEIs. Perhaps resource dependency can further explain these combined processes of cooperation and competition. On the whole, through cooperation, interdependencies between HEIs are created and according to resource dependency theorists, organisations will want to minimise their dependencies on others (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; W. R. Scott, 1998c: 116). How this works between HEIs can be part of future research.

7.4   Reflection on methodology

With the research strategy and data collected through the HEIGLO-project, this study used a comparative case study approach. This proved useful, as the results could be placed in their context and was important considering the theoretical approach of this study and the central question. For example, in analysing the different goals of the HEIs, it proved very useful to consider the wider context of a case in order to make a correct assessment of the (combination of) goals of a certain HEI. However, as mentioned in the previous section, it turned out to be problematic to arrive at precise conclusions on causality (on directions of connections between variables) between variables. This is due to the choice of the theoretical framework, but a somewhat different methodological approach could have been useful in finding more information on this causality. Following the cases over a longer period of time, one would see the actual order of events and see what changes possibly trigger other changes.

As described in chapter 4, we selected cases using several (background) variables to prevent bias and based on the aim of representation. Academic disciplines were part of the selection criteria, but only in the sense that we selected both comprehensive and specialised HEIs. In the analysis of the results of the empirical research it turned out that little could be said about the actual role of disciplines in internationalisation, although there were some clear indications that disciplines seem to play a role in internationalisation in higher education. The clearest example was provided in the analysis of the percentage of foreign degree students at the cases, where we found that half of the ten highest scoring cases were specialised institutions. For future research we recommend that when studying the role of academic disciplines the actual disciplines are studied and not aggregates such as hard or soft disciplines. This study shows that certain specific characteristics of a discipline can influence the outlook or response to internationalisation. For example, in small fields of study within a certain country researchers in this field are naturally inclined to cooperate internationally to find sufficient critical mass.

This study selected only cases in western European countries, with a reasonable spread in terms of geographic location and size of the country. This selection provides a picture that arguably represents Western Europe, but is not readily applicable to other parts of the world. Examining outcomes of other studies into internationalisation in higher education such as presented in "Internationalisation and trade in higher education: opportunities and challenges" (OECD, 2004a), it is apparent that underlying rationales and goals in internationalisation are different in for example Australia and Asian countries. Whereas the capacity building approach was only rarely found amongst the cases in this study, it is likely that HEIs in certain Asian countries are built with this approach in mind. A different thinking on internationalisation in different regions of the world is also confirmed in a recent study of the International Association of Universities (IAU, 2007). This

IAU-study also indicates that HEIs in Africa, Asia Pacific, Europe, and Latin America preferably seek cooperation within their own region and with neighbouring countries, while HEIs in North America and the Middle East seem to prefer cooperation with European institutions (see also Knight, 2007). The data of this study does not allow for a further analysis into the cooperation of the HEIs. The results show that that majority of the cases perceive that internationalisation of higher education is related to both cooperation and competition.

For the HEIGLO-project, data was collected by local partners in their home countries. The advantage was that researchers were sensitive to local and national contexts and language was not a barrier. Therefore many different persons collected the data for this study. Even though a similar theoretical and conceptual framework was used, some differences in the case study reports may be present, for example because a certain topic with in a country does not play an important role and is therefore not reported in the case study report or was therefore overlooked by the researchers in the particular country.

What also proved to be somewhat complicated in using the data collected through the HEIGLO-project was that this study differed on the operationalisation of variables on a limited number of points. The reason was that this study tried to analyse the results from a different perspective to add to the outcomes already achieved in the HEIGLO-project. This may explain the few cases categorised in terms of the social structure; the data available on the social structure did not provide the information to categorise many of the cases according to Davies model of ad-hoc/systematic-central/marginal structuring.

7.5   Reflection for policy and practice

Supranational (EU), national, and institutional policies are addressed in this study. This final section reflects on each of these types of policies whilst considering the practical implications these policies have on internationalisation of higher education. A recent IAU study shows that there seems to be agreement that HEIs benefit from internationalisation (IAU, 2007). With this in mind, the reflections will also provide thoughts on further internationalising higher education.

7.5.1   Reflecting on supranational policies

In the context of this study, the EU is the main institution to look at when reflecting on supranational policies. For years, the EU has tried to promote internationalisation in higher education. Originally, cultural political rationales were underlying the EU's policies in higher education; nowadays, a more economic perspective is present (see Verhoeven et al, 2005 and Van Vught, 2007 for a recent historical overview of the EU and its role in higher education). One of the recent major EU strategies showing this economic perspective has been the Lisbon strategy, which aims at making Europe "the most competitive and

dynamic knowledge-driven economy by 2010". In the light of this Lisbon strategy the EU has called upon its member states to modernise their HEIs so they are able to enlarge their contribution to the Lisbon strategy (EU, 2006). From the perspective of the EU, the Bologna process, which started earlier and outside the framework of the EC policies, should contribute to the Lisbon strategy. EU programmes such as ERASMUS Mundus, which "aims to enhance quality in European higher education and to promote intercultural understanding through co-operation with third countries" may also contribute to the commitments of the Lisbon strategy (EU, 2007). For EU policymakers it should be reassuring to see that the majority of the HEIs in this study, particularly the ones with a more economically oriented goal, have a positive perception of the Bologna process (although this may also refer to a positive perception of the way the Bologna Declaration is implemented in a certain country (see Witte, 2006: 464, 505). These more economically oriented HEIs also seem to perceive a need for both cooperation and competition, which is what the EU generally seems to promote with its initiatives. For example, in a recent call to start Knowledge and Innovation Communities (KIC) HEIs and other stakeholders from different countries were asked to put forward joint proposals, after which the available funding will be divided among the winning proposals. HEIs thus need to find their way and balance cooperation and competition (see Van der Wende, 2007).

What should also be reassuring to policymakers of the EU is that the majority of the HEIs in this study perceive the different EU programmes, such as the framework programmes, to influence (mainly positively) their own work. But, it has to be said that some HEIs also warn of the costs involved in participating in EU programmes, often due to bureaucratic procedures, making these HEIs question whether they should continue to participate. The EU should thus try to minimise the bureaucracy involved in its initiatives.

7.5.2   Reflecting on national policies

The introduction of this study stated that HEIs are foremost embedded in nation states. Although that there are some indications that other, particularly European, policy levels might also influence HEIs (see expectation 2), national governments will remain crucial to HEIs. National European governments continue to provide a major part of the funding for higher education.

The call for modernisation of HEIs by the EU also addresses national governments: for example the EU argues that national regulations are too often over-detailed, and that this diminishes universities' responsiveness to changing learning and research needs emerging from markets and society (EU, 2006). National governments need to decide how they wish to contribute to the Lisbon strategy. Action is needed, as Marginson and Van der Wende (2007) also identify that "the increasing under-funding of European higher education institutions was

seen to be jeopardising their capacity to attract and keep the best talent and to strengthen the excellence of their research and teaching activities" (49).

This study shows (see Figure 7.5) that having a combined perception of cooperating and competition is connected to more economically oriented goals; the majority of cases with a more economically oriented goal perceive internationalisation in higher education to be related to both cooperation and competition. Having more economically oriented goals is also connected to a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students and a comprehensive model of activities within a HEI. These cases not only have a relatively high percentage of foreign degree students, they also undertake relatively many activities related to internationalisation. National governments wanting to contribute to internationalisation and by doing so perhaps also contributing to the Lisbon strategy, could choose to invest the much needed additional funding in stimulating their HEIs to cooperate and/or to compete and to aim for a more economic goal. As the IAU survey (2007) shows, investing in international cooperation is considered one of the main strategies to benefit from internationalisation in higher education. Van der Wende (2007) also argues that

> [g]overnments have to consider what is the best way to make the national higher education system more globally competitive: national or international cooperation or competition, or (more likely) a mix of these four options? […] these choices need to be guided by a vision on an effective division of labour and a good balance between global competitiveness and national priorities and interests. (282)

The results of this study indicate that national governments can provide HEIs with a certain amount of autonomy and not interfere with the policies and activities, as long as these HEIs are accountable for their actions. The EU calls for increasing institutional autonomy in the communication from the commission on the modernisation agenda for universities. The EU argues that

> [u]niversities will not become innovative and responsive to change unless they are given real autonomy and accountability. Member States should guide the university sector as a whole through a framework of general rules, policy objectives, funding mechanisms and incentives for education, research and innovation activities. In return for being freed from overregulation and micro-management, universities should accept full *institutional* accountability to society at large for their results. (EU, 2006: 5)

While the results of this study indicate that the goals of a specific HEI play a central role in internationalisation of HEIs, the institutional goals do not necessarily reflect national goals as laid down in national laws, policies, and regulations. The majority of the cases in this study have a mixed perception of the national laws, policies and regulations and only four perceive these laws, regulations and policies as influential. Huisman (2007) states,

> [t]he ideal situation would be that governments put trust in institutions to carry out their designated public roles without government intervention, but it seems — whether one likes it or not — that governments were not and are not convinced that leaving it all up to the higher education institutions themselves would be wise. (219)

Other stakeholders also ask for increasing accountability. Karran (2007: 310) argues that increasing, managerial control is present in Europe, but that this "does not aid achievement of the new goals assigned to higher education, indeed the opposite may be the case". Letting HEIs set their own goals might be more beneficial in further internationalising higher education than setting national goals for HEIs to work on, provided they can be held accountable for their actions and investments.

7.5.3   Reflecting on institutional policies

This study shows that each HEI has its own way of responding to internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. There is no 'one size fits all' solution to responding to challenges brought by internationalisation, Europeanisation, and globalisation. It seems that HEIs, at least for now, are not really becoming more homogenous or 'isomorphic' in their responses, as would have been expected based on the arguments of DiMaggio and Powell on institutions and change (see section 3.3.2 and DiMaggio & Powell, 1991: 65, 67). However, some patterns in responses are visible as shown in figures 7.3 and 7.4, which can be beneficial to HEIs that are shaping, or (re-)considering their internationalisation strategies.

Economic goals play a central role in the first pattern laid out in Figure 7.5. The growing importance of the economic rationale is hardly surprising. Previous studies, such as Kälvemark & Van der Wende (1997; see also section 2.4.4) concluded that in Europe the economic rationale has become more important. It seems that HEIs are increasingly looking for ways other than public funding, including internationalisation, to increase their funding and (human) resources (although for different reasons when considering the revenue generating or skilled migration goal) (see also Verhoeven et al., 2005: 229). Apparently, this trend has been progressing and has brought certain HEIs to a rather clear economic strategy in their response to internationalisation. The empirical research indicates that such a goal is connected to both attracting more foreign degree students and offering a comprehensive list of activities. HEIs seeking to further internationalise their institution could consider setting a more economic goal and by placing the recruitment of foreign degree students higher on the agenda, which consequently implies the need to offer sufficient internationalisation activities. Furthermore, these HEIs could consider seeking international partners, as this might help them compete on the international market, as not only this study shows can be beneficial, but is also argued in a recent IAU study (2007).

Pursuing such a strategy however, might lead to an extra need for personnel to achieve the goals or changing the focus of current personnel and developing new competences. This might then lead to personnel having less time to conduct their regular tasks in research and teaching. This needs to be compensated if HEIs want to maintain their current regular tasks. Compensation can be sought in obtaining extra funding and resources, but it is more likely that additional public funding will be needed (Verhoeven et al., 2005: 232). HEIs should also be careful of becoming reliant on one or a few countries. They should diversify their activities and linkages. This may also mean that HEIs will need to diversify the modes of delivery of their education (e.g., distance learning and overseas campuses) (Middlehurst & Woodfield, 2007: 17).

The other pattern (Figure 7.6) is less comprehensive than Figure 7.5. This pattern shows a relative high percentage of incoming exchange students at HEIs connected to a comprehensive model of activities and a competitive perception of internationalisation of higher education. This pattern may thus be useful to institutions that are more interested in attracting incoming exchange students, showing these HEIs that competing and offering many different activities might help attract these students.

Looking back at all the connections, it stands out that many connections with goals of HEIs were found. This gives goals a central role in HEIs, indicating that setting goals is key in getting other parts of an HEI to respond. It is therefore recommended that HEIs consciously choose their goals in internationalisation and adjust the framework and their activities of their organisation according to these goals. This should be part of the larger strategic planning process of a HEI, or as Mintzberg et al. (1998) argue, strategy is needed to set the direction, focus efforts, define the organisation, and provide consistency.

Finally, we offer a word on the role of academic disciplines in internationalisation. Even though this study did not provide the information about academic disciplines in such a way that further analysis could be done, there are several indications that specific characteristics need to be considered in the internationalisation of higher education discipline. A clear indication that disciplines are likely to play a specific role in internationalisation is that half of the ten highest scoring cases on the percentage of foreign degree students, are specialised institutions with a limited number of disciplines on offer. It is therefore recommended that, having set their institutional goals, HEIs should leave room for the different disciplines present within their institution to respond to internationalisation and contribute to the institutional goals in a way fitting their discipline.

8 Nederlandse samenvatting

8.1 Inleiding

Internationalisering is een belangrijk en breed besproken onderwerp in het hoger onderwijs (HO). Het krijgt vorm door verschillende activiteiten en ontwikkelingen. Bekende activiteiten zijn mobiliteit van studenten en staf, internationale samenwerking en transnationaal onderwijs (o.a. onderwijs aanbieden in een ander land). Internationalisering is geen nieuw fenomeen in het hoger onderwijs, maar is wel veranderd sinds de middeleeuwen, waarin studenten door Europa trokken. Belangrijke ontwikkelingen in de afgelopen jaren zijn de liberalisering van de onderwijsmarkt in relatie tot GATS (*General Agreement on Trade in Services*), het Bologna proces en de Lissabon strategie. Tegelijkertijd dient te worden opgemerkt dat de meeste huidige hogeronderwijsinstellingen afhankelijk zijn van nationale financiering en vallen onder nationale wet- en regelgeving. Dit, in combinatie met de gememoreerde ontwikkelingen alsook het brede scala aan mogelijke activiteiten, heeft internationalisering in het hoger onderwijs complexer gemaakt (zie ook Kehm & Teichler, 2007: 2).

Er is veel onderzoek gedaan naar internationalisering in het hoger onderwijs, maar slechts weinig onderzoek dat gebruik maakt een theoretisch kader dat helpt bij het verklaren van de bevindingen. Wel is een toename in studies met theoretische en methodologische ambities zichtbaar. Desalniettemin is er geen dominant disciplinair of methodologisch perspectief (Kehm & Teichler, 2007).

8.2 Onderzoekvragen

Bovenstaande heeft geleid tot de volgende centrale onderzoeksvraag:

Hoe reageren hoger onderwijs instellingen op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering en hoe zijn de verschillende reacties gerelateerd aan interne en externe factoren?

Deze centrale vraag is onderverdeeld in de volgende onderzoeksvragen:
1. *Hoe kunnen internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering, in het bijzonder in het hoger onderwijs, worden geconceptualiseerd (theoretische onderbouwing)?*

2. *Hoe zullen hogeronderwijsinstellingen reageren op de uitdagingen veroorzaakt door internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering volgens het theoretisch raamwerk?*

3. *Hoe reageren hoger onderwijs instellingen op de uitdagingen veroorzaakt door internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering in termen van (internationaliserings)beleid en activiteiten?*

4. *Welke interne factoren van hogeronderwijsinstellingen kunnen worden gerelateerd aan de reacties van deze instellingen op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering?*

5. *Welke externe factoren van hogeronderwijsinstellingen kunnen worden gerelateerd aan de reacties van deze instellingen op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering?*

8.3   Conceptualisering internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering

Internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering krijgen veel aandacht in de academische literatuur en vanuit verschillende disciplines. De interpretaties van de concepten door verschillende auteurs lopen uiteen. In dit proefschrift worden de begrippen als volgt benaderd. Dit is tevens de beantwoording van de eerste onderzoeksvraag.

Internationalisering
Internationalisering in het hoger onderwijs is:

iedere systematisch uitgevoerde, aanhoudende inspanning gericht op het (meer) ontvankelijk maken van het hoger onderwijs voor de behoeften en vragen zoals die voortkomen uit de globalisering van de maatschappij, de economie en de arbeidsmarkt (Van der Wende, 1997: 19).

Globalisering
Globalisering in het hoger onderwijs is:

Een proces waarin fundamentele sociale arrangementen worden ontkoppeld van hun ruimtelijke (veelal nationale) context door de groei, versnelling en flexibilisering van transnationale stromen van personen, producten, financiën, beelden en informatie (Beerkens, 2004: 24, 241).

Europeanisering
Europeanisering is een regionale versie van internationalisering en in die zin ook een reactie op globalisering.

8.4   Theorie en dimensies voor empirisch onderzoek

Institutionele theorie

Basis voor de keuze voor het theoretisch kader ligt in de centrale onderzoeksvraag. Actie en verandering in organisaties en hun omgeving staan centraal in dit proefschrift. Organisaties worden beschouwd als open systemen (W.R. Scott, 1988c: 27), die in contact staan met hun omgeving en onderdeel zijn van een organisatieveld waarin zij worden beïnvloed door instituties (DiMaggio & Powell: 1991: 64; W.R. Scott, 2001b: 161). Vandaar dat de basis van het theoretisch kader ligt in institutionele theorie. Omdat de reacties van hogeronderwijsinstellingen eveneens centraal staan in dit proefschrift, wordt aanvulling gezocht in inzichten in organisatieverandering in relatie tot institutionele theorie.

Pilaren van instituties

Gekozen is voor de brede benadering van Scott (2001b) met pilaren van instituties. Hij onderscheidt de regulatieve, normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar. In de regulatieve pilaar staan formele regels, die dwingend en sanctionerend zijn, centraal. Bij de normatieve pilaar draait het om normatieve regels die een voorschrijvende, evaluerende en verplichtende dimensie in het sociale leven introduceren. Het betreft normen en waarden die leidend zijn voor actoren. In de cultureel-cognitieve pilaar draait het om gewoonte en routine, waarbij voorbeelden van anderen worden nagevolgd. Opgemerkt moet worden dat de pilaren enige overlap vertonen.
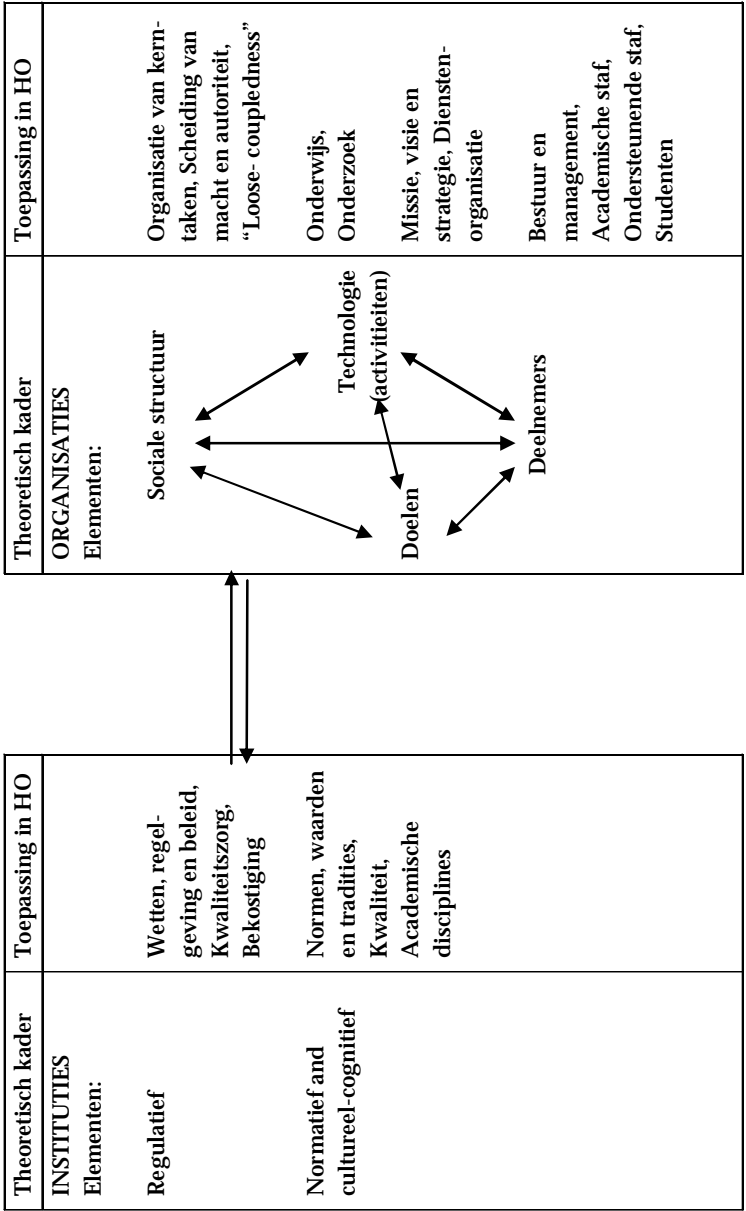
Organisaties

Voor de invulling van het theoretisch kader met betrekking tot organisaties is eveneens gekozen voor werk van Scott (1998c), daar dit aansluit bij zijn pilaren van instituties. Het organisatiemodel van Scott, dat is gebaseerd op Leavitt (1965), onderscheidt vier kernelementen van organisaties: (i) doelen, (ii) deelnemers, (iii) sociale structuur en (iv) technologie (activiteiten).
Doelen zijn datgene wat de deelnemers proberen te bereiken door het uitvoeren van taken. Deelnemers zijn individuen die, vanuit verschillende motieven, een bijdrage leveren aan de organisatie. De sociale structuur van een organisatie is het patroon van relaties tussen deelnemers in de organisatie. Tenslotte, de technologie van een organisatie heeft betrekking op alle activiteiten van een organisatie.

Dit theoretisch kader is toegepast op hoger onderwijs. Deze toepassing wordt samengevat in figuur 8.1. Opgemerkt moet worden dat in verband met de overlap van de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar bij toepassing in het hoger onderwijs, deze twee pilaren in dit proefschrift verder gezamenlijk worden behandeld. Figuur 8.1. vormt tevens het antwoord op de tweede onderzoeksvraag.

Figuur 8.1: Theoretisch kader en dimensies voor empirisch onderzoek

Theoretisch kader	Toepassing in HO
ORGANISATIES Elementen:	
Sociale structuur	Organisatie van kern-taken, Scheiding van macht en autoriteit, "Loose-coupledness"
Technologie (activiteiten)	Onderwijs, Onderzoek
Doelen	Missie, visie en strategie, Diensten-organisatie
Deelnemers	Bestuur en management, Academische staf, Ondersteunende staf, Studenten

Theoretisch kader	Toepassing in HO
INSTITUTIES Elementen:	
Regulatief	Wetten, regel-geving en beleid, Kwaliteitszorg, Bekostiging
Normatief and cultureel-cognitief	Normen, waarden en tradities, Kwaliteit, Academische disciplines

8.5   Verwachtingen

Aan de hand van de discussie van het theoretisch kader en de toepassing ervan op het hoger onderwijs is een viertal verwachtingen geformuleerd. De eerste twee hebben betrekking op de regulatieve pilaar en de laatste twee op de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar.

Gelet op het dwingende karakter van de regulatieve pilaar en hetgeen hogeronderwijsinstellingen ondernemen eerst en vooral zichtbaar is in de doelen, is de eerste verwacht als volgt geformuleerd.

1. ***Doelen van een hogeronderwijsinstelling (in relatie tot internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering) worden eerder beïnvloed door de regulatieve pilaar dan andere elementen van de organisatie van een hogeronderwijsinstelling betreffende internationalisering.***

Er zijn meerdere niveaus binnen de regulatieve pilaar, ook wel bekend als multilevel governance (Jordan, 2001, Peters & Pierre, 2001, Scharpf, 2001). Geconstateerd is dat de meeste huidige hogeronderwijsinstellingen voornamelijk zijn ingebed in de natie staat (zie P. Scott, 1998a: 110; Neave, 2001; Huisman et al., 2001; Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004). De tweede verwachting luidt dan ook:

2. ***Het nationale niveau van de regulatieve pilaar is eerder van directe invloed op doelen van hogeronderwijsinstellingen (in relatie tot internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering van HO) dan het supranationale niveau.***

De percepties van deelnemers in hogeronderwijsinstellingen, met name die van de academische staf, worden veelal beïnvloed door de normen en waarden van de academische disciplines waarin men werkt. Academische disciplines zijn de kern van hoger onderwijs (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Clark, 1983). Wat een hogeronderwijsinstelling daadwerkelijk doet, wordt tot uitdrukking gebracht in de ondernomen activiteiten. Vandaar dat de derde verwachting luidt:

3. ***Verandering in technologie (activiteiten) van een hogeronderwijsinstelling (in relatie tot internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering) wordt eerder beïnvloed door de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar (welke worden gevormd door de percepties van deelnemers in een hogeronderwijsinstelling) dan andere elementen van de organisatie.***

Gelet op de belangrijke rol van academische disciplines in hoger onderwijs, wordt verwacht dat de reacties van hogeronderwijsinstellingen waarin vele disciplines een rol spelen minder consistent zijn dan de reacties van instellingen met slechts één of enkele disciplines:

4. *Reacties op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering zijn minder consistent in brede hogeronderwijsinstellingen dan in gespecialiseerde hogeronderwijsinstellingen.*

8.6   Methodologie

De onderzoeksstrategie van dit proefschrift is gebaseerd op een onderzoeksproject dat is uitgevoerd onder en gefinancierd vanuit het Vijfde Kaderprogramma van de Europese Unie, het HEIGLO-project (Higher Education Institutions' Responses to Europeanisation, Internationalisation and Globalisation). Dit proefschrift maakt gebruik van de resultaten en data van dit project voor verdere analyse. De data zijn verzameld in 2003 en 2004 in zeven West-Europese landen (Duitsland, Griekenland, Nederland, Noorwegen, Oostenrijk, Portugal en het Verenigd Koninkrijk). De auteur was tijdens het gehele project als lid van het kernteam betrokken bij het onderzoek en voerde tevens één van de landenstudies uit.

Er is gekozen voor een vergelijkende case study benadering. De cases zijn geselecteerd op basis van algemene achtergrondkenmerken van de hogeronderwijsinstellingen, waarmee bias in de selectie wordt voorkomen. De achtergrondkenmerken zijn grootte, leeftijd, geografische locatie, missie, variatie in disciplines en aard van de organisatie. De selectie strekt zich uit over geheel West-Europa, van het noorden tot zuiden, en mag als representatief voor West-Europa worden beschouwd. In totaal waren 30 cases beschikbaar voor de nadere analyse.

8.7   Empirische bevindingen

Om de onderzoeksvragen 3, 4 en 5 te beantwoorden zijn de elementen van de organisatie en pilaren van instituties geanalyseerd en met elkaar in verband gebracht.

Organisatie
De volgende beschrijving van de elementen van de organisatie geeft aan hoe de hogeronderwijsinstellingen reageren op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering. Het vormt daarmee het antwoord op de derde onderzoeksvraag.

Doelen
Vijf verschillende doelen met betrekking tot internationalisering zijn onderscheiden (OECD, 2004a):

- **Mutual understanding (MU), in dit onderzoek onderscheiden in[76]:**
  - o **Mutual relations (MR)**
  - o **Mutual opportunities (MO)**
- *Revenue generating (RG)*
- *Skilled migration (SM)*
- **Capacity building (CB)**

Verschillende doelen in relatie tot internationalisering worden binnen de instellingen gecombineerd. Aan de hand van de verschillende combinaties zijn de volgende voornaamste modellen zichtbaar (zie figuur 8.2).

Figuur 8.2: Voornaamste modellen o.b.v. doelen (cijfers verwijzen naar aantal cases)
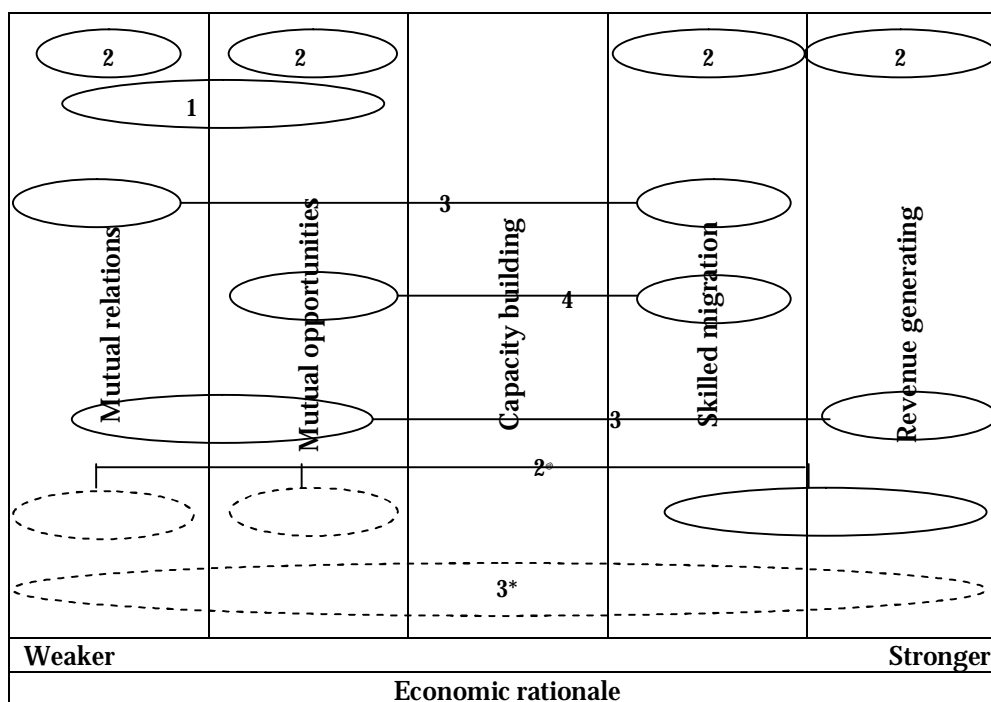
*: three cases combine capacity building with one or more of the other goals

⊚: two cases combining skilled migration and revenue generating with either mutual understading or mutual opportunities

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[76] Mutual Understanding is erg breed en lijkt het startpunt te zijn van de andere doelen zoals beschreven in de publicatie van de OECD (2004a). Een dergelijke brede benadering werd niet zinvol geacht voor de nadere analyse, waarin werd gezocht naar onderscheidende invloeden van bepaalde doelen.

Deelnemers

De rol van bestuur en beheer in internationalisering is wellicht niet altijd erg zichtbaar in hogeronderwijsinstellingen, daar slechts voor enkele cases is gerapporteerd over hun rol. De rol varieert van geen interesse tot actief betrokken.

Bij slechts 13 cases is er gerapporteerd over de rol van de academische staf. Dit is onverwacht, daar algemeen wordt gesteld dat internationalisering wordt gevoed door persoonlijke contacten van stafleden. Mogelijk wordt dit als zo vanzelfsprekend beschouwd, dat het daarom niet wordt gerapporteerd. Voor 12 van de 13 cases wordt aangegeven dat de staf (in toenemende mate) actief is of persoonlijke contacten onderhoudt.
De rol van ondersteunende staf komt voornamelijk tot uitdrukking in de international offices, die mobiliteit van studenten en soms ook academische staf ondersteunen. Ook proberen zij internationalisering te bevorderen binnen de instellingen.

De meeste gegevens zijn beschikbaar over studenten. Het blijkt dat tussen de instellingen de percentages in- en uitgaande uitwisselingsstudenten sterk verschillen. Hetzelfde geldt voor het aantal buitenlandse studenten dat een volledig programma volgt aan de instelling. Het percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten varieert van 0,02% tot 8,8%. Het percentage uitgaande uitwisselingsstudenten varieert van 0,03% tot 9,3% terwijl het percentage buitenlandse studenten dat een volledige opleiding volgt zelfs varieert van 'verwaarloosbaar klein' tot 55,8%. Opvallend is dat de helft van de tien cases met het hoogste percentage buitenlandse studenten, gespecialiseerde hogeronderwijsinstellingen zijn.

Sociale structuur

Over het geheel genomen lijkt het dat internationalisering in toenemende mate onderdeel is van de sociale structuur van de organisaties. Dit is het meest duidelijk in de opgerichte international offices (zie hiervoor). In termen van een marginale/centrale en ad hoc/systematische benadering van activiteiten van internationalisering (Davies, 1995: 16) is het echter lastig uitspraken te doen over de cases, aangezien voornamelijk over de international offices is gerapporteerd.
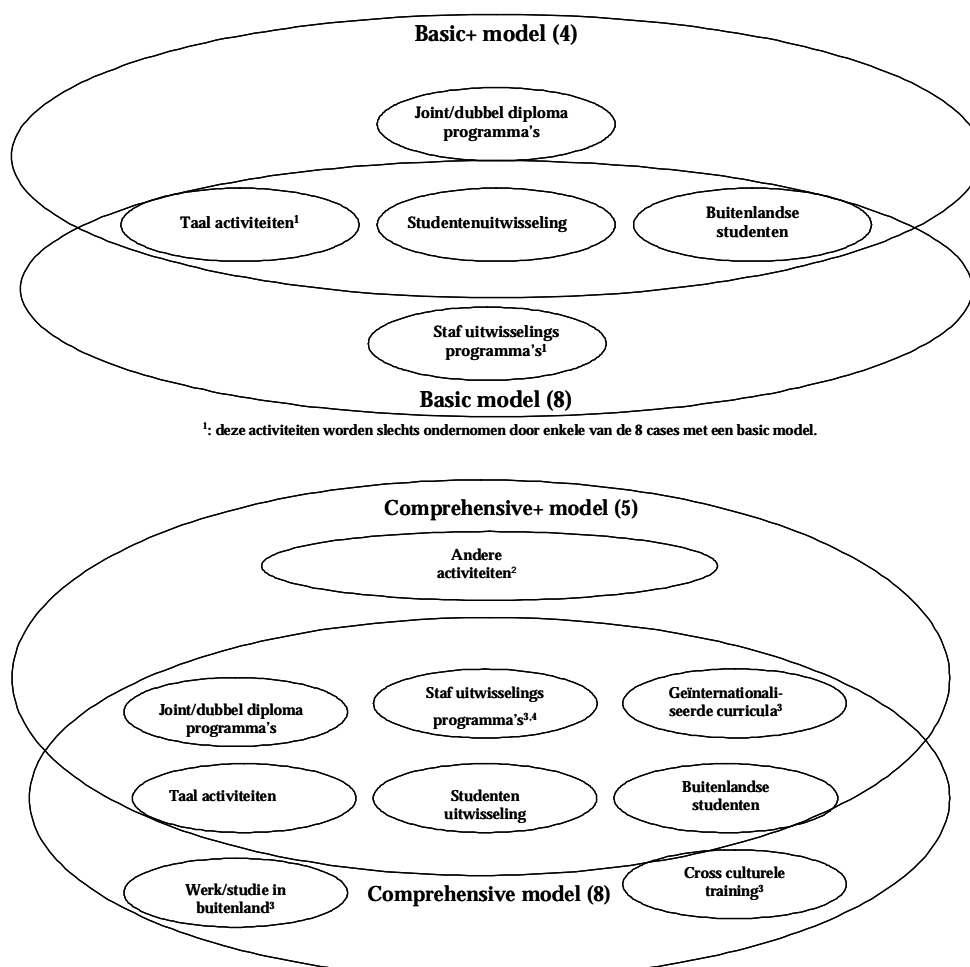
Technologie (activiteiten)

Op basis van de analyse van de onderwijsgerelateerde activiteiten van de organisaties zijn vier veel voorkomende modellen zichtbaar geworden. Deze zijn samengevat in figuur 8.3.

Connecties tussen de elementen van de organisatie

Nadat de verschillende onderdelen van de organisatie zijn beschreven, kan worden geanalyseerd welke elementen op welke wijze of in welke mate met

elkaar in verband kunnen worden gebracht. Opvallend, bij het nader bezien van de connecties, is dat met name economische doelen een duidelijke rol spelen bij de verschillende connecties. Een samenvatting van de connecties tussen de verschillende elementen (doelen, deelnemers, sociale structuur en technologie-activiteiten) wordt gegeven in tabel 8.1.

Figuur 8.3: Veel voorkomende modellen van activiteiten (aantal cases tussen haakjes)

Basic+ model (4)

Joint/dubbel diploma programma's

Taal activiteiten[1]   Studentenuitwisseling   Buitenlandse studenten

Staf uitwisselings programma's[1]

Basic model (8)

[1]: deze activiteiten worden slechts ondernomen door enkele van de 8 cases met een basic model.

Comprehensive+ model (5)

Andere activiteiten[2]

Joint/dubbel diploma programma's   Staf uitwisselings programma's[3,4]   Geïnternationali-seerde curricula[3]

Taal activiteiten   Studenten uitwisseling   Buitenlandse studenten

Werk/studie in buitenland[3]   **Comprehensive model (8)**   Cross culturele training[3]

[2]: bijv. bezoekende hoogleraren, veranderingen in het leerproces; [3]: deze activiteiten worden slechts ondernomen door enkele van de cases met een comprehensive model; [4]: Stafuitwisselingsprogramma's worden ondernomen door twee van de cases met een comprehensive+ model.

Tabel 8.1: Overzicht van connecties tussen elementen van de organisatie

Connectie	Sterk	Gemiddeld	Zwak	Onduidelijk
Doelen-Buitenlandse studenten		X		
Doelen-Uitwisselingsstudenten			X	
Doelen-Sociale structuur				X
Doelen-Activiteiten		X		
B'landse studenten –Soc. Structuur				X
Uitw. studenten-Soc. Structuur				X
B'landse studenten-Activiteiten			X	
Uitw. studenten-Activiteiten		X		
Activiteiten-Sociale structuur			X	

De analyse laat zien dat er een connectie is tussen een meer economisch georiënteerd doel en het relatieve aantal buitenlandse studenten in een instelling. Instellingen met een skilled migration of revenue generating doel beschouwen, om verschillende redenen, het werven van buitenlandse studenten als een belangrijk beleidsinstrument. De meer economisch georiënteerde doelen lijken ook een connectie te hebben met activiteiten; een meer economisch georiënteerd doel lijkt samen te gaan met het combineren van veel verschillende activiteiten, hoewel deze connectie als zwak moet worden beschouwd daar het beeld niet volledig eenduidig was.

Hiernaast zijn er indicaties dat er mogelijk een (negatieve) connectie is tussen het hebben van een mutual opportunities doel en het relatieve percentage buitenlandse studenten in een instelling. Het mutual opportunities doel is ook minder economisch georiënteerd dan revenue generating of skilled migration.

Een zwakke connectie is zichtbaar tussen de doelen van de instellingen en het percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten; een mutual opportunities doel lijkt samen te gaan met een relatief laag percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten. Dit is enigszins onverwacht, omdat mobiliteitsprogramma's een belangrijk beleidsinstrument zijn bij instellingen met een mutual opportunities doel. Mogelijk is een extra interesse in het aantrekken van getalenteerde mensen (zoals bij skilled migration) nodig om echt werk te maken van het werven van inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten.

De connectie tussen inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten en activiteiten is gemiddeld sterk. Cases met een relatief laag percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten ondernemen weinig internationaliseringsactiviteiten, terwijl cases met een relatief hoog percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten een breed aanbod aan activiteiten hebben. Mogelijk trekt een breed aanbod uitwisselingsstudenten aan, wat zou duiden op een proactieve benadering van de instellingen. Maar ook mogelijk is dat het hebben van veel uitwisselingsstudenten uiteindelijk leidt tot een breed aanbod, wat een meer reactieve benadering impliceert.

Deze analyse van de connecties laat zien dat, qua interne factoren, het stellen van doelen alsook het aantal georganiseerde activiteiten een centrale rol speelt bij de reactie van hogeronderwijsinstellingen op internationalisering. Dit is samengevat in figuur 8.4.

Figuur 8.4: Connecties tussen elementen van de organisatie (W. R. Scott, 1998c: 17, aangepast van Leavitt, 1965: 1145)
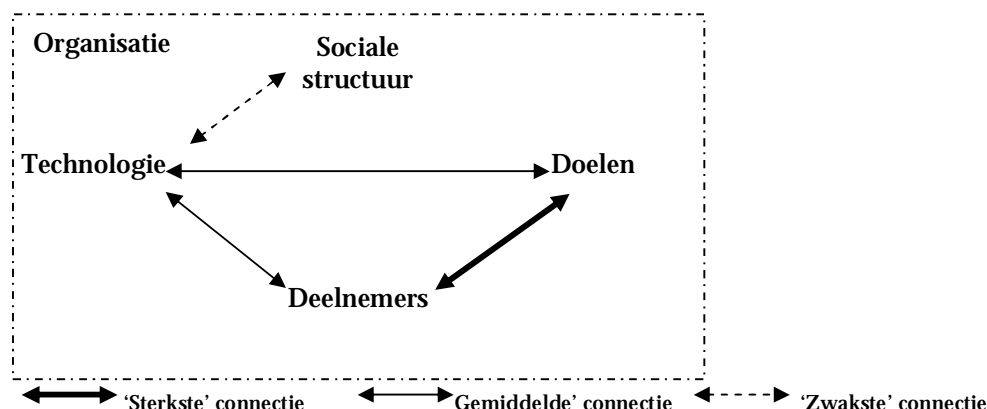
Pilaren van instituties
Regulatieve pilaar
Het merendeel van de organisaties geeft een gemengd beeld van nationaal beleid en wet- en regelgeving. Slechts twee instellingen zijn positief. Over regulatieve invloeden op Europees niveau zijn de instellingen positiever. 15 van de cases zijn positief over het Bologna proces, terwijl er geen negatief zijn; slechts een deel denkt hier gemengd over. 10 van de 17 cases die hebben gerapporteerd over EU-programma's vinden deze van invloed. Over kwaliteitszorg is weinig gemeld door de cases. Ten aanzien van bekostiging in relatie tot internationalisering vinden tien instellingen dit problematisch of hebben zij te weinig interne middelen beschikbaar. Slechts drie instellingen geven aan interne middelen beschikbaar te hebben. Zeven cases geven aan te werken aan internationalisering om middelen aan te trekken.

Normatieve en cultureel cognitieve pilaar
Deze analyse is gestart met na te gaan of de instellingen meer samenwerking of concurrentie nastreven in relatie tot internationalisering. Het blijkt dat de instellingen voornamelijk de combinatie zoeken: samenwerken om de competitie aan te gaan. Vervolgens is gekeken naar de ideeën over kwaliteit in relatie tot internationalisering, waarbij bleek dat de meeste cases die hierover hebben gerapporteerd (12 van de 16) vinden dat internationalisering een positieve bijdrage kan leveren aan de kwaliteit.

Voor wat betreft de analyse van de mogelijke invloed van academische disciplines is geconstateerd dat de indeling in hard/zacht, puur/toegepast gelet op de inrichting van het onderzoek niet bruikbaar was. Uit de verdere analyse van de gegevens is wel gebleken dat verschillende disciplines verschillend omgaan met internationalisering, maar ook dat in een enkel geval een vergelijkbare discipline verschillend omgaat met internationalisering. Belangrijke aanwijzing voor de invloed van academische disciplines op internationalisering is dat van de tien cases met het hoogste percentage buitenlandse studenten, vijf cases gespecialiseerde hogeronderwijsinstellingen zijn die een beperkt aantal disciplines aanbieden.

Connecties tussen de elementen van de organisatie en de pilaren van instituties

Na de analyse van de elementen van de organisatie en de analyse van de pilaren van instituties, is er gekeken naar de mogelijke verbanden tussen de pilaren en de organisatie. Wat opvalt, bij het nader bezien van de (gemiddeld sterke) connecties, is dat drie van de gemiddeld sterke connecties, connecties met doelen betreft, t.w. met het Bologna proces, bekostiging en samenwerking/competitie. Deze connecties betreffen allen meer economisch georiënteerde doelen. De instellingen met een meer economisch georiënteerd doel zijn overwegend positief over het Bologna proces. De instellingen met een dergelijk doel zien in internationalisering een manier om aan extra bekostiging te komen en zij hebben een vergelijkbare opvatting over samenwerking en competitie: zij zien dit als een logische combinatie, samenwerken om de concurrentie beter aan te kunnen.

Ook het percentage buitenlandse studenten dat een volledige opleiding volgt lijkt een centrale rol te spelen, zo blijkt uit het overzicht van de connecties. Zij hebben een gemiddeld sterke connectie met de perceptie van nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving en de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie. Ten aanzien van de connectie met nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving is zichtbaar dat cases die laag scoren op het percentage buitenlandse studenten nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving van invloed achten, terwijl de cases die een hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten hebben, hierover gemengd of kritisch zijn. Bij de connectie tussen het percentage buitenlandse studenten dat een volledige opleiding volgt en de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie kan worden opgemerkt dat een relatief hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten eerder samengaat met een competitie georiënteerde perceptie, terwijl een relatief laag percentage eerder samengaat met een samenwerkingsgerichte perceptie.

Een gemiddeld sterke connectie is ook zichtbaar tussen het percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten en de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie, hoewel deze connectie iets minder sterk is dan die tussen het percentage buitenlandse studenten en de genoemde perceptie. Instellingen met

*Tabel 8.2: Overzicht van connecties tussen elementen van de organisatie en pilaren*

Connectie	Sterk	Gemiddeld	Zwak	Onduidelijk
Doelen-Nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving			X	
Doelen-Bologna proces		X		
Doelen-Percepties EU-programma's			X	
Doelen-Kwaliteitszorg				Weinig gerapp. (N=6)
Doelen-Bekostiging		X		
Doelen-Samenwerking en competitie		X		
Doelen-Percepties van kwaliteit				X
B'landse studenten-Nat. Beleid, wet- en regelg.		X		
Uitw. studenten - Nat. Beleid, wet- en regelg.			X	
B'landse studenten-Bologna proces			X	
Uitw. studenten-Bologna proces			X	
B'landse studenten-Percepties EU-progr.			X	
Uitw. studenten-Percepties EU-programma's			X	
B'landse studenten-Kwaliteitszorg				Weinig gerapp. (N=6)
Uitw. studenten- Kwaliteitszorg				Weinig gerapp. (N=5)
B'landse studenten-Bekostiging			X	
Uitw. studenten-Bekostiging				X
B'landse studenten-Samenwerking en comp.		X		
Uitw. studenten-Samenwerking en competitie		X		
B'landse studenten-Percepties van kwaliteit			X	
Uitw. studenten-Percepties van kwaliteit			X	
Activiteiten- Nat. Beleid, wet- en regelg.			X	
Activiteiten-Bologna Proces				X
Activiteiten-Percepties EU-programma's			X	
Activiteiten- Kwaliteitszorg				Weinig gerapp. (N=5)
Activiteiten-Bekostiging			X	
Activiteiten-Samenwerking en competitie				X
Activiteiten-Percepties van kwaliteit			X	
Social structure- Nat. Beleid, wet- en regelg.				Weinig gerapp. (N=6)
Social structure-Bologna proces				X
Social structure-Percepties EU-programma's				X
Social structure- Kwaliteitszorg				Weinig gerapp. (N=3)
Social structure-Bekostiging				Weinig gerapp. (N=6)
Social structure- Samenwerking en competitie				Weinig gerapp. (N=5) (eenduidig)
Social structure-Percepties van kwaliteit				Weinig gerapp. (N=6)

een relatief hoog percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten zijn eerder competitie-georiënteerd dan de instellingen met een relatief laag percentage.

Verschillende externe factoren spelen een rol bij de reactie van hogeronderwijsinstellingen op internationalisering gelet op de verschillende gemiddelde sterke en zwakke connecties die zijn gevonden. Qua externe factoren lijken met name aspecten uit de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaren, aangezien verschillende connecties met de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie zijn gevonden. Andere externe factoren waar een gemiddeld sterke connectie mee is gevonden, zijn het Bologna proces, bekostiging en nationaal beleid, wet– en regelgeving. Ook valt in het overzicht van connecties (tabel 8.2) op dat deelnemers en doelen een centrale rol spelen in de reacties van de instellingen op internationalisering.

Alle gevonden connecties tussen de pilaren en de organisatie zijn samengevat in tabel 8.2 en visueel weergeven in figuur 8.5. Dit is tevens het antwoord op de vijfde onderzoeksvraag.

Figuur 8.5: Connecties tussen elementen van de organisatie en pilaren
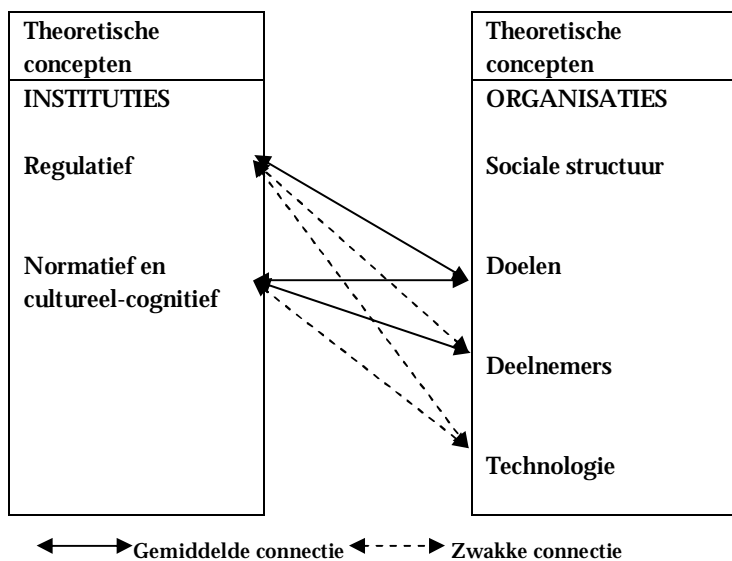
8.8   Conclusies

Toetsen verwachtingen
Op basis van de empirische bevindingen kunnen de verwachtingen worden getoetst.
De eerste verwachting

1. ***Doelen van een hogeronderwijsinstelling (in relatie tot internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering) worden eerder beïnvloed door de regulatieve pilaar dan andere elementen van de organisatie van een hoge onderwijsinstelling betreffende internationalisering***

wordt vooralsnog niet verworpen. De connecties tussen doelen en aspecten van de regulatieve pilaar zijn gekwalificeerd als gemiddeld (twee) of zwak (twee), terwijl op een enkele connectie met studenten en de regulatieve pilaar na alle andere connecties tussen elementen van de organisatie en de regulatieve pilaar zwak of onduidelijk zijn.

2. ***Het nationale niveau van de regulatieve pilaar is eerder van directe invloed op doelen van hogeronderwijsinstellingen (in relatie tot internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering van HO) dan het supranationale niveau.***

Bovenstaande verwachting wordt verworpen, daar de connectie tussen doelen en het Bologna proces sterker is dan de connectie tussen doelen en nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving.

Verwachting 3 bestaat uit meerdere delen:

3. ***Verandering in technologie (activiteiten) van een hogeronderwijsinstelling (in relatie tot internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering) wordt eerder beïnvloed door de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar (welke worden gevormd door de percepties van deelnemers in een hogeronderwijsinstelling) dan andere elementen van de organisatie.***

Ten eerste, ten aanzien van de connectie tussen de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar en technologie (activiteiten) kan worden opgemerkt dat andere elementen (deelnemers, doelen, sociale structuur) van de organisatie dan activiteiten eerder beïnvloed worden door deze pilaren. Dit betekent dat dit deel van verwachting 3 wordt verworpen.

Ten aanzien van de connectie tussen de normatieve en cultureel-cognitieve pilaar en deelnemers is te zien dat daar een connectie, zoals verwacht, zichtbaar is. Het derde aspect, de connectie tussen deelnemers en activiteiten, laat zien dat ook deze connectie aanwezig is, zoals verwacht. Verwachting 3 wordt dus deels verworpen.

4. ***Reacties op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering zijn minder consistent in brede hogeronderwijsinstellingen dan in gespecialiseerde hogeronderwijsinstellingen.***

Zoals eerder opgemerkt bood de opzet van het onderzoek niet de informatie die benodigd was voor een volledige analyse op dit punt. De informatie over academische disciplines laat zien dat deze wel van invloed is op de reactie ten aanzien van internationalisering. Echter, op basis van deze informatie kan geen

uitspraak worden gedaan over verwachting 4 en dus mag deze niet worden verworpen; verder onderzoek is nodig.

Beantwoording centrale onderzoeksvraag
De centrale onderzoeksvraag was als volgt geformuleerd:
Hoe reageren hoger onderwijs instellingen op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering en hoe zijn de verschillende reacties gerelateerd aan interne en externe factoren?

De voorgaande analyse van de empirische bevindingen laat zien dat hogeronderwijsinstellingen verschillend reageren op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering, met hun eigen doelen en activiteiten. Ook de wijze waarop deelnemers betrokken zijn, verschilt. Ter ondersteuning hebben de meeste instellingen een international office opgericht. Verder laat de analyse zien dat er verschillende connecties zijn tussen interne (elementen van de organisatie) en externe (pilaren van instituties) factoren van hoger onderwijs instellingen. Alle connecties, en daarmee ook het antwoord op de centrale onderzoeksvraag, zijn samengevat in figuur 8.6.

Figuur 8.6: Connecties tussen elementen van de organisatie en pilaren
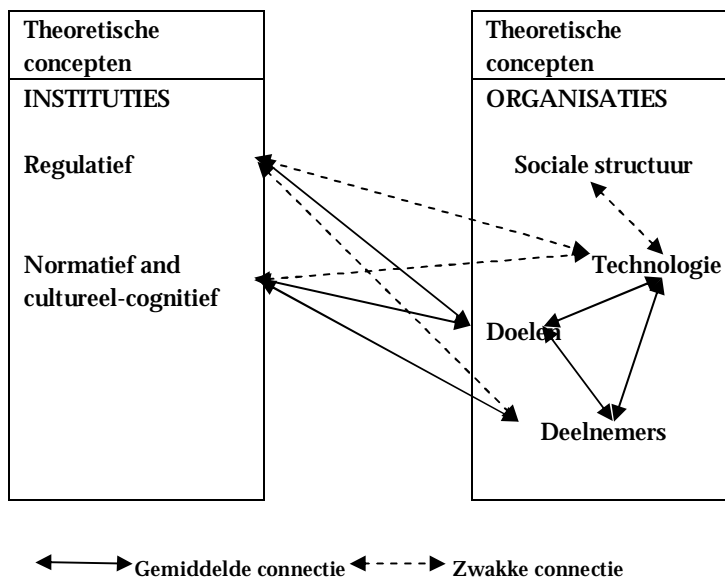
De gemiddeld sterke connecties zijn te vinden:
- Tussen doelen en het percentage buitenlandse studenten;
- Tussen doelen en technologie (activiteiten);
- Tussen doelen en het Bologna proces;
- Tussen doelen en bekostiging;

- Tussen doelen en perceptie van samenwerking en competitie;
- Tussen het percentage buitenlandse studenten en perceptie van nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving;
- Tussen het percentage buitenlandse studenten en de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie;
- Tussen het percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten en activiteiten;
- Tussen het percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten en de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie.

Dit overzicht van de gemiddelde sterke connecties laat zien dat met name het percentage buitenlandse studenten en (economische) doelen van de hogeronderwijsinstellingen een centrale rol spelen bij het reageren op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering.

Deze twee elementen, doelen en buitenlandse studenten staan centraal in figuur 8.7, waarin de connecties gerelateerd met economisch georiënteerde doelen en het percentage buitenlandse studenten de kern vormen. Zoals hiervoor opgemerkt zijn de meer economisch georiënteerde instellingen overwegend positief over het Bologna proces. Mogelijk bevestigt dit proces hun eigen doelen en heeft het hen geholpen bij het realiseren van hun relatief hoge percentage buitenlandse studenten. Hiernaast zien deze instellingen in internationalisering een mogelijkheid om extra bekostiging te verkrijgen en zien zijn zij samenwerking en competitie als combinatie, samenwerken om beter te kunnen concurreren. Dit kan ook helpen bij het aantrekken van buitenlandse studenten, hoewel dit om verschillende redenen kan zijn als we de economisch georiënteerde doelen nader beschouwen (revenue generating is meer gericht op het aantrekken van financiële middelen, bijv. hogere collegegelden van buitenlandse studenten, terwijl skilled migration gericht is op het aantrekken van getalenteerde studenten die een bijdrage leveren aan het academische werk en leven van een instelling). Ook is een connectie tussen een relatief hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten dat een volledige opleiding volgt alsook het hebben van een comprehensive activiteitenmodel en een meer economisch georiënteerd doel gevonden. Wel moet worden opgemerkt dat de connectie tussen het percentage buitenlandse studenten en een comprehensive activiteitenmodel niet erg sterk is (in vergelijking met de connectie tussen het percentage inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten en een comprehensive activiteitenmodel). Verder liet de analyse zien dat instellingen met een hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten eerder een competitieve perceptie hebben van internationalisering en een gemengde of kritische perceptie hebben van nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving. Mogelijk vinden deze instellingen dat nationaal beleid, wet- en regelgeving hen remt in hun inspanningen om buitenlandse studenten aan te trekken.

Figuur 8.7: Connecties met economisch georiënteerde doelen en relatief hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten

→ Gemiddelde connectie   ← - - - → Zwakke connectie
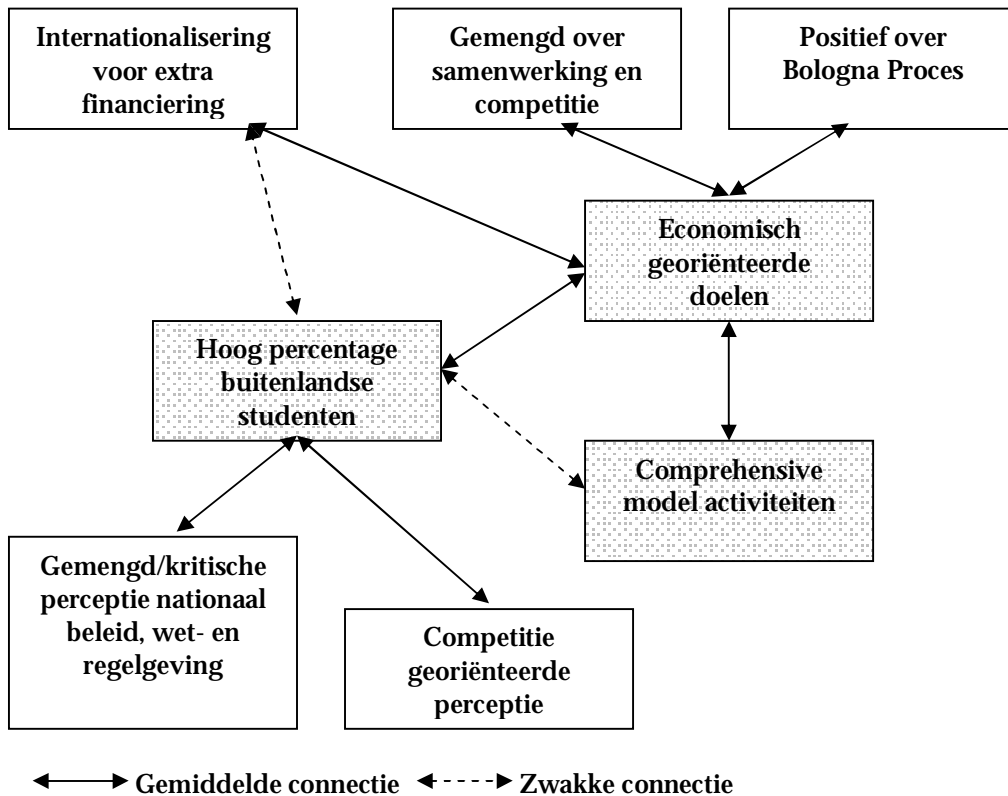
Grijze boxen zijn delen van de organisatie, transparante boxen zijn elementen van de pilaren van instituties

Opgemerkt moet worden dat er een inconsistentie zit in figuur 8.7. Een hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten gaat samen met meer economisch georiënteerde doelen. Tegelijkertijd gaat een hoog percentage buitenlands studenten samen met een meer competitieve perceptie van internationalisering, terwijl een meer economische georiënteerd doel juist samen gaat met een meer gemengde, d.w.z. samenwerking en competitie, benadering. Daar er een gemiddeld sterke connectie is tussen een hoog percentage buitenlandse studenten en het hebben van een meer economisch georiënteerd doel, zou het consistent zijn geweest als de connecties van deze twee variabelen met de perceptie van samenwerking en competitie ook gelijk zou zijn. Mogelijk zijn instellingen waar het gaat om het aantrekken van buitenlandse studenten meer competitief dan wanneer ook andere aspecten van internationalisering worden betrokken, zoals dat in doelen zou moeten worden gereflecteerd.

Ook rond een ander type student, de inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten zijn enige connecties zichtbaar. Deze zijn samengevat in figuur 8.8.

Figuur 8.8: Connecties met inkomende uitwisselingsstudenten, activiteiten en perceptie van samenwerking en competitie
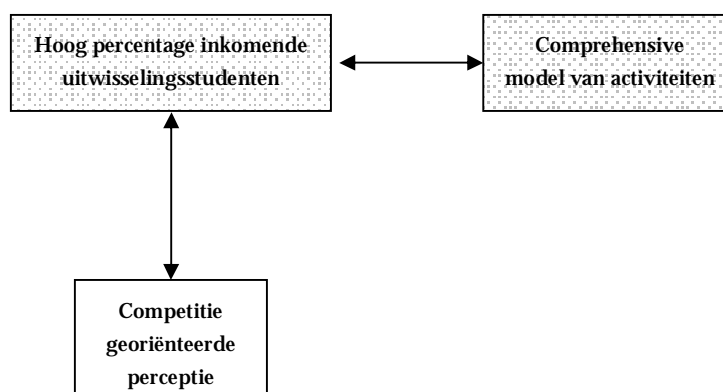
Grijze boxen zijn delen van de organisatie, transparante boxen zijn delen van de pilaren van instituties

Reflectie op theorie, methodologie en beleid en praktijk
Theorie
Belangrijkste punt met betrekking tot de reflectie op de theorie is dat de theorie nuttig is gebleken bij het beschrijven en analyseren van de resultaten, maar dat deze weinig kon bijdragen bij het verklaren van de gevonden resultaten. Dit is meer in het algemeen één van de belangrijkste gesignaleerde problemen bij institutionele theorie (Gorges, 2001).
Andere theoretische kaders of een enigszins andere opzet van het onderzoek kunnen wellicht tegemoet komen aan dit probleem. Een benadering waarin het verloop over tijd meer aandacht krijgt, bijvoorbeeld in historisch institutionalisme of door middel van een onderzoeksopzet waarin een case over een langere periode wordt gevolgd, zou een bijdrage kunnen leveren. Gelet op het belang van de economische rationale bij internationalisering, zoals die zichtbaar is geworden in de analyse, zou een meer economisch getint theoretisch kader nuttig kunnen zijn bij het zoeken naar verklaringen.

Methodologie
Methodologisch gezien hebben de casestudies hun meerwaarde bewezen.
Zoals eerder opgemerkt liet de opzet van het onderzoek het niet toe een vergaande analyse van de rol van academische disciplines uit te voeren. Daar er wel indicaties zijn dat zij van belang zijn, wordt aanbevolen hier bij ander onderzoek naar internationalisering rekening mee te houden.

Verder kan worden opgemerkt dat doordat alleen cases van West-Europese landen zijn betrokken in het onderzoek, dit weliswaar representatief is voor West-Europa, maar dat de resultaten niet zonder meer van toepassing zijn op andere delen van de wereld. Ander onderzoek (zie OECD, 2004a; IAU, 2007) laat zien dat in verschillende delen van de wereld anders wordt gedacht over internationalisering.

Dat de lokale partners in het HEIGLO-project de case studies hebben uitgevoerd, had tot voordeel dat zij gevoel hadden voor de lokale en nationale context en dat taal geen barrière vormde bij de interviews. Wel is zichtbaar dat, ook al werd gebruikt gemaakt van hetzelfde theoretisch kader en conceptueel raamwerk, er enige verschillen zijn opgetreden in de case studie rapporten (bijv. omdat een bepaald onderwerp niet van belang werd geacht in een bepaald land en daarom door de onderzoekers niet werd behandeld). Wat ook enigszins lastig bleek, was dat de gegevens die waren verzameld voor het HEIGLO-project op enkele punten afweken van de operationalisatie voor dit proefschrift. In dit proefschrift werd qua operationalisatie op enkele punten afgeweken van het HEIGLO-project, omdat een analyse van de gegevens vanuit een ander perspectief werd nagestreefd. Op deze wijze werd een toevoeging ten opzichte van het werk van het HEIGLO-project mogelijk.

Beleid en praktijk

Kijkend naar de empirische bevindingen en de ontwikkelingen in Europa met de Lissabon strategie en het Bologna proces, moet het voor beleidsmakers van de EU geruststellend zijn dat de meerderheid van de hogeronderwijsinstellingen in dit onderzoek positief is over het Bologna proces. Dit geldt met name voor de instellingen met meer economisch georiënteerde doelen. Deze instellingen hebben ook een meer gemengde coöperatieve en competitieve benadering, wat eveneens aansluit bij hetgeen de EU voorstaat.

Ook geruststellend voor de beleidsmakers van de EU is dat de meerderheid van hogeronderwijsinstellingen in dit onderzoek EU-programma's (positief) van invloed acht op hun werk. Echter, er wordt wel door enkele instellingen gewaarschuwd voor de hoge mate van bureaucratie die komt kijken bij deelname aan deze programma's.

Voor wat betreft nationaal beleid laat het onderzoek zien dat nationaal beleid nog altijd van groot belang is voor hogeronderwijsinstellingen. Nationale overheden wordt gevraagd een bijdrage te leveren aan de Lissabon strategie. Dit proefschrift laat zien dat met name het stimuleren van samenwerking (om beter te kunnen concurreren) in combinatie met een meer economische oriëntatie kan bijdragen aan verdere internationalisering van het hoger onderwijs (met name in termen van het aantrekken van buitenlandse studenten).

Hoewel nationale overheden sturend kunnen zijn, dient een voldoende mate van autonomie van de instellingen, met voldoende rekenschap, hierbij wel in acht te worden genomen. Autonomie is van belang om te komen tot moderne en

innovatieve hogeronderwijsinstellingen. In de woorden van de EU (2006: 5) "[u]niversiteiten worden niet innovatief en ontvankelijk voor veranderingen als zij niet werkelijke autonomie krijgen en verantwoording moeten afleggen... als tegenprestatie voor het wegnemen van overregulering en micromanagement dienen universiteiten volledige institutionele verantwoording over hun resultaten af te leggen aan de samenleving".

Hoewel het onderzoek laat zien dat iedere instelling op zijn eigen wijze reageert op internationalisering, Europeanisering en globalisering, biedt het onderzoek ook voor hogeronderwijsinstellingen enige aanknopingspunten voor toekomstig beleid. Uit de tabellen 8.1 en 8.2 volgt dat doelen, met name economische doelen, een centrale rol spelen. Het stellen van doelen doet er toe en zou onderdeel moeten zijn van een breder strategisch planningsproces. Zoals Mintzberg et al (1998) stellen: strategie is nodig om de richting aan te geven, focus in inspanningen te brengen, de organisatie te definiëren en duurzaamheid te brengen.
Figuur 8.7 laat de verschillende connecties met deze doelen zien. Hogeronderwijsinstellingen die verder willen werken aan internationalisering zouden moeten overwegen een meer economisch doel na te streven en daarmee het werven van buitenlandse studenten hoger op de agenda te zetten (hoewel dit om verschillende achterliggende redenen kan zijn als gekeken wordt naar het revenue generating of skilled migration doel). Bovendien kan internationalisering en het aantrekken van buitenlandse studenten een positieve bijdrage leveren aan de kwaliteit van onderwijs en onderzoek op een instelling. Dit vraagt tevens om voldoende internationale activiteiten. Wel moet hierbij in de gaten worden gehouden dat een dergelijke strategie om een uitbreiding van de staf vraagt of dat zittende staf de focus dient te verleggen en nieuwe competenties dient te ontwikkelen. Zo'n strategie vergt duidelijk extra middelen.

Ten slotte kan ten aanzien van de rol van academische disciplines het volgende worden opgemerkt. Dit proefschrift geeft verschillende aanwijzingen dat disciplines op eigen wijze omgaan met internationalisering, mede afhankelijk van specifieke kenmerken van deze disciplines. Dit betekent dat hogeronderwijsinstellingen weliswaar een instellingsbrede strategie moeten neerzetten, maar dat daarbinnen ruimte moet worden geboden aan de verschillende disciplines om op hun eigen, natuurlijke manier hier een bijdrage aan te leveren.

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Appendix Case study descriptions[77]

Figure 0.1 Basic data on the Austrian case studies

2003/04	**Alpha**	**Delta 1**	**Delta 2**	**Gamma 1**	**Gamma 2**
Total degree students	23,361	20,134	1,404	2,715	842
Year of start	1585	1898	1841	1993	1994
Disciplines	Compre-hensive (Social and Economic Sciences, Humanities, Law, Natural Sciences, Medicine, Theology)	Specialised (Business and Economics)	Rather specialised (Music, Fine and per-forming Arts, Arts Pedagogy)	Rather compre-hensive (Technology, Media, Business, Social Affairs and Health)	Rather compre-hensive (Technology, Media, Business, Social Work)
% foreign degree students	8.3%	20.8%	55.8%	2.8%	13.0%
% incoming ERASMUS student	1.2%	1.3%	1.3%	1.8%	8.8%
% outgoing ERASMUS students	1.5%	1.3%	0.4%	3.6%	8.6%

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[77] **Huisman, J and M. van der Wende (2004). On cooperation and competition II.**

Figure 0.2 Basic data on the German case studies

	Beta	Gamme	Delta
Size (student numbers) 2004	18,077	8,845	20,076
Age (founded in)	1971 (older roots)	1971	1868
Disciplines	Education, Social sciences, Arts, Art, Architecture, Urban planning, Engineering, Natural sciences, Mathematics, Informatics	Architecture, Economics, Engineering, Social sciences, Design, Viniculture, Computer sciences, Natural sciences	Engineering, Medicine, Life sciences, Food sciences, Economics, Technology, Architecture, Landscape planning, Natural sciences, Mathematics, Informatics
Foreign (degree) students (2003)	14.7%	16%	25%
Incoming ERASMUS students (2002/03)	48 (0.3%)	206 (2.3%)	98 (0.5%)
Outgoing ERASMUS Students (2002/03)	88 (0.5%)	91 (1.0%)	219 (1.1%)

Figure 0.3 Basic data on Greek cases (2000/01)

	Alpha	Beta 1	Beta 2
Fouding Year	1837	1970	1960
Education Sector / Disciplines/ National or Regional orientation	University Comprehensive National orientation All Disciplines except Engineering and Agricultural Studies	University Comprehensive National orientation Most Disciplines including Medicine Prominence of Natural Sciences	University Comprehensive National orientation Most Disciplines including Medicine Prominence of Engineering
Schools/locations*	1	2 (Split-campus)	1
Departments/Under-graduate Study programs*	31	21	17
Total Enrolment *	61.460	9.392	15.356
Students Regularly Registered in Semesters*/Percentage of total AEI or TEI student Population	37.055 (27,5%)	5.769 (3,90%)	10.354 (7,01%)
Full course foreign students**	2.685 (7,24%)	418 (7,24%)	694 (4,52%)
Outgoing ERASMUS mobility****	390 (1,3%)	77 (1,6%)	39 (0,4%)

* Source :   National Statistical Service of Greece

** Source: Ministry of Education. Note: The MoE allocates foreign students to the HEIs. Full   course foreign students are calculated as a percentage of the regularly registered students.

*** Source: European and/or International Relations Offices of the HEIs under study.

**** Source: I.K.Y. (Greek Scholarships Foundation). Percentages are calculated on the number of *eligible* ERASMUS Students, i.e. regularly registered students that have completed the first year of studies.

The absolute numbers for the year 2001-2002 are α 29.182, β1 4.657, β2 8.831,δ 4.893 and γ 12.867.

 # Last available data for the year 1998-99

Figure 0.4 Basic data on the Dutch cases

	Alpha	Beta	Gamma	Delta	Epsilon
Size (student numbers)	15,352*	11,613**	35,396**	3,149**	4,938**
Age (year of start)	1575	1976	1996	1987	1918
Disciplines	Compre-hensive (Huma-nities, Economics, Natural sciences, Medicine & Health, Social sciences)	(fairly) Compre-hensive (Humani-ties, Econo-mics, Life sciences, Medicine & Health, Social sciences)	Compre-hensive (Humani-ties, Econo-mics, Natu-ral sciences, Engineering, Medicine & Health, Social sciences, Arts)	Specialised (Arts)	Specialised (Agricul-ture, Life sciences)
Number of foreign (degree) students	893 (5.8%)*	2.649 (23.1%)**	~1400 (4,0%)	562 (17,8%)**	1220** (24.7%)
Number of incoming exchange Students	386 (2.5%)*	604 (5.3%)*	~100 (0,3%)	60 (1.9%)	~350** (7%)*
Number of outgoing exchange students	310 (2.0%)*	1.077 (9.3%)*	~10 (0,3%)0	14 (0,4%)	~ 50** (1%)

*: In 2002-2003

: In 2003-2004

Figure 0.5 Basic data on the Norwegian case studies

	Alpha	Beta	Gamma	Delta	Epsilon
Size (student numbers)	16,773	6,182	2,352	9,664	703
Age (year of start)	1825	1968	1972	1994	1906
Disciplines	Comprehen-sive (humanities, arts, natural sciences, social sciences, enginee-ring)	Comprehen-sive (humanities, arts, natural sciences, social sciences, enginee-ring)	Rather specialised (health and social work, social sciences, television and media studies)	Number of disciplines (nursing, enginee-ring, health, business and public administra-tion and social work, journalism, library and information science, education, fine art and drama arts and humani-ties)	Specialised (theology)
Number of foreign (degree) students	3.5%	1.9%	0.03%	1.3%	1.8%
Number of incoming ERASMUS students	1.4%	0.9%	0.02%	0.08%	0.06%
Number of outgoing ERASMUS students	0.8%	0.6%	0.04%	0.05%	0.03%

Source: DBH (http://dbh.nsd.uib.no/dbhvev/student/student_meny.cfm), Spring 2003

Figure 0.6 Basic data on the Portuguese case studies (2003)

	Alpha	Beta	Gamma 1	Gamma 2	Delta	Epsilon
Type of institution	Public, University	Public University	Public Polytechnic	Public Polytechnic	Private Polytechnic	Private University
Foundation year	1911	1973	1987	1979	1982	1992
Location	North, large town	South, large town	South-littoral middle size town	North-interior small town	North, large town	South, large town
Number of students	27,000	13,500	10,000	5,700	1,000	3,000
Disciplines	Comprehensive (natural sciences, social sciences, humanities, arts, fine arts, engineering, medicine & health)	Rather specialised (engineering, social sciences, medicine & health)	Rather specialised (engineering, social sciences, art and design)	Rather specialised (engineering, social sciences)	Specialised (fine arts and architecture)	Specialised (social sciences, cinema)
% of incoming mobility students	1.5%	2%	1%	1.2%	0.1%	n/a
% of outgoing mobility students	2%	2%	1%	0.5%	1%	n/a
% of foreign students	3%	5.2%	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Figure 0.7 Basic data on the UK case study universities

	Alpha	Gamma	Epsilon
Student numbers	12,180	13,275	156,425
Foundation Year	1826	1992	1969
Disciplines	Comprehen-sive incl. Medicine	Ex- polytechnic Academic & vocational	Comprehen-sive distance education
% degree students from abroad	22.7%	22.4%	9.0%[a]
Incoming ERASMUS students as % of total students	2.04%	1.07%	N/A
Outgoing ERASMUS students as % of total students	1.71%	negligible	N/A

[a] Students registered at the university living outside the university. In addition there is a large number of students associated with the university through partnership arrangements, and use of its course materials