

**The Internationalising of Universities:
A Comparative Case Study of
a British University and a Hong Kong University**

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The Internationalising of Universities: A Comparative Case Study of A British University and a Hong Kong University

Wendy Woon-Yin Chan, EdD

Abstract

This study aims to clarify the role played by internationalisation in the functioning of universities in different institutional, national and cultural contexts. It examines the meanings and concepts of internationalisation, why and how universities internationalise, whether there are barriers and associated disadvantages and risks, and what are the perceived outcomes of internationalisation.

The study uses a case study approach, involving the selection of two contrasting universities, namely, the University of Leicester and Hong Kong Baptist University. The choice of these two case universities was based on maximising differences in culture, geographical location, institutional type, and function, as well as feasibility of access. Guided by a literature review and five specific research questions, in-depth interviews and documentary analysis were carried out in Hong Kong and Leicester between July 2005 and April 2006. Data were open coded in accordance with the first stage of the grounded theory method of data analysis and subsequently compared and grouped on a thematic basis.

Four major findings and two models emerged. First, university internationalisation as a concept is complex, multifaceted and value-laden. Second, the contrasting characters of the two case universities explain the diverse responses that each makes to the call for internationalisation in terms of purposes, strategies, processes, and practices. Third, the origin of the present emphasis on internationalisation at the two case universities is anything but planned. Having begun the process, however, internationalisation has become an entrenched and integral part in the institutional life of both universities. Fourth, some positive evidence of intercultural learning is apparent in both universities indicating that the efforts to internationalise in an otherwise globalising world of higher education have born fruition. Finally, two tentative models of internationalisation, the “internationalist” and “translocalist,” are presented for further theoretical investigation.

Keywords: Internationalisation of higher education, international education, international students, Hong Kong higher education, U.K. higher education.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

(1) Problem Statement

The study of the internationalisation of higher education is a new and growing research field reflecting its increasing strategic importance (de Wit 2002). Although it is often argued that universities are “international” by nature, internationalisation in its current heightened state and organised form began only over the past two decades. De Wit (2002) also notes that the international nature of higher education has more to do with research than teaching. However, there is no simple or easy definition of internationalisation. The problem arises from the fact that internationalisation is “a portmanteau concept” used in many contexts and discourses (Callan 2000). It can be used to express an educational value, a social agenda, a national policy, a process, and is sometimes used also interchangeably and misleadingly with the term “globalisation.” In higher education, the meanings and interpretations of internationalisation have shifted according to the various rationales, incentives, activities encompassed therein, and the political and economic circumstances within which internationalisation takes place (Callan 2000).

In one discourse, internationalisation of higher education is interpreted as a counteracting force against the converging effect of globalisation. Coupled with the advancement of information technology, globalising forces have broken down spatio-temporal boundaries. In order to prepare students to work in this borderless world, higher education institutions worldwide internationalise by

“integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight 2004). For despite the collapse of borders, the uniqueness of individual societies and cultures is expected to endure and it is important to promote “inter-national” and “inter-cultural” cooperation and understanding (Lewis 1998). Today, economic rationales predominate and universities in English-speaking countries are increasingly relying on overseas student fees to sustain their research and teaching (Elliott 1998). The economic rationale is, however, often tied in with an academic argument that, rightly or wrongly, internationalisation equates with quality. To be international conveys status in some way and is a symbol of prestige (Teather 2001).

The central issue underpinning this study is whether universities across the world uniformly share the above views? Or do they frame their responses to internationalisation differently? To seek answers to these questions, two contrasting cases, namely, the University of Leicester (U of L) in the U.K. and Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU) in Hong Kong, have been chosen for this study. As will be explained later, they are two different types of universities, located in two different cultures, and the rich contrast between them is expected to illustrate the magnitude and the range of difference in regard to how the internationalising of universities is manifesting itself in different contexts. The central problem with which this study is concerned thus focuses on why and how two contrasting universities in different cultural and political contexts go about the process of internationalising.

(2) Research Aims and Objectives

In line with the problem statement, the main objective of this research is to understand the phenomenon of the internationalising of universities across institutional, national, and cultural boundaries. Universities do not exist in a vacuum and forces both within and outside of their walls will influence the direction and extent of their internationalisation efforts (Cuthbert 2002). Hong Kong and British universities operate in very different environments, though there are also many similarities between the two higher education systems due to historical reasons.

Similar to British universities, universities in Hong Kong are managed as independent corporations, with a buffer organisation – the University Grants Committee in Hong Kong, which is equivalent to the Higher Education Funding Councils for England, Scotland and Wales in the United Kingdom – offering a certain degree of protection from direct government involvement in their affairs. Following the degree system in Britain, most degree programmes in Hong Kong are of three-year duration and Hong Kong polytechnics were renamed universities after the abolition of the binary system in Britain in 1992. Finally, quality assurance measures such as the Research Assessment Exercise, the Teaching and Learning Process and Quality Review, and Management Audit, were copied directly from Britain during the last decade.

However, as Dimmock (2002) points out, similarity on the surface might hide differences of actual *modus operandi* beneath. For example, different societies may seem to adopt the same policies, but “the meanings and

interpretations each attaches to the core ideas and concepts may vary dramatically” (Dimmock 2002, p. 32).

There are also a lot of dissimilarities between the two systems in which the two case universities are located. Most notable of these is the student population in the British and Hong Kong higher education systems. Britain has been one of the world’s largest higher education destinations. In 2004-05, Britain ranked second after the United States in foreign student enrolment catering to some 318,400 students from all over the world (HESA 2006). In contrast, the undergraduate student population in Hong Kong is very homogeneous. It is almost entirely Cantonese speakers from Hong Kong. In fact, the government places a limit on the number of students to be admitted from outside of Hong Kong. In 1998, a year after the territory was returned to China, the quota for non-local students at undergraduate and taught postgraduate levels was four percent of the yearly student intake. The purpose of admitting students from outside of Hong Kong is purportedly to “inject an element of healthy competition and enhance the global outlook of local students” (Hong Kong Government 1997, p. 40). Since 2005-06, the universities have been allowed to recruit up to 10 percent non-local students in undergraduate programmes and one-third non-local students in postgraduate research programmes. There is now no limit to the recruitment of non-local students in taught postgraduate courses, as these courses are no longer funded by the government. Most universities have filled this quota with students from mainland China.

The universities in Hong Kong and Britain certainly operate in very different environments despite their similarities in certain aspects. What are the forces in Hong Kong and the United Kingdom that influence the internationalisation efforts of the two universities under study? Does internationalisation mean different things to them? If so, what are the reasons for the difference? Are there barriers to internationalisation in Hong Kong and the United Kingdom? If so, what strategies have been employed to deal with them? Are there also disadvantages and risks associated with internationalisation, actual or perceived? What have been their experiences, challenges, and achievements in the internationalising process? These are some of the questions that the study aims to address. Answers to these questions will shed light not only on the question of internationalisation of higher education, but also on institutional policy regarding, and the management of, the core functions of the university, that is, teaching and learning and research in Hong Kong and Britain. Answers to these questions may also reveal a culturally and contextually specific concept of internationalisation and a rhetoric-reality gap in terms of proclamation and fact.

(3) Rationale underlying the Study

The word “internationalisation” is not new, but it began to be used in education only about two decades ago. Before the 1980s, the term “international education” was more commonly used. It is still in circulation, particularly in the United States (de Wit 2002, p. 104; Knight 2004, p. 6). However, despite the increasing

importance of internationalisation in higher education, research of this topic has been undertaken primarily by “occasional researching practitioners and applied higher education researchers” whose research focus is more often on “practical” rather than “theoretical or methodological issues” (Teichler 1996, quoted in de Wit 2002, p. 212). This seems to be confirmed by a search through the literature and resources available on the topic. A recent search of the website of the Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC) for literature on “internationalisation of higher education” and “international education, higher education” yielded 609 records dated between 1980 and 2004. Of these 609 records, 179 records were found to be of relevance, in one way or another, to the internationalisation of higher education or international education in higher education. The majority of these 179 records are reports, surveys, reviews, and descriptions of institutional/national efforts in the internationalisation of higher education or international education in higher education, usually in terms of specific programmes and activities, and are mostly written from the practitioner’s perspective. Hence, de Wit (2002) urges schools of education as well as other disciplines to encourage research on the internationalising of universities so that it has the chance of being accepted by the community of higher education researchers as a research field in its own right.

The growing research interest in the internationalisation of higher education is also due to the increasing professionalisation of international education as “an organised activity” (de Wit 2002, p. xvi) and the formation after World War I (WW1) of international education organisations, such as the Institute

of International Education (IIE) in the U.S. in 1919, the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) in 1925, and the British Council in 1934. After the war, the desire for “peace and mutual understanding” was heightened and it was hoped that it could be advanced through the promotion of international education and academic exchange (de Wit 2002). International education exchange further expanded after WWII, particularly in the U.S., with the establishment of the Fulbright Programme in 1946 and the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE) in 1947. As the number of people working in the field grew, professional associations were formed. One of the first such organisations was the Association of International Educators (NAFSA) in the U.S., which came into being in 1948. The United States was perhaps the most avid proponent of international education until the 1980s when the European Union also decided to play an active role in promoting internationalisation of higher education in Europe. Its initiative has led to the establishment of international offices at numerous European higher education institutions and the subsequent formation of the European Association of European Education (EAIE) in the late 1980s.

In regard to the rationale for the present study, after an extensive literature search, it seems that there is as yet no *in-depth, comparative, cross-cultural case study at an institutional level of the internationalisation of higher education*. There are a number of doctoral theses on the internationalisation of higher education over the past decade (Cravcenco 2004; Healy 2002; Hovie 2003; Hser 2003; Jiang 2005; Lowenthal 1998; Nilphan 2005; Parsons 2001; Söderqvist 2002; Tan

2003; Walker 1997), but none of them represents in-depth cross-cultural case studies at the institutional level.

Cross-cultural research in education is an increasingly significant field of research because of a growing awareness of the need for cultural and contextual sensitivity in the transfer of western theories or practices to non-western societies (Dimmock 2002). The present study seeks to fill this gap through the study of two contrasting case universities – a research university in the United Kingdom and a primarily undergraduate teaching university in Hong Kong, China.

(4) The Main Research Question and Specific Research Questions

In line with the above discussion, the main research question is:

What is the part played by internationalisation in the functioning of the two case universities, one in the UK and the other in Hong Kong?

The question will be addressed through documentary analysis, and in-depth interviews with key personnel engaged in internationalisation including faculty and academic administrators at different levels in the two case universities.

The main research question is fractured into the following five specific research questions to guide the data collection and analysis process:

1. What does internationalisation mean to the two case Hong Kong and British universities?
2. Why are the two case universities internationalising, and are they internationalising in distinctive ways?
3. What policies and programmes are in place to support internationalisation efforts at the two universities?

4. Are there any perceived barriers to internationalisation, and are there risks and disadvantages involved in internationalisation?
5. What are the outcomes and results of internationalisation, whether they are factual or perceived?

(5) Significance and Outcomes of the Study

Dimmock (2000) suggests that successful implementation of policy “is more likely when policy principles and practices harmonise with prevailing features of host cultures” (p. 191). This was fully illustrated by a case study of an attempt to implement a U.S. educational model in a Thai village (Gipson 2000). Although the intention was “to ‘globalise’ education, without compromising cultural identity,” the project failed in the end (p. 316). Apart from finances and the difficulty of developing a technological infrastructure, the project failed because “the cultural divides were too great” (Gipson 2000, p. 329). In the same vein, Bartell (2003) found that successful internationalisation requires “institutionalising a strategic planning process that is representative and participative in that it recognises and utilises the power of the culture within which it occurs” (p. 43). Indeed, certain programme strategies were found to be unique to Asian countries. For example, because of their colonial past and economic status, there was a strong emphasis on “the appointments of expatriates” and “international contacts were limited to a one-way North-South relationship” (Knight and de Wit 1997, p. 174).

Therefore, a major outcome of the present study is to discover whether there exist uniquely Hong Kong and British versions of internationalisation. The

findings should be of great interest to researchers and students of cross-cultural studies as well as those in the study of the internationalisation of higher education. Apart from shedding light on the internationalising of universities, this study may also be able to tell us something about the cultures of Hong Kong and Britain in general, and the institutional and management culture of the two case universities, in particular. In this regard, Hope (1996) points out the unique situation presently facing Hong Kong and the competing demands of localisation and internationalisation. As it tries to reintegrate with the motherland and reassert its Chinese identity, Hong Kong also cherishes “the best elements of the past colonial heritage,” particularly with regard to retaining “an international perspective” (Hope 1996, p. 100). In higher education, the quality of local universities is often measured by the number of foreign faculty or international institutional links they have, no matter how insignificant these links may be. In this way, internationalisation has become, with or without logic, a presumed factor for quality and status. For example, the internationalising of universities is deemed to be able to bring in positive competition and raise the standing of Hong Kong as an international educational hub (Sing Tao News 2004).

Thus, the findings of this study should also be of interest to policy makers who have a role in the internationalisation of higher education and to others interested in academic exchange. The findings will be able to inform the funding bodies and university vice-chancellors and their senior colleagues as to what kinds of policy and programme strategies should be in place and what kinds of encouragement they should offer to their faculty and students to get them

involved in the internationalisation of the campus. In the United States, the Title VI grants and Fulbright-Hays programmes initiated by the U.S. government in the 1950s and 1960s have had a huge impact on the development of international studies on U.S. university campuses and institutional exchange activities between American universities and those outside of the U.S. borders (Hines 2001; Wiley 2001). In recent decades, strategies to Europeanise and internationalise higher education were placed high on the agenda of the European Union, national governments and universities in Europe. Similarly, higher education policies with international implications promulgated by the Hong Kong and British governments influence their respective higher education sectors, particularly as most universities still rely heavily on public funding. For example, since the Hong Kong government relaxed the quota of the recruitment of non-local students, the number of non-local students at HKBU has nearly quadrupled. In the U.K., a sharp decline in public funding, coupled with the introduction of full-cost fees for foreign students in the late 1970s, has provided U.K. universities with a compelling reason to tap into the global educational market.

(6) Structure of the Thesis

The literature review in Chapter Two begins with the exploration of the concepts and meanings of internationalisation, followed by discussion of the forces of globalisation specific to the higher education sector, the motivations and rationales for internationalisation, organisational and programme strategies,

disadvantages, risks, and barriers, ending at the end of the review with perceived outcomes of internationalisation. Chapter Three on research methodology explains the rationale for the research methods adopted for this study. It explores the interpretive paradigm, within which the study is located, the coding processes using the grounded theory methods, and the qualitative case study methods of in-depth interviewing and documentary analysis. It is followed by findings and analysis, part one and part two, respectively, in Chapters Four and Five. Chapter Four looks at background factors and the beginnings of the current heightened state of internationalisation at the two case universities. The first section of Chapter Four, “setting the tone,” answers the first specific research question about the meanings and concepts of internationalisation. It concerns institutional positioning, outlook, values, and beliefs that facilitate the institutions and personnel therein to respond to certain needs for action and, in this case, to internationalise their institutions. The second section, “responding to threats and opportunities (*weiji*),” describes how and when the current heightened state of internationalisation began at the two case universities. In section three, “rationalising actions,” the benefits of internationalisation are discussed, that is, why they do what they do. Together, sections two and three answer the second specific research question of why the two case universities are internationalising and whether they are internationalising in distinctive ways.

Chapter Five presents part two of the findings and analysis and examines the more substantial side of the internationalising process. Section one of Chapter Five, “building a broader context,” answers the third specific research

question and lists some of the organisational and programme strategies that the two case universities have implemented in line with their circumstances and conditions. The fourth specific research question regarding challenges and problems in terms of barriers, disadvantages, and risks is dealt with in section two, and, finally, the fifth specific research question about perceived outcomes of their internationalising efforts is discussed in section three, “growing the internationalisation tree of fruit.” The metaphor of the internationalisation tree is borrowed and modified from Söderqvist and Parsons (2005). The metaphor befits the processes in which the internationalising of the two case universities is located. In keeping with the annual growth cycle of the tree, each year the two case universities produce a crop of graduates entering the economy. As a result of the internationalising efforts of their alma maters, how, if at all, are these graduates influenced by those efforts and how might they possibly enjoy the fruits of internationalisation? Discussion and conclusion in Chapter Six concludes the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The main objective of this study is to understand the phenomenon of the internationalising of universities across institutional, national, and cultural boundaries. The main research question is: What is the part played by internationalisation in the functioning of the two case universities, one in the UK and the other in Hong Kong? Under the main research question, five specific research questions are asked. *First*, what does internationalisation mean to the two case Hong Kong and British universities? *Second*, why are the two case universities internationalising, and are they internationalising in distinctive ways? *Third*, what policies and programmes are in place to support internationalisation efforts at the two universities? *Fourth*, are there perceived barriers to internationalisation, and are there risks and disadvantages involved in internationalisation? *Fifth*, what are the outcomes and results of internationalisation, whether they are factual or perceived? Accordingly, this literature review targets the above five specific research questions. It will begin with the exploration of the concepts and meanings of internationalisation, followed by discussions of the forces of globalisation specific to the higher education sector, the motivations and rationales for internationalisation, organisational and programme strategies, disadvantages, risks, and barriers, ending with perceived outcomes of internationalisation.

As pointed out in the introduction chapter, internationalisation is “a portmanteau concept,” which is being used in many contexts and discourses. It

can be used to express an educational value, a social agenda, a national policy, and processes, and is sometimes used also interchangeably and misleadingly with the term “globalisation” (Callan 2000). Indeed, internationalisation has become “a catchall phrase for everything and anything international” and a more “focused” definition with “parameters” is needed (de Wit 2002, pp. 115-116). This is particularly important, if the particular institutional focus of this study relating to the internationalising of universities is to be understood and assessed properly. Therefore, other strands in the literature relating to globalisation, international education/school, development education and comparative education, all of which have developed their perspectives on internationalisation, will be discussed only in their relationship to higher education or the five specific research questions.

(1) Concepts and Meanings of Internationalisation of Higher Education

The word “internationalisation” is not new, but it was used in education only about two decades ago. Before the 1980s, the term “international education” was more commonly used, and is still quite often used, particularly in the United States (de Wit 2002, p. 104; Knight 2004, p. 2). The use of the two terms, sometimes interchangeably, could cause confusion because they can have very different meanings. For example, international education, when used together with the term “comparative education,” refers to an academic discipline involving the comparative study of educational systems around the world (Cambridge and Thompson 2004). International education by itself is perhaps best described in

terms of some of the “international characteristics” that it fosters in students: international and open-mindedness, second language competence, flexibility of thinking, tolerance and respect for others (Hayden, Rancic and Thompson 2000; Hayden, Thompson, and Williams 2003; Hayden and Thompson 1998, 1997, and 1995). However, international education has also been used to denote education offered by international schools, which may or may not particularly promote an education with the above “international characteristics” (Cambridge and Thompson 2004). The confusion could be amplified as internationalisation not only covers a broad spectrum of international activities that can be subsumed under international education, but also includes goals, policies, and strategies for the internationalisation of higher education at an institutional and national level (Knight 2005). Knight’s views are shared by de Wit (2002), who opines that international education reflects a more concrete form of the international dimension in education, such as an international programme, activity, or organisation, whereas internationalisation is “an extension of international education” and refers to “a more strategic process” of introducing an international dimension into all aspects of education (p. 119). This “process” approach, explained in more detail in the following paragraphs, will be the conceptual framework adopted by this study.

(1.1) Approaches to Internationalisation

In higher education, the meanings and interpretations of internationalisation have shifted according to the various rationales, incentives, activities encompassed

therein, and the political and economic circumstances within which internationalisation takes place (Callan 2000). Hence, first, there are definitions “in terms of categories or types of activities,” that is, the activity approach. Second, there is the competency approach, that is, “in terms of developing new skills, attitudes, knowledge in students, faculty and staff.” Third, internationalisation can also focus on purposes, for example, on the development of “an ethos or culture in the university or college that value and support intercultural and international perspectives and initiatives,” that is, the ethos approach. Finally, internationalisation is sometimes described as “a process which integrates an international dimension or perspective into the major function of the institution,” that is, the process approach (Knight and de Wit 1995, pp. 16-17; de Wit 2002, pp. 116-118).

(1.2) The Process Approach

Knight (2004) recently revised the process approach, as follows:

[Internationalisation is] the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (p. 11).

The new definition attempts to cover the meanings of internationalisation at the national as well as institutional levels and the growing number and diversity of new education providers, who might have interests that differ from the traditional functions of the university in teaching, research, and service (Knight 2004). However, the new definition raises an important question regarding the substantial level of internationalisation. As Middlehurst (2002) argues,

internationalisation should involve an international focus for many, if not all, university activities. Can an educational provider claim to be internationalising by, say, having simply a global dimension in its delivery only? Internationalising the universities should be more than marketing educational services abroad and increasing the number of international students, or providing special services to meet international students' needs (Bruch and Barty 1998). Hence, Davies (1995) suggests that the internationalising of universities should be evaluated in terms of the scope and pervasiveness of internationalism in the life of the institution. It is, therefore, proposed that the two words "or" in the definition be changed to "and." That is, "international, intercultural, and global dimension" should be used as "a triad," as Knight (2004) suggests, and "purpose, function, and delivery" should be used together so that all the essential elements and activities of an educational institution are covered and internationalised. Hence, in the context of this study, the process approach proposed by Knight (2004) will be adopted, but modified as follows:

The internationalising of universities is the process of integrating an international, intercultural *and* global dimension into the purpose, functions *and* delivery of education of the university concerned.

The process approach emphasises internationalisation as a cycle, which allows one to "look at the facilitating factors, the barriers, and the guiding principles," which will influence the development of internationalisation (Knight 1997a, p. 30). Thus, the process approach should be a more useful analytical tool than, say, the "stage" approach proposed by Söderqvist and Parsons (2005), which posits a hierarchical development from the "zero stage" when

internationalisation is a marginal activity to the “fourth stage” when exporting and franchising educational services takes place. As Green and Baer (2001) observe, “an entrepreneurial strategy” (the fourth stage) does not necessarily lead to internationalisation on the campus of the home institution. The process approach also seems to be able to encompass another definition put forward by Schoorman (2000), in which five elements are deemed to be essential to internationalisation:

Internationalisation is an *ongoing, counter-hegemonic* educational process that occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice where societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger, inclusive world. The process of internationalisation at an educational institution entails a *comprehensive, multifaceted* program of action that is *integrated* into all aspects of education (p. 6; emphases added)

Therefore, internationalisation should be: (a) on-going; (b) counter-hegemonic (c) comprehensive; (d) multifaceted; and (e) integrated. Counter-hegemony will ensure that the curriculum represents international perspectives and that teachers will provide a balanced view of the world, while the other four elements will ensure that internationalisation is not a set of “fragmented and isolated efforts that take place on the periphery of institutional activity” (Schoorman 2000, p. 8).

This section relates to the first specific research question regarding the concepts and meanings of internationalisation. It is an important question, as concepts will likely underpin policy making (Blok 1995; Knight 2004). Will the participants of the two case universities interpret the concepts and meanings of internationalisation along the same lines as proposed and adopted for this study? Or will they interpret internationalisation differently? Most of the participants in this study interviewed on this question clearly play a key role in the decision-

making process in terms of the internationalising of their universities. Hence, their interpretations are important because interpretations will often lead to behaviours corresponding with beliefs (Gall, Borg Gall 1996) and, in this case, certain actions or non-actions towards the internationalising of their universities. The aim here is to examine how interpretations of internationalisation affect, or are being affected by, the two case universities (Callan 2000).

(2) Globalisation and Regionalisation in the Context of Internationalisation

The discussion in the previous section recognises, both explicitly and implicitly, the existence of national boundaries and the uniqueness of individual societies and cultures. Therefore, it is important to promote “inter-national” and “inter-cultural” cooperation and understanding, which should be achievable by “integrating an international, intercultural *and* global dimension into the purpose, functions *and* delivery of post-secondary education.” However, the discussion would be incomplete without the mention of two other phenomena that are closely linked to internationalisation. They are: globalisation and regionalisation. Callan (2000) labels these two terms, together with internationalisation, the “triad of constructs,” though in the context of her suggestion, Europeanisation substitutes for regionalisation (p. 9).

(2.1) The Meanings of Globalisation

As in the case of internationalisation, globalisation can mean different things to different people. For the purpose of this study, globalisation refers to the impact

of global forces that cannot be easily fended off by national governments and “the growth of hybrid world cultures created by the mingling of global-brand cultures and indigenous traditions” (Scott 1998, p. 122). Globalisation breaks down both physical and temporal borders, reduces government power, disrupts national structures, and blurs the differences between societies (Urry 1998). This is in stark contrast to the concept of internationalisation, as proponents of internationalisation recognise and respect national boundaries and the uniqueness of individual societies and cultures. Therefore, de Wit (2002) refutes any suggestion that globalisation and internationalisation are simply two sides of the same coin. So does Scott (1998), who argues against any claim that globalisation is a “higher form” of internationalisation:

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*. If this is true, the role of the university becomes more problematical. Can we argue that, however remote the connection, some kind of link can be established between the *archaic ‘universalism’* of the earliest universities and this *new globalisation* – because they both transcend, and are antithetical to, the dynamics of nationalism (and of internationalism as its logical extension)? It seems unlikely (p. 124; emphases added).

It is clear from the above statement that Scott (1998) does not believe that the “new globalisation” has any affinity with “internationalisation,” especially if the latter is understood in terms of the “old internationalisation” or “archaic universalism” espoused by the earliest universities when they transcended “national frontiers” in medieval Europe, with students wandering from Bologna to Paris to Oxford (Scott 1998, p. 109). Altbach (2004) thinks differently. In his opinion, universities from the very beginning represented global institutions – in

that they functioned in a common language, Latin, and served an international clientele of students. Professors, too, came from many different countries, and the knowledge imparted reflected scholarly learning throughout the western world at the time. However, as Scott (1998) emphatically points out, the boundaries between state, community and people, between temporal and spiritual powers were very different then. In his view, they were “more fluid and more permeable” than the boundaries of the world today (p. 109). Significantly, most of today’s universities were developed in the nation-building period of the later nineteenth century. Therefore, despite researchers today regarding themselves as members of an international community of scholars, few universities can exist independently of the nation state (Davies 1995). Most of them, being heavily subsidised by the state, are required to serve the national purpose in economic development and nation building (Scott 1998). Arguably, however, most institutions of higher learning would think that the best way for them to meet national needs is by functioning as a national as well as international centre of teaching and research excellence (OECD 1999).

(2.2) The Meanings of Regionalisation

Another phenomenon closely linked to globalisation is regionalisation. The concept of regionalisation refers to interregional, regional (that is, intra-regional), cross-regional, and supra-regional cooperation (de Wit 2002). In this connection, intra-regional cooperation is the first geographic priority for the majority of the 139 member universities of the International Association of Universities in Africa, Asia

and Europe (IAU 2003). Given the drive for European integration, the desire for intra-regional cooperation among European universities is understandable. In the belief that universities play a key role in regional development, a number of regional consortia have been established in Europe: the Umea Regional Group in northern Sweden, the Oresund Science Region between Malmo in Sweden and Copenhagen in Denmark, and the University of the Arctic, which links universities from North America, Russia and Scandinavia. Similar developments are occurring in the U.K. with the newly devolved administrations in Scotland and Wales and in the formation of regional development agencies (Middlehurst 2002). But why do African and Asian universities prefer to work with each other in their own region? Not unlike the phenomenon of “localisation,” which will be discussed in the next paragraph, perhaps the rationale behind the decision to cooperate intra-regionally is to both cope with and better exploit the forces of globalisation.

Region can also mean “the immediate hinterland, a large part of a country, a state in federal countries or wider pan-national areas” (OECD 1999, p. 17). Although “region” in this sense might appear to be parochial and anti-metropolitan and cosmopolitan, successful regional development can be an effective way to deal with the forces of globalisation. As Kanter (1995) suggests, only communities that “connect the global and the local and create a civic culture to attract and retain or ‘embed’ footloose investment” can succeed in the global economy (quoted in OECD 1999, p. 19). Globalisation has indeed produced a counter-process: localisation (Van Tilburg 2002). As a result, a new term

“glocalisation” is coined (Robertson 1995) and a good example in this regard is the advice given to Hong Kong universities when the sovereignty of Hong Kong was returned to China in 1997. Upon its return to the motherland, Hong Kong automatically “*acquired* a region, or at least a hinterland” (Teather *et al* 1999, p. 233). One of the organisations that attempted to deal with this regional challenge was the Business and Professional Federation of Hong Kong. In 1993, it published a plan for action entitled “Hong Kong 21: A Ten Year Vision and Agenda for Hong Kong’s Economy.” The Federation recommended twin roles for Hong Kong: Hong Kong-International and Hong Kong-China.

Hong Kong-International aims to become a centre of excellence for the skills and services required by international companies operating across Asia.... [and] to provide the competitive physical infrastructure, supported by favourable economic policies to attract multinational companies’ regional headquarters; and to be a regional service centre, extending development capital and investment services to the region.

Hong Kong-China builds on Hong Kong’s current close relationship with China. The aim is to draw on and develop Hong Kong’s management experience, know-how, customer relations and capital to help South China become the ‘fifth dragon’; while at the same time expanding Hong Kong business and investment across China (Business and Professional Federation of Hong Kong 1993).

That is, Hong Kong must be capable of acting as an effective bridge between China and other more economically advanced countries. In response, the then Secretary General of the University Grants Committee (UGC) of Hong Kong, argued for the importance of an external dimension for the universities in Hong Kong. He opined further that, “although all international contacts are of value, the most important external linkage which [Hong Kong] higher education institutions will have in the future will undoubtedly be with the economy and education

system of China” (French 1996, p. 82). To a large extent, the strategy called for by the Business and Professionals Federation reflects “the twin processes of globalisation and localisation,” or “glocalisation” (Goddard 1999, p. 35).

During the hundred years of its colonial history, Hong Kong had served as a bridge between China and the West – China’s window to the world and vice-versa. In terms of academic exchange, numerous Chinese scholars left China to study in the U.S. and other western countries via the shores of Hong Kong (Teather *et al* 1997). Many of them did not return. Since the return of sovereignty of the territory to China in 1997, Postiglione (2005) has observed a change in the pattern of Hong Kong’s academic “bridge role.” Until recently, universities in Hong Kong only recruited postgraduate students from China. Today, more and more mainland students are pursuing undergraduate studies in Hong Kong and Hong Kong students are also attending mainland universities in increasing numbers. In 2003-04, there were 842 mainland students studying in undergraduate courses in Hong Kong, making up about two percent of the student population at UGC-funded institutions. The number grew by a percentage point to 1,284 in 2004-05, while the number of mainland students in postgraduate programmes rose from 1,856 to 1,972 representing almost an increase of 3 percentage points (UGC Hong Kong 2004b). This growth is expected to continue as familiarity with the Hong Kong higher education grows and restrictions are removed for mainland graduates to work in Hong Kong after finishing their degrees (Postiglione 2005). Moreover, many mainland students, after finishing their undergraduate education in Hong Kong, continue to go

overseas for graduate studies. Some of them, instead of returning to the mainland, find work in Hong Kong. So, Hong Kong is reaping the full benefit of educational exchange including the attraction of a large number of highly qualified mainland Chinese to its universities (Postiglione 2005). These scholars of Chinese mainland origin play a key bridging role between China and the rest of the world.

(2.3) Globalisation and Higher Education

Specific to the higher education sector, at least four phenomena can be discerned from the review of literature and each of them will be elaborated in the following paragraphs. These phenomena are either a result of, or response to, the forces of globalisation. They are: (1) the systemisation of knowledge; (2) the advancement of information and communication technology; (3) the growth of global networks; and (4) the use of English as the *lingua franca* of the academic community.

(2.3.1) Systemisation of Knowledge

First, globalisation has led to “a process of convergence, particularly in the systemisation of world knowledge ... in an infusion of ideas, people, and resources” (Denman 2000, p. 3). It might be said that the globalisation of knowledge has its origins in the Empire, particularly that of the British and the French. Today, globalisation is part of world capitalism and post-colonial cultural imperialism. Of particular relevance to the present discussion are the Bologna

process in Europe to streamline the degree structure among European tertiary institutions and the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), which are good examples of “the systemisation of world knowledge.” The Bologna process was initiated with the purpose of creating a “European space in higher education.” It could, in the opinion of de Wit (2002), be interpreted as “globalisation with a regional character,” whereby standardisation, homogenisation, and harmonisation of rules, regulations, recognition, structures, and systems take place within a particular region (p. 149). However, Callan (2000) cautions about such an interpretation:

If internationalisation is conceptually embedded in the historical nation-state, then the Europeanisation of higher education in the region, led as it is by ambitions for a European consciousness (or identity or citizenship) which adds to those deriving from nation-states without replacing them, cannot be a special case of internationalisation. Neither can it be an instance of globalisation, if the latter is taken to be the subjugation of local distinctiveness by irresistible world market or ideological forces (p. 20).

Despite the above reasoning, the fact remains that there are arguments to the contrary. As Callan (2000) herself observes, the agenda for a European space or dimension in higher education includes topics in international education and themes such as “quality, culture, and parity,” all of which are both international and European. Claims of universalising knowledge were made throughout history, in the religious phase, the science phase and in the commodity phase. However, universalising is not so easy because knowledge is socially and culturally constructed. In any case, the European Union has indeed reached out beyond European boundaries and has concluded cooperative agreements with the USA, Canada, Asia Pacific countries, and the

Mediterranean countries (de Wit 2003). At the same time, higher education, including European higher education, is no more protected than any other sector from the forces of globalisation, as can be seen in connection with the second impact of globalisation described in the following paragraph.

(2.3.2) The Advancement of ICT

The second impact of globalisation on higher education comes from the attendant advancement of information and communications technology (ICT). Aided by ICT, universities are now operating across spatio-temporal boundaries, in various forms of off-shore programmes, distance learning, and branch campuses. As such, there is a threat that “a global culture will be imposed on the world, leaving little room for cultural diversity and self determination – the very values that programmes of international cooperation over the years have aimed to promote” (Teekens 2000, p. 29). In the same vein, Welch (2002) differentiates internationalisation, which involves “mutuality and reciprocal cultural relations,” from globalisation, which could subject education to commodification and marketisation. The inclusion of education in the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) is a case in point. The idea behind GATS is that knowledge should be treated like any other commodity and should be freely traded around the world (Altbach 2004).

The growth of distance learning and transnational education and the proliferation of new education providers as a result of the use of new technology could change the meaning of the international dimension in education. Can an

international dimension be achieved when mobility is virtual (Leask 2004)? Or, can an international environment be created through the inflow and the outflow of ideas rather than of persons (Callan 2000)? Or, can the cultural competence of distance learners be enhanced by way of a multi-cultural curriculum, a mix of virtual classroom, and a short study abroad experience, as suggested by Ngai (2003)?

(2.3.3) The Growth of Academic Networks: Cooperation or Competition?

Third, globalisation has also led to numerous strategic alliances straddling national borders (Chan 2004). Inter-university cooperation is not a new phenomenon. As early as the Middle Ages, there were arguments for the use of a common language, and of a uniform programme of study and system of examination to facilitate mobility of students and scholars and the exchange of ideas (Knight and de Wit 1995). Today, however, universities form linkages with each other, most likely, and most importantly, with the aim of competing in the global educational market. This is especially true for newer universities, which do not have an established reputation and a large resource base. For these universities, banding together will be one of the most efficient means of gaining visibility and a share of the market. Older universities also increasingly work together in order to maximise their advantageous positions. The recent International Alliance of Research Universities, in which Oxford and Cambridge joined hands with eight other elite universities around the world to collaborate in research and academic exchange, is a good example that even the most

prestigious institutions feel the need to forge alliances. Colleges and universities now realise that they will gain more leverage if they address common issues and concerns together (Bridges 1996). As such, the number of international university organisations has greatly increased since the 1980s, even though there are yet a few success stories (Chan 2004; de Wit 1998; Gray 1996).

(2.3.4) The Use of English as the *Lingua Franca* of the World

Fourth, globalisation is also linked to the use of English as the *lingua franca* of the world. In their attempt to tap into the global educational markets, more and more universities are using English as the medium of instruction. English-speaking countries increasingly benefit from the widespread use of that language, while non English-speaking countries either have to adapt or face being disadvantaged. Hence, English-speaking countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United States, and the United Kingdom are reaping the cultural as well as economic benefits of a large number of overseas students on their campuses (see Table 1).

TABLE I

International Students in Higher Education – Comparison of Major English Speaking Destinations for the Top Five Source Markets 2003-2004*

Source Market	Destination				
	Australia	Canada	New Zealand	U.S.A.	U.K.
Canada				27,017	
China	30,041	14,575	31,828	61,765	48,175
France		6,040			
Hong Kong	11,000				10,660
Japan			2,081	40,835	
India	17,870	2,565	1,923	79,736	14,675
Indonesia	10,587				
Malaysia	15,909				11,860
Singapore					
South Korea		1,925	2,286	52,484	
U.S.A.		7,295	1,995		19,955
Sub-Total	85,407	32,400	40,113	261,837	105,325
Total no. of int'l students at destination	151,798	70,035	50,213	572,509	214,190^
% share by 5 major source markets	56%	46%	80%	46%	49%

Source: Research Snapshot, Australian Education International (www.aei.dest.gov.au; 21/11/05)-modified.

*The figures for Australia and New Zealand are for 2004.

^Excluding 111,570 international students from EU source markets.

Many non English-speaking countries, including Hong Kong, use English as a medium of instruction in order to attract international students or in order to

improve the English language of their domestic students (Altbach 2004). Scholars in English-speaking countries, especially the United States, which has the world's largest academic system and is the most important user of English, are privileged not only because they are writing in their mother tongue, but also because "the peer review system is dominated by people accustomed to both the language and methodology of U.S. scholars" (Altbach 2004, p. 7). Even the Europeanisation of research has to be implemented through the use of English (Wickham 2004). According to Wickham (2004), this is most undesirable as "the issue of language is not . . . just about how we talk; it also impacts on *what we talk about*," and the dominance of English in this regard may undermine "the diversity of research traditions within Europe" (p. 192).

The debate about the pros and cons of the monopolistic position of English is beyond the scope of this chapter. Suffice it to say that here lies the dilemma in terms of the internationalisation of higher education: the internationalising of universities is supposed to strengthen multiculturalism and multilingualism, but the forces of globalisation have accelerated the need for a common language and English has become the *lingua franca* of the world. In this connection, the decline in recent years in the number of U.K. students participating in European exchanges is strongly correlated with the decrease in the number of students studying languages (University of Sussex 2004).

Before concluding this section, it is important to note that the impact of globalisation affects different countries differently. For example, the forces of globalisation could easily benefit institutions in the rich and wealthy "North" and

disadvantage the poor and developing countries in the “South” (Altbach 2004).

The following view from the “South” reinforces this point:

From the South African case study [one can] conclude that higher education in developing countries will be destroyed if rampant internationalisation of higher education from developed countries is not stopped (Mthembu *et al* 2001; quoted in Gillespie 2002, pp. 263-264).

By rampant internationalisation, the speaker is referring here to international education programmes that are “based on commercial principles of profit and loss, as some universities’ foreign subsidiaries have been and as the private companies are that the WTO would like to promote” (Gillespie 2002, p. 263). As pointed out by Altbach (2004), a huge drain on the economies of the developing countries is occurring as “the flow of academic talent at all levels is directed largely from South to North” (p. 9). Therefore, the response to globalisation in general, and internationalisation, in particular, from developing countries could be different, as evidenced from another statement by a university president in the Philippines:

I have not considered internationalisation to the same extent, mainly because my own country, as many other developing countries, is deeply preoccupied by concerns of national identity.... I see my responsibility as president of my university is to, first, respond decisively to the new challenges [of globalisation] and second, be faithful to the traditional culture and history of the university (Nebres 1996).

Concerns about the damaging effects of globalisation on developing countries have prompted a call for higher education to play a key role in “development education” and in “creating a student experience, which nurtures the global citizen of tomorrow, enabling students as graduates to make positive contributions to a global society and economy” (Bourn 2006, p. 6). Development

education aims to foster “a greater understanding of global inequalities, why they exist and what can be done about them” (Bourn 2006, p. 8). As such, it shares the core value of internationalisation of higher education and that is: to foster international and intercultural understanding and cooperation for the betterment of the world.

The discussion in this section sheds light on the larger external environment within which the two case universities are situated. Universities do not exist in a vacuum and forces both within and outside of their walls can and do influence the extent and nature of their internationalisation efforts. Hence, it relates indirectly to the second specific research question of why the two case universities are internationalising and whether they are internationalising in distinctive ways. In the case of Hong Kong, it is reasonable to expect that internationalisation efforts will be tied to the forces of “glocalisation,” as the territory continues to try to shake off its former colonial identity, to recreate itself as a city of China, and to reintegrate with the motherland. Has the case university in Hong Kong been able to play the “twin roles” of “Hong Kong-International” and “Hong Kong-China,” as suggested at the change of sovereignty? How about the case university in the U.K.? Has the agenda for a European space in higher education influenced its internationalising efforts, in one way or the other? And has it taken full advantage of the monopolistic position of English reaping the economic as well as cultural benefits of fee-paying international students both on- and off-campus?

In the next section on the rationale and motivation for internationalisation, some of the institutional responses to these external forces will be examined, and the likely responses of the case universities will be further explored. The rationale and motivation to internationalise, especially from an institutional perspective, may be viewed as internally induced. However, it is likely that internal reasons are also strongly reinforced by the external environment (Van der Wende 2004).

(3) The Rationale and Motivation for Internationalisation

In a recent International Association of University (IAU) survey of internationalisation among its members, 179 higher education institutions from 66 countries responded, and listed the following twelve top reasons for internationalisation in descending order of priority (IAU 2003):

- Mobility and exchanges for students and teachers
- Teaching and research collaboration
- Academic standards and quality
- Research projects
- Cooperation and development assistance
- Curriculum development
- International and intercultural understanding
- Promotion and profile of institution
- Diversify source of faculty and students
- Regional issues and integration
- International student recruitment
- Diversify income generation

In passing, it seems surprising that diversity of income is ranked so low by the responding higher education institutions in the survey. This may reflect the respondents' preference to emphasise academic matters than finance in such a public survey. In any case, the above reasons coincide with the suggestion made by Knight (1997b), who found four broad categories of rationale to

internationalise higher education: political, economic, academic and socio-cultural. The top four reasons given in the IAU survey, along with curriculum development (the sixth reason) and promotion and profile of the institution (the eighth reason), belong to the academic realm, while the other reasons on the list are related to economic, political, and socio-cultural considerations. In a more recent article, Knight (2004) highlights some of the new emerging rationales for internationalisation, most of which, however, could be subsumed under the above four categories. Similarly, in an updated IAU survey in 2005, “competitiveness” emerged as the most important rationale for internationalisation (IAU 2005). Perhaps it would not be too off-mark to presume that “competitiveness” refers to economic competitiveness and could be, therefore, subsumed under the economic rationale. The four categories of rationale will be explored in more detail in the following paragraphs.

(3.1) The Economic Rationale

The economic rationale is particularly evident in English-speaking countries. Due to deficiencies in funding from their own governments, universities in these countries are turning to overseas students more and more for funds to sustain their research and teaching (Elliott 1998). For example, the number of international students in UK higher education institutions has increased by over 60 percent over the last five years (Universities UK 2005b). Education and training has become a significant global export and its total value to the U.K. economy is estimated at £6 billion annually (British Council 2005). Overseas

student fees alone (excluding those from EU-students) contributed about £1.2 billion (7 percent) towards the total income of UK higher education institutions in 2003-04 (Universities UK 2005a). Although there are signs of a slowdown in the overseas student market, the number of overseas students wanting to attend UK universities is expected to triple to more than 870,000 by 2020 (BBC News 20 April 2006). Apart from international student fees, UK universities have also been very successful in bidding for research funds from the European Union, so much so that funding in this regard represents 25 percent of the total for that sector (Universities UK 2005b).

The economic rationale is also tied to the belief that internationalisation of education will have a positive effect on economic and technological developments and give the country concerned a competitive edge (Knight 1997b, 1999; de Wit 1995, 2002). International student recruitment, in particular, is perceived to underpin future success of the country concerned with the market economy and foreign affairs in a globalising world.

[International students] bring in fee income, make viable courses which would otherwise close for lack of numbers, and constitute a very significant proportion of the research student population whose work is vital to maintain and renew our academic communities. They provide a pool of highly skilled labour on which both universities and UK businesses call to make up for skill shortages in the domestic market. Perhaps most importantly, their familiarity with the U.K. will allow them to influence others – positively or negatively, depending on their experiences – both in their home countries and wherever else in the world they go.... as future partners in diplomacy, trade and cultural exchange, and as people likely to become influencers and decision makers (UKCOSA 2004, Preface).

The above statement exemplifies Knight's (1999) suggestion that the economic rationale is intertwined with other categories of rationale, at a national as well as

an institutional level. Hence, it is not surprising that generation of income was last on the list of the top twelve reasons for internationalisation in the IAU survey and that it was also ranked quite low across all sectors in a Canadian survey in 1995 (Knight 1997a).

(3.2) The Academic Rationale

Successful internationalisation is often identified with “the achievement of international academic standards for teaching and research” (Knight 1997b, p. 11). Developed countries such as the United States promote internationalisation in the belief that it will bring about a globally competent citizenry and enable the country to succeed in the global economy as well as in an increasingly interconnected world. The President of the American Council of Graduate Schools was recently quoted as saying that the recruitment of the most talented students from around the world is really “a matter of the intellectual security of the country” (McCormack 2005, p. 1). In the same vein, the British Council (2005) has argued that UK institutions will gain in many other ways from the presence of international students, through extending their international outlook, enhancing their international profile and the contribution of talented students to the academic community. In this regard, the enrolment of foreign students in the U.K. is particularly crucial at the postgraduate level. In 2004-05, 50 percent of the students in postgraduate taught programmes and 46 percent at postgraduate research programmes were international students (Universities UK 2006b).

However, the academic rationale is often used “without providing clear indicators of the ways internationalisation enhances the quality of higher education” (de Wit 2002, p. 98). Does the recruitment of international students necessarily raise the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom? Indeed, the issue of quality has become a serious concern lately, particularly in the Australian higher education sector. In 2001, the Australian Institute released a study based on interviews with and a survey of social science faculty members in Australian universities. About five percent of the respondents were reported as saying that “they had experienced pressures to admit and to pass full fee-paying students,” that is, international students (Devos 2003, p. 155). Unfortunately, the resultant debates failed to reflect on the issue of academic integrity and standards while “international students were constituted as both the source of and the solution to the problems of commercialisation” (Devos 2003, p. 156).

Little research has targeted the academic performance of international students. Most of what limited literature there is tends to problematise the issue by reference to the students themselves, who are portrayed as having difficulties with the English language, study skills, cultural adaptation, and so forth (Morrison *et al* 2005). Fortunately, a recent study commissioned by the Council for International Education in the U.K. (UKCOSA) gives a more comprehensive picture. The study explores the different factors which might affect the international students’ academic performance and in so doing, succeeds in producing a more balanced view. It concludes that “a wide range of variables

would need to be explored to establish the causes for differences in performances” (Morrison *et al* 2005, p. 337).

(3.3) The Political Rationale

The political rationale for internationalisation covers foreign policy, national security, technical/development assistance, as well as peace and mutual understanding (de Wit 2002). As Knight (1997b) explains, politically, educational exchange was once seen, and still is being seen to a certain degree, as a beneficial tool to achieve national security and peace among nations. Scholarships given to foreign students are thought of as “a form of diplomatic investment for future political and economic relations” (p. 9). The British government, for example, offers prestigious awards under the British Chevening Scholarships Programme with the objective of enabling “tomorrow’s leaders, decision makers and opinion formers from overseas to become familiar with the UK and British values, and to make contacts with British institutions and companies which can continue throughout their careers” (British Council 2000, p. 4). The Chevening Scholarships Programme provides more than 2,200 new awards each year to students from over 150 countries to undertake postgraduate study or research at UK universities.

Internationalisation is also seen as a good instrument for the promotion of peace and mutual understanding. The establishment of the Title VI and Fulbright-Hays programmes in the U.S. immediately after WWII is a good case in point. Created under the National Defence Education Act (NDEA), four Title VI

programmes were established in 1958: (a) language and area studies centres; (b) fellowships for students to study language; (c) support for research and studies projects; and (d) language institutes to train language teachers and programme administrators. Three years later, the U.S. Congress passed the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act (that is, the Fulbright-Hays Act) to provide research and training programmes overseas. The Act “grew out of the conviction that intellectual and cultural exchange between nations contributes to increased awareness of intercultural similarities and differences, and thus contributes to mutual understanding and increases the opportunities for peaceful resolution of conflict” (Hines 2001, p. 7). However, as de Wit (2002) points out, such a purely political rationale for internationalisation should be viewed with caution. The question is, “Whose peace is it and whose understanding of the world?” (p. 88). No government policy, even if it has to do with education, is ever value-neutral or un-self interested in its objectives.

(3.4) The Socio-Cultural Rationale

Huntington (1996) posits that the world in the post-Cold War era will be increasingly defined in terms of ethnicity and religion. Hence, greater understanding between western and non-western countries in the new political order is imperative. Whether Huntington’s claim is true or not, promoting intercultural understanding should also be one of the primary goals of the internationalising of universities. Intercultural understanding assumes more of an educational and personal development perspective. The cultural function of

internationalisation espoused by national governments could have a “nationalist argument, one of which emphasises the export of national and cultural and moral values” (de Wit 2002, p. 93). The cultural function of universities, on the other hand, should go “hand in hand not only with its humanistic search, but also with its international dimension” (Mayor 1989; quoted in de Wit 2002, p. 93). The cultural rationale of the internationalising of universities, therefore, is to raise the awareness in the academic community, particularly among students, of the uniqueness of different cultures, and to foster respect for them in today’s increasingly interconnected world.

(3.5) Diversities of Stakeholders and National Contexts

The higher education sector is not the only stakeholder in the internationalisation of higher education (Knight 1997a; Mallea 1996). Governments, professional associations, and the business sector are increasingly voicing their views on the issue, and, more often than not, their views vary considerably. Although all these sectors agree that the most important reason for internationalisation is to prepare graduates who are internationally knowledgeable and inter-culturally competent, there is diverse opinion as to why they should be so (Knight 1997a). The education sector reasons in terms of cooperation and interdependence among nations; the government sector puts the emphasis on the need to deal with global issues; and the private sector focuses on the increasingly competitive information-based economy (Knight 1997a). All three orientations might be legitimate, but educators must beware that the “wholesale and uncritical

adoption” of the economic argument could lead to the erosion of the “broader universal and humanitarian goals” of higher education (Mallea 1996, p. 129). Furthermore, it should be noted that various rationales may not always be explicitly formulated and that there can be considerable overlap in rationales within and between different stakeholders. That is, stakeholders usually do not have one exclusive rationale but a combination of them in hierarchical order (de Wit 2002). Most importantly, rationales and their priorities may change over time as well as by country and region as explained in the following paragraph.

The motivation to internationalise is also contingent upon the national context and the environment in which an institution operates (Cuthbert 2002). For example, a sharp decline in public funding, coupled with the introduction of full-cost fees for foreign students in the late 1970s, has led to a radical shift in the pattern of foreign students on U.K. campuses (de Wit and Callan, 1995). Since the 1980s, although there is still support for international students coming under foreign aid, the majority of non-UK students are usually full fee-paying students from emergent economies in East and Southeast Asia. The U.K. government actually has a list of “priority countries” for British educational exports and British universities are well advised to take note of this list, if they would like to take advantage of British Council marketing in those countries (Middlehurst 2002).

This is in stark contrast to the situation in Hong Kong. The higher education sector in Hong Kong does not see any financial need to recruit foreign students because it is still fully funded by the government, and the recent “encouragement” of the universities to recruit up to 10 percent non-local students

in their undergraduate courses is purportedly for the reason of attempting to inject some diversity into an otherwise homogeneous Cantonese-speaking student body only. Although it has to be said that even in Hong Kong the trend seems to be changing, as indicated by the recent requirement that sub-degree and taught postgraduate programmes have to be self-financing and cannot rely on government funding.

This section focuses on possible institutional responses to the external environment and directly addresses the second specific research question in terms of the rationale and motivation for internationalisation. The question is, 'To what extent can the types of rationale and motivation detailed above be applied to the two case universities'? As mentioned earlier, economic motives have largely dominated the national and institutional agenda, especially those in the English-speaking world. The United Kingdom has performed extremely well in this regard, but Hong Kong has not (it has performed very well economically without having to rely on the export of higher education). Differences in national contexts are particularly important considerations as the responses by the two case universities are compared. The following section turns to the kinds of strategies that are needed to support the rationale and motivation for the internationalising of universities.

(4) Strategies for the Internationalising of Universities

Strategies for the internationalising of universities, in the context of this study, refer to initiatives and measures adopted by a university to integrate an

international, intercultural *and* global dimension into the purpose, functions *and* delivery of post-secondary education (Knight 2004, modified). Two kinds of strategies are proposed: programme strategies and organisational strategies (Knight 1997b; Knight 1999). The latter, in terms of institutional policies, goals and objectives, and leadership commitments are particularly important, as they will have a tremendous impact on the planning and implementation of programmes and activities on the ground. Programme strategies, on the other hand, involve the realisation of institutional policies and commitments (Callan 2000; Knight 1997b; Knight de Wit 1995; Schoorman 2000). Both organisational and programme strategies, however, may vary from institution to institution and country to country, in line with their organisational and national contexts (Cuthbert 2002).

(4.1) Programme Strategies

Knight (1997b) suggests that there are four categories of programme strategies for the internationalisation of higher education: (1) academic programmes; (2) research and scholarly collaboration; (3) extra-curricular activities; and (4) external relations and services. The first category integrates an international/intercultural/global dimension into the curricular content and the teaching/learning process. The second category addresses the substantive nature of research, research collaborators and the distribution of research/knowledge. The third category offers opportunities for both local and foreign students to interact with each other and among themselves. The fourth

category is oriented to international development activities and bilateral or multilateral institutional agreements of cooperation. Alternatively, programme strategies could also be differentiated between “internationalisation at home and abroad” (Knight 2004). Internationalisation-at-home, or IaH for short, denotes any activity, except outbound mobility, which has an international dimension or focus (Wächter 2003). Internationalisation-abroad, on the other hand, refers to activities across national borders.

The remainder of this section will focus on issues related to the internationalising of the student experience. These issues are: (a) study abroad and the advancement of information and communications technology (ICT); (b) the challenges posed by transnational education to internationalisation; (c) internationalising the curriculum; and (d) internationalisation-at-home. Faculty and international development programmes, such as those related to research and service, will be discussed only in their relationship to teaching and learning.

(4.1.1) Study Abroad and the Advancement of ICT

Study abroad is arguably the most effective way to foster intercultural learning and understanding. For example, the benefits most commonly cited by international students studying in UK higher education institutions include: academic experience, improved English language skills, becoming more independent, meeting people from all over the world and learning about the U.K. and other cultures (UKCOSA 2004). Similarly, students returning from a short period of teaching abroad showed “an increase in cognitive sophistication and

flexibility,” which is a crucial element in cultural sensitivity (Cushner and Mahon 2002, p. 55). Many international education organisations, such as the Institute for the International Education of Students (IIE) in the U.S., regularly conduct surveys to ascertain and “confirm” the benefits of study abroad (Gomstyn 2003a).

However, the presumed benefits of study abroad cannot be taken for granted (Gillespie 2002; Feinberg 2002; Grünzweig 2000; Rinehart 2002). For that to happen, a well-designed programme is essential and, sometimes, direct intervention must occur (Engle and Engle 2002; Pritchard and Skinner 2002; Hanassab and Tidwell 2002; Jordan and Jørgensen 2002). In the worst situation, study abroad experience might lead to “a reinforcement of previous thinking, even of stereotype thinking and the development of xenophobic views” (Teenkens 2003, p. 2). There are also likely to be problems of coping with a foreign language, settling into a different cultural environment, and homesickness (UKCOSA 2004). The advancement of ICT, with the use of email and chat rooms, has fuelled the debate about the presumed benefits of going abroad as well. Study abroad no longer means being cut off from home and does not necessarily result in one’s immersion in a new environment (Joris *et al* 2003). Furthermore, it is a fact that few international students make friends with local students in their host countries and social integration with the local community is not strikingly evident (UKCOSA 2004; Ward 2001).

International students were much more closely integrated with co-nationals and other international students, with 59% counting most of their friendships in one of these categories. Only 32% counted their friends as a mixture of UK and international students, and only 7% were friends mainly with UK students rather than international students.... 70% of taught

postgraduate students had no UK friends.... 59% of research postgraduate and 51% of undergraduates had no U.K. friends (UKCOSA 2004, p. 67)

Therefore, better designed study abroad programmes in terms of curricular content and student preparation are needed (Lewis and Niesenbaum 2005; Van Hoof and Verbeeten 2005). It will mean insisting on rigorous pre-departure briefing and learning about the countries of destination before the students embark upon their trips. It will also require programmes that direct student energy both in and out of the classroom to significant contact with their host culture. Through focused learning experience both in and out of the classroom, students should be able to gain “an empathetic and culturally contextual understanding of things international” (Engle and Engle 2002, pp. 37-38). Lastly, universities should also offer re-entry debriefings to students before or upon their return to their home countries as research shows that students might encounter “a disenfranchised grief” during their re-entry process (Butcher 2002, p. 354). In the meantime, efforts to understand why so few students are interested in studying abroad should help to remove barriers for those who aspire to a study abroad experience, but, for one reason or another, still find it difficult to participate (University of Sussex 2004; Cheung 2004; Kim and Goldstein 2005).

(4.1.2) Transnational Education and Internationalisation

As mentioned earlier, the effort to internationalise the student educational experience is also being challenged by the growth of transnational education. The Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) in 1997 defined transnational education, as follows:

Transnational education.... denotes any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This situation requires that national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or education materials (GATE 1997, quoted in Knight 2005, p. 5)

The emphasis here is on the “location of the student” and the “location of the institution providing the education” (Knight 2005, p. 5). Another more comprehensive definition is offered by UNESCO and the Council of Europe (COE) in their “Code of Practice on Transnational Education”:

All types and modes of delivery of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the education system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national education system (UNESCO and Council of Europe 2001, quoted in Knight 2005, p. 6).

There are numerous issues surrounding the development and delivery of transnational education, for example, in terms of quality assurance (OECD 2005). Regulatory mechanisms and quality assurance are beyond the scope of this study. The relevance of transnational education is in terms of its challenge to the effort to internationalise the student educational experience. Under the programme strategies proposed by Knight (1999), offshore teaching sites and distance education are external strategies for internationalising higher education. However, exactly how an external endeavour can internationalise the campus is something worth more robust investigation. Therefore, Knight (1997b) suggests that differentiation should be made between those kinds of transnational education which do contribute towards internationalisation, from those which do

not. It is likely that universities offering distance learning courses overseas would see themselves as internationalising through promoting their names and images in those overseas locations where they offer courses. An internationally recognised institution, in turn, will attract more fee-paying international students (Bruch and Barty 1998; Elliott 1998). Hopefully, this drive is not simply commercially driven and the recruitment of international students is part of an internationalisation strategy.

(4.1.3) Internationalising the Curriculum

Although study abroad is arguably the most effective way to foster intercultural learning, an internationalised curriculum is identified as the best means by which to strengthen the international dimension of the teaching and learning function of the university (Cobbin and Lee 2002; Killick 2005; Teekens 2004). Internationalising the curriculum is particularly important as most students, for one reason or another, cannot afford to study abroad. A recent survey indicates that only 5.4 per 1,000 U.K. students studying at universities established after 1992 and 11.4 per 1,000 students at universities established before 1992 participated in study abroad programmes in 2002-03 (University of Sussex 2004). That is, the percentage of students going abroad for a certain period of their study overall is less than one percent. In 2004-05, the number of British students taking part in the ERASMUS exchange scheme fell to 7,214, down from 7,539 in 2003-04 (BBC News 17 March 2006). However, the low participation rate of U.K. students in study abroad is not unique. A comparison of outward student mobility

from the U.K., France, Germany, Australia and the U.S. to principal destinations in the year 2000 shows that “the U.K. sent 13.5 students to other OECD countries for every 1,000 students enrolled in its tertiary education system” in the year 2000, which was a higher outflow rate than that achieved by the United States or Australia, but lower than that for other major EU states like France or Germany (University of Sussex 2004). Most of the U.K. students (57 percent of those who studied abroad), it should be noted, went to English speaking countries. Across the Atlantic, a survey by the American Council on Education (ACE) reveals that “only a small portion of undergraduates participated in academic programmes abroad and many of those that did had short-term experiences” (ACE 2003, pp. viii).

The low participation rate in studying abroad led Madeleine Green, Vice-President of the American Council on Education, to suggest that the major focus of international learning has to be internationalising the curriculum (Gomstyn 2003b). Her call for this is not new, however. In a 1995 Canadian stakeholders’ survey, respondents from the private sector, the government sector, and the higher education sector all ranked curriculum as the most important element in the internationalisation of higher education (Knight 1997a, p. 32). Internationalised curricula have been defined as follows:

Curricula with an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, and designed for domestic students and/or foreign students (Van der Wende 1996, p. 36).

Based on the above definition, the goals of an internationalised curriculum include:

Cognitive goals (foreign language skills, regional and area studies, humanities and international subjects such as international law, business, etcetera) to strengthen the students' international competence; and

Attitude goals (broadmindedness, understanding, and respect for other people and their cultures, values and way of life, racism, resistance, etcetera) to strengthen the students' intercultural competence (Teekens 2003, p. 108).

The following nine types of internationalised curricula are found in a six-country survey:

- (1) Curricula with an international subject;
- (2) Curricula in which the traditional/original subject area is broadened by an internationally comparative approach;
- (3) Curricula which prepare students for defined international professions;
- (4) Curricula in foreign languages or linguistics which explicitly address cross-cultural communication issues and provide training in intercultural skills;
- (5) Interdisciplinary programmes such as region and area studies, covering more than one country;
- (6) Curricula leading to internationally recognised professional qualifications;
- (7) Curricula leading to joint or double degrees with another university;
- (8) Curricula of which compulsory parts are offered at institutions(s) abroad, taught by local lecturers; and
- (9) Curricula in which the content is specifically designed for foreign students (Van der Wende 1996, p. 48)

The curriculum in the broadest sense, of course, could include the whole body of knowledge, ideas, attitudes and experiences conveyed to students, deliberately or otherwise (Lofthouse *et al* 1995). Kelly (1999) calls this the "total curriculum" (p. 3). A total curriculum means "all aspects and dimensions of the actual and received as well as hidden curriculum" and the values that underlie or are implicit in the curriculum and its delivery (Lofthouse *et al* 1995, p. 40). This is rather similar to the approach promoted recently by a campus internationalisation movement, which advocates "internationalisation-at-home."

(4.1.4) Internationalisation-at-home

The concept of “internationalisation-at-home” (IaH) is based on an understanding of internationalisation, which goes beyond mobility and places a strong emphasis on teaching and learning in a culturally diverse setting (Wächter 2003). Hence, IaH is particularly plausible in a multiethnic and multicultural society. For example, in the Swedish city of Malmö with 300,000 residents, more than 35 percent of the population are immigrants or have immigrant parents coming from 170 different countries (Nilsson 2003). To take advantage of this multiethnic diversity, the University of Malmö has a special taskforce to recruit students from immigrant families and the University also makes use of the diverse multiethnic groups in the city as the basis for a weekly “Multicultural Dialogue” with many guest speakers and participants from the international community. Another project is the “Nightingale Project” whereby 100 students are selected each year to “act as mentors to schoolchildren,” most of whom come from immigrant families (Nilsson 2003). Despite all these successes, however, Nilsson (2003) readily admits that the impact of the above programmes, which was initiated in the early days of the University, is likely to diminish as the size of the faculty and student population grows.

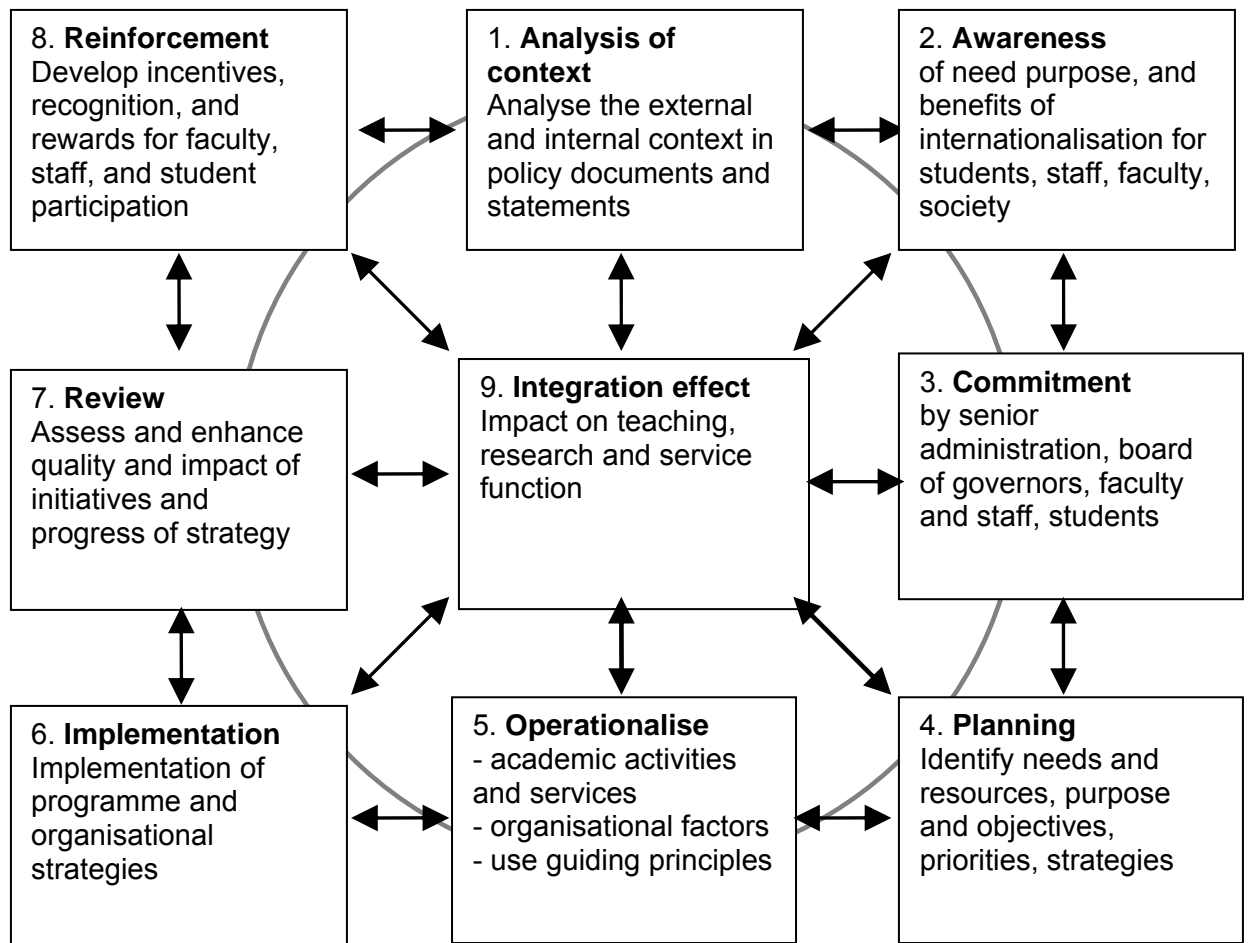
In this connection, in comparison to internationalising-abroad, internationalising-at-home will benefit a larger number of students and have a more entrenched long-term effect. However, of the two strategies, institutions may still opt for internationalising-abroad because it is *perceived* as being more adventurous and, rightly or wrongly in the case of global delivery of courses,

potentially profitable. On the other hand, internationalising-at-home, for example, in terms of internationalising the curriculum and adapting teaching style for international students may meet with faculty resistance (Fielden 2006).

(4.2) Organisational Strategies

Programme strategies, no matter how they are defined and whatever content they entail, cannot be sustained without articulated institutional commitment and the proper support of organisational strategies (Callan 2000; Knight 1997b; Knight de Wit 1995; Schoorman 2000). It is necessary to stress the importance of internationalisation in “the institution’s mission statement, planning and review systems, policies and procedures, and hiring and promotion” to ensure that the international dimension is institutionalised (Knight 1997b, p. 16). The following organisational strategy, represented by an internationalisation cycle, should ensure that international activities are not *ad hoc*, fragmented, and marginal. Instead, different international activities will reinforce each other and will become central to the mission of the university (Knight and de Wit, 1995).

Figure I: Internationalisation Cycle, Modified Version

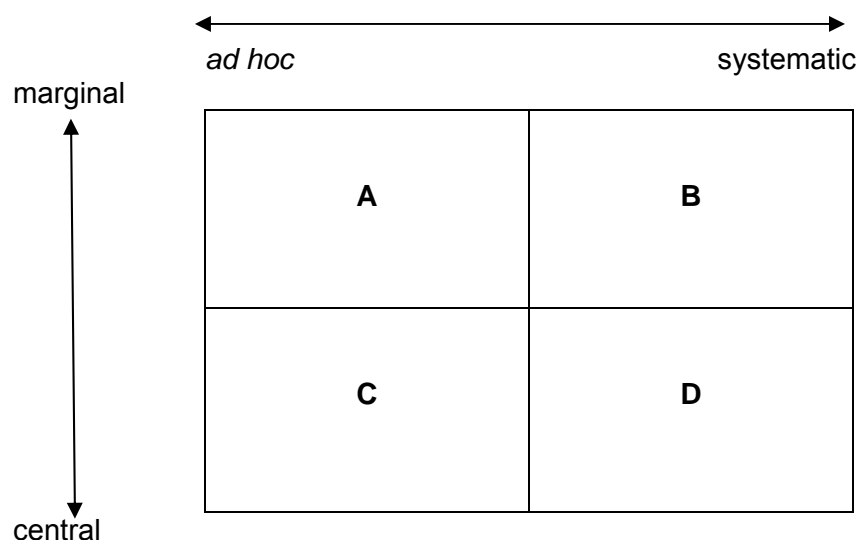


Source: de Wit 2002, p. 136

In reality, however, the existence of an organisational strategy is rare. In the recent IAU survey mentioned earlier, 63 percent of its 176 member institutions responding to the survey indicated that they had “a policy/strategy in place” for internationalisation. Among the 63 percent, about two-thirds indicated that the strategy was “institution wide and that there was an office to oversee internationalisation,” but only half of them had a budget or a framework to monitor the implementation process (IAU 2003, p. 11). That is to say, only about

one-third (approximately 60) of the 176 institutions responding to the survey had a policy/strategy in place *as well as* an infrastructure and budget to support it. Similar results were found across the Atlantic. An American Council on Education (ACE) survey of 752 colleges and universities concludes that “most institutions exhibited a low level of commitment to internationalisation in their mission statement or as a priority in their strategic plan” (ACE 2003, pp. vii-viii).

On the other hand, given the characteristics of the university as a collegium and a professional bureaucracy, it might not be too presumptuous to expect “inertia, resistance to central directive and a normal decentralisation of expertise and autonomy at the individual and unit level” (Davies 1995, p. 3). Universities are likely to develop different international activities in a piecemeal fashion, which may or may not reinforce each other until eventually internationalisation becomes central to the university. Therefore, internationalisation may take place along two dimensions, from “*ad hoc* to the highly systematic” and from “marginality to centrality, in terms of importance to the university” (Davis 1995, p. 15):



In conclusion, while internationalisation should be a process involving all functions of the university, the university might, in congruence with both its internal and external environments, choose a certain “point on the internationalisation continuum” (Bartell 2003, p. 66). However, it might require “a quantum leap” for the institution to move from one point of the continuum to the next (Teichler 1999). A number of studies have also identified gaps between what the higher education institutions say they do in terms of internationalisation and what actually happens inside those institutions (Parsons 2002). For example, while most Hong Kong universities would say that their language of instruction is English, the classroom reality seems to tell a different story (Hamlett 2000).

(4.2.1) Organisational Contexts and Culture

The discussion so far, either implicitly or explicitly, points to the importance of organisational culture and the overall aims of the university and where it wants to position itself in the regional, national and international education market place. Bartell (2003) argues that a university whose energy is “focused on the internal dynamics of the institution” will have difficulty in developing “a unified internationalisation strategy,” while a university with a strong “external orientation” will define itself in terms of its “international affairs” and will, therefore, support “an integrated internationalisation process” in all facets of its operation (pp. 61-62). In another study, Kezar and Eckel (2002) investigate the way in which culture shapes an institutional change process. Using the four academic cultures identified by Bergquist (1992), namely, collegial, managerial,

developmental and negotiating, and Tierney's (1991) individual institutional culture framework in terms of the environment, mission, socialisation, information, strategy and leadership, the authors studied the change process of three institutions and came to the conclusion that understanding institutional culture is crucial for the development of an effective change process such as the internationalising of universities. Although the focus of this study is not concerned with the study of organisational culture, the fact that the two case universities are located in very different cultural environments should be taken into account.

The discussion in this section deals with issues of organisational and programme strategies for the internationalising of universities, and addresses the third specific research question concerning policies and programmes that are in place to support internationalisation efforts. This is especially relevant to the central research question of this study, that is, the role played by internationalisation in the functioning of the two case universities. Callan (2000) posits that the character of an organisation is inevitably "shaped by the preoccupations of its members" (p. 17), and Teichler (1999) believes that "internationalisation has far-reaching implications for institutional management" (p. 6). How much is internationalisation a "preoccupation," or at least a major concern, at the two case universities? Can it be seen that internationalisation is indeed "shaping" the character of the two universities and is playing a significant role in the functioning of both universities?

(5) Disadvantages, Risks, and Barriers

This section relates to the fourth specific research question concerning any perceived disadvantages, risks, or barriers associated with internationalisation. Some of the possible disadvantages and risks have been touched upon earlier in this chapter, for example, the possible brain drain and the widening gap between “North” and “South” in an inequitable cooperative relationship. However, most of the discourse on internationalisation in the literature discussed so far has been very positive. In fact, it might be so positive that it is difficult for anyone to say “no” to internationalisation. Indeed, internationalisation has become such a value-laden concept that it could become merely “a spur and a sales gimmick, an appeal that issues as easily from the mouth of the financial manager as from the lips of the cosmopolitan scholar” (Halliday 1999; quoted in de Wit 2002, p. 109). Hence, it is important to review and focus on some of the perceived disadvantages and risks of internationalisation, since they might very well function as disincentives for *not* internationalising universities. Parsons and Fidler (2004) call these “the dark side of internationalisation” (p. 16).

(5.1) Disadvantages and Risks

In the recent IAU survey (IAU 2003) mentioned earlier, the following risks of internationalisation were put forward by the 176 responding institutions in the descending order of their perceived importance:

- (1) Brain drain;
- (2) Cultural identity;
- (3) Increased costs; and

(4) Programmes in English language.

This is a much shorter list than the list of the twelve top reasons for internationalisation presented earlier on page 35. However, it must be borne in mind that both lists were drawn up from an institutional perspective. It must also be emphasised that both the risks and benefits cited are more a matter of perception than absolute “fact” supported by empirical research, and this is particularly so with respect to the benefits. As Ward’s (2001) well-researched paper shows, much of the perception regarding the “impact of international students” on the host countries is not supported by empirical evidence. On the other hand, individual faculty members will obviously evaluate the process or phenomenon of internationalisation from an individual perspective (Schapper Mayson 2004). For instance, the main risk of brain drain in the above survey could very well be seen as an advantage in the eyes of the individual academic. As a result of the globalised education market, academics have become more mobile and will be tempted to move to institutions that have the best research funding. The cosmopolitan outlook of a city in terms of an ethnically mixed population and a more liberal political climate may also provide a powerful lure (Fine 2005). The concern about brain drain, therefore, is not confined to developing countries.

The possibility of the homogenisation of cultures (often referred to as the McDonaldisation of cultures) and the resultant loss of cultural identity is given as the next most important risk. However, if internationalisation is considered to be a counteracting force to the converging effect of globalisation, it should not be a

threat to cultural identity in developing countries (Knight 1999). On the contrary, internationalisation may be “considered and used by these countries as a way to strengthen and promote their national identity” (Knight 1999, p. 18). Hence, it is not surprising Latin American respondents in the IAU survey “ranked cultural aspects as simultaneously the number one benefit and the number one risk” (Knight 2004, p. 6). In this connection, the widespread use of English (the fourth risk) is as worrisome for developed countries as it is for developing countries. The European respondents in the IAU survey expressed strong concern about the widespread use of English and their concern is directly linked to the goal of preserving and promoting their “national language as a teaching medium” (IAU 2003, p. 10). Can universities in developed as well as developing countries thwart the negative effects of globalisation by way of internationalisation? Or will the “dialectical” relationship between globalisation and internationalisation unavoidably intensify the homogenising forces of globalisation? As Kerr (1994) observes, “the international flow of information, of scholars, and of students is aided by what seems to be the convergence in the structures and policies of systems of higher education around the world” (quoted in de Wit 2002, p. 145). Hence, while internationalisation of higher education is supposed to celebrate diversity and interaction between cultures, it is also aiding the “harmonising” forces of globalisation at the same time. Is this inevitable? Could the universities turn the “dialectical” relationship between globalisation and internationalisation into a “symbiotic” one?

The preceding brief discussion of the disadvantages and risks of internationalisation leaves much about the topic unsaid. Suffice it to say that the possible negative side of internationalisation is largely a function of the dialectical relationship between internationalisation and globalisation, which requires more research (de Wit 2002). The disadvantages and risks cited in the IAU survey are not exhaustive either. For instance, as pointed out earlier in this chapter, there is also a growing concern about quality assurance in transnational education. Concern about the costs of internationalisation (the third perceived risk) will be discussed along with barriers to internationalisation in the next section.

(5.2) Barriers to Internationalisation

In the same IAU survey (IAU 2003) referred to above, 50 percent of the respondents cited the lack of financial support as the number one barrier to internationalisation. Presumably, this response was linked with their expressed concern about the increasing costs of internationalisation, which they perceived as the third most important risk of internationalisation. In this connection, the costs of internationalisation are most pronounced with respect to student mobility. As a UK survey of student mobility indicates, the lack of adequate funds is an important contributor to a student's decision not to go abroad (University of Sussex 2004). Lack of a policy/strategy and the presence of competing priorities, as reported by the respondents in the IAU survey, mean that the barrier of costs cannot be easily removed. Internationalisation still is a marginal activity at many universities (Teekens 2003).

The problem of the lack of financial support is not a concern with respect to student mobility alone. Other barriers cited in the IAU survey (2003), such as the difficulty of getting a commitment from department heads and faculty members for “the support of internationalisation” and a woeful “insufficiency of administrative staff,” are also very likely related at least in part to a lack of funds. For example, adequate financial support is indispensable for faculty development in the design and implementation of an internationalised curriculum in terms of both course contents and teaching techniques in an international classroom (Teekens 2003). As noted by Ward (2001), despite well-documented research about the differences in teacher and student expectations and behaviours across cultures, few faculty members are aware of them and even fewer are willing and prepared to adapt their course contents and teaching style accordingly in a class where international students are present. From the faculty perspective, internationalisation has become largely a “managerial” jurisdiction and academics are faced with “increased demands” on their time “but with limited access to scarce departmental resources to support [their] international activities” (Schapper and Mayson 2004, p. 193). Administrative staff are also in need of financial support in the implementation of international programmes, as both the volume of activities and the complexity of issues surrounding the internationalising of universities increases (Parsons 2002).

There are also non-fiscal-related barriers to internationalisation, especially with regard to the recognition of study abroad coursework/experience towards graduation (University of Sussex 2004; Cheung 2004). The rigidity of the degree

structure both in the U.K. and Hong Kong are often viewed by students as a barrier to study abroad. Professional education based on national recognition, in the case of medical degrees, for example, and a declining interest in language studies, clearly work against the promotion of study abroad (University of Sussex 2004). As explained earlier in the section on organisational contexts and culture, if organisational culture is not in alignment with an international outlook, it can also be a barrier to internationalisation (Bartell 2003). Finally, as can be seen in the growth of transnational education, government policies can sway universities in one direction or another. Despite all the good reasons which can be given for internationalisation, it is likely to remain a highly limited activity if it is not externally reinforced. Even in the case of the U.K. growing competition in certain international education markets (South-east and East Asia are examples) is making once profitable overseas programmes less so. Add to this a trend in those Asian states previously dependent on overseas provision to provide more of their own higher education, and to even become 'education hubs' themselves for their regions. Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong are cases in point, and it is clear that the profitability of operating overseas, especially for universities in western countries, is increasingly challenged (Observatory on Borderless Higher Education 2006).

(6) Outcomes of Internationalisation

Analysis of the rationale behind, and motivation for, internationalisation helps address the research question as to why universities internationalise. However,

most respondents in the recent IAU survey (IAU 2003) mentioned earlier, when asked this question, describe “their reasons for internationalisation in terms of providing opportunities for specific activities as opposed to the outcomes or benefits of those activities *per se*” (IAU 2003, p. 8). The problem is that internationalisation has become a heavily value-laden concept. Hence, people often presume that any activity which promotes international exchange will yield a good outcome. That is, the benefits of internationalisation are simply taken for granted.

As discussed earlier, there are four main categories of rationale for internationalising universities: economic, academic, political, and socio-cultural. Among these four categories of rationale, the economic rationale predominates. The benefit of international students’ fee income to English-speaking countries is undeniable, but there is little research on the other supposed economic benefits, such as the contribution of international education to the labour market (de Wit 2002). It is claimed also that international students have academic, social and cultural impact, for example, in the classroom, on the institution, and in the community where they live. However, as mentioned earlier, these claims have not been researched empirically (Ward 2001). International students have been found to have a very low level of integration with both local students and the larger local community (UKCOSA 2004). In the same vein, the enhancement of the quality of education is often used as a rationale for internationalisation, but “without providing clear indicators of the way internationalisation enhances the quality of higher education” (de Wit 2002, p. 98). In fact, international students

often demand or need more time and support than local students and may struggle to reach the standards expected.

In this connection, it must be noted that the benefits reported earlier in this chapter may or may not be supported by empirical evidence and research. In this study, the question regarding outcomes will also be based largely on personal perceptions. Participants from the two case universities have been asked to deliberate on the outcomes of internationalisation, whether they are factual or perceived, or combinations of the two. Perceptions and interpretations in this study are just as important, as it is believed that perceptions and interpretations will lead to corresponding behaviours and, in this case, certain actions or non-actions towards the internationalising of universities (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996). The aim here is to examine how the participants' interpretations of internationalisation affect, or are being affected by, the two case universities (Callan 2000).

(7) Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature relating to the main research question concerning the role played by internationalisation in the functioning of universities. In sequence, the chapter addresses the five specific research questions: the concepts and meanings of internationalisation; the rationales and motivations for internationalisation; the influence exerted by external environments and the forces of globalisation; and the policies and programmes that universities may have in place as they attempt to both cope with and exploit

these forces. Finally, the perceived disadvantages and risks of internationalisation, barriers, and outcomes are discussed. The five specific research questions, in turn, reflect the process approach adopted by this study. That is, the internationalising of universities is the process of integrating an international, intercultural *and* global dimension into the purpose, functions, *and* delivery of education of the university concerned. It emphasises internationalisation as a cycle, which allows one to “look at the facilitating factors, the barriers, and the guiding principles,” which will influence the development of internationalisation (Knight 1997a, p. 30).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter locates the study within the interpretive paradigm, explains the grounded theory approach to data analysis and the qualitative case study methods of in-depth interviewing and documentary analysis. The interpretive paradigm has been chosen because the aim of this study is to understand a complex educational phenomenon, that is, the internationalising of two contrasting case universities, based on the perception of some key personnel involved in the process. Universities are professional bureaucracies with diverse sites of authority and multiple decision-makers. Individual experiences and perceptions play an important role in the construction of “reality,” or, most likely, “multiple realities,” and the qualitative method of in-depth interviews is an effective way of collecting data in this regard (Atkinson *et al*, 2001; Denzin 2001; Taylor and Bogdan 1998). The in-depth interview is also particularly suitable as “it permits open-ended exploration of topics and elicits responses that are couched in the unique words of the respondents” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 290). Other research methods, such as a large scale survey, for example, have not been considered because generalisability of findings is not the main concern of this study.

Documentary analysis, on the other hand, has enabled the researcher to trace the historical development pertaining to the internationalising efforts at the two case universities (Berelson 1954). It has also proven to be a very useful

triangulation tool to verify or supplement evidence given by the participants in this study. Collected data was analysed in accordance with the early stages of the grounded theory approach to the analysis of qualitative data. The grounded theory approach to qualitative data analysis is highly disciplined and organised and is widely accepted and used in qualitative research (Punch 1998). This does not purport, however, to be a grounded theory study. Rather, it uses the early stages of grounded theory methodology to analyse data, and is primarily a comparative study, using qualitative methods.

The main research question of this study is: What is the part played by internationalisation in the functioning of the two case universities, one in the UK and the other in Hong Kong? The question will be addressed through documentary analysis and in-depth interviews, guided by the following five specific research questions:

1. What does internationalisation mean to the two case Hong Kong and British universities?
2. Why are the two case universities internationalising, and are they internationalising in distinctive ways?
3. What policies and programmes are in place to support internationalisation efforts at the two universities?
4. Are there any perceived barriers to internationalisation, and what are the risks and disadvantages involved in internationalisation?
5. What are the outcomes and results of internationalisation, whether they are factual or perceived?

(1) The Interpretive Paradigm

A paradigm, in the words of Thomas Kuhn, is “the entire constellation of beliefs, values, and techniques shared by members of a given scientific community (Kuhn 1970, p. 75). The interpretive paradigm, within which this study is located, is rooted in the epistemological belief that “social reality is constructed by the people who participate in it ... and is constructed differently by different individuals” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, pp. 18-19). That is to say, there is more than one “reality” and it is the subjective experience of the individual that is important since it is individual perception that bestows all meanings. Hence, knowledge claims can only be “justified within contexts of collectively held conceptions about the world” (Scott and Usher 1996, p. 13). In other words, “the world and ‘reality’ are not objective and exterior, but are socially constructed and given meaning by people” (Easterby-Smith *et al* 1994, p. 78). Similarly, the aim of the present study is to search for a “constructed reality” of the internationalising of two contrasting case universities. In line with interpretivism, the internationalising of universities is a socially constructed phenomenon with “historical” and “cultural locatedness” (Scott and Usher 1996, p. 13), and conceptual questions such as meanings of internationalisation and motivations to internationalise can only be understood through the eyes of the human actors concerned.

As a result of their epistemological outlook, researchers who choose the interpretive perspective usually use qualitative methods in their research such as participant observation and in-depth interview. They study the data inductively for

themes and patterns, and interpretation – “the ascription of meaning” to observed phenomena – is the key to the process (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, p.18). In the same vein, the present study is based on the “interpretation” and “the ascription of meaning” by the key personnel involved in the phenomenon, that is, the internationalising of universities. Interpretation is important because it is believed that individuals’ interpretation of reality will lead them to take certain actions (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, pp. 26-27). However, causal relations in social processes, such as the internationalising of universities, are complex. Therefore, while the “general nature of causal claims” might be able to provide a basis for checking “what caused what in a particular situation,” it is not advisable to assume that there is a general causal relationship, especially when it is validated through the study of only a small number of cases (Hammersley, Gomm and Foster 2000, pp. 238-239).

(2) Qualitative Case Study

A case study is a research strategy concerning the choice of the number of cases to be studied and how they are selected. Hence, Hammersley (1992) suggests that case study be defined as “one case selection strategy among others; the others being experiment and survey” (p. 184). The decision in this regard is the “number of the cases” to be investigated and the “amount of detailed information” that the researcher would like to obtain. Case study aims for a high amount of detail; “thick description” is a main feature of case study. For, only by doing so will it allow more of the complexity of the processes being

studied to be “portrayed” and judgments to be made regarding the circumstances of a particular case. Therefore, the number of cases that one can have the time and resources to study is necessarily small (Hammersley 1992, pp. 185-86 and p. 197). In accordance with this advice, only two case universities have been chosen for this study and the basis on which these two case universities were chosen will be explained in the next section on sampling.

As a result, case study involves a “trade-off” between “empirical generalisability” and “accuracy and detail” in relation to survey (Hammersley 1992, pp. 191 and 193). Case study is not suitable for generalisation, not only because of its small sample size, but also because it is believed that the cases are bounded in “time” and “space” (Hammersley 1992, p. 184). This implies that any case under study is “local” and “immediate” in “character” and “meanings” and it will not be constant “across time and space” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 22). Needless to say, generalisability is not a necessary goal of research. In terms of this study, the objective is to capture the cases in their uniqueness and to represent them authentically in their own terms (Hammersley and Gomm 2000). Researchers describe case study as “a spotlight on one instance” (Denscombe 1998, p. 30), or “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case” (Stake 1995, quoted in Bassey, 1999, p. 27). Multiple case studies focus on more than one case and may draw comparisons between them – as in the present study. Case study is also “a focus of study” (Simons 1989, p. 116). The focus of this study is on the “relationships and processes” of the case and

the job of the researcher is to “unravel the complexities” of the phenomenon of the internationalisation of universities (Denscombe 1998, p. 31).

Based on the above discussion, this study is conceived as an exploratory case study. It is concerned with the understanding of the role played by internationalisation in the institutional life of two contrasting universities, and the study aims to describe and analyse the phenomenon of ‘internationalisation’ in full. The different aspects associated with the internationalising of universities include relevant concepts, motivations, risks, disadvantages, barriers, policies and programmes, and outcomes. The two case universities, one in Hong Kong and one in England, are chosen because it is believed that they are able to shed light on the phenomenon of internationalisation in general, and in their respective contexts, in particular. Thick description of the phenomenon has been attempted, facilitated by the subsequent analytic processes of grounded theory method to the analysis of data, the process of which will be explained later in this chapter.

The first stage of the grounded theory method to data analysis was used because the researcher began this study intending to generate a theory. However, as themes began to emerge from the data, it was decided that comparing the themes between the two cases should take precedence over theory generation. That is, the study became primarily a comparative study using inductive qualitative methods to elicit themes. The first stage of data coding – open coding – is shared by both grounded theory and conventional inductive qualitative method. This allowed for a relatively smooth transition from the initial grounded theory approach to the subsequent comparative study. It is

argued that the comparative nature of the study makes still makes a contribution to developing a theory of university internationalisation, but without generating an actual theory *per se*.

(3) Sampling and the Choice of the Case Universities and Participants

As purposeful sampling aims at achieving an in-depth understanding of selected phenomena, it is appropriate for qualitative case study (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 217). Purposeful sampling is not concerned with selecting “a sample that will represent accurately a defined population” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 218). Of the 15 types of purposeful sampling strategies, maximum variation sampling and criterion sampling have been found to be suitable for the present study. Maximum variation sampling involves the selection of cases “that illustrate the range of variation in the phenomenon to be studied so as to determine whether common themes, patterns, and outcomes cut across this variation” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, pp. 232-3). In order to understand the phenomenon of the internationalising of universities, two contrasting cases have been chosen: the University of Leicester (U of L) in the U.K. and Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU) in Hong Kong, China. The rationale for the choice of these two universities is to maximise difference in order to stretch the concept of internationalisation as an aid to understanding the phenomenon. As such, data from these two cases should reveal different purposes for, and processes of, internationalisation, and the role played by internationalisation in the functioning of universities across different institutional, national and cultural contexts. On the

other hand, the two case universities are individually “a single example of a broader class” or “one of its type” (Denscombe 1998). As noted in the chapter on findings and analysis, U of L is a research university with an international reputation while HKBU is primarily an undergraduate teaching university serving the Hong Kong community. Apart from the fact that these two contrasting universities meet the criteria of maximum variation sampling, feasibility of access is also an important consideration. The researcher is a former employee of the case university in Hong Kong and a student of the case university in the U.K. In this connection, the researcher is fully aware of the implications of being an “insider research”, especially regarding her stance and positioning – a theme discussed later in this chapter.

Criterion sampling was used in selecting the participants, that is, they were picked according to certain criteria. A total of twenty-four people, twelve from each of the two case universities, were chosen for participation according to the following criteria: senior academic managers who have policy decision-making power; faculty who are involved in internationalisation issues and activities; and administrative staff who deal with international issues or international students. Presidents, vice-presidents and deans belong to the first group; faculty sitting on internationalisation-related committees or involved in internationalisation affairs at the academic departmental level belong to the second group; while staff members who are responsible for academic exchange, international student recruitment and international student management belong to the third group. Given their positions at their respective institutions, these three groups of people

are thought to be able to give the researcher “information-rich” data about the internationalisation of their universities. That is, they are “key informants” who have “special knowledge or perceptions that would not otherwise be available to the researcher” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, pp. 218 and 306). In order to protect their identity, all of the participants are addressed using masculine pronouns and are identified as follows:

1. Senior management at University of Leicester – SML1-4;
2. Related faculty members at University of Leicester – RFL1-4;
3. Related staff at University of Leicester – RSL1-4;
4. Senior management at Hong Kong Baptist University – SMB1-4;
5. Related faculty members at Hong Kong Baptist University – RFB1-4;
6. Related staff at Hong Kong Baptist University – RSB1-4.

(4) Data Collection

Data for this study were collected primarily through in-depth interviews and documentary analysis. The data collection process was guided by the five specific research questions. Deriving from the literature review, these research questions have facilitated the data collection in the months of July 2005 and March 2006 in Hong Kong and between January and April 2006 in Leicester. The literature review and the specific research questions have also enhanced understanding of the contexts within which themes and concepts emerged from the data collection process. Emerging themes were followed up either immediately with the same participant or subsequently with other participants (see sample interview memos in Appendix I). When necessary, a documentary search was carried out to verify or supplement the information provided by the participants.

(4.1) Documentary Sources

Documentary sources have been found to be a useful research tool to investigate attitudes, interests, and values and to trace the historical development of scholarship (Berelson 1954). Being an unobtrusive technique, it minimises the “researcher effect” and, as the data are in permanent form, it can be re-analysed for reliability if necessary. Provided that data are available, documentary analysis may also enable the researcher to carry out a longitudinal study at minimal cost (Robson 1993). Thus, documentary analysis is suitable for historical research and has also served as a very useful triangulation tool with which to verify evidence obtained from other sources, for example, from in-depth interviews in this case.

As the purpose of this study is to ascertain the process and development of the internationalising of universities, documentary evidence is one of the appropriate research tools to use. First, based on a reading of relevant documents, a historical account of the selected university’s internationalising effort is laid out. Documentary evidence of university bulletins/calendars, speeches, mission statements, minutes of meetings, brochures, etcetera, have helped answer some of the research questions, such as “what policies and programmes are in place to support the internationalisation efforts” and “what organisational and programme strategies are being adopted?” Most documents examined in this study are public documents obtainable on websites, but there are also some documents that were specifically solicited by the researcher for this study. Following the advice of Hammersley and Atkinson (1983), attention

has been paid to all the documents being used in this study in terms of the circumstances and contexts in which they were written (see section on selection of documents and willing informants). Needless to say, the reading and analysis of the documents could also be subject to “researcher effects” – as discussed in the section on “limitations of the study” in the conclusion chapter.

(4.2) Semi-Structured In-Depth Qualitative Interviewing

In-depth qualitative interviewing refers to the “repeated face-to-face encounters between the researcher and informants directed toward understanding informants’ perspectives on their lives, experiences, or situations as expressed in their own words” (Taylor and Bogdan 1998, p. 88). It is modelled after “a conversation between equals” (Taylor and Bogdan 1998, p. 88), and is often used in qualitative research, as “it permits open-ended exploration of topics and elicits responses that are couched in the unique words of the respondents” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 290). Hence, the semi-structured interview is particularly well-suited to discover respondents’ own meanings and interpretations while they respond to the researcher’s general research framework (Shiner and Newburn 1997). In this study, an *aide-mémoire* (see Appendix II) was used to guide the interview procedure. All the interviews were primarily “semi-structured” and involved “asking a series of structured questions and then probing more deeply using open-ended questions to obtain additional information” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 310). Each specific research question was fleshed out into interview questions to provide a framework of questions.

For research question 1, the participants were asked to define the meanings and concepts of internationalisation. The purpose is to determine whether their definitions will be different from those described in the literature review, and, if they are, whether they are culturally influenced? Therefore, the participants were asked the following questions at the beginning of the interview:

1. Can you tell me what does internationalisation mean to you? That is, how would you define the concept of internationalisation?
2. Can you elaborate the concept in terms of higher education, in general, and in terms of your university, in particular?

Research question 2 explores the reasons for internationalising. As universities do not exist in a vacuum, forces both within and outside of their walls could influence the extent of internationalisation. Therefore, participants were asked to reflect upon the larger environment in which their institutions are located:

1. In your opinion, what are some of the reasons for internationalisation? Government initiatives? Institutional competition? University (or departmental) policy? Individual choice?
2. Do these reasons apply to your university? That is, is your university internationalising for the same reasons?

That is, the participants were invited to think, in the first instance, generally about the research questions and then asked to reflect upon their institutional contexts. As they dwelt on their perceptions, the interviewer would probe, seek clarification, or propose new questions.

There are also drawbacks to interviews. First, people often say and do different things in different situations, hence researchers cannot “assume that what a person says during an interview is what that person believes or will say or do in other situations” (Taylor and Bogdan 1998, p. 95). Second, interviewers

may not understand the interviewees if they do not have sufficient knowledge of the context within which the interviewees speak. On the other hand, the words and forms of speech the researcher uses may not carry the same meanings for the interviewees as for the researcher and vice-versa (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996). Third, some respondents may just want to talk about everything except what is being researched (Clarke 2002). Others may simply not be as eloquent, or are not as willing, knowledgeable, or enthusiastic to engage/immerse in the topic as the researcher desires (Taylor and Bogdan 1998). Moreover, most people are “prone to exaggerating their successes and denying or downplaying their failures” (Taylor and Bogdan 1998, p. 109). Lastly, the cultural differences between the two case universities might also have implications for what the interviewees were prepared to disclose. However, as argued by Taylor and Bogdan (1998), it is precisely because of the above possible problems in communication that in-depth interviews are necessary. For this study, as the answers being sought are complex, it is important to get to know people well and understand what they mean. By engaging with the respondents in in-depth discussion and allowing them the freedom to express their views, the researcher has been able to gain “some indication of unconscious feelings and motivation, something that is not possible with traditional research methods” (Clarke 2002, p. 178). On the other hand, being aware of the possible problems of in-depth interviews, the researcher has tried to tackle them in the research design. For example, to ensure the validity of the transcripts, all the interviews were fully transcribed and sent to the interviewees for checking and verification and

participants' statements were cross-checked (triangulated) against different data sources, such as information given by other participants and institutional documents that were made available to the researcher (Taylor and Bogdan 1998).

Each respondent was interviewed at least once, for about an hour, or twice in five cases in order to obtain more information and clarify apparently unclear answers. All the interviews were taped in order to provide "a complete verbal record" for thorough analysis and review afterwards (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 320). Interviewing tapes were transcribed and, in the case of the Hong Kong interviews where Cantonese was used, fully translated. Transcripts of the interviews, findings and analysis were sent to all participants and, in several cases, changes were made in accordance with the wishes of the participants. Interview memos (Appendix I) recording the "general 'feel'" and "observations" of the interviews, as well as emerging themes, were written alongside the transcribed data (Clarke 2002; Taylor and Bogdan 1998).

Taping and transcribing the interviews in full detail, along with interview memos, is very important given some of the concerns mentioned earlier about the validity of interviews as a data-collecting method. As pointed out by numerous researchers, interviews are a "social encounter" where "mutual construction" of the interview data takes place (Cassell 2005; Clarke 2002; Denzin 2001; Holstein and Gubrium 1997; Roulston 2001; Rapley 2001; Shah 2004; Silverman 1993; Sinding and Aronson 2003; Taylor and Bogdan 1998). For instance, using conversational data analysis, Rapley (2001) ably demonstrates

the central role of “accounting” and “identity” work by both the interviewees and the interviewers in producing the interview data. “Accounting” and “identity” work refers to a person’s attempt to justify his or her action so as to “produce themselves, in and through talk, in a ‘favourable light’, a morally adequate light” (p. 308). The argument is that “within an interview situation both the interviewer and the interviewees are put into a situation where they must account for themselves, by drawing on the range of available resources” (Cassell 2005, p.170). The argument thus highlights the “interactional, or social, nature of the interview” and, hence, it is important for the researcher to report on the context in which the interview takes place in detail (Rapley 2001, p. 317). For example, even questions put forward by the interviewers could contribute to the content of the “interviewees’ talk” (Rapley 2001, p. 309). Therefore, both the questions that prompted the response as well as the answers that followed were recorded in full in this study.

(5) Approach to the Analysis

As explained earlier, this study uses the first stage of grounded theory methods to data analysis, rather than the full grounded theory approach *per se*. It employed the first stage of the grounded theory coding process, namely, open coding, to select main concepts to form the initial categories and sub-categories. The grounded theory approach, first developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), is “a research strategy whose purpose is to generate theory from data” (Punch 1998, p. 55). A full grounded theory approach consists of a series of systematic procedures and techniques to enable the researcher “to develop an inductively

derived grounded theory about a phenomenon” (Strauss and Corbin 1990, p. 24). It is so called because it is concerned with the “discovery of theory” from the data one has collected (Glaser and Strauss 1967). The major strategy used to achieve that “is to find a core category at a high level of abstraction” through a successive coding process of the collected data (Punch 1998, p. 205). The coding process consists of three stages, only the first of which is used in the present study. The first stage, called “open coding,” involves the identification of “events, happenings, objects, and actions/interactions that are found to be conceptually similar in nature or related in meaning,” which are then grouped together into conceptual “categories” or “sub-categories” (Strauss and Corbin 1998, p. 102). Therefore, open coding is a process of “putting labels on pieces of data” (Punch 1998, p. 206). During the second stage of the data coding process, called “axial coding,” the focus is on discovering relationships between the categories, and the ways these categories relate to each other (Strauss and Corbin 1998, p. 142). The third and final stage is “selective coding” and the attempt at this stage is to locate “a core category,” which can represent “a central theme in the data” and from which a theory can be developed (Punch 1998, p. 211). However, given the comparative nature of this study, it was decided after the first coding stage that it is more important to illustrate the magnitude and the range of differences in regard to how internationalising of universities is manifested in different institutional and national/cultural contexts, rather than to generate a new theory *per se*. Therefore, neither axial nor selective coding was attempted during the analytical process. Rather, the study looked for theme and pattern recognition.

As the interview transcripts came close to 300 pages, a software programme for analysing qualitative data, Nud*ist, was used to facilitate the initial coding process. First, in preparing the documents for open coding, each U of L interview transcript was input into Nud*ist, which numbered the document line by line. Each of the resultant lined transcripts was then “broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, and compared for similarities and differences,” line by line or paragraph by paragraph (Strauss and Corbin 1998, p. 102). With the help of Nud*ist again, data from different interview transcripts found to be conceptually similar were grouped together and assigned to the five specific research questions. The following is an example of one of the “nodes” derived from the open coding process (see more examples in Appendix III):

REPORT ON NODE (2 1) '~/What'

(2 1) /Themes/What

*** Description: This node contains the "what" of internationalisation, i.e., meanings and concepts.

Margin coding keys for selected nodes:

A: (2 1 1) /Themes/What/Institution C: (2 1 3) /Themes/What/Students

B: (2 1 2) /Themes/What/Faculty

+++++

+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: SML1

+++ Retrieval for this document: 9 units out of 562, = 1.6%

++ Text units 16-24:

Internationalisation, for example, usually means when people talk about	16
it, they really are talking about recruiting international students.	17
That, I think, is what people would respond, if asked about	18
internationalisation. But, I think, that is far too narrow. I think you	19
will have to think about how do you internationalise the curriculum, how	20
do you internationalise research, how do you internationalise research	21
partnerships, and what are the ways in which the university can link to	22
other institutions. The list is endless because what you need to do is to	23
think about how the university positions itself on the world stage.	24

+++++

+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: RFL2

+++ Retrieval for this document: 5 units out of 536, = 0.93%

++ Text units 22-26:

RFL2: What does internationalisation of higher education mean to me? I	22
tend to link it widely to the core concept of globalisation. I	23

conceptualise globalisation as the increasing trade in goods, services,	24
knowledge, culture, people, and all of these things are moving across	25
borders more and more rapidly and with greater and greater ease,	26

For the purpose of this study, the second stage of coding was done on a thematic basis. Noting the concern about the possible alienation of the researcher from the data in computer-assisted analysis (Kelle 2004), the process of thematic analysis was carried out manually. The “nodes” derived from open coding were further analysed and reassembled according to themes under each research question. Below is a thematic coding example (see more examples in Appendix IV):

University of Leicester - Meanings and Concepts of Internationalisation

- Positioning/values/activities
 - International/global vs. local outlook
 - Values and beliefs
 - In terms of activities and engagements
- International faculty
 - Different perspective
 - Internationalised faculty
 - International links
 - International research
 - Internationalised curriculum
- International students
 - International classroom
 - Windows on the world
 - Internationalised students
 - Different intellectual traditions/learning styles and approaches
 - Diverse cultural backgrounds
- Global Course Delivery
 - Marketisation
 - Commercialisation
 - International trade/export
 - Distance/e-learning

The above two coding stages were repeated in terms of the HKBU data and, subsequently, data from the two case universities were compared thematically. During the analysis, it may seem obvious but it was clear that the conditions and structures pertaining to the internationalising of the two case universities were inextricably linked with processes. That is, persons act and interact with situations facing them and their actions and interactions lead to another set of contexts in which the next sequence of action and interaction takes place (Strauss and Corbin 1998). Processes, in this case, reflect the ability of the case universities and the individuals therein to respond to and shape the situations in which they find themselves (Strauss and Corbin 1998).

(6) Generalisation of Findings

If one accepts the “post-positivist epistemology” that meaning is embedded in “local, immediate contexts,” any generalisation of the findings would be difficult and tentative at best (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 23), and can only be made “on a case by case basis” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 22). On the other hand, the concern of this study is not “generalisation to a finite population” (Hammersley 1992, p. 188). The objective is to “capture cases in their uniqueness rather than to use them as a basis for wider generalisation ... and the aim is to represent the case authentically in its own terms” (Hammersley and Gomm 2000, pp. 3 and 6). As Altheide and Johnson (1994) suggest, the credibility of qualitative research is judged in terms of its “usefulness” to the reader who may take its findings and its “contextual completeness” in order for case study phenomena to be properly

understood (quoted in Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 572). It is thus for the reader (rather than the researcher) to draw understandings about the applicability of the findings to their own situations. Following this advice, thick description on the part of the researcher is imperative in order to allow the reader a full contextual understanding. This has been attempted in this study.

Hammersley (1992), however, offers several suggestions on how to improve the generalisability of case study. For instance, case study researchers might be able “to draw on relevant information in published statistics about the aggregate to which generalisation is being made.” Alternatively, the researcher could select cases that cover “some of the main dimensions of suspected heterogeneity” in the targeted population. Another suggestion is to study a case that is, or cases that are, typical or atypical of the phenomenon (pp. 189-190). Some researchers also try to convince their readers that the case being studied is “a microcosm of some larger system or of a whole society” (Gomm, Hammersley and Foster 2000, p. 99). In the present study, two universities were selected that represent two very different types of institutions based on their historical and cultural backgrounds as well as national contexts. Thus, there is a chance that the findings from these two universities might be generalised to their respective groups of universities (that is, universities that share similarities with the two selected cases). As suggested by proponents of “naturalistic generalisation,” the responsibility is placed on the readers of the findings to determine whether the findings apply to their own situations (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, pp. 578-9).

(7) Trustworthiness

(7.1) Theoretical Sensitivity

In most qualitative case studies, the researcher is the primary “measuring instrument” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 554) and the nature of inquiry is interpretive. In this regard, Strauss and Corbin (1990) stress the importance of theoretical sensitivity. Theoretical sensitivity refers to the personal quality of the researcher in being able to see “subtleties of meaning of data” and the “ability to give meaning to data” (Strauss and Corbin 1990, pp. 41-42; pp. 76-95). The ability referred to may come from the researcher’s professional experience and knowledge. It can also come from the analytical process of “collecting and asking questions about the data, making comparisons, thinking about what you see, making hypotheses, developing small theoretical frameworks (mini-frameworks) about concepts and their relationships” (Strauss and Corbin 1990, p. 43). As advised, the present researcher has periodically stepped back, asked questions of the data, maintained an attitude of scepticism, and followed the research procedure closely to ensure the rigour of the study (Strauss and Corbin 1990) in ways discussed below.

(7.2) Reflexivity and the Stance and Positioning of the Researcher

Reflexivity refers to the “focus on the researcher’s self as an integral constructor of the social reality being studied” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 20). This is particularly important because the researcher in this study, being an “insider” at the case university in Hong Kong, might have “blind spots” such as prejudices

and biases as well as personal feelings and experiences that should not be allowed to intrude on the research findings (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 558). To combat this possible problem, Borg and Gall (1989) appeal for “the weight of accumulated evidence” (pp. 19-21), while others call for a “fusion of horizons” in that one’s own “situatedness” and “perspective” (horizons) will be broadened (fused) with other perspectives (Gadamer 1975; Scott and Usher 1996, pp. 21-22). To do that, Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1972) advise ethnographers to keep “a personal or reflexive log or journal in which they record accounts of their thoughts, feelings, assumptions, motives, and rationale for decisions made” (p. 479). Instead of a “reflexive log or journal,” the researcher of this study has used interview memos (see Appendix I).

Of further relevance here is the cultural and social background of the researcher and the researched. The researcher is a “former colleague” and “friend” of her subjects in Hong Kong where she was born and raised. As the former head of the international office at HKBU, she clearly has a standpoint as well as an understanding about the internationalising of that university in particular. However, aware of bias, she intends to guard wherever possible against it. In Hong Kong, the majority of the interviewees are Chinese and have spent most of their lives in Hong Kong, thus sharing a similar cultural background with the researcher. Although there is one non-Chinese among the interviewees, he has worked and lived in Hong Kong for a long while and thus understands the local culture well, at least at the functional level in terms of interpersonal relationships and the managerial structure of the university. However, in another

capacity, the researcher is also a student with no prior experience in interviewing in a multiethnic society such as Britain. The researcher has never lived in Britain, has no prior experience in interviewing in a cross-cultural situation, and, above all, knows little about the managerial structure of British universities. This may be both an advantage and a drawback. The question then is, what impact might cultural experiences as a whole – “which shape and socially define multiple variables like gender, age, social status, knowledge, economic class and many others” – have on cross-cultural interaction (Shah 2004, p. 550)? As pointed out by Shah (2004), the “subjectivities of the research participants” will necessarily influence “the data collection and the process of ‘making meaning’” and “cultural differences have significance for both phases” (p. 552). Clarke (2000) explores the “psychodynamic processes” of the interview situation between a white researcher and black respondents, and Shah (2004) examines “the insider/outsider debate” and locates “the researcher/interviewer as a ‘cultural intruder’” in a cross-cultural context (pp. 553-565).

However, these cultural differences may be less significant than the researcher expected. The fact that the researcher has lived in Toronto for ten years and is married to a Caucasian might have helped bridge possible cultural divides in the data collection process. On the other hand, the overwhelmingly positive comments from U of L participants about international students might have been attributable to the social status of the researcher, that is, student as opposed to colleague, in Britain. Last but not least, the professional knowledge of the researcher (who, as mentioned earlier, was head of the international office at

HKBU) about the topic and the international involvement of the participants might have the effect of nullifying whatever cultural, social, and gender boundaries there may be.

(7.3) Triangulation and Member Checking

Drawing on corroborative evidence, or triangulation, is another way to validate a case study. It is the process of “using multiple data-collection methods, data sources, analyses, or theories to check the validity of case study findings” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 574). In this study, triangulation is built in by virtue of the following design: (1) data is collected from two different case universities and three groups of people who have different involvement with internationalisation in their universities and emerging themes and concepts are checked against data from different sources, including those from different interviewees; (2) the research questions are designed, *inter alia*, to reveal contradictory statements, for example, questions 1, 2, and 4 with regard to what respondents claim to be the case with internationalisation as opposed to actions and programmes being implemented in reality; and (3) in-depth interviews are supplemented by documentary analysis. The validity of the findings can also be “corroborated by member checking” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 575). Hence, all participants have been given an opportunity to read the transcripts of their interviews or the relevant portion of the research findings pertinent to their institutions for “accuracy and completeness” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 575).

(7.4) Reporting Style

Reporting style is another way to achieve credibility when using case study. For example, the direct quotations from interviews are particularly effective in clarifying “the emic perspective, that is, the meaning of the phenomenon from the point of view of the participants” (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 582). An analytic reporting style is appropriate where interpretation is involved. That is, the researcher’s voice will be silent or subdued and presentation of the report will follow the conventional topical organisation: introduction, review of literature, research methodology, data analysis, discussion, and conclusion. In terms of reporting the data from the two case universities, a cross-case analysis vis-à-vis consistencies and differences in concepts, themes and patterns across the two cases have been discussed (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996, p. 583). As mentioned earlier, thick description in terms of “contextual completeness” has been attempted for the case study phenomena to be properly understood by the reader. In terms of the suggestion for an “audit trail” (Lincoln and Guba 1985), the research methods that the researcher has followed have been made explicit in the report.

(8) Ethical and Legal Issues

The conduct of the study has followed the ethical and legal guidelines in educational research (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996). Only public documents have been examined and interviews have been conducted with the full consent of the interviewees, who were informed of the purpose of the study and how they were

selected. Voluntary participation is explicitly assured and all interviewees were informed that they could withdraw from participation at any time.

Confidentiality has been guaranteed. For example, pseudonyms have been used to ensure the anonymity of interviewees. Although it is not possible to disguise their institutional affiliation, every effort has been made to ensure that their personal identity is not revealed. As case studies involve “close-up portrayals of individuals as key generators or implementers,” interviewees might be concerned about how they are represented in a report (Simons, 1989, p. 117). Furthermore, due to the inevitable evaluative implications of the study, the knowledge generated as a result could become a “political resource.” That is, individuals and institutions will “stand to gain or lose” by the transmission and utilisation of the knowledge (Simons 1989, p. 117). Hence, interviewees might also be concerned about the possibility of an unfavourable reflection upon their institutions (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, p. 103). For the above two reasons, Simons (1989) advises that informants “should have some control over how, in what form, and to whom information about them should become public” and the researcher should “operate with guidelines that ensure proper use” of the knowledge obtained in the study (p. 117).

(9) Limitations of the Study

(9.1) Sample Size

The advantage of a case study approach lies in its potential “to deal with the subtleties and intricacies of complex social situations” and this potential,

however, is best achieved by restricting the study to one or a few cases (Denscombe 1998, p. 35). Therefore, a potential weakness of case study is its purported representativeness of the larger population (Hammersley 1992). The decision about sample size also involves a trade-off between breadth and depth given the resource demands and the resource available. For this study, which strives for “depth” rather than “breadth,” the sample size is necessarily small and any generalisation of findings could only be made on “a case-by-case basis” (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, pp. 22). The views of twenty-four people from the two case universities certainly cannot be taken as representing the population at their respective institutions. However, as explained earlier, the study will have the potential to “bring a case to life” through thick description, in a way that is not possible with large-scale studies. Thus, readers of the findings of this study may have a better chance of “comparing the cases with their own situations” (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, p. 585). Last but not least, the aim of qualitative research is to develop conceptual/theoretical insights about the phenomenon being studied and not to generalise from a sample to a larger population (see section on generalisation of findings).

(9.2) Selection of Documents and Willing Informants

Burgess (1984) classified documents into three types: primary or secondary sources; public or private documents; and solicited or unsolicited materials. Reliability and validity depend upon the documents that are used and Duffy (1987) emphasises, specifically, the need for a document search and the importance of

material selection vis-à-vis the purpose of the study. Given access constraints, most materials used for this study are “secondary,” “public” and “unsolicited” materials only. These documents include papers presented at conferences, publicised mission statements and strategic plans, published reports, articles, and speeches. Hence, most of the documents are for the “public eye.” As such, the information is partial at best and must be taken into consideration in the overall assessment of the study. In particular, documents that have been written for purposes unconnected with the research in question may be shaped by the contexts in which they were written as well as the bias or specific intentions of the authors (Cohen and Manion 1994). They may be credible and authentic, that is, genuine and of unquestionable origin, but being public documents written by employees or commissioned personnel of the university, they should be read “with a grain of salt.” For instance, speeches and statements by presidents might be more a wish or vision than “fact” and papers delivered publicly by university representatives might not be as critical as they should be.

In the same vein, individuals who agree to be interviewed are likely to be different from those who do not (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996). The individuals in the “official” groups who have been interviewed for this study might all be more “committed” to the cause of internationalisation than those who are not part of the study. Their identification with and their commitment to internationalising their campuses may also lead them to paint a rosier picture than the “reality” actually is (Rosenthal and Rosnow 1975). Or they simply may not want to reflect unfavourably on their own institutions. Granted this potential sampling bias, it is

quite likely that an entirely different story could have been told if another set of interviewees were chosen.

(9.3) Research Feasibility and Gaining Entry

Identifying research sites and gaining entry are critical to case study. As the researcher is known to many of the potential interviewees at one university “as a friend or a colleague” and as a student of the other university, there has not been a problem for her to gain access. However, this advantage might also have disadvantages. While participants in Hong Kong might have engaged her as a former colleague with whom they felt they could share their frustrations and problems, she might have been less sensitive to issues at the institution due to familiarity (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996). Hence, Mercer (2007) opines that “conducting insider research is like wielding a double edge sword” (p. 12). At the British university where the researcher is a student and “outsider,” the level of rapport between the interviewer and interviewees has not been as high as that at the Hong Kong institution. Overall, however, it seems that the common bond between the interviewer and the interviewees in terms of their common interests in internationalisation issues has contributed fully toward the feasibility of the research.

(10) Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has located the study within the interpretative paradigm, the grounded theory approach to data analysis, and the qualitative case study methods of in-depth interviewing and documentary analysis, as well as the

various issues associated with the research design for this study. These issues are: generalisation of findings; trustworthiness vis-à-vis the importance of theoretical sensitivity, reflexivity and the stance and positioning of the researcher, triangulation and member checking, and reporting style; ethical and legal issues; and limitations of the study in terms of sample size, historical and cultural locatedness of case studies and selection of documents and willing informants. There are bound to be some weaknesses in any research design, but by making many of them explicit at the outset, the researcher is indicating her reflexivity.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS I

This chapter constitutes part one of the findings and analysis, which looks at background factors and the beginnings of the current heightened state of internationalisation at the two case universities. The first section of this chapter, the process of “setting the tone,” answers the first specific research question about the meanings and concepts of internationalisation. It concerns the institutional positioning, outlook, values, and beliefs that facilitate the institutions and personnel therein to respond to certain needs for action and, in this case, to internationalise their institutions. The second section, “responding to threats and opportunities (*weiji*),” describes how and when the current heightened state of internationalisation began at the two case universities. In section three, “rationalising actions,” participants talked about the benefits of internationalisation, that is, why they do what they do. Together, sections two and three answer the second specific research question of why the two case universities are internationalising and whether they are internationalising in distinctive ways.

(1) Setting the Tone

The University of Leicester (U of L)

There is no simple or easy definition of internationalisation because, as reported earlier, Callan (2000) describes it as a “portmanteau concept,” which is being

used in many contexts and discourses (Callan 2000). Therefore, unsurprisingly, participants from U of L expressed divergent views when they were asked to think about the meanings and concepts of internationalisation of higher education. There were participants who took the activity approach and defined internationalisation in terms of “a number of things that a truly international university should be doing” (SML4). U of L should do things such as “bringing together people from all over the world” (RSL4) as well as “looking to do things with people around the world” (SML4). The list of activities is endless. Therefore, advised one senior management participant, “what you need to do is to think about how the university positions itself on the world stage” (SML1). For instance, “what one is doing is not just to tick off a number of things we want to do, like recruiting international students, but trying to think about the shape of the university and the ways in which these activities would shape the university” (SML1). His advice was echoed by another senior management participant, “I think it is to do with what type of university you try to create” (SML4). Both of these participants sought to address the institutional positioning that has to underpin the decisions about activities. This raises the question of who makes the decisions about the positioning of the university. At least one participant had no doubts that the head of the faculty should “set the tone”:

So, for example, when setting up an exchange programme with another university, usually it is the dean who takes the lead on it. Maybe it is a result of somebody’s visit, but at some point there will be dean-to-dean contact, and I think that is important because, again, the head of faculty is the person who sets the tone for all colleagues to see (RFL4).

Whoever sets the tone, the internationalising of U of L is aligned with the University's espoused international outlook. In its mission statement, U of L describes itself as "an international university that is committed to the region" (U of L 2006d). Indeed, a number of participants believed that the University as a whole is outward looking, which, in the opinion of one faculty member, has led the University to welcome "outsiders into the club [and] the club then ceased to be a U.K. club" (RFL4). The University's international outlook is perhaps also linked to the "old internationalisation" or "archaic universalism" of the earliest universities when they transcended "national frontiers" in medieval Europe with students wandering from Bologna to Paris to Oxford (Scott 1998, p. 109). Almost without exception, participants agreed that "U.K. universities have always been international in terms of welcoming staff and students from many different countries ... and in terms of disseminating research and scholarship throughout the world" (RSL1). One faculty member put it this way:

My answer would be that, for me, it is being part of a global community of scholars and recognising that those of us who are involved in higher education are involved in a common enterprise where there are invariably links across cultures, countries, you name it, that we all have a common bond. When I travel and I meet my colleagues in higher education everywhere in the world, there is something that we are always trying to do together, which is about the advancement of knowledge (RFL4).

Regardless of whether or not the international outlook of the University has anything to do with the "old internationalisation" or "archaic universalism," internationalisation today is a national goal, and is, according to one staff participant, linked with the Race Relations Amendment Act and the Widened Participation Agenda "in terms of both disability and gender and also in terms of

ethnic minorities in the U.K.” (RSL3). The last point with regard to ethnic minorities in the U.K. is particularly relevant as the country is rapidly becoming one of the most culturally diverse societies in the world, and U of L is located in one of the country’s most multi-ethnic communities. With over one-third of its 300,000 residents being visible minorities, the City of Leicester is one of the most culturally diverse cities in the U.K. (U.K. Census 2001). Hence, there is no doubt in the mind of one staff member that the “local community” has become “global” and internationalisation is as valid within the local context as it is internationally (RSL3). Another staff participant put it this way: “An international outlook is about seeing, and it is about bearing in mind, that the world is just at your doorstep of everything you do” (RSL1). That there is a national focus on the international dimension of higher education is evidenced by the publication of the first international strategy by Universities UK, the main association representing the interests of all UK higher education institutions (Universities UK 2005b).

The University aspires to reflect its cosmopolitan and culturally diverse environment and believes that “a diverse student and staff body makes the University stronger” (U of L 2006d). In September 2003 the Sunday Times wrote “that of just five universities with a higher completion rate ‘none approach the diversity of Leicester’s intake’” (U of L 2006f). The “diversity of intake” in this case refers to the socio-economic background of students (U of L 2004a). In terms of international students, the University in 2004-05 had a full-time student body of 9,911, of which 16 percent (1,561) were international (non-EU) students from 76 countries (U of L 2005b). In this connection, the University did not make it to the

top twenty UK universities in terms of the number of fee-paying international students on its campus in 2004-05 (UKCOSA 2006).

It is important to note that the University aspires to be an international university that is also committed to its region, an aspiration which perhaps is best reflected in the following statement by one senior management participant:

I often said of this university that we are an international university that needs to be good internationally, as well as good locally. You cannot say, well I am going to be good in New York, if you are not also good in Leicester itself. And from that point of view, Leicester needs to appreciate that the University is international in its dimensions, and equally, the University also has to be good in local circumstances (SML1).

The University's regional commitment is in line with the newly devolved administrations in Scotland and Wales and in the formation of regional development agencies to improve regional economic performance (Middlehurst 2002). The University seems to be an active player in its own region of the East Midlands (U of L 2003a; U of L 2004a). Although "region" in this sense might appear to be parochial and anti-metropolitan and non-cosmopolitan, successful regional development can be an effective way to deal with the forces of globalisation (Kanter 1995). Most universities, however, would think that the best way for them to meet national needs is by functioning as a national as well as an international centre of teaching and research excellence (OECD 1999). This seems to be also the thinking behind the regional commitment of U of L, as explained by the same senior management participant, who raised this point in the first place:

What it means is that if you are good internationally, then the power of international research actually reflects back upon the kind of activities in which you engage. So, from that point of view, you might well end up

bringing, for example, someone whose work is internationally renowned, say, in the medical school, to work in Leicester, and that is a connection of internationalising the university. Equally, some work that is done in Leicester may link with another university worldwide. It seems to me that you need to be in a position to open up all those possibilities (SML1).

The “region,’ in the context of the U.K., can also refer to the drive for European integration. The question of how much the U.K. is contributing on that front is beyond the scope of this study. Suffice it to say that the U.K. higher education sector has been making a big contribution in terms of educating EU students. The country has the largest imbalance of incoming and outgoing students in its favour under the ERASMUS European student mobility programme (University of Sussex 2004). In 2004-05, the number of students coming to Britain from the European Union increased to 100,005, up from 96,845 in 2003-04 (HESA 2006). However, the number of British students taking part in the ERASMUS scheme and studying in another European country in 2004-05 was only 7,214, down from 7,539 the previous year (BBC News, 17 March 2006). Can the generosity of U.K. universities in receiving European students, who either pay home fees or no fees at all, be accounted for in terms of the international outlook of the universities? At least one Leicester faculty member decided that all non-local students, including European students, bring an “international dimension to the undergraduate programme” (RFL4).

Hong Kong Baptist University

In the same way as their counterparts at U of L, HKBU participants defined the meanings and concepts of internationalising of universities in diverse ways. At

the institutional level, universities are deemed to be “international by nature” (RFB4). In the opinion of one participant, “there is no knowledge that is so localised that you cannot share it with other people and there is no knowledge that applies to others but not to you.... Even social problems, which may not apply to you directly, you can still learn from them” (RSB3). One faculty member agreed that the internationalising of universities is “a natural development,” and “cultivating cultural diversity” should be “one of the missions of universities” (RFB4). Another participant suggested that both teaching and research should “reach beyond local perspectives” (RSB2). Therefore, the University should create a campus ethos that is “conducive to receiving scholars and students from outside of Hong Kong to participate in all kinds of activities: research, seminars, conferences, student exchange, sports activities, etcetera.” (RSB3). A campus ethos is not based on physical attributes alone, as in the words of one participant, “internationalising of universities is about going outside of Hong Kong in both the physical and mental sense” (RSB4). That is, the University should embrace “an international outlook” (SMB3) and “it should be in touch with the lives of people beyond Hong Kong” (RFB2). One faculty participant elaborated this mental concept succinctly as follows:

An internationalised university should be interested in or concerned with matters of a non-local nature, be they sad or happy. If the matter is sad or disastrous, we should have the sentiments and desire to be involved, either to think about the issue or help solve the problem.... The ideal is to develop a sense of humanity transcending all barriers including race, religion, politics, boundaries, gender, and etcetera. This is the path internationalisation should take: a global awareness, a global consciousness (RFB1).

At an individual level, opined one staff participant, “the composition of the members of the University should include non-local faculty members and students” (RSB2). “It is quite important”, echoed another participant, “to look at the faculty profile as to where they are trained and where they come from” (RFB4). Hence, HKBU should “recruit faculty members worldwide” (SMB3) and “accommodate voices of ethnic minorities among its staff” (RFB4). Then, there should be international students. Unfortunately, commented one participant, “Hong Kong is rather weak in terms of the diversity of its student body” (RFB4). Furthermore, with respect to its faculty, the University should “provide encouragement and support for its members to reach out to the international community, for example, by going to conferences and presenting papers” (RFB4). For students, it should “provide more overseas study opportunities” (SMB2) and thus “prepare them for a globalised world” (SMB1). In sum, “internationalisation refers to doing things, whatever they may be, that will have an impact on both students and faculty, in terms of giving them a more international and global perspective” (RFB2).

In one way or another, all of the responses reported above coincide with the four approaches to the definition of internationalisation, vis-à-vis the activity, competency, ethos and process approaches (Callan 2000; Knight & de Wit 1995; de Wit 2002). More importantly, in the words of one participant, they are underpinned by “the educational philosophy of the University” (RFB2). As pointed out by one senior management participant, the role statement of the University aims to provide its students with “a whole-person education and

internationalisation is an important part of that because students' horizons will be broadened as a result" (SMB3). In this regard, the definitive voice came from Professor C.F. Ng, President and Vice-Chancellor of the University. At the first convocation he chaired, Professor Ng urged students to develop an international perspective "with a firm understanding of their national history and culture" and then explained the reason for his advice as follows:

It is because we can claim to have found our roots, or cultural footing, only after we thoroughly understand our own history and culture. This is essential if we are to understand and appreciate the cultures of other countries. This also enables us to develop our national and global perspectives, so that we may indeed live and work in our heterogeneous community and multicultural environment (Ng 2001a).

Professor Ng subsequently coined the term "translocalisation," which, in his opinion, is "a more appropriate term than internationalisation" for the universities in Hong Kong (Ng 2001b). The reason, one senior management participant explained, is that "under our one-country-two-systems political arrangement, we have a rather unique situation in Hong Kong. The term translocalisation enables us to include mainland students, whose presence constitutes a very important part of our campus diversity" (SMB2). It is also "politically incorrect" to employ the term "internationalisation" in connection with the recruitment of mainland students because, in so doing, "it seems to suggest that Hong Kong is not part of China" (RFB4). On the other hand, opined another participant, internationalisation might be understood to include "our relationship with China in view of our particular history" – that is, the fact that Hong Kong was a British colony for more than a century and was returned to the motherland less than a decade ago (RSB4).

The debate about the appropriateness of “translocalisation” versus “internationalisation” resonates with the advice for Hong Kong to adopt twin-roles after 1997: “Hong Kong-International” and “Hong Kong-China” (Business and Professional Federation of Hong Kong 1993). That is, Hong Kong must be able to interact productively not only with China but also with economically advanced countries everywhere and act as an effective bridge between China and these countries. To a large extent, the strategy reflects “the twin processes of globalisation and localisation,” that is, “glocalisation” (Goddard 1999, p. 35), or “translocalisation,” as the President and Vice-Chancellor of HKBU defines it.

In line with the principle of translocalisation and Hong Kong’s “twin roles,” HKBU recently drafted an internationalisation strategy in which “the University seeks to enhance its position as an international gateway between mainland China and the global community by strengthening its international networks” (HKBU 2006b). The strategy seems to formally substantiate a goal put forward by the President and Vice-Chancellor five years ago, which is that HKBU should strive “to be an outstanding university in China with a worldwide vision” (Ng 2001b). Can this goal be compared to the aspirations of the U of L as an international university that is also committed to its region? Whether or not it can, the internationalisation strategy provides a framework and sets the tone for the internationalising of the University.

Section Conclusion

This section has looked at the underpinnings of the internationalising of universities in terms of institutional positioning, outlook, values, and beliefs. It is clear from the interviews as well as from their strategic documents that both universities embrace internationalisation and, at the same time, are strongly committed to their regions/countries. However, there is a subtle difference between their dual international-national emphases. U of L aspires to be “an international university” and believes that its international achievements will, in one way or another, benefit its region. HKBU, on the other hand, strives to be “an outstanding university in China” and believes that its “worldwide vision” will enhance its capacity as a “gateway between mainland China and the global community.” While acknowledging the importance of internationalisation, HKBU, with good reason, places its position and role within the motherland on a higher plane. For U of L, its regional commitment is a natural extension of its internationalising efforts. This point will become clearer as the analysis of findings continues in this and the next chapter. In the meantime, the underpinnings of their international aspirations, as expressed in their strategic documents and echoed by the interview participants in this section, set the tone for the internationalising of both case universities and answer the first specific research question about the meanings and concepts of internationalisation. However, it has taken more than these underpinnings to nudge the two universities into the current heightened state of internationalising activities. It has taken the existence of threats and opportunities (or *weiji* – the Chinese term for

threats as well as opportunities) for that to happen, at least insofar as the recent recruitment of international students and faculty members are concerned.

(2) Responding to Threats and Opportunities (*Weiji*)

(2.1) Recruiting International Students

University of Leicester (U of L)

At U of L, opportunities and serendipity best describe how one of the most successful distance learning programmes began in the 1980s:

I suppose internationalisation, at one level, means that a university has its specific objectives to take its courses to a much wider set of students outside of the U.K. The way I put it is rather rational in the sense that a university has an international strategy, but, of course, it does not always in practice happen like that. *Opportunities* may come along which have an international dimension and so the university's activities develop on an international scene, more by accident, more by *serendipity*, rather than by design (SML2; emphasis added).

The story was repeated in regard to another distance learning programme: “We had no international ambition until someone knocked on our door.... Things just happened” (RFL3). Things just happened for another reason. The University might not have responded to the opportunities presented to it if there were not a financial crisis. It was, *weiji*, that is, threats as well as opportunities, that made it happen. The threats refer to the budget cuts that the Thatcher government imposed on the higher education sector in the early 1980s and the opportunities resulted from the introduction of foreign student full-cost fees around the same time and the existence of a global educational market (Elliott 1998). As one faculty member recalled, “We were doing [distance learning] as a business and for survival” (RFL3). In fact, “in 1983, when the University responded to the

budget cuts and started to attract international students to its campus, it had the lowest proportion of international students of any of the universities in England” (RFL1). The goal to attract international students was clear then and still is today: the University needed the tuition income. “I cannot deny the economic imperative and the economic imperative is not an option,” admitted one participant honestly (RSL1). “It is a managerial reality,” echoed another participant (SML2). Although all of the U of L participants hastened to add that the economic imperative does not stand alone, it is clear what drives international student recruitment. It is the income from international student fees. Today, the University is the second largest distance learning provider in the U.K., coming behind only the Open University. In 2003-04, distance learning programmes in the University enrolled about 6,000 students, of whom over 50 percent were from overseas, accounting for about 8 percent of the University’s annual turnover. Income from 1,500 on-campus international students contributed another 8 percent (U of L 2005b).

However, the opportunities would not have materialised if there had not been people around the University willing to take advantage of them. Labelled as “entrepreneurial centres,” the earlier distance learning programmes all began “with strong characters behind them” (RSL2). “You can usually identify individuals who are responsible for their birth,” RSL2 added, referring to “entrepreneurial centres” such as the management centre, law, and labour market studies. Founders of these centres were alternatively described as “risk-takers,” “forerunners,” “insightful,” “entrepreneurs,” as well as “mavericks,” because “distance learning was an untried method at the University” (RFL3).

“You have to recognise,” RFL3 continued, “that that was a very new thing for academics, who in those days would still have the notion of tenure in the University. What we were doing then was completely new. The whole idea was not just breaking even, but bringing back surpluses. Anything else would mean failure” (RFL3). Another participant described the risk at that time in this way:

The risk was that we would provide the programme on a distance learning basis and that would resource our intention to establish a programme on campus. What we did was, we delivered the programme by distance learning, writing the modules as we went along, generating an income, hired the staff, produced a programme on campus, which attracted more students, and that enabled us to fund more staff, and so the whole thing just developed (SML2).

Perhaps it is no exaggeration to say, then, that these “new age academics” have successfully built a “new culture” at U of L (RFL3). Distance learning is widespread among higher education institutions today and could indeed be the future of the sector, given the changing student demography and the emphasis on widened participation and life-long learning. Fortunately, the gamble that these distance learning forerunners took turned out to be quite profitable, not only in terms of the financial rewards, but also in terms of the chance to internationalise the University. In the words of one participant, “Although the reason is terrible, the result is actually quite good” (RFL1). For, in the words of another participant, “if you have no international students, you cannot claim to be an international university” (SML4).

However, it is important to note that the international student recruitment strategy, as one participant observed, is “more of a finance strategy” (SML4). According to this participant, “The question is, are we pursuing an international

strategy or are we pursuing a resourcing strategy which happens to be international?" (SML2).

I think, if the management of the University were honest, they would say that we need the resources and we can rationalise it in the nice cosmetic of internationalisation, and that is not to diminish the importance of the international objective, but to put it into some sort of realistic perspective (SML2).

Not everyone is happy about this rationalisation. At least one faculty member voiced his reservation that the current internationalising wave, as argued by Gillespie (2002), is riding on the forces of the global educational market and the commercialisation of higher education.

[Internationalisation of higher education] seems to me to be driven by two things. One is the logic of capitalism, which is to exploit cheap markets for materials and exploit new markets for finished products. So, there is a logic, it is a drive, an imperative, if you like, to drive that trade, all of which is being facilitated by another issue, which is independent of the development of capitalism, and that is the development of technology (RFL2).

That is to say, higher education has become a trade. This trade, as pointed out by another participant, "is not just driven by the education system; it is also driven by a world in which graduates are in high demand" (RSL1). In this regard, it is fortunate for U.K. universities that a British degree is very valued, particularly among the former colonies of the Empire.

It is not any surprise, I do not think, that the type of markets we work in, Hong Kong, Singapore, there is a sort of colonial issue there.... There is still, you know, a sort of prestige attached to what we are offering, which is a degree from an English university.... There is a charming belief in a lot of the countries where we are working that if they get a masters degree, they would get a promotion and, if they get their doctorates, they would certainly get a fantastic job in the university, or they would get their tenure, whatever it is (RFL2).

Indeed, the nature of higher education seems to have changed into “something which is much more like a business in the traditional sense and it is a business as perceived by students, who are looking for a return on their investment, just as it is a business for an educational institution” (RSL1).

Hong Kong Baptist University

While the U of L is ambitiously expanding the enrolment of international students, the number of non-local students (both mainland Chinese and international students) that HKBU can enrol is restricted by government quotas. In 1996-97, the eight tertiary institutions funded by the government through the University Grants Committee in Hong Kong provided some 14,500 first-year first-degree places, equal to about 18 percent of the territory’s young people between the ages of 17 and 20. Within this quota, the eight tertiary institutions could recruit up to two percent non-local students in their undergraduate/taught postgraduate programmes and up to 20 percent non-local students in their research postgraduate programmes. In 1998, a year after the territory was returned to China, the government of the new Hong Kong Special Administrative Region doubled the quota for non-local students at undergraduate and taught postgraduate levels from two percent to four percent of the yearly student intake and increased the ratio of non-local postgraduate research students from 20 percent to one-third. Since 2005-06, when the government further relaxed the quota for non-local students, the universities have been allowed to recruit up to 10 percent non-local students in their undergraduate programmes. There is no

limit to the recruitment of non-local students in taught postgraduate courses, as these courses are no longer funded by the government.

In accordance with its “translocalisation” strategy and the enhanced government quota for non-local students, HKBU has increased the enrolment of non-local students in its undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in recent years, from 138 in 2003-04 to 530 in 2005-06. Within a mere three-year period, the number of non-local students enrolled in the University’s various on-campus programmes has nearly quadrupled. Most of the increase is accounted for, however, by students from mainland China (see Table 2).

Table 2
Numbers of Non-Local Students Enrolled in
HKBU Academic Programmes
2003/04-2005/06

Study Level Year	Undergraduate	Self-funded Taught PG	Research PG	Total
		On-campus		
2005-06 (mainland students)	146 (144)	99 (92)	127 (123)	530 (516)
2004-05 (mainland students)	88 (83)	2 -	98 (96)	186 (179)
2003-04 (mainland students)	60 (56)	1 -	78 (76)	138 (132)

Note: The University also offers a number of self-funded taught postgraduate courses off-campus and, as of February 2006, enrolled 158 non-local students in those courses, all but one student were from the Chinese mainland (Source: Academic Registry, Hong Kong Baptist University).

There was also a big increase in the number of international students on exchange programmes, which will be looked at in Chapter Five. While the objective of enrolling non-local students in undergraduate and research postgraduate courses is ostensibly “to inject an element of healthy competition and enhance the global outlook of local students” (Hong Kong Government 1997, p. 40), the enrolment of non-local students in self-funded taught postgraduate courses is primarily income-oriented. According to one senior management participant, the reason for offering non-UGC funded taught postgraduate courses is two-fold: “to use the income to cover the budget shortfall and to improve the financial health of the departments concerned” (SMB2).

The imposition of a quota on the number of non-local students to be admitted into UGC-funded programmes is due to the high cost of government subsidised tuition fees. The average student unit cost for undergraduate programmes at the eight UGC-funded institutions is estimated to be HKD226,000 (about £15,800) per year regardless of “the different costs for different programmes, different modes and levels of studies, different stages of development of individual institutions, etcetera.” (UGC Hong Kong 2005a). Local students are charged HKD42,500 (about £3,000) per year regardless of the level of study or subject taken. For non-local students, the minimum tuition fee is set at HKD60,000 (about £4,200) per year. There is no upper limit and the fixed minimum charge is meant to ensure that there will be no undue competition among the institutions. At present, most universities charge only the minimum of HKD60,000 per year, meaning that Hong Kong taxpayers are actually subsidising

the education of non-local students. It is not surprising, therefore, as was pointed out by one senior management participant, “that there are dissenting voices over the enrolment of non-local students” (SMB2). The dissenting voice, in the opinion of one faculty participant, is natural. For example, he commented, “if Britain does not have a differential fee for foreign students, I do not think that international students will be welcome there either”(RFB4). “Why should Hong Kong institutions recruit so many students from the mainland, especially in view of the possibility that for every mainland student being recruited, one local student will be displaced?” he asked (RFB4). According to RFB4, the same question was also being raised in Hong Kong’s Legislative Council.

Despite dissenting voices, in 2004 the government commissioned the Hong Kong Trade Development Council to carry out a study of “The Export Potential of Hong Kong’s Education Services” (Hong Kong Trade Development Council 2005). Based on a number of student surveys, the Council projected that the number of Chinese mainland students to study abroad to be 420,000 per year and the number of students who would enrol into overseas/Hong Kong programmes offered by overseas/Hong Kong higher education institutions inside China to be 170,000 per year. Given the fact that the number of Chinese mainland students studying abroad in the last two years has more or less stabilised at around 100,000 per year (NESO 2005), the projections may be a bit too optimistic. However, the number of Chinese mainland students who choose to study in Hong Kong is expected to continue to grow as familiarity with the Hong Kong higher education system furthers and as more mainland students are

allowed to stay and work in Hong Kong after finishing their degrees (Postiglione 2005).

Perhaps due to the optimistic projections of Hong Kong's ability to attract Chinese mainland students and possibly also students from other countries, last year the University Grants Committee (UGC) decided "that it has a role to play at the system level in promoting and facilitating institutional initiatives in attracting non-local students and [thus] make Hong Kong the education hub of the region" (HKBU 2005a). Subsequently, the UGC provided a matching grant of HKD5 million to each of the eight UGC-funded institutions in support of building their institutional capacity in this regard. HKBU has availed itself of the matching grant but is faced with a huge problem in further expanding its non-local student enrolment because of a severe shortage of student accommodation. According to one senior management participant, the University would like at least 20 percent of its undergraduate programme students to be non-local (SMB2). The problem is, he continued, that "even if the government would allow us to recruit such a percentage, we do not have the housing facilities to accommodate them. It is very difficult to recruit non-local students in Hong Kong if accommodation is not part of the package" (SMB2). The housing shortage is not unique to HKBU and the government recently announced an allocation of more than HKD300 million to create 1,800 student bed spaces for the eight UGC-funded institutions in the next three years. However, as the allocation does not include land, at least one senior management participant voiced the doubt that "it is going to be of much use [to HKBU] unless we can find land to build" (SMB1).

Apart from a housing shortage, HKBU might also be disadvantaged in its effort to recruit international students by the fact that it is not currently listed in such publications as the *Times Higher Education Supplement* list of “the world’s top 200 universities” or the *Shanghai Jiao Tong University* list of “the top 500 world universities.” As observed by one faculty participant, it is unlikely that the University can attract non-mainland students in the near future because it has “to build up its international reputation first, in terms of world ranking, position, and how well known the University is outside of Hong Kong” (RFB4). Furthermore, asked another faculty participant, “Why do people want to come to Hong Kong? Students from developed countries probably do not see Hong Kong as a place to come for a good education and students from developing countries are not people the University would like to attract” (RFB2). One senior management participant was a bit more optimistic, however, with the potential of the University’s School of Chinese Medicine “becoming a focal point for foreigners wanting to study Chinese medicine in English” (SMB3). Another senior management participant believed that “because of the ‘China factor’, there is a chance to recruit students from non-traditional markets,” such as Malaysia, India and Pakistan (SMB1).

Notwithstanding the problems cited above, the encouragement of the government in the form of a non-local student quota and matching grants has provided an incentive as well as opportunity for universities, including HKBU, to internationalise through the recruitment of non-local students. However, as mentioned in the last section, it also took the existence of “threats” for it to

happen. In Hong Kong, according to the HKBU interviewees, there has been a three-pronged threat facing the new Special Administrative Region since the city was returned to the motherland in 1997. First, there has been a threat of possibly losing its unique position vis-à-vis other Chinese cities. Second, the competitiveness of the university sector has been put in doubt as a result of funding cuts in recent years. Third, Hong Kong students might be disadvantaged in the job market vis-à-vis their Chinese mainland counterparts as the city increasingly integrates with China, economically, socially, and politically.

One senior management participant described the first possible threat of Hong Kong losing its unique position versus other Chinese cities succinctly as follows:

The government did not encourage the recruitment of foreign students before 1997. It relaxed the policy after 1997 because it realised that Hong Kong must remain an international city. After going through so many setbacks such as SARS, bird flu, and the Asian financial crisis, Hong Kong must think hard as to how to re-position itself ... and internationalisation is one of our obvious advantages that we cannot afford to lose. Our east-west cultural heritage is a very distinct advantage. If we lost it, we would be left with nothing (SMB3).

The above worries were shared by at least one other faculty member: “If that happened, it would be China’s loss because there is only one Hong Kong” (RFB1). Both of these participants pointed to Hong Kong’s unique position vis-à-vis other mainland Chinese cities and “what distinguishes the strength of Hong Kong is the ability of its people to function in different cultures “(SMB1).

Second, it was pointed out that “China’s open door policy has led to great progress in its higher education sector and many universities have developed by leaps and bounds because of the resources that the Chinese government has

injected into the system” (SMB3). As a result, SMB3 continued, “the advantages we have versus mainland universities are diminishing. I am afraid that with the funding cuts the sector has suffered in the last few years, we might even fall behind some of the mainland universities in the near future” (SMB3). In his opinion, “it is difficult for the universities in Hong Kong to compete in science and technology. What Hong Kong has are the humanities and the social sciences, English language, and an international outlook, all of which constitute its strength, at least for the time being” (SMB3). As a matter of fact, according to at least one participant, “the quality and research productivity of Hong Kong tertiary institutions have improved a lot in the last ten years” (RFB4). Like SMB3, the only fear he has “is that, as a result of the tight resources we are now facing, we cannot keep up with our past achievements and might even be going backwards” (RFB4). In fact, five universities in Hong Kong are now listed in the world ranking of top universities in the *Times Higher Education Supplement* list of “the world’s top 200 universities” and the *Shanghai Jiao Tong University* list of “the top 500 world universities.” HKBU, unfortunately, is not included on either list. Given this and the fact that the University is not particularly “well resourced among the eight UGC-funded institutions,” SMB3 suggested that “internationalisation is one strategy which may enable the University to distinguish itself” (SMB3). In this connection, one staff participant also expressed the fear that there would be negative implications for the University if it does not meet the government quota for non-local students.

What would be the consequence if we do not recruit non-local students?
The University will lose some students in the long run. The government

might then say that the University is ineffective in terms of implementing government policies. UGC is now proposing to raise the percentage of non-local students to 20 percent and the government is trying to promote Hong Kong as a regional educational hub. We might eventually get a smaller funding share if we are not prepared to contribute to these goals. If that happened, we would have to lay off staff and lose our reputation (RSB3).

The third perceived threat relates to the unemployment facing Hong Kong students as the city is increasingly integrated with the mainland, economically, socially, and politically. More and more students from the mainland are seeking jobs in Hong Kong and vice versa. However, as two participants suggested, “Hong Kong students are more laid-back” (SMB3) and “cannot compete with their counterparts in the mainland” (RSB2). For instance, “their Chinese is definitely not as good as that of mainland students and they may not even achieve higher TOEFL scores than mainland students” (RSB2). Their only possible advantage, according to these two participants, is that “they have more opportunities to be exposed to international news, global perspectives, and international exchange” (RSB2). Therefore, suggested SMB3, “If we continue to develop this advantage, our students will have better job prospects” (SMB3). Hence, in the words of one senior management participant, “we are internationalising not for the 10 percent of our student body which is non-local, but for the 90 percent of our student body which is” (SMB2). Insofar as the recruitment of Chinese mainland students is concerned, “at least our students will learn to speak better Putonghua” (RFB4).

(2.2) Hiring Academics Worldwide

University of Leicester (U of L)

Recruitment of faculty members from an international pool is often associated with the quest for academic excellence (Teather 2004). This belief is shared by the Leicester participants in the study, all of whom agreed that the number of international faculty members is not only an indicator of how internationalised the University is, but it is also an indicator of how good the University is. International faculty members are believed to bring new perspectives from different parts of the world and, as a result, enhance collaboration with universities outside of the U.K. as well as the academic standing of the University. The belief is supported by the fact that the number of international faculty members was used as a measure in the U.K. league table several years ago, as recalled by the following participant:

The university, which had the highest proportion of foreign born staff, turned out to be Cambridge.... So, in another word, our best university, by the measure of scientific strength, was the same university that was the most international as measured by the countries of origin of their staff (RFL1).

The point is, the wider you go in terms of your faculty search, the better you are going to do because “the pool is bigger” (RFL1). Therefore, the strategy to recruit worldwide is not “to engage international colleagues; the strategy is to get the best people and that has meant that we have taken more people from abroad,” explained another participant (SML3).

Despite the worldwide recruitment strategy, the percentage of “non-white” faculty members at U of L across the board was relatively small in 2003-04,

except in the clinical and research areas: Academic: 12.68%; Clinical Academic: 26.61%; Research: 26.75%; Clinical Research: 60%. Staff members of the “senior library” and the “administration” were, in particular, predominantly “white,” 100% and 92.81%, respectively (U of L 2003b). It was pointed out by one participant that in the department of economics, 25 out of 40 faculty members were born outside of the U.K., and that there are also appreciable numbers of international faculty member in many other departments such as biosciences, engineering and law (RSL1). Needless to say, these foreign-born faculty members might not be “non-white.” In any case, one participant recalled that the staffing profile in his department was rather homogenous a decade ago and he theorised that the number of foreign-born faculty members increased “as the department put more emphasis in its research activities” (SML3).

Might it be said, then, that the trend towards worldwide recruitment of faculty members is a research development strategy and that the international dimension is a by-product only? The answer is likely to be “Yes” because the recruitment of faculty members is “driven by the research agenda” of the department concerned (SML3). Another faculty member put it this way: “One of the advantages that universities in England have is that our staff is international and that gives us academic strength. There is nothing to do with being nice to each other. It is a selfish argument about strength” (RFL1). Furthermore, as in the case of international student recruitment, the recruitment of international faculty members is also partly attributable to *weiji*, at least in the case of some departments. For example, according to one faculty member, the high number of

international faculty members in economics and law is due to the fact that there were few local candidates. In economics, the situation was once perceived as “a crisis” because there are very few U.K.-born students who continue to do graduate studies in economics (SML3). Although the department had a lot of people from continental Europe who came to the U.K. and went through the Masters and PhD programmes and then stayed on, “there was a fear that at some point in time they would go home” (SML3). That particular fear, however, has not been substantiated. Today, as with the faculty of economics, the faculty of law has more faculty members born outside of the U.K. than those originally from the U.K. An important point to note is that many of the international faculty members are U.K. trained. Presumably, this is a reflection of the large number of international students studying in postgraduate programmes at various U.K. universities. At U of L, the active strategy in international student recruitment has boosted the number of postgraduate students from overseas to over 70 percent in a number of academic departments. Nation-wide, of the 318,400 international students enrolled in U.K. universities in 2004-05, 50 percent of the students in postgraduate taught programmes and 46 percent at postgraduate research programmes were international students (Universities UK 2006b).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

There seems to be no significant disagreement among HKBU participants regarding the importance of hiring academics worldwide, “not just for the best talent available, but also for the different international experiences that faculty

members recruited from overseas bring, as personal touch is very important in fostering internationalisation” (RFB3). Hence, two senior management participants agreed that the University should “encourage the hiring of expatriate staff” (SMB1) and “hire overseas faculty members whenever possible” (SMB2). However, unlike the U of L, where international faculty recruitment is largely the result of a research development strategy, the emphasis at HKBU seems to have more to do with a desire to “provide an English learning environment.” Language, as one senior management participant observed, “is also very important for internationalisation” (SMB3). In the view of another participant, however, this message regarding the link between the recruitment of overseas faculty members and internationalisation actually seems to have been lost:

I have received a very clear message that we should recruit more expatriate teaching staff and that is more for language training because they would be speaking English to our students and hopefully will enhance the language ability of our students, but it is not necessarily for internationalisation” (SMB4).

Be that as it may, the number of expatriates is only one of the numerous indicators of the extent of internationalisation among the university staff. Apart from the presence of expatriates, “the proportion of local staff holding research degrees from foreign universities” is deemed to be equally important, if not more so (Teather 2001, p. 55). Thus, it is not surprising that a number of participants placed greater emphasis on “where faculty members are trained” than on “where they come from,” and agreed that “the faculty profile at HKBU is very diverse” on that basis (RFB3). Indeed, in the opinion of one faculty participant, “many Chinese colleagues have a very good international outlook/

perspective/background, probably because they have studied abroad” (RFB2). In 1995-96, 86 percent of faculty members at HKBU were found to hold at least one degree awarded by a university outside of Hong Kong (Teather *et al* 1997). As a result, Teather (2001) concluded that “the level of internationalisation of faculty at HKBU is very high in comparison with other countries” (p. 56). Today, the proportion of teaching staff holding at least one degree from overseas remains largely the same. Eighty-six percent of the faculty (309 faculty members altogether) hold at least one degree awarded by a university outside of Hong Kong: USA – 33 percent; UK – 24 percent; Canada – 8 percent; China (incl. Taiwan) – 9 percent; Australia and New Zealand – 7 percent; Europe – 3 percent; and Asia – 1 per cent (HKBU 2005b).

However, not everyone agrees that the proportion of local staff holding research degrees from foreign universities could be an indicator of the internationalisation of the staff body. At least one participant voiced some doubt that the equation is that straightforward:

There are a number of issues here. For example, if you studied in Canada and returned to Hong Kong immediately after your PhD, you would be hired at a low level. Therefore, you would have no authority and have to listen to your department heads and deans. You would have no say and would be completely localised by the time you were promoted to associate professorship (RFB1).

Therefore, RFB1 opined that “there must be a structural change, particularly in terms of senior appointments” (RFB1). As a matter of fact, the Academic Vice-President of the University before 1997 was a native English speaker from the U.S. Today, it would be unimaginable that HKBU, even with its worldwide vision, would hire an Academic Vice-President who is non-Chinese and cannot speak

Chinese. In the words of one senior management participant, “although the University does not discriminate against foreigners, there are positions for which we find it difficult to recruit non-Chinese candidates such as the positions of Vice Presidents” (SMB2).

In the meantime, the number of non-Chinese faculty members has dropped in recent years and the University is faced with a number of problems in its attempt to replenish its pool of expatriate staff. Based on the 2005/06 academic calendar/bulletin of the University and judging by their names, there are 34 non-Chinese faculty members across the board, representing about 10 percent of the academic staff (HKBU 2005b). Some academic units, the School of Chinese Medicine and the Faculty of Science for example, have no expatriate staff. This is a far cry from the staffing situation just a decade ago when there were 65 non-Chinese faculty members, or 21 percent of the academic staff at HKBU then (HKBU 1995). The University has lost half of its expatriate staff over a period of ten years. It was pointed out by one participant, however, that the fall in the number of expatriates is actually “a territory-wide phenomenon and is not confined to the university sector alone” (RSB4). It was noted, for example, that “there has been a big drop in the number of British nationals within the government as a result of the localisation of the civil service” (RSB4). Presumably, the declining quality of life, especially in terms of worsening air pollution, has also adversely affected the attractiveness of Hong Kong as a city in which to live. In a recent business survey as reported by Reuters, Asian expatriates rated Hong Kong as the 32nd best city in which to live out of 257

urban locations worldwide, down from the 20th position just a year ago. Deteriorating air quality was cited as the main reason for the city's declining appeal (Reuters 2006). According to information provided by the Immigration Department of Hong Kong, however, the total number of Americans, Australians, Britons and Canadians working in Hong Kong has steadily increased since the return of the territory to China, from 6,392 in 1997 to 8,255 in 2005 (Hong Kong Immigration 2006). Presumably, most of these foreign nationals are native-English speakers.

Apart from the external environment, HKBU is also faced with problems internally in its attempt to raise the number of expatriates among its staff. First, there seems to be both faculty and student resistance to the recruitment of expatriate staff. According to one senior management participant, "some heads of departments have no desire to hire expatriates" (SMB3). One reason for the reluctance to hire non-Chinese, in the words of another participant, is that "people simply want to avoid using English, unless it is absolutely necessary, and there might also be a fear of cultural clash as most foreigners are seen to be more vocal and demanding" (RSB4). As the number of native English speakers declines, RSB4 continued, "most meetings are now conducted in Chinese" (RSB4). Indeed, "with only a few expatriates around, there is not an English speaking environment to help foster the use of English" (SMB3). More worrying, perhaps, is the complaint of students against expatriate teaching staff in certain disciplines.

Students have complained that our non-local faculty members do not give them enough knowledge about local industries or local scenes ... [and]

that they are not teaching them sufficiently about the local situation. Students say they have no interest or very little interest in what happens in America (SMB4)

In this connection, HKBU students' reluctance to enrol in classes taught in English seems to be quite well-known "because they are not comfortable using English" (RFB4). Therefore, despite the fact that the official medium of instruction at the University is English, some faculty members, who might also be diffident in the use of English in the classroom, would not teach in English "for fear of poor student feedback" (SMB2). However, this situation might not be unique to HKBU. As Hamlett (2000) points out, while most Hong Kong universities would say that their language of instruction is English, the classroom reality seems to tell a different story.

Second, there are resource-related problems in the recruitment of expatriate staff. After enjoying an unprecedented period of expansion in the 1990s, the tertiary education sector suffered a series of funding cuts beginning in 1998. The amount of recurrent grant funds given to the eight UGC-funded institutions was reduced from HKD12.623 billion in 1998/99 to HKD10.056 billion in 2004/05, representing a funding cut of about 20 percent (UGC Hong Kong 2005b). In the case of HKBU, it suffered a total reduction of about 21 percent in its recurrent grants from HKD684.4 million in 2000-01 down to HKD546.7 million in 2004-05, a reduction of HKD137.7 million over a period of merely four years. The most devastating effect of the funding cuts in terms of staffing is the de-linking of university salaries from the civil service pay scale. As a result of the de-linking, the government no longer gives additional funds to the universities to

cover staff salary increments or other staff benefits, such as a housing allowance, in line with the benefits still being given to civil servants. To deal with the budget shortfall, HKBU, like many of its sister institutions, has significantly reduced its remunerative package for new staff. For instance, “instead of providing housing to non-local faculty members, the University now gives only 10 percent on top of one’s salary as a cash allowance” (SMB2). Although individual departments, if they have the resources, “can increase the amount of the cash allowance, say, to 15 or 20 percent, the chance of renting an apartment even with that much of an allowance is still very small” (SMB2). Therefore, the recruitment of expatriate staff is seriously “constrained by the unfavourable appointment package that the University offers” (RFB2).

If Hong Kong has lost its attractiveness to expatriates, its appeal to mainland Chinese has not diminished. In comparison to the Chinese mainland, “Hong Kong’s reasonably competitive salary and lower taxes” have given the university sector an edge in faculty recruitment, particularly those who are of ethnic Chinese background but trained abroad” (SMB2). This is despite a fear that “Hong Kong institutions might not be able to compete with some top mainland institutions in faculty recruitment” for certain fields such as natural science (RFB3). Even so, as one senior management participant confidently pointed out, “Hong Kong’s geographical proximity to Shenzhen (a Chinese city immediately across Hong Kong’s northern border) is clearly a major advantage” (SMB2). Since the border is open 24 hours a day, SMB2 suggested that “faculty members can work in Hong Kong and live across the border for cheaper

housing” (SMB2). His confidence in this regard is borne out by the increased number of faculty members with Chinese mainland origins who are working at the University. Over the course of the last decade, the number of these mainland faculty members has more than tripled from 21 in 1995-96 (HKBU 1995), or 7 percent of the total number of staff then, to 67 in 2005-06, or 20 percent of the staff body today (HKBU 2005b). This, again, is not unique to HKBU. As pointed out by Postiglione (2005), in recent years many mainland students, after finishing their graduate studies overseas, found work in Hong Kong rather than return to the mainland.

Section Conclusion

The discussion in this section has attempted to shed light on the wider external environment within which the two case universities are situated. Universities do not exist in a vacuum and forces both within and outside of their walls can and do influence the extent and nature of their internationalising efforts (Cuthbert 2002). This is related to part of the second specific research question of why the two case universities are internationalising and whether they are internationalising in distinctive ways. In the case of HKBU, efforts to internationalise are tied to the forces of both globalisation and localisation, that is, “glocalisation,” or, in the words of its President, “translocalisation,” as the territory continues to try to shake off its former colonial identity, to recreate itself as a city in China, and to otherwise reintegrate with the motherland. The large number of non-local students being recruited from the Chinese mainland is a case in point. Financial

factors - as threats and opportunities - have been of much less significance than in Britain. In Britain, a sharp decline in public funding, coupled with the introduction of full cost fees for foreign students, has driven many universities to the global education market. Following the lead of the British government, U of L has taken full advantage of the monopolistic position of the English language in reaping the economic as well as, presumably, the cultural benefits of fee-paying international students both on- and off-campus. The next section will examine how the two case universities, on the basis of both participant perceptions and documentary analysis, see the benefits of internationalisation and rationalise their internationalising efforts. The rationale and motivation for internationalising, especially from an institutional perspective, may be viewed as internally induced. However, it is likely that internal reasons are also strongly reinforced by the external environment (Van der Wende 2004).

(3) Rationalising Actions

University of Leicester (U of L)

All U of L participants touched upon the four categories of rationale proposed by Knight (1997b): political, economic, academic and socio-cultural. As mentioned earlier, academic rationale takes priority in the recruitment of international faculty and the economic imperative dominates in the recruitment of international students. In the latter case, many participants hastened to add that the economic imperative does not stand alone and is tied in with the academic rationale (Knight 1997b and 1999; de Wit 1995 and 2002). In the words of one participant, the

recruitment of international students is not “completely divorced from the money side,” but “it is more creating a university that we are proud of” (SML4). In this section, participant response in global, national, institutional, as well as personal terms with respect to the benefits of internationalisation will be examined. According to them, the rationale for internationalisation ranges from potentially making a contribution to world peace, global and national economic benefit, institutional reputation, to faculty satisfaction and a better education for students.

It might be high sounding, but quite a few participants cited certain benefits of internationalisation in global and national contexts.

Internationalisation is a response to globalisation, and that makes some sense because people can keep their identities, making them proud of their national identities, making them reflect on their own past and making sense of the future, while at the same time belonging to something, which is wider than that” (RSL3).

The wider context, for this participant, relates to the concepts of global citizenship and development education. The concepts of citizenship and development education lie outside this study. Suffice it to say that they are educational ideals, which, like the core value of internationalisation of higher education in fostering intercultural understanding and diversity, aim for the betterment of the world as well as the person. This participant is not alone in his view, as another participant reflected upon the achievement of the University through the work that his department did and how it could make a positive contribution in a global context:

I mean, it might sound very idealistic, but a university like Leicester, by having an international dimension to its activities, surely must be making a contribution to the improvement of international relations, making the world a happier, safer place (SML2).

As he explained further, “In cooperation, we try to find a solution that makes everybody, in some sense, better, win-win. So, if somehow this internationalisation can result in more cooperative solutions to the problems of the world, then the world is better off” (SML2). That is, U of L may be contributing to the improvement of international relations as a result of its inter-institutional cooperation. Internationalisation could also make a contribution to better international relations because “every happy graduate of a British University is an ambassador for Britain,” added another participant (RFL1). In this connection, at least one participant decided that “distance learning alumni are some of the most enthusiastic and committed supporters and ambassadors of the university ... because they tend to be with the university longer, and when you are remote from the university, you want to feel a sense of belonging and you feel that more strongly than the students who are here, who take it all for granted” (RSL1).

Apart from international relations, internationalisation in terms of the propagation of knowledge worldwide is also deemed to be able to enhance both global and national economies. For example, cited by one senior management participant, the University is helping the national economies where its international alumni are located:

I set up [an alumni association] in Ghana in September and we had 200 students turning up there.... The British High Commission commended the University of Leicester for its contribution to the growth of the economy of Ghana. I suppose that is another aspect, if you are thinking of wider issues, that we are training executives in Ghana to do bigger and better business and that must contribute to the growth of its economy. So, it must be the same all over the world where we have graduates” (SML2).

A staff member, who was previously an international student, agreed. “You have this international link, through which you can bring benefit to your home countries in terms of creating business opportunities in your home countries” (RSL4). Closer to home, as mentioned earlier, the enrolment of international students has boosted not only the budgetary situation of the University, but also employment in the U.K. As one participant pointed out, since the launch of the distance learning programme, his department has grown to a staff of “34 academic members, about 30 administrative support staff, and another 20 part-time teaching staff” (SML2). In this respect, the economic benefit of internationalisation to Britain is without doubt, as the total value of the British export of education and training is currently estimated at £6 billion annually (British Council 2005).

However, as mentioned earlier, the economic rationale does not stand alone and is often linked with the academic rationale. “Yes,” explained one senior management participant, “the University will try to recruit as many international students as possible, both as a financial thing and to deliver on its mission to teach well and research well” (SML4). “It is important to bring money into the University,” he continued, but it is also important “that we have a good image; that we have a high profile internationally because of the international research we do and the collaboration that we have with international researchers” (SML4). Another participant opined in a similar vein that internationalisation “is the way that we draw out the potential from the staff. The potential is, of course, their academic reputation, not just in the U.K., but internationally, and that is the

international profile of the University (RSL1). In this regard, the fact that over 42 percent of full-time postgraduate students are international students (U of L 2005b) clearly reflects the important contribution of international students to research at the University. Again, as one staff member observed, “research brings in research money” (RSL4). Indeed, research grants and contracts constituted a healthy income of about 22 percent of the University’s turnover in 2003-04 and the University was placed in the nineteenth position in terms of research grant income per academic amongst the 250 higher education institutions in the U.K. in 2004-05 (U of L 2004a). At least one participant felt that the University’s international profile is also strongly linked to its achievement in distance learning.

Certainly our name is known among the training professions and communities in different parts of the world. Otherwise, they would not have learned about the University. More fundamentally, because of our distance learning programme, we have propagated the name of the University worldwide (RFL3).

An international reputation, in turn, will attract very good students and very good staff. Coupled with more financial resources from international student and research income, the University “will become a better university with quality students and staff” (SML4).

At a more micro level, the internationalising of universities seems to be able to bring personal benefits to the faculty and students as well. Even the most critical voice, which associated internationalisation primarily with the global market and the commercialisation of higher education, cited personal benefits from the internationalising process, as follows:

You know, there is a prestige in academic work on having *an international perspective* and, as an academic, I have found it hugely fascinating, interesting, attractive, to be able to work internationally [and] to have your traditional assumptions challenged.... [It has] made me *a better academic*. The whole notion of international exchange has got to be good.... You cannot put the genie back into the bottle, and would not want to (RFL2; emphasis added).

The internationalisation of his work has given him “an international perspective” and has made him “a better academic.” Therefore, he reasoned, even though internationalisation is “driven commercially, driven by the desire to increase revenue and to exploit new markets, that does not mean it is wholly a negative thing” (RFL2). In fact, “there are lots of benefits,” so much so that he decided the international side of his work “is one of the factors that makes [him] reluctant to leave U of L” (RFL2).

The experience of RFL2 resonates in many ways with those of other participants who have had the opportunity of working abroad, as shown below:

The exposure for my colleagues and me going out to another country is almost as beneficial as for the students coming out here.... Because you have been there, you can talk about their country. That is one level, which is at the personal level. At another level, which is what I would call *the thinking visitor*, you learn a lot more out there. You talk to people in schools and colleges, which might be sending students and you find out a bit about the educational culture so that we would know what we could expect (RFL4; emphasis added).

While RFL2 emphasised the potential for one’s personal growth as an academic, RFL4 highlighted the benefits and rewards to be reaped by any “thinking visitor” in terms of understanding the educational culture from which prospective international students may come. As a result, RFL4 felt that he at least understands the language needs of his foreign students and, consequently, he

has worked very hard over the years “on the language side of things” in order to prepare for the students’ study at U of L (RFL4).

For a member of the business faculty, apart from the pleasure of seeing the world and meeting very interesting people, he is pleased that running a distance learning programme has forced him “out of the theory books and into the world of practice” (SML2)

I have seen parts of the world that I would have never seen otherwise. I have met incredibly interesting people all over the world. I have had the honour of teaching very interesting students of the world and it has also forced me out of the theory books into the world of practice.... I have actually learned to *run a business*, not just in theory (SML2; emphasis added).

SML2 also found satisfaction in teaching international students, as he described that “there is an exciting interaction” when students from “largely different cultural backgrounds” are brought together (SML2). His colleague from another distance learning programme agreed that “teaching adult learners is a rewarding experience” due to the fact that “the contextual knowledge varies from one job situation to another” (RFL3). In addition, RFL3 was able to internationalise his research because, while “some people might find it difficult to fund their travels if they want to engage in international research,” he was travelling “by default” of his work (RFL3). The satisfaction of teaching international students seems to be not restricted to teaching distance learners, as evidenced in the following statement by a faculty member, who teaches on-campus students: “As a teacher, I know my courses and my classes are more interesting by having the different perspectives that international students bring” (SML3).

What of those who do not have the chance to travel abroad? Given the high percentage of international faculty in his department, one participant observed, “There is nothing quite like having an international faculty around you to stop you from being too inward looking” (RFL4). Therefore, regardless of whether the faculty member works on campus or overseas, this participant was suggesting that the chance of the faculty member being internationalised is quite high. This might, however, apply to his department only. As mentioned earlier, the proportions of international faculty (at least in terms of non-whites) are not spread out evenly. In any case, based on the experience of the above participants, it might be said that an internationalised faculty member is a better academic, better understands international students’ needs, is more enthusiastic about teaching them, puts theory into practice and can run a successful distance learning programme, internationalises his research, and is not inward looking.

Internationalisation of higher education through the recruitment of international students, in the opinion of two participants, also benefits the home students.

International students educate our students. They are a window on the world and are from different intellectual traditions. Our English students now receive a better education because they sit alongside students who are from elsewhere. So, by the crude measurement of quality enhancement, having international students in as many classes as possible is an endlessly good thing (RFL1).

Most of our graduates can expect to be in some ways working in a global business.... In order to engage in that world means that they need to have an international education (RSL1).

Two other participants drew on their own international experience both at home and abroad during their college days to exemplify the benefits of internationalisation to students.

I can pinpoint exactly what changed me and it was being an international student myself, understanding what it means to be foreign and then realising really how big the world is.... It changed the way you see the world, and that is the benefit and you would never go back on it. You were humbled, you listened better, you did not judge too quickly. Those are the sort of things I easily think of, and that is why I like people to have that experience (RSL1).

I am from a city of England, which is very working class and very white. I went down to London University and people there were from all over the world. So I had friends, who were Arabs, Jews, and Asians. English people there were the minority.... It was very good for me (SML4).

The purpose of this study does not lend itself to examining students' views first-hand and the above brief description of the likely benefit of internationalisation relates to home students only. However, an internationalisation project undertaken by the Staff Development Centre of the University and RSL4, who was once an international student, offer glimpses as to why international students choose to come to U of L and what their experiences have been (Chan and Grant 2006). Many of the reasons cited by the international students in the Staff Development Centre project coincided with those noted in the literature review as well as those given by the participants in this study, and can be summed up in terms of job prospects and career development. The perceived quality and value of a British degree and the international experience of studying abroad are things that the students believed to be great assets as they look for jobs after graduation, either back in their home countries or in the much larger global work place. On the other hand, the brain drain and the

possible loss of cultural identity cited in much of the literature are not perceived as disadvantages and risks by the students, at least not in personal terms.

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

As in the case of the U of L participants, HKBU interviewees gave various reasons for internationalising the University, some of which were touched upon in previous sections on the recruitment of non-local students and expatriate staff. There is, however, one major difference between their responses and those of the U of L participants. While U of L participants described glowingly the presumed benefits of internationalisation vis-à-vis the University and their personal experiences, HKBU participants spoke in a more theoretical and general fashion in terms of rationale and hopes. This, perhaps, is not surprising, given their shorter history and the problems they are facing in trying to internationalise the University. On the other hand, the difference could also be due to a “researcher effect” (Mercer 2007). Would U of L participants have spoken negatively about their international students if the author of this study were not an international student herself? Similarly, the “researcher effect” might also have come into play at HKBU as participants there might have engaged the researcher as a former colleague with whom they felt they could share their frustrations and problems. Whichever the case maybe, HKBU participants also cited benefits, globally, nationally, institutionally, and individually, as well as forces that push the University to internationalise.

At a global level, it is believed that internationalisation can “foster cross-cultural exchange, friendship, and understanding” between people of different nations and, therefore, “contribute towards world peace” (SMB2). Intercultural encounters have the potential to produce “hybridity,” which, in the opinion of one faculty member, is “a recipe for peace” (RFB1). In the view of this faculty member, conflicts occur “because people insist on purity: One hundred percent Chinese, 100 percent Japanese, 100 percent French, or nothing else.... If we think violence should be something to condemn, we should not insist on purity. The solution to conflict is hybridity and hybridisation” (RFB1). Several participants also pointed out the dialectical relationship between globalisation and internationalisation (Scott 1998; de Wit 2002). First, in the words of one senior management participant, “globalisation is intensifying the speed of internationalisation in terms of encounters between different cultures” (SMB3). Second, “globalisation is pushing us to compete ... [in the sense] that we have to internationalise, if others do, so that we do not lag behind” (RFB3). Therefore, “we cannot isolate ourselves from the rest of the world in our academic endeavours,” said another participant (RSB3). The world is a more globalised world (SMB1) and, as a result, “student training has to be applicable worldwide” (RFB3). In sum, internationalisation is “part of the globalising trend... [and] no single country can isolate itself any longer from the rest of the global community” (SMB4).

Apart from the possibility of promoting international understanding, internationalisation of education should also have a positive effect on economic

and technological developments and give the country concerned a competitive edge. In the U.K., one benefit often cited in this regard is brain gain if the foreign students stay after they graduate “to make up for skill shortages in the domestic market” (UKCOSA 2004, Preface). This view was shared by some HKBU participants. First, pointed out by one senior management participant, “the academic standard of the non-local students [who are mostly Chinese mainland students in this case] is generally higher than that of local students. They do quite well in their studies and may remain in Hong Kong after their graduation. If they do, it will give Hong Kong an advantage in terms of brain gain” (SMB2). Even if they do not stay, non-local students will “contribute to the economic activities of Hong Kong,” said another participant (RSB3).

For example, as in the UK’s case, their parents will most likely visit Hong Kong on a regular basis and may even buy property here. This will be beneficial to the Hong Kong economy. Although this is not our primary goal, these fringe benefits cannot be ignored (SMB2).

Furthermore, continued SMB2, “just like us who have studied abroad, non-local students would most likely choose the brands with which they were familiar when they were abroad. This is natural and will give an implicit advantage to the host country” (SMB2). Therefore, he rationalised, “although Hong Kong subsidises the educational costs of non-local students, it realises many benefits in return” (SMB2).

At an institutional level, internationalisation is deemed to be able to enhance the quality of education and the reputation of the University. As one senior management participant recalled, “HKBU internationalised in its early days because, as a private college, it was not recognised locally. Therefore, it sought

recognition overseas in the 1960s and 1970s and successfully facilitated further study for its graduates” (SMB1). As a matter of fact, added another senior management participant, “it was for reasons of survival” that Hong Kong Baptist College internationalised in the early days (SMB3). Today, Hong Kong Baptist University is internationalising in the hope that it will lead to the enhancement of its reputation. In his first interview with *New Horizons*, an official publication of the University, the Vice-President who oversees the broad areas of institutional development including the internationalising of the University believed that “developing and internationalising the University are the ingredients that will help raise the profile of the University” (HKBU 2003d). His rationalisation was echoed by another senior management participant:

I hope that this would be the natural consequence. If we bring in a certain number of non-local students who are satisfied with their study here and who are positive about their overall experiences, it will automatically lead to the promotion of our reputation outside of Hong Kong (SMB2).

Needless to say, the reputation of the University cannot rely on the recruitment of non-local students alone. In the opinion of at least one faculty participant, the standing of the University also “relies on the work and publications of its faculty members. I am not saying that the work of other offices, such as that of the International Office, is useless, but the reputation of the University relies on the achievement of its faculty” (RFB4). He continued, “If the University really wants to spread its name and establish a position abroad, it should support faculty members in participating in more international activities such as attending and presenting papers at international conferences and organising international conferences on campus” (RFB4).

In any case, a university might still choose not to internationalise despite all the perceived benefits. As suggested by one senior management participant, “the needs consideration is most important. A public university with full government funding, for example, will not have the incentive to recruit more students from overseas” (SMB3). In the case of Hong Kong, “internationalisation is being forced upon the universities by the government. These are negative rather than positive forces and the universities are taking a reactive stand” (SMB3). So, are external forces playing a larger role in the University’s internationalising efforts? “Yes,” answered one faculty participant, “it cannot be done without resources and we probably would not do it if there were no competition” (RFB3). Eventually, he hastened to add, “it has to be based on our educational philosophy, only which will last and only then we can convince our teachers to do it” (RFB3). External forces do not come from government alone. As another staff participant observed, “there is also invisible competition among universities. Without publicising it, other universities in Hong Kong are also promoting a more international flavour on their campuses...and we are being compared with them by the students” (RSB2). “If students from other institutions have the international experience and exposure and ours do not, our students would lose out in the work place,” echoed his colleague (RSB3). While agreeing that “the University has no choice but to do it,” at least one staff participant believed that “there are also people with foresight and vision, who are driving it and support it” (RSB1). Be that as it may, HKBU could only afford to have “a modest aim” in internationalising the campus because of “resource competition

and other priorities” and because the University is not aspiring for “world class status” like some of its sister institutions are (SMB3).

As can be seen in some of the above reasoning, internationalisation also brings benefits on an individual level, presumably for both faculty members and students. However, unlike their U of L counterparts, HKBU participants focused more on the benefits for students rather than on those for themselves. More importantly, they emphasised internationalisation for the sake of students, as evidenced by the following long statement from one faculty participant:

We have to see it from the perspective of the education of students, and internationalisation is at present an important facet of education. We might not have had to think about it twenty years ago as, most likely, students graduated and found work in Hong Kong. Students might not even need it now, but we are not educating students for the present only. We should think about the future, ten to twenty years hence, as to what kind of education that the University should provide. Apart from training students to be good scientists, good chemists, with good science skills, are there any other areas of training that we should provide, for example, language skills? Should they be educated to have an international outlook and be given an international experience? Even if they cannot go abroad, they should have some exchange experience with people from other cultural backgrounds, not just for language enhancement, but for mutual cultural understanding as well (RFB3).

So, how well has HKBU done in internationalising its student body? In a joint university graduate survey conducted in 2003, graduates of full-time bachelor degree programmes in 2001-02 in all eight UGC-funded higher education institutions were asked to evaluate the usefulness of their university education. One of the questions, which students were asked, related to the usefulness of their university education in contributing to their “broadened perspectives.” A total of 517 HKBU students (that is, more than one-third of the University’s bachelor degree graduates in 2001-02), gave ratings of 6.49, 6.72,

6.68 in terms of “understanding international affairs, understanding Hong Kong society, and cross-cultural perspectives,” respectively. The mean score was 6.12, with a score of “0” reflecting extreme uselessness and a score of “10” reflecting great usefulness (HKBU 2003c). However, will internationally-related skills help the students in securing employment after they graduate? At least one staff participant decided that they will, as, in his opinion, “Hong Kong is an international city and there are many overseas enterprises here. On the other hand, Hong Kong organisations have to reach out to the world in order to raise the level of their business” (RSB2). As a result of this macro environment, he believed that “students with a global perspective” will be valued by employers in Hong Kong (RSB2). Hopefully, he is right. Otherwise, the most important rationale for internationalising cited by the Hong Kong government as well as HKBU would be wide of mark.

Section Conclusion

This section has focused on how participants of the U of L and HKBU rationalise their actions vis-à-vis the benefits of the internationalising of universities, in general, and of their institutions, in particular. While U of L participants described glowingly the presumed benefits of internationalisation vis-à-vis the University and their personal experiences, HKBU participants spoke in a more general and theoretical fashion in terms of various rationales and hopes. This, perhaps, is not surprising, given their shorter history and the problems they are facing in trying to internationalise the University.

(4) Chapter Conclusion

This chapter looks at background factors and the beginnings of the internationalising process at the two case universities. The first section, the process of “setting the tone,” answers the first specific research question about the meanings and concepts of internationalisation. It concerns the institutional positioning, outlook, values, and beliefs that facilitate the institutions and personnel therein to respond to certain needs for action and, in this case, to internationalise their institutions. The second section, “responding to threats and opportunities (*weiji*),” describes how and when the current wave of internationalisation began at the two case universities. In section three, “rationalising actions,” participants talked about the benefits of internationalisation, that is, why they do what they do. The next chapter, which presents part two of the findings and analysis, will examine the more substantial side of the internationalising process, from organisational and programme strategies to dealing with challenges in terms of barriers, disadvantages, and risks associated with internationalisation.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS II

In this chapter, section one, “building a broader context,” answers the third specific research question and lists some of the organisational and programme strategies that the two case universities have implemented in line with the circumstances and conditions that they are facing. The fourth specific research question regarding challenges and problems in terms of barriers, disadvantages, and risks is answered in section two, and, finally, the fifth specific research question about perceived outcomes of their internationalising efforts is discussed in section three, “growing the internationalisation tree of fruit.” Section three also concludes the findings and analysis.

(1) Building a Broader Context

The recruitment of international students and delivery of courses worldwide can only be sustained within a much “broader context,” and that context includes the internationalisation of “students, staff, the curriculum, and research” (RSL1). This is because building a broader context of internationalisation will, presumably, create a more conducive environment for the recruitment of international students in the U of L case. That is, the recruitment of international students has reached such a critical stage that a more systematic approach will be necessary if sustainability and further growth is desired (Teichler 1999). One U of L participant put it succinctly: “It makes good marketing sense to ensure that you develop your teaching and learning processes and your educational product in

terms of what people want” (RFL3). For HKBU, the recruitment of non-local students is said to be for the reason of attempting to inject some diversity into an otherwise homogeneous Cantonese-speaking student body (Hong Kong Government 1997). Therefore, for HKBU, building a broader context will be primarily to maximise the benefit of internationalisation for the university’s local students. However, as one HKBU staff member shrewdly pointed out, “the University has to think of ways to internationalise the campus, not just for the benefit of students, but for staff members as well. Not until the entire environment is internationalised will it be a congenial environment within which to keep internationalisation going” (RSB1). The following sub-sections describe and analyse the organisational and programme strategies that the two case universities have instituted in their attempt to build a “broader context” within which to fashion a more systematic approach to their respective internationalising goals.

(1.1) Instituting an Organisational Strategy

(1.1.1) Organising Strategically to Engage the Faculty

University of Leicester (U of L)

There are various strategies at U of L such as a human resources strategy, a research development strategy, an international student recruitment/finance strategy, and an e-learning strategy, but there is no international or internationalisation strategy, at least not on paper. Nonetheless, all these other strategies have produced a “by-product” supportive of the internationalising of the

University. A staff member labelled this “by-product” as “incidental internationalisation” (RSL2). Another called it “an organic, generative, or eclectic process” (RSL3). The University, however, seems to have been more deliberate in organising its structures for internationalisation in recent years.

If we go back two years, one of the things that we had a discussion about was our International Office and we did not think our International Office had sufficient influence in the development of the University, and we felt that we needed to have a more senior position for that office (SML1).

In March 2005, the University appointed a new director for the International Office. The International Office, under the new director, carries a much wider role vis-à-vis the internationalising of the University:

The International Office is responsible for the development of the University’s overall international strategy, including marketing, recruitment, student exchanges and links with universities and other organisations (U of L 2006c)

Several months after the appointment of the new director, the University created the fourth pro-vice-chancellor’s position responsible for “external relations.” The portfolio of the new Pro-Vice-Chancellor (External Relations) includes, among other things, regional development and international activities. In his international role, the new Pro-Vice-Chancellor chairs an International Advisory Group, the International Committee, and the European Committee (U of L 2005c).

Were these two appointments indicative of an “internationalisation strategy”? One answer given was: “I don’t know whether it is a strategy for internationalisation, but it is a strategy that reflects the importance of international students to the University” (SML4). Another faculty member seemed to be more sure about the rationale for the change, at least as far as the appointment of the

new director for the International Office is concerned: “I think what has changed is that the job of the old director was essentially recruiting students. That remains part of the job of the new director, but [the new director’s] additional responsibility is the internationalising of the university” (RFL1). Indeed, the International Office was expected “to develop a strong strategy and then drive that strategy inside the institution” because there are people in the departments that have a lot of international links (SML1). So one of the things the new director will do is “to harness those links to the university strategy and the two things need to go in tandem with one another, with one shaping the other” (SML1). In other words, internationalisation is “happening in pockets” within the University and “it is important to find out where those pockets are and begin to join them up” (RSL3). In order to join these pockets up, it is necessary to enhance communication between the administration and academic departments and to engage the faculty. Hence, departments were recently invited to nominate people to be “departmental international liaison officers,” whose main role is to serve as “an initial contact point for the dissemination of information to appropriate colleagues within their departments” (U of L 2006c).

A further way to boost faculty engagement is the introduction of an incentive scheme and the provision of more coordination at the central level. At the time of writing, U of L was considering a system to encourage departments in the recruitment of international students by “allowing departments to retain some of the profits to spend on whatever they want” (RSL2). The incentive scheme is aligned with the teaching and learning strategy “to expand and improve the

quality of postgraduate activities, particularly through full-cost provision offered by distance-learning and other flexible modes of delivery” (U of L 2004b, p.11). For the realisation of this objective, the University recently created the posts of Director of Distance Learning Administration and Professor of E-learning. The former post aims to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the coordination of the administrative infrastructure for the further development of distance learning, and the latter post aims to “promote the building of pedagogical innovation, increase the deployment of learning technologies and enable research into e-learning in a way that directly addresses business opportunities and imperatives” (U of L 2005a, p. 1). There is a lot of potential for expanding the provision of distance learning because “of the University’s thirty-six departments, less than one-third are offering distance learning” (RSL2). It is hoped that, with a central coordinating structure to engage the faculty and the wider use of e-learning technologies, the number of distance learning programmes will grow. Alongside the creation of the above two positions, the University also established a Programme Development Committee for “the identification of opportunities for new programmes and the invigoration of existing provisions from clear marketing and strategic perspectives” (U of L 2005d). Whereas previously the decision to offer new programmes was more a result of departmental volition, the new Committee will attempt to proactively “encourage new initiatives,” and will “assist departments in bringing their ideas to fruition” (U of L 2005d). In this connection, the International Office web site has a large section advising departments/schools, as well as individual colleagues, on “marketing and

recruitment opportunities” and “international collaborative opportunities and links, including overseas delivery” (U of L 2006c). Marketing, as noted by one staff member, is something that faculty members do not feel comfortable with; hence, it is important for them to understand that “it is not about selling, but to make sure that people know what it is that they are offering and what it is that they are doing and that should be what they want to do in terms of their research and teaching anyway” (RSL1).

To engage faculty members individually, the Staff Development Centre offers a Postgraduate Certificate Course in Academic Practice, which all new faculty members are required to attend and in which there is a module on internationalisation. In addition, internationalisation will be “a key theme for the activities” of the Staff Development Centre in 2005-06 (U of L 2005e). There is also a teaching enhancement forum through which “issues of internationalisation” can be discussed” (RSL3). Some departments also have a “peer mentoring” programme whereby “everyone who is on probation will have a mentor” so that new staff are made aware of “the various aspects of teaching, research, and administration,” particularly in terms of “the challenge of working in an international department” (RFL4).

It might be said that the purpose of engaging the faculty is aligned with the plan to create a broader context for internationalisation in general, and for the sustainability of the recruitment of international students, in particular. The strategy is “to make departments more aware of the benefit of international student recruitment and working with researchers in other countries” (SML4).

However, as pointed out rather shrewdly by another participant, to achieve this goal, what is important is that “the promotion process recognises [entrepreneurial] activities” (RSL2). This was echoed by another faculty member, who decided to withdraw from those activities so that he could concentrate on research, which he believes has become an important criterion for promotion. In his words, “entrepreneurialism” has become “a dirty word” (RFL3). If the University did not recognise collaborative activities for promotion purposes, it would be difficult, if not impossible, for the faculty to see “the benefit” of “working with researchers in other countries.” This point was driven home by one senior management participant when he said that research is evaluated in terms of “the quality of the work and whether international scholars use that work.... So it is not about where you are giving the paper [or] with whom you are publishing the paper” (SML1).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

As mentioned in Chapter Four, HKBU recently drafted an internationalisation strategy in which “the University seeks to enhance its position as an international gateway between mainland China and the global community by strengthening its international networks” (HKBU 2006b). As the existence of an internationalisation strategy is rare, the published internationalisation strategy of HKBU is an important document because it is indicative of institutional commitment (Knight & de Wit 1995; Knight 1997b). One senior management participant confirmed that “internationalisation [at HKBU] has been raised to being one of the strategic

directions at the institutional level” (SMB1). However, he hastened to add that “there are a lot of motherhood statements; how much we can actually accomplish is another question” (SMB1). The most important part of the exercise, in his view, “is the drafting process, which has enabled [the University] to involve the major stakeholders at the strategic level in the search for common understanding and which has provided the chance for these stakeholders to lay out difficulties and problems for discussion” (SMB1). His view resonates with a similar idea put forth by Professor Ng, President and Vice-Chancellor of the University, five years ago. In his first interview in 2001 with *HKBU International*, a newspaper published by the International Office of the University, Professor Ng saw the need for “faculty involvement” as the University embarked upon “increasing the number of international students and widening its network of exchange partners” (HKBU 2002b). Perhaps in line with this need, HKBU initiated a series of formal processes over the past few years to raise awareness and the level of faculty engagement in the internationalising of the University.

The processes, as recalled by one participant, began in 2001 “with the appointment of Professor David Teather [former Dean of Social Sciences at the University] to conduct a review of internationalisation” at HKBU (SMB3). Professor Teather subsequently presented a report to the Senate. The Senate endorsed the recommendations in the report and established a Special Ad Hoc Senate Committee to study the various issues raised therein (HKBU 2002a). Thus, SMB3 observed, “we could say that the University is quite serious about internationalisation” (SMB3). In 2003, the responsibilities of the senior

management were re-aligned and a new position of Vice-President for Development was created. The new Vice-President oversees the broad areas of institutional development including internationalisation. Immediately thereafter, an international office was established to assist in “the formulation, development, and coordination of the implementation of the University’s internationalisation strategy” (HKBU 2006a). The International Office also took over the work of the Special Senate Ad Hoc Committee on Internationalisation. Hence, it is charged with, among other things, the task of promoting “interest and involvement in the internationalisation of the University by all members of the University community” (HKBU 2003b).

In order that the International Office works in tandem with faculty input, an Internationalisation Advisory Committee was formed. Consisting of both local and non-local faculty members who have an interest as well as experience in internationalisation, the Committee is expected to:

- promote, support and strengthen the international aspects of the University’s core activities in teaching and service; and
- provide advice to [the Vice-President for Development] on all related issues of internationalisation in the University (HKBU 2006a).

Although members of the advisory committee are appointed *ad personam*, it seems to be an effective organ through which faculty input can be garnered. For instance, on the advice of the Committee, briefings have been held with the wider academic community of the University at faculty/school board meetings, resulting in a number of suggestions to enhance the reception of exchange students at the departmental level (RSB1). Exchange students, in this case, are mostly international students from abroad. They usually come to HKBU for a semester

or a year of study. They do not need to declare their majors and are permitted to take any subject in any discipline as long as they can satisfy the pre-requisites for the subjects concerned. Hence, unlike regular students enrolling in departmentally based degree programmes, they do not have a departmental affiliation and the International Office is their primary advocate. Since exchange students do not belong to an academic department, the departments do not bear any official responsibility for them outside of the classroom. At one of the consultative faculty board meetings, a suggestion was made to assign exchange students to academic departments. The concept is to provide “an academic home for international students” so that they will feel “welcome by departments and faculty members” (SMB1). The suggested arrangement, which will be put in place this fall, should also ensure that the work of the International Office is more “organically integrated” with that of academic departments in catering to the needs of exchange students (RSB2).

To further boost the engagement and support of faculty, 40 percent of the tuition fees derived from the 6 percent out-of-quota recruitment of non-local students for the 2006-07 academic year will be set aside to support the development of internationalisation. This financing formula for internationalisation is, according to one participant, “a major breakthrough” and will “guarantee that internationalisation will be an on-going agenda within the University” (SMB1). In this connection, a “Zero-based Budgeting Resources Allocation Model” has been developed “to allocate resources among all academic units based on outputs such as student load” (HKBU 2004a). One of the effects of this model is that

“departments will be compensated for their increased teaching load” due to the enrolment of exchange students and non-local students over the government quota” (SMB1). As a result, opined one faculty member, “there should be a lot of shifting of interests. People do things when they are rewarded” (RFB2). However, some participants disagreed: “Some people might still feel that it is too much trouble to have international students in their class; it is not just a matter of money” (RSB3). For the majority of the University’s non-native English speaking faculty members, “the presence of international students places a constraint for their classes and becomes an additional burden ... because it involves extra work, extra attention, and extra preparation” (SMB1). Furthermore, according to one faculty participant, “the size of the faculty is shrinking, the teaching load and staff-student ratio are increasing, and most faculty members are concerned about their RAE [research assessment exercise] performance” (RFB4).

(1.1.2) Organising Strategically to Support the Students

University of Leicester (U of L)

In line with its internationalising focus on the recruitment of international students, U of L organises strategically to support its international students. For “if you start doing work with international students and do not provide the necessary infrastructure, you are putting the reputation of your institution at risk,” warned one U of L senior management participant (SML1). So, it is about institutional reputation and it means work. “Oh, yes,” he responded, “it does, because you have got to think about what the infrastructure is going to be and what facilities

[international students] may require” (SML1). He continued, “I mean, you do not just get people in and expect them to pay more. So, apart from the money side, you are thinking about how you teach international students” (SML4). One particular problem that international students might have is English language and “there are frequent complaints about the English language ability of international students” (SML3). Therefore, the University has an English language teaching unit, which “is very responsive in putting on programmes for students in different disciplines” (SML3). “We would damage our reputation if we produced graduates who could not work and communicate in English,” opined one participant (RSL2).

The University also seems to be aware of some of the special needs of international students. For example, the University recently employed someone in the Careers Service Office to look after international students, “because they want jobs and many want to stay in this country” (RFL1). There is also a Student Learning Centre attached to the Educational Development and Support Centre, which helps students improve their study and research skills, and there are “international advisors” in the Welfare Office to help international students in other areas of need. Why does the University go to all the trouble of providing for its international students? One participant commented: “It is not because we are virtuous, but simply because we have a large number of international students and we are trying to give them the best possible deal. There is no policy behind this beyond the notion that students should be satisfied customers” (RFL1). A business faculty member put it more succinctly: “Loyal customers become advocates. They advocate to their friends and their relatives our programmes....

So, it is a business strategy and a good educational strategy as well. The two come together” (SML2). Students as customers, on the other hand, are “very demanding and very sophisticated. They are not passive people who sit back and take whatever you give them, and that also drives you to internationalise because students would not be satisfied with a course if it is not meeting their needs” (RSL1).

In this connection, the University was “the joint top ranked UK University for teaching quality, personal development, academic support and overall satisfaction amongst universities teaching full-time students” in the 2005 National Student Survey (U of L 2004a, p. 8). In addition, U of L Students’ Union won the award of Students’ Union of the Year for 2004-05 for its “excellent facilities, strong student societies and good quality welfare provision” (U of L 2004a, p. 7). Although both of these awards might not have much to do with the University’s support of international students, U of L Students’ Union is one of the few among UK universities that has a full-time international student officer representing the interests of international students and promoting “international cultures to the whole student body” (RSL4). The Students’ Union is an independent organisation and, apart from representing the interests of international students within the University, the international student officer also sees to it that “the Students’ Union takes care of its international student body” and co-ordinates “an orientation programme to help international students adjust to life in the U.K.” (U of L 2006e).

There is also a Graduate Dean, who “acts as the advocate for postgraduate activity within the University, and ... [who] also works to ensure that the University makes adequate provision through its support services to enhance the postgraduate experience” (U of L 2006b). As over 50 percent of the full-time international students are in graduate studies (862 out of a total of 1,562 in 2004/05), the role of the Graduate Dean has a lot to do with international students as well. Officially, the Graduate Dean also represents the interests of the large number of international graduate students in the University’s distance learning programmes (3,133 out of a total of 5,962 in 2004/05). However, most of the services and support mentioned above do not apply to these students. These international distance learners, who are in fact studying at a distance, require different kinds of infrastructural support. As was pointed out by one faculty participant who teaches distance learning, “faculty members have to fly out to Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia, and meet with the students and lecture,” and “lines of communication between the students and the university... [have] to be run efficiently and effectively” (SML2). A faculty member in another distance learning programme elaborated further:

We work within different calendars, different conditions, and we have to work abroad because our students are everywhere and they have their own timetables to be adhered to and to be supported around the clock and throughout all calendar months (RFL3).

In this regard, the University aspires to provide “high quality learning and support to distance learners equivalent to that provided to campus attendees” (U of L 2005a, p. 2). In fact, the goal is to provide “equivalent and enhanced learning and support experiences for all Leicester students” through blended

provision/mixed modes of learning (U of L 2005a, p. 1). The ability to switch between modes, as envisaged by one staff participant, should be “very attractive to students” (RSL2). However, can the learning experience be internationalised as a result? Perhaps this question is irrelevant because, after all, “there is not an articulated institutional aim of internationalisation” vis-à-vis distance or e-learning (RSL2) and “the original aim and idea of distance learning was the massification of higher education” (RSL1). In any case, one faculty member teaching in a distance learning programme voiced his concern:

I believe in the power of the teacher, by which, I mean, the power of face-to-face teaching, the power of all sorts of exchange, the power to inspire, and I think that is part of effective teaching, and that is why I enjoy teaching. So, I do not really look forward to the prospect of having less and less face-to-face contact with students and engaging more and more in on-line activities (RFL2).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

There are three groups of students that HKBU is organising strategically to support. The first group consists of local students, who are Hong Kong residents registering in its regular degree programmes. The second group consists of non-local students, mostly from mainland China, also enrolling in its regular degree programmes. The third group consists primarily of international students, who come from outside of China and Hong Kong and who are on study abroad or exchange programmes lasting from one semester to a full academic year. In line with the idea of translocalisation, all students from outside of Hong Kong are labelled as “non-local students.” That is, the term could mean both mainland Chinese and international students. However, whenever the term “international

students” is used, it refers to non-local students outside of China and Hong Kong only. As reported in Chapter Four, the purported purpose of the recruitment of non-local students is to internationalise the local student body. Why is it important to do so? What are some of the cultural and socio-economic characteristics of the local students at Hong Kong Baptist University?

Based on a HKBU survey conducted in 2003 (HKBU 2003e), most students in the 2005 graduating class were born in Hong Kong and come from low to lower-middle socio-economic backgrounds:

- of the 1,163 (out of 1,528) students who responded to the survey, only 4.3 percent of their fathers and 2.2 percent of their mothers received a post-secondary education;
- only 5.2 percent of their fathers and 4.5 percent of their mothers are identified as “professionals” in their occupations;
- 64.3 percent of them have a monthly household income below HKD20,000 (approximately 1,500 pounds);
- 55 percent of them live in government subsidised housing; and
- only 14.4 percent indicated that they do not have concern about financing their university education.

Therefore, the local students at HKBU are largely culturally homogeneous and Cantonese speaking. In the opinion of one faculty participant, “they could be very parochial and concerned with life in Hong Kong only. Their exposure is very limited and they know very little about foreign countries except from TV. They seldom travel abroad ... and do not see far beyond Hong Kong” (RFB2). In sum, he concluded, “Hong Kong students can be very inward looking” (RFB2). Other participants seemed to be in agreement with him. “Most of the students that I come into contact with seem to lack a global perspective” (RSB2). “I think most of our local students are quite parochial, especially in terms of their interests and tastes in popular culture” (RFB4). “Yes, many of our students are rather

provincial-looking and are afraid of speaking English” (SMB2). One participant recalled that a woman student was so afraid of speaking English that on one occasion she did not dare to use the laundry room in the student residence hall “because there was a foreign student inside” (RSB3).

Given their low to lower-middle socio-economic backgrounds, it is not surprising that local students “worry a lot about their grades and job prospects” (RFB2) and that “almost 90 percent of them go into the workforce immediately after their first degree” (SMB3). Therefore, one of the University’s main objectives for internationalising is to give the students some international experience with the hope that it will enhance their employability. Since study abroad is deemed to be the most effective way to enhance intercultural learning (UKCOSA 2004), one senior management participant noted that one suggestion was to send “40 percent of the local-student body to study abroad for a semester or a year, or for a study tour, during their three-year course of study at the University” (SMB1). His response was: “if we mean exchange for these 40 percent of students, accommodation for an equal number of incoming students would be a problem. Our residential capacity cannot even accommodate demands from local students” (SMB1). His remarks turned out to be right on target, as hundreds of University of Hong Kong students recently took to the streets in protest at the recruitment of non-local students and the shortage of housing. They did not object to internationalisation *per se*, but criticised the University of Hong Kong for recruiting too many non-local students in recent years without considering the need for complementary measures, particularly in the provision of hostel space,

which is grossly inadequate. As a result, many local students are deprived of the opportunity to live on campus (Sing Tao News 2006).

HKBU is facing a shortage of student accommodation as well and some local students are also “complaining of having to queue for campus housing, which non-local students are given automatically (SMB2). Therefore, SMB2 continued, “we have set up a housing office to assist [non-local students] in finding private housing. The first group of non-local students the housing office is helping are the taught masters degree students because they are more mature. If the results are good, we may extend the service to non-local students in undergraduate programmes, arranging for them to live off-campus, say, from their second year of study” (SMB2). For non-local students enrolled in exchange programmes, added another participant, “we have reserved 160 bed spaces in 2006-07 and 2007-08” (SMB1). One staff participant, however, expressed disappointment with this figure. In his view, “the allocation was made in accordance with a priority list made by the senior management” and cannot meet growing demand (RSB1). According to statistics supplied by the International Office, the number of incoming exchange students has increased every year since 1998. Last year, there were 185 exchange students and 233 exchange students are expected in 2006-07 (HKBU 2006e). So, RSB1 added, “an immediate plan is to find alternatives to house the extra students. For the long term, I think the senior management has to re-think the priority issue because it is unfair for the exchange students to have to stay off campus and it is not very congenial for internationalising the campus” (RSB1).

Apart from housing, HKBU is organising strategically to use English as the medium of instruction, for the benefit of local students as well as for the sake of recruiting non-local students. English teaching not only is “part of internationalisation,” it will also enhance the local students’ “job prospects” (RFB4). As Hong Kong is an international city, “English competency is important. Most students will likely end up working in the commercial sector and written English is the main channel of communication. If their English ability is not good, it will affect their career prospects and development”(RFB4). On the other hand, opined one faculty member, “you cannot engage the world if you do not have the language competency.... Having another language is gaining a window into another culture” (RFB1). Therefore, the success of the University in getting the Senate to adopt English as the official medium of instruction is, according to one participant, “no small achievement” (SMB3). It is no small achievement, particularly because of the failed attempt by a sister university, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, to have more courses taught in English in order to admit more international students as part of its internationalisation strategy. However, the situation at HKBU is not at all perfect. As SMB3 readily admitted, there are still “a lot of people who oppose this policy and we are monitoring the situation after a phase-in period of two years. Some faculty members are still using a mixture of Chinese and English in the classroom” (SMB3).

As mentioned earlier, some HKBU faculty members do not like to use English in the classroom because “it means additional work for them” (SMB2). “Despite the fact that most of them, including those originally from China, have

studied overseas, they may find it difficult to conduct classes in English effectively because English is still their second language” (RSB4). In some cases, “faculty members are also unwilling to teach in English because they are afraid that students will give them a poor evaluation if they do so” (RSB4). Indeed, one senior management participant confirmed that “there are complaints from students that some faculty members do not have the competence in English and have poor pronunciation” (SMB3). On the other hand, “some students also prefer being taught in Chinese because it is easier for them as well” (RSB4). Furthermore, “some colleagues think that using English as the medium of instruction has weakened the quality and also reduced the amount of dialogue in the classroom because some students do not have a language competency in English. As a result, the quality of education has diminished” (RFB4). There are also nationalistic arguments against the use of English. Some faculty members will ask, “Why should we use English to cater to the learning needs of international students? Should they try to learn in Chinese instead?” (RFB4). Another argument is that students in certain disciplines such as sociology and social work are trained to serve the local community and it is difficult for them to talk about, for example, local social problems and social cases in English. “If classes were to be conducted in English, it is possible that in many cases the quality and depth of discussion would suffer,” opined one faculty member (RFB4).

The pros and cons of the use of English in the classroom are not the focus of this study. Suffice it to say that here lies the dilemma in terms of the

internationalisation of higher education: the internationalising of universities is supposed to strengthen multiculturalism and multilingualism, but the forces of globalisation have accelerated the need for a common language and English has become the *lingua franca* of academic as well as the business world (de Wit 2002). The following faculty participant summed up the dilemma at HKBU:

Of course, it is easier to teach in Cantonese – at least I would be able to make a few more jokes and make the class livelier. But we need to teach in English; how can we recruit international students if only 10 percent of our subjects are taught in English? Imagine running a company, can you use Chinese in all your correspondence and ask your overseas partners to translate it? (RFB3)

In the meantime, the University has established a “language taskforce” to explore ways “to raise the overall standard in the use of English among the students and the goal is to raise the students’ present average IELTS score of 6.49 to 7.00 in three years” (SMB3).

(1.2) Programming for Success

(1.2.1) Internationalising-Aboard

University of Leicester (U of L)

“Internationalising-abroad” refers to international programmes and activities across national borders. At U of L, delivery of its courses worldwide constitutes an important dimension of “internationalising-abroad” and the University has built an extensive partnership network with overseas higher education institutions for this purpose. It is a clear example of cooperation in which the aim is to compete in the global educational market (Chan 2004). “There is, in fact, a new word for competition as well as cooperation: coopetition” (SML2). “Organisations join in

alliance to cooperate and also to compete” (SML2). The locus for the “coopetition” is, in this case, in distance learning. As the University competes for students on the international scene, it enters into partnership, for example, with universities in Hong Kong for the delivery of its courses there and, hence, at the same time, competes with them in the same local educational market. Would it be possible to expand this kind of single-purpose cooperative relationship into a multi-purpose partnership? As one faculty member involved in distance learning suggested, “Why do we do just a University of Leicester programme? Would it not be better to co-deliver the course?” (RFL2). “Well,” he continued, “you have got people with local knowledge and local expertise and who would benefit from working with us. That sounds arrogant, but we are at least not suppressing the local provision and helping to develop it instead” (RFL2). The problem, he realised immediately, is that “cooperation costs money and time, [and] the pressure for us to perform means that we do not want to associate with somebody who we think might not really cut the mustard” (RFL2). Given the obvious limitations in terms of both financial and human resources, this is no small concern.

However, not every partnership is, at its core, instrumentally driven and profit oriented. For example, the University has a collaborative relationship with the University of Gondar in Ethiopia, which, in the words of one senior management participant, “is almost a goodwill gesture” (SML4). We recognise, he continued, “that Africa is poor and this is our effort to do something for Africa....We will try to do things that are mutually beneficial, but I also think that

Gondar has a lot to gain from working with us” (SML4). Some staff and faculty members “actually have a certain amount of money deducted from their salary each month” that goes towards this collaborative partnership (SML4). The University is also a member of a network of universities, called the International Network of Universities, or INU, for short. It is a network of thirteen universities from eight countries and its mission “is to advance the internationalisation of INU members through student and staff mobility, research collaboration, staff development and cooperation in university management” (INU 2006).

One of the most common objectives of inter-institutional cooperation is student exchange. INU is no exception and has student mobility in its future activities plan. However, U of L participants seemed to be well aware of the general problem of the low participation rate of U.K. students in study abroad programmes, for example, in the ERASMUS Scheme. “Yes,” commented one senior management participant, “the ERASMUS Scheme is meant to be run as an exchange, but if you have more students coming to you and fewer students going out, it means that you are teaching more students without getting any extra money” (SML4). The reason for the low participation is that “most European students speak English, but most students in England do not speak another European language” (SML4). “Unfortunately,” echoed another participant, “even if they think that English is a global language, which it is, they would still worry that they might not be able to study in a foreign country” (RSL1). Their reasoning is borne out by the University of Sussex (2004) reported earlier showing that the decline in the number of U.K. students participating in European exchanges is

strongly correlated with the diminishing number of students studying languages. Therefore, U of L has recently instituted an optional programme to encourage the study of languages among students, staff, and the general public (U of L 2006a). However, since it is a new programme, its effectiveness in actually promoting study abroad remains to be seen.

Language is not the only deterrent. Students also worry about the possibility of delaying their graduation by one year because most degree courses “follow quite a structured curriculum” and courses students do abroad “tend not to count towards their degrees” (RSL1). As pointed out by one staff member, “There is something in the psyche of U.K. students, which is quite risk averse.... The risk is that study abroad probably could add to their debt” (RSL1). “The biggest inhibitor, oddly enough,” interjected another faculty member, “is that in their second year they live in the city, they get a flat sharing with people, and they don’t want to give it up, and what they cannot afford is to pay rent here in Leicester while they are in Austria or wherever” (RFL1). In this regard, the University is not helping in that with the £3,000 that the University will be charging from 2006-07, students who go abroad will still have to pay £1,500 even though the universities abroad do not charge any fees. “What is that for?” asked RFL1. “It is just the University looking for income. But, of course, that will be another disincentive,” RFL1 continued.

Given the above situation, one staff participant said that he really wished he had “a quick fix,” but, of course, he does not. The only way he can attempt to change students’ minds is by intensively publicising study abroad opportunities

on open days and in prospectuses “so that at least students know about [these opportunities] at the right time, and also to make it plain that there are a lot of language courses available at the University which can be taken in the afternoons and evenings” (RSL1). His approach seems to coincide with the management point of view on this issue. As one senior management figure explained, “We encourage students to do things by making them aware of them ... and it is really up to them to decide whether that is something for them or not (SML4). Another senior management participant put it this way:

Clearly one of the things that needs to happen is for us to ask our students to travel to other countries, sometimes that happens with people writing their doctorates whereby they would perhaps do some empirical work rather like what you are doing here. They might do some empirical work in other countries, or indeed they might go and work in someone’s laboratory, if they are scientists, or they might go and explore the use of specialist libraries in another country. There are various ways in which this could be done (SML 1).

He is referring, in this case, to the various study and research opportunities that sometimes open up to postgraduate students. For undergraduate students, however, “it is unfortunately true that only a very tiny proportion of the U.K. students actually study in another country” (RSL1). In 2005-06, 116 U of L students studied abroad in Europe on the Socrates-Erasmus Programme and 30 went to other non-European destinations, mainly the U.S.A. (RSL1). Of course, the low participation rate of students studying abroad is not unique to U of L. It is a common phenomenon among U.K. institutions (University of Sussex 2004).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

In the 2004-05 HKBU Annual Report, Professor C.F. Ng, President and Vice-Chancellor, reported that official approval from the State Ministry of Education had been obtained for the establishment of “The Beijing Normal University [BNU]-Hong Kong Baptist University United International College [UIC]” in Zhuhai, a mainland Chinese city an hour away from Hong Kong by ferry. He went on to say that the UIC sets a number of precedents:

It is the first university jointly established by Mainland and Hong Kong universities; the first university in the Mainland whose President-led administration is overseen by a Council; and the first university in the Mainland to employ bilingual teaching and learning, and to appoint a Hong Kong citizen as its President (HKBU 2004b).

Thus, it might be said that HKBU has made history in terms of a Hong Kong-China university partnership. As one participant observed, “It is a new endeavour, which no one else has undertaken it before” (SMB2). UIC is also part of the University’s internationalisation strategy because “it is a platform for triangular collaboration” between HKBU, institutions in mainland China, and overseas institutions (SMB2). Therefore, he continued, “it will be an asset in terms of internationalisation for both HKBU and BNU” (SMB2). According to its advertisement, UIC “aims to produce for the mainland and the Hong Kong SAR graduates with an international perspective, professionals who are fluent in both English and Chinese, and who have knowledge about and experience with China, Hong Kong and the world at large” (HKBU 2006d). Therefore, like the College of International Education that HKBU set up in Hong Kong a few years

ago, UIC plans to build an articulation network with overseas institutions to “provide further study opportunities for students” (SMB2).

Needless to say, it is too early to judge the success of UIC. Suffice it to say that cross-border education is nowadays a global trend. The limitations at home due to either physical capacity or government regulations have led quite a few universities, especially from English speaking countries, to set up branch campuses overseas (Altbach and Knight 2006). However, there are numerous challenges when operating in foreign territories, and HKBU, like any other overseas institution operating branch campuses in China, has to navigate a sea of national and local regulations that are as unfamiliar to it as they are to an overseas institution. For, under the one-country-two-systems arrangement, the higher education system in Hong Kong is quite different from that in mainland China. Therefore, according to one senior management figure, the University expects that “there will be a learning curve” (SMB2). In the meantime, the College might need help from the home campus in realising its potential to the full. If so, the HKBU senior management must be prepared to give “more support in terms of human resources and funding” to the home staff (RSB1). For instance, the home staff will require more resources if they are requested to help the College with student recruitment and arrangements for overseas visitors and international students “to visit the College and participate in its activities so that its students have a chance to interact with foreigners” (RSB1).

The above remarks bring out one of the likely problems in inter-institutional cooperation. That is, staff members of the home campus do not

necessarily identify with cooperation as being beneficial or in their own interests. While the senior management believes that UIC will be an asset for the internationalising of the University, some faculty members voiced doubts about the purported purpose of the joint venture. One faculty member thought that “the focus is Mainland China” (RFB2). Another faculty participant opined that it is “a vision” which has not been given sufficient room for HKBU faculty and staff to voice “dissent” (RFB1). As a matter of fact, the joint venture met with strong protests from the HKBU Staff Union when it was announced. Although the investment involved came from private funds, the Union protested on the grounds that the University has been suffering from budget deficits and staff members have to take salary cuts. It was likely, therefore, that the positive message about UIC was actually lost as “everybody was quite negative about what was going on: salary cuts, money saving measures, etcetera” (RFB2). Another early attempt by the University to internationalise abroad through the creation of an international academic consortium of 28 universities, namely, the David C. Lam Institute for East-West Studies (LEWI), faced a similar problem (Chan 2004). Despite the fact that LEWI has built an excellent track record of useful activities (Teather 2000), the network remains marginal to its member institutions, including HKBU.

Notwithstanding its shortcomings, LEWI has indeed laid down the foundation for the University’s current internationalising efforts. For instance, one of the earliest collaborative projects that LEWI established was student exchange (Teather 2000). Established in 1995, the LEWI student exchange programme

remained the only institutional exchange programme until 2002 when the Hong Kong government introduced an Enhanced Student Exchange Scheme. The Scheme paid for 50 percent of students' study abroad related expenses and the number of outgoing students on exchange jumped from 22 in 2001-02 to 129 in 2004-05 when the Scheme expired. Under an obligatory arrangement with the government, the University continued to support the students' study abroad-related expenses out of private funds after the expiry of the Scheme, but at a reduced rate of 25 percent only. Immediately, however, "the number of applications for exchange dropped to 58 in the fall semester of 2005," recalled one participant (SMB3). Therefore, the University decided "to raise the amount of sponsorship" (SMB3). Since then, it has also successfully secured a number of exchange scholarships from external donors (HKBU 2006a) and has been able to increase the number of students going abroad in 2005-06 from 58 to 88 (HKBU 2006e).

The big drop in the number of students applying to go abroad after the expiry of the Enhanced Student Exchange Scheme should not come as a surprise. In a study of the determinants of HKBU student participation in exchange programmes, 95.5 percent (385) of the respondents cited cost as a reason for non-participation. The second concern cited by 81 percent of the respondents (330 students) was the transfer of credit and the possibility of a delay in graduation (Cheung 2004). The findings are understandable, as most HKBU students come from a lower to lower-middle class socio-economic background (HKBU 2003e). However, finance is not the only barrier to study

abroad. For example, one participant reported that some faculty members “might not be very encouraging or supportive” of the students’ exchange decision, or “might be unwilling to let the students transfer credits” (RSB1). Almost 80 percent (315 students) in Cheung’s (2004) study felt that professorial encouragement or lack thereof was an influential reason for participation in study abroad. On the other hand, some students are simply not interested in studying abroad “because they feel Hong Kong is very good and very advanced” or because they feel that “other cities are not as exciting” (RFB3). In Cheung’s (2004) study, there were 114 students (28.7 percent of the respondents), who indicated that they were “just not interested” in studying abroad.

At an institutional level, a major problem in promoting study abroad is the difficulty of finding suitable exchange partners and maintaining an exchange balance, particularly with universities from English speaking countries. For instance, the University used to have an exchange agreement with a university in New Zealand, but the exchange relationship was unilaterally called off by the New Zealand partner because “there were few students coming over to HKBU” (RMB1). A similar phenomenon exists with the University’s exchange partners in Australia where “the exchange imbalance [in their favour] is a serious resource problem and is not easy for them to resolve” (RMB1). Exchange imbalance between English and non-English speaking countries, or between developed and developing countries, is a rather common problem facing universities in their attempt to promote bilateral exchange activities (University of Sussex 2004). British higher education institutions are confronted with a huge demand from

European students wishing to study in the U.K., as most students prefer to study in an English speaking country (Gibbon 1994). Similarly, in the case of Hong Kong, most students would prefer studying in an English speaking country. Therefore, HKBU has an exchange imbalance not only with Australian and New Zealand partners, but also with those in Britain and the U.S. On the other hand, it has a huge exchange imbalance in its favour with most of its mainland Chinese and Asian partners (2006e). In Cheung's (2004) study, 53.8 percent (or 189 HKBU students) decided not to study abroad because of the "unattractive location of exchange host institutions." This, coupled with the concerns about financial and credit transfer, has clearly contributed to the fact that "the number of HKBU students who study abroad is still relatively small" (RMB2).

If students' interest in studying abroad has diminished, their enthusiasm for summer travel has not. According to statistics from the International Office, the number of students participating in HKBU summer programmes has gone up tremendously, from 31 in 2004 to 110 in 2006 (HKBU 2006f). Many of the summer programmes are culture and language related study tours and are more welcomed by the students, presumably because they are typically only 2-3 weeks in duration and do not cost a lot of money. The Student Affairs Office also runs a number of "experiential and service learning tours" to Asia and China during the year and one of its most successful programmes is the "metropolitan attachment programme." Begun six years ago, currently the programme arranges for a total of 212 students to do a 7-week internship in Australia, U.S.A., the U.K., and mainland China (HKBU2006g).

(1.2.2) Internationalising-at-Home

University of Leicester (U of L)

“Internationalising-at-home” (IaH) denotes any programme or activity, except outbound mobility, which has an international dimension or focus (Wächter 2003). Therefore, the primary task of IaH is to internationalise the curriculum. In this connection, U of L aims to “ensure that for all programmes of study, both campus based and distance learning, the curricula, teaching, learning and assessment methods take account of the learning needs of a diverse student body” (U of L 2004b, p. 8). However, this aim seems to have nothing to do with the offering of an internationalised curriculum. As reflected upon by one participant, the curriculum may have an international dimension, “but it is not really driven by it” (SML3). Programmes develop, he explained further, “in line with [the department’s] academic profile and if there is a market.... Sometimes it is research driven and sometimes it is finance driven” (SML3). One faculty member put it in more practical terms:

We have to think about what we are selling.... So, now we have to look at our courses and say, you know, what we are selling must be attractive to the students and international students have been an important part of that process (RFL1).

“What about content? What about the things that we actually teach?” asked one staff participant (RSL2). In his opinion, the curriculum “is not internationalised at all” (RSL2). Another staff member recalled that a student once told him, with reference to an international studies course the student had taken, that “there is no input from the developing world and it deals with only Europe and America” (RSL4). Posing the above question to a faculty member, the answer was similar,

“Seriously, no.... Do we make a sufficient effort to consider [issues of cultural contexts]? No, we do not.... I think we pay lip service to the issue of cultural contexts” (RFL2). Does the high percentage of international students influence your curriculum? Again, the answer was “No, I would not say that” (SML3). In this latter case, the participant further explained that it is because his discipline “is a relatively well-defined area. That means international students who come here will know that they are getting an internationally recognised curriculum” (SML3). A similar answer was given by another faculty member about a professional programme, which “is designed to meet the requirements of the professional bodies” and, therefore, “has a high common element to it” (RFL4). It was pointed out, however, that there are electives that bear an international orientation (RFL4). In this regard, differentiation is made at the PG level where “students have a much broader range of subjects from which they can put together a programme to suit their needs” (RFL4). As a matter of fact, consideration for international students will in some ways determine the curriculum at the PG level because one participant admitted quite honestly, “we want to attract international students, which are our biggest market for the PG” (RFL4).

It is clear from the brief exposition above that there are discipline-related limitations to the internationalising of the curriculum at U of L. However, there are electives that departments can utilise, if they so wish, to facilitate the cultivation of “international and intercultural competence” in the curriculum. The question, of course, is whether the departments or the University as a whole really see the

need to do so. If they do, adequate support is indispensable for faculty development in the design and implementation of an internationalised curriculum (Teekens 2003). One faculty member admitted that, despite his numerous teaching trips to Hong Kong, he has never been “able to draw on Hong Kong’s experience, or his detailed knowledge of the Hong Kong system” in his teaching (RFL2). This is not because he did not want to, but because he is “under the pressure of time” (RFL2). Lastly, it is clear once again that the “market” is a powerful force. There is a more proactive attitude in terms of PG and distance learning programmes, to which international students heavily subscribe. At present, the University has only about nine percent of international students in its undergraduate programmes (U of L 2005b). Perhaps, the University would be more mindful of the internationalising of the undergraduate curriculum if the number of international students in the undergraduate programmes rises. Needless to say, an internationalised curriculum would benefit home students as much as, if not more than, the international students themselves. This point is particularly relevant as home students face growing competition for jobs with British top companies increasingly hiring foreign graduates educated at British universities (Times HE Supplement Daily Newsletter 8 May 2006).

The implementation of an internationalised curriculum would rely upon the appropriate conduct of the classroom, particularly with respect to the “international classroom” (Teekens, nd), because teaching in the context of internationalisation is concerned “not only with *what* is taught, but also with *how* it is taught, and within *what frame of reference*” (Teather 2001, p. 43; emphases

added). At U of L, according to one participant, “people are actually looking at their classrooms in terms of the student profile, in terms of the students they have from different cultural backgrounds, and they are starting to think about how to teach such a class effectively” (RSL3). That is, there is evidence that people are aware of the “particular challenges of working with international students” (RSL3). The challenge, noted one participant, is that “we are teaching off the basis that everybody has a shared understanding of the culture. Now, overseas students do not” (SML1). As a result, “misunderstanding can take place between some international students and lecturers simply because of a lack of understanding and communication and where the students are coming from” (SML3). For example, “some students would think that the lecturers are being rude when they are told that they can just come in at a certain hour, whereas the lecturers would just think that that is good use of time” (SML3). Dressing “rather shabbily” and beginning the lecture “with a flippant comment in a very casual way, seemingly not sure of what he was going to talk about,” could also lead to “a feeling among some students that maybe the lecturer is not a good lecturer after all” (SML3).

Apart from misunderstanding due to different cultural expectations, many students also found “the transition to U.K. higher education quite complex... [in terms of] how they were being assessed and the kinds of activities they were being given” (RSL3). This is born out by the findings of a recent U of L scoping study of the internationalisation of academic programmes and the teaching and learning process (Chan and Grant 2006). Students participating in that project

admitted having difficulty with presentation and group work because they did not have any such learning experience prior to their enrolment in the University. They did not understand the rationale behind seminars and independent learning and suggested that the teacher should do more in terms of giving lectures and handing out lecture notes. Their comments did not come as a surprise because, presumably, they are less familiar with the “interactive learning” approach, which is widely practiced in the U.K, and are more accustomed to a “reproductive understanding of learning” instead (Burnapp 2006, p. 82). Thus, faculty members teaching international students might find them to be “excessively deferential towards the teachers” and “not strongly inclined to participate in class” (RFL4). Given time, however, faculty members who “put more effort into acknowledging that it is an international group of students that [they] are dealing with” will increase their chances of gradually overcoming the cultural barriers (SML2). As was noted by one faculty member: “If you learn a little bit about the culture, you will be much better able to accommodate those cultural differences in a way that is effective for everybody” (RFL4).

There are also other issues concerning students and their integration in the classroom to consider (RSL3). For example, the non-integration of international and home students is a well known phenomenon (UKCOSA 2004). According to a study by Chan and Grant (2006), the most effective way to integrate the students is through course work. However, big impersonal classes, a heavy course workload, and the preponderance of international to home students in some classes are major obstacles to any and all integrative efforts

(Chan and Grant 2006). It could be quite difficult to integrate the students in cases where there is an imbalance of international and home students in the class, as can be seen in the following example:

“If you have got a small number of Chinese students, you could mix them into different groups, force them to speak English, force them to think outside the Chinese mindset, but when you have got 80 percent of Chinese students in the class, it is very difficult” (SML2).

Despite all the cited problems, there are success stories. One participant was convinced that “members of the staff are beginning to encourage students to think about their worldviews, their experiences, their cultures, to look at a particular problem from their own particular cultures to find ways of resolution, rather than looking at the problem from a purely Euro-centric way” (RSL3). Another faculty member confirmed that he always tries to invite international students “to bring their experiences into the class” (RFL4). However, the technique of drawing upon the cultural backgrounds and experiences of international students is self-learned rather than taught. As one participant recalled, “You know that your teaching develops, but it does not develop very quickly, but it does develop.... I did something that works well and what I am doing relates better to international students and I think I will do it again” (RFL2). “You realised,” echoed another faculty member, “that by bringing students together from largely different cultural backgrounds there is an exciting interaction, but that is something that just happens rather than something that we can design into the programme” (SML2).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

In his first interview with *New Horizons*, an official HKBU publication, Professor Y.K. Fan, Vice-President for Development, suggested that “a fundamental question [in terms of internationalisation-at-home] is how to internationalise the institution in the form of internationalisation of the curriculum, the campus, the environment, and how to internationalise the mindset of our students?” (HKBU 2003d). In his opinion, “internationalising the curriculum involves more than inserting some topics about the world; it is the treatment of materials, the perspective, the mindset of the professors as well as the students, how to look at Hong Kong in the context of the world” (HKBU 2003d). As complicated and difficult as it may sound, an internationalised curriculum has been identified as the best means by which to strengthen the international dimension of the teaching and learning function of the university (Cobbin and Lee 2002; Killick 2005; Teekens 2004). HKBU participants, one after another, expressed the view that the HKBU curriculum is quite internationalised. One participant claimed, “Our curriculum should have an international dimension ... because most of our faculty members received their education overseas and have an international perspective in their training” (SMB3). Another argued, “We also have increased the number of foreign language courses such as Italian, Japanese and Spanish” (SMB3). And a third added, “Perhaps it cannot be said that this is true for every field, but even, say, in social work, their curriculum is quite international, in both content and level” (RFB3). Presumably, RFB3 was referring to the fact that all social work students must take two core courses, “social work in contemporary

society” and “social policy,” both of which examine the topics in Hong Kong as well as western societies (HKBU 2005b). One faculty member confirmed that, in his class, he “will try to make sure that apart from choosing domestic examples, [he] will also choose cases outside of Hong Kong” (RFB1). In this connection, one senior management participant expressed the hope that the impending change of the undergraduate degree structure from three to four years “will help further internationalising of the curriculum,” as the University will have “a wider space” within which to include an international dimension” (SMB1). He was referring to the government’s proposal to extend the duration of undergraduate degree programmes to four years, due to be implemented in 2011. Under the new four-year system, HKBU students will have to study a total of 120 to 128 credit units, but the credit unit ratio between a student’s major and minor or other elective subjects will be set at 6:4” (Sing Tao News 2005). That is, they will have at least 48 credit units for subjects outside of their majors.

Apart from catering for the curricular needs of local students, “there is also a need to offer some special programmes for international students, for example, Putonghua and cultural courses to give them a wholesome study-abroad experience” (SMB1). Hence, HKBU has designed some special semester certificate study options for non-local students in “cross-cultural communication and management, China studies, and socio-economic environments in China” (HKBU 2006a). The last option, offered in the summer in Beijing, is also an attempt to attract exchange students to HKBU in order to address the issue of exchange imbalance with its partner institutions. However, one participant

pointed out that it is not easy to do because “HKBU colleagues feel that summer is their opportunity to work on something else, notably research” (SMB4). A staff participant recalled that a HKBU credit-bearing European summer study tour had to be changed into a non-credit bearing option because no faculty members were willing to lead the tour (RSB1).

As mentioned in the previous section, whether the internationalised curriculum is for local or international students, its implementation relies on the appropriate conduct of the classroom, particularly with respect to the criteria for an “international classroom” (Teekens, nd.). In this regard, three out of four faculty participants agreed that the presence of students from different countries and cultures in the classroom will have the following effects: “widening students’ horizons and provide a more stimulating learning environment” (RFB4); “enhancing their language skills and cultural understanding” (RFB3); and enabling them to learn a lot, not only in terms of interaction, but in terms of content as well” (RFB2). However, all of these participants also readily acknowledged that not every “international classroom” is as rosy as the picture they painted. As one claimed, “Yes, it is good that we have at least some exchange students in the classroom, but they might have very little interaction with our students” (RFB4). Another argued, “In my class, I have to basically force our students to mix with international students. For example, I have a quota of local and non-local students for each team assignment” (RFB2). Another faculty member did the same (RFB4). Unfortunately, as at U of L, this is not a universal practice. Different teachers handle their classrooms differently and, in some

cases, “local students ended up doing the group projects among themselves” (RFB2).

Since the international classroom cannot guarantee intercultural learning, HKBU is trying very hard to make sure that there are other opportunities for that to happen. For example, the University has a policy of assigning local students to share a room with either mainland or international students so that “there are more opportunities for them to interact with non-local students within a living environment” (RSB2). The International Office “is also offering a lot of activities for local and non-local students to participate in together... [such as] encouraging international students to participate in the local student associations,” while local students are encouraged to take responsibility for organising the international students’ “Global Café” in return (RSB1). In this connection, two participants mentioned a “consul-general-in-residence programme” initiated by the International Office two years ago. Under this programme, three to four consuls-general in Hong Kong are invited to join the programme each year and a total of eleven consuls-general have joined the programme since it was launched in 2004 (HKBU 2006a). During their year of tenure, they are expected to support and strengthen the international dimension of the work of the University in teaching, research and service, and deliver at least one public lecture about their countries on a topic of their choice. According to Professor C.F. Ng, HKBU President and Vice-Chancellor, the Programme has been “a resounding success, with some consuls-general approaching [the University] to express support for the programme and their interest in joining it” (HKBU 2004b).

Section Conclusion

This section has explored some of the organisational and programme strategies that the two case universities have implemented in accordance with their institutional positioning, outlook, values and beliefs, and answers directly the third specific research question as to what policies and programmes are already in place to support internationalisation. From engaging the faculty and supporting the students, to internationalisation-at-home and abroad, it is clear that the two case universities are building “a broader context” within which internationalisation can develop. It is important to note, however, that the paths they have taken are quite different with respect to both the methods employed and the chosen direction. While U of L aspires to be “an international university” and its internationalisation is primarily driven by international student recruitment, HKBU seeks to be “an international gateway between mainland China and the global community’ by focusing on internationalising the campus and building partnership with Chinese institutions across its borders. Notwithstanding the different paths they have taken, both institutions are operating in a global market and must be prepared to adjust their internationalising efforts continuously in the face of an ever-changing environment. In the meantime, they will have to deal with barriers, disadvantages and risks as they proceed along their chosen pathway.

(2) Dealing with Barriers, Disadvantages and Risks

Most of the discourse in the literature on internationalisation is very positive. Similarly, the responses of participants in this study are overwhelmingly positive

towards the whole notion of internationalisation and its implications. In fact, they are so positive that it might be difficult for anyone to oppose it, let alone say “no” to internationalisation. Yet, internationalisation has become such a value-laden concept that it could become merely “a spur and a sales gimmick, an appeal that issues as easily from the mouth of the financial manager as from the lips of the cosmopolitan scholar” (Halliday 1999; quoted in de Wit 2002, p. 109). Hence, it is important to review and focus on some of the perceived barriers, disadvantages and risks associated with internationalisation. Parsons and Fidler (2004, p. 16) call these “the dark side of internationalisation.”

(2.1) Managing Disadvantages and Risks

University of Leicester (U of L)

In the discussion so far, implicitly or explicitly, many U of L participants agreed that higher education has become “a business” and “a trade.” Therefore, “universities have increasingly become, if not commercial organisations, commercially driven organisations” (RFL2). As a result, U of L is now operating in the international education market and is subject to disadvantages and risks associated with the international market place, such as market volatility, international competition, and other forces of one kind or another, all of which could threaten its foreign student fee income. A senior management participant recalled, for example, that “when the bombings took place in London last summer, some international students decided not to come to the U.K.” (SML1). “There is no such thing as a normal year; it is always a something year,” added

another staff member (RSL1). “The only thing that is certain is uncertainty” (RSL1). “I mean,” interjected one participant, “our resource base is threatened by SARS, bird flu, war in the Middle East, and currency fluctuations. If something happens in Singapore, such as a big scandal of some kind, it will affect our reputation. All of these things will affect our international competitiveness” (RML2). Indeed, competition in the international education market place is severe and, most of the time, outside one’s control.

The University is competing against local higher education providers, fellow national providers, as well as institutions from other English speaking countries such as Australia, Canada, and the U.S. Increasingly, pointed out RML2, European universities are also entering the market and “providing classes in which the language of tuition is English,” and “their tuition fees are much lower than ours” (RML2). Competition, recalled another participant, resulted in the closure of the University’s operation in Malaysia several years ago because “an Australian university also got involved with the corporation that [U of L] worked with” (SML4). The effect of competition can lead to a loss of market share, as in the above case. Alternatively, the University might have to consider lowering its operating costs in order to stay in the market. For example, one faculty member asked, “If some of our competitors are promising to get people through doctorates in four years, can we really afford to ask people to take six years? If we do, we would lose our customers” (RFL2). However, he hastened to add, “there is a compromise probably to be made in order to get more people through, and it is a compromise on quality” (RFL2). The University could also run into

reputational risks through the failure to control its overseas recruiting agents, who could “put out shoddy adverts, mislead students, charge additional administrative fees, and do things like that” (RSL2). Therefore, one faculty member recalled that at one time his job was “to ensure that agents did the job the same way [the University] did” (RFL3). To protect its reputation, the University also recently terminated a contract with a local college even though the partnership “was a highly successful one” (RSL2). There could also be a risk to reputation in “being too keen” on international recruitment and “going beyond QA limits,” such as recruiting unqualified students or recruiting too many students without taking into account the strength of the faculty to support them (RFL3).

Problems could also arise simply by working across cultural boundaries in terms of irreconcilable “differences in cultural values” (RSL3) and “diverse student expectations” (RSL2). For instance, one staff participant pointed out that one of the University departmental websites “might lead to the entire University website being blocked in Saudi Arabia on the grounds that it is offensive to Muslims.... If that happened, it would effectively end the University’s growing distance learning business there” (RSL2). This and the other problems mentioned above mean that the University is facing a very volatile international market. For example, market shifts have resulted in a drop in the number of Chinese students studying in the U.K. in recent years as “Chinese provision for higher education has increased” (RFL1). As a result, one participant suggested, “We will have to do joint licensing ventures with Chinese universities” (SML2). This advice might not be too far fetched, as “there are now more than 700 foreign

academic programmes operating in China,” and the University of Liverpool will join other U.K. universities to open up a campus in China in September 2006 (McCormack 2006).

Given all the potential disadvantages and risks of operating across borders, should the University pull out of the international educational market? “No,” answered one faculty member, because “there is a limit to the extent to which you can derive income purely from the local market” (RFL2). Another participant agreed: “If we want to expand the student body, we cannot do it without recruiting foreign students because we have a limit on the number of local students that we can enrol (SML4). As with any business, opined RFL2, “the risk is in not doing it. The risk of not doing it is that we are not generating revenue from markets which we could. So there is not a no-risk option” (RFL2). The reality, echoed one senior management participant, is that “you are locked into this income stream, and become dependent on it” (SML2). Dependency on foreign student income presents a risk, but this dependency on foreign student fees is not unique to U of L. As one staff participant observed, “I do not know of a single [UK] university which does not have an [international student income] line in its budget” (RSL1). Therefore, the only “option” is to monitor the market situation closely and set a realistic recruitment target accordingly (SML1).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

While much of the concern at U of L about disadvantages and risks is related to course delivery in a volatile and competitive global education market, the main concern at HKBU is the possibility of cultural conflicts and undesirable influences

being introduced into the campus by international students. The problem, observed one staff participant, is that “some International students only want to come to Hong Kong and have a good time.... They make a mess of their rooms and contradict the hostel rules in terms of personal conduct, thus exerting a bad influence on our students” (RSB3). For example, “they may be more lax about sex, may drink a lot, and may not be very hard working” (RSB2). At a less harmful level, added yet another participant, “they call their teachers by their first names, but I do not think that we should follow that practice. I think we should show due respect to our elders because it is a part of our culture, which is good. We should not lose our cultural identity in the process of internationalising” (RSB4). The risk is, “if we do not put enough human resources into coaching and mentoring our students, they may end up learning the bad things but not the good things from the international students” (RSB2). In sum, RFB3 said, “whatever we do, it is important that we retain our own culture. Besides our Christian heritage, we are a Chinese university. We must have our own spirit, our soul and uniqueness, in order to attract people here to learn from us” (RFB3).

The above discussion might remind those who are familiar with Chinese history of “the fear of a wholesale loss of Chinese and local cultures” as expressed by the May Fourth Movement (RFB1).

It is the fear of penetration. It is the fear of spiritual pollution or contamination, and it is the fear of losing yourself, your identity. These fears are common to all cultures, to everybody (RFB1).

The same participant continued, “Yes, we worry about this kind of things, which we call moral pollution. We have to deal with it, but should not give up cultural

exchange just because there are problems” (RFB1). Several of his colleagues agreed. One faculty member opined that “behavioural problems will not pose big risks and are actually part of the learning process” (RFB2). Another participant was quite confident that “this kind of problems can be solved through better management.... As an educational institution, we should be confident of our ability to educate, especially when we have professional managers and counsellors among our staff” (SMB2). “Maybe we should ask the non-local students to sign an agreement to observe a code of conduct before they come,” suggested another (RFB3).

Meanwhile, unfortunately, there have been some conflicts between local and non-local students due to cultural differences. For instance, the policy of having local and non-local students share rooms sometimes causes problems “because of cultural differences, which both local and foreign students find hard to adjust to” (SMB3). Some local students suggested that it might be better to house “students from the mainland and overseas together because they feel that non-local students have different living habits.... There are also mainland students who do not want to share a room with Hong Kong students, complaining that they do not sleep until 3-4 a.m. and turn on their radios too loud” (RSB3). “Yes,” confirmed one staff participant, “local students living in the residence halls may like to know international students better. However, when they really get to know them, they may find them difficult to get along with” (RSB1). He continued, “Some staff members may also find international students difficult to handle, difficult to serve, and complain about them sometimes” (RSB1). He did feel,

however, that “conflicts are part and parcel of cross-cultural interaction” (RSB1). On a positive side, one faculty participant believed that “conflicts could be good because they are usually a precondition for change. If you fear conflicts, there would be no change” (RFB1).

(2.2) Coping with Barriers

University of Leicester (U of L)

In terms of barriers, U of L participants seemed to be fully aware of the importance of external contexts and national policy in higher education. Therefore, one faculty member shrewdly pointed out the possibly negative effect of the recent national policy of introducing a maximum £3,000 tuition fee for home students beginning 2006-07. In his view, “accountants simply want enough money to run the place and, right now, international students pay more money, but if the home student fees gradually rise, then the accountants may lose interest in international students (RFL1). His worries might not be too far fetched, as another faculty member is currently “torn between a local project, which is very good value for money in terms of serving the prospect of the University,” and his “international work, which [he finds] so interesting” (RFL2).

On the other hand, the recent initiative to further boost international student recruitment over the next five years has already sparked fear that “UK-based students will lose out to their higher fee-paying international counterparts” (BBC News 20 April 2006). Barriers outside the control of the University could also affect the hiring of international faculty members.

When we are recruiting, we obviously have to have regard for the fact that somebody may have the need of a work visa.... The government is moving to a points system and we are not quite sure where the recruitment of overseas faculty members will fit (RFL4).

Internationalisation in terms of admitting more immigrants into the U.K. “can generate in some people a kind of excessively defensive response to the notion that we are being taken over,” opined RFL4. “I can think of the rise of the British National Party in certain parts of the country,” he continued. “They frequently make very inflammatory remarks about British people, who may be second or third generation immigrants from other countries” (RFL4). There could also be the “little English mentality that anything outside the U.K. is bad,” added another participant (SML2). “England is an island. So it is insular, both in the Latin sense being an island and in the English sense being cut off,” echoed his colleague (RFL1).

Internally, U of L has had to cope with barriers that are not conducive to the admission and teaching of more international students. These barriers are mostly related to the academic culture, which generally places more emphasis on research than on teaching.

Some departments are very successful. They have a lot of research money, lots of grants, and a good number of students. They produce a good surplus for the University. Why should they put on, say, a masters course to attract more foreign students? Why should they want to bring in international students because it might jeopardise their research rating? (SML4)

He hastened to add, however, that this is not a “real barrier.” For, he reasoned, “there are also opportunities, if [departments] have more students. They may have more staff and may have more research groups. So, I think that the

arguments can be won” (SML4). Still, this might be too optimistic. As mentioned earlier, a faculty member decided to withdraw from the “entrepreneurial” activities of distance learning so that he could concentrate on research because he had come to understand that the latter is an important criterion for promotion (RSL2).

A number of faculty members also noted the culture of academic freedom and autonomy. As suggested by one faculty member, “Academic autonomy is quite high at U of L, so to tell somebody to do something is not acceptable” (RFL4). His colleague in business agreed, “This is a British university, and it is difficult to impose on people because they have the freedom to do things [their] way” (SML2). Both of them were referring to the reluctance on the part of some faculty members to revise their teaching in the international classroom either in terms of teaching style or course content. For example, some faculty members “have a tendency to use colloquial English” and “that can cause [international] students problems” (SML2). In this regard, as mentioned earlier, there are indeed “frequent complaints about the English language ability of international students” (SML3). However, in the same vein as his colleague, SML3 hastened to explain that those complaints “are not an anti-international student phenomenon or display. It is a problem of the English language [that] has to be addressed” (SML3).

The importance of institutional culture in any process of change is undeniable (Kezar and Eckel 2002). At the nexus of institutional culture and the processes of change also lies the fact that “it is often easy for administrators to lose sight of what many academics within the institution need themselves”

(SML3). What U of L academics seem to need is a rest from more changes. As one participant observed, “People are just overwhelmed because there have been so many changes, and it is quite difficult for members of the staff to take on board more and more things in terms of their teaching” (RSL3). Another staff member agreed, commenting that “initiative fatigue [is] a real problem” for U of L (RSL2). However, do academics sometimes also “lose sight of the needs of the institution?” asked one senior management figure (SML3). Perhaps, from the faculty perspective, internationalisation has become a managerial jurisdiction placing increased demands on their time but without attendant resources to go along with it (Schapper and Mayson 2004).

Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

As with U of L, HKBU is facing a number of barriers to internationalisation, internally as well as externally. Internally, the University has to grapple with budget cuts and the costs of internationalisation, as well as faculty and student resistance, some of which have been touched upon in previous sections dealing with the recruitment of international students and expatriate staff. Externally, the return of the territory’s sovereignty to China in 1997 has also given rise to a changing external environment, which might not be conducive to some of the University’s internationalising efforts. In order to deal with these challenges, opined one senior management participant, “a strong determination at the very top” is needed (SMB1). For example, “we used to have a lot of problems with the language of instruction, which is largely resolved now after the introduction of the

language policy. If, say, we build into our work expectation that faculty members at HKBU have to both teach in English and teach international students, then they would have no choice but to teach in English if they want to work here (SMB1). “Yes,” another senior management participant interjected, “it is important for the figure head to push it. If he does not speak out for it, no one will” (SMB3). However, one faculty member advised, “a top-down policy is not desirable.... The whole university community has to make a decision. For example, some universities want study abroad for all students. Is it realistic? Is it needed? Should there be a policy? Should there be recognised differences among faculties and disciplines?” (RFB3). Another staff member agreed.

If we can discuss these policy and value issues more widely, at different levels, decisions will have ownership and more people will be convinced of the benefit of internationalisation.... We should let people have more discussion, even if at the end of the day, a top-down decision is necessary (RSB3).

Indeed, a top-down policy might not work. Similar to their U of L counterparts, academics at HKBU seem to be “overwhelmed” and suffering from “initiative fatigue.” As one HKBU faculty participant pointed out earlier, “the size of the faculty is shrinking. The teaching load is increasing, and so is the staff-student ratio” (RFB4). Thus, observed one senior management participant, “faculty members are not eager to engage in any new institutional initiatives” (SMB3). In fact, he continued, “faculty members are demoralised by funding cuts and the new pay and reward structure” (SMB3). As reported in Chapter Four, HKBU suffered a 21 percent reduction in government funds in the last four years. The introduction of the so called “new pay and reward structure” is in response to

this new reduced funding reality. Under the new pay and reward structure, the University has taken away “annual salary increments” and staff will be rewarded “according to performance only” (SMB2). In addition, SMB2 added, “in the past several years, vacant positions have not been refilled in order to balance the budget” and, at the same time, departments “have increased the number of non-UGC funded degree programmes” (SMB2). As a result, he advised, “one has to decide whether internationalisation is worth the investment ... because the costs associated with it are high” (SMB2).

Another senior management figure pointed out, “There is always the problem of zero-sum game. You must draw a line as to how much money should be allocated for a given purpose, and decide what are the priorities and competing items are” (SMB4). Hence, added his colleague, “it is hard to build a consensus on how much should be spent in the cause of internationalisation” (SMB1). This is particularly true when “internationalisation is not the top priority on the agenda” (SMB3). Will the recently drafted internationalisation strategy, which will become one of the seven strategic directions of the University, change the order of priorities? Or will the momentum of the present heightened state of international activities lose steam “after the government subsidy runs out,” as one senior management participant feared might be the case (SMB3)? In the section on engaging the faculty, it was pointed out that 40 percent of the tuition fees derived from out-of-quota recruitment of non-local students will be set aside to support the development of internationalisation and that a new funding formula will ensure that departments will be compensated for increased teaching loads

due to the enrolment of non-local students over the government quota. However, it is also clear that “it is not just a matter of money” (RSB3). As correctly pointed out earlier by one faculty member, internationalisation must be tied in with “the educational philosophy of the University” (RFB3) and, most importantly, with the “mindset of professors and students alike” (HKBU 2003d).

In this connection, it was suggested that “Hong Kong people have become more narrow-minded since 1997” (SMB3). This is evidenced “in the debate about the language of instruction in schools. Internationalisation is mixed up with the resistance to colonialism.... People are confused. Before 1997, they were afraid of the return of sovereignty because they felt superior to China. Then, after 1997, it was the other way around and national pride took over” (SMB3). As argued by one participant,

Since returning to the motherland, Hong Kong has become more interested in moving towards China. As China becomes richer, nationalistic sentiment in Hong Kong rises. Interestingly, as Hong Kong is less and less interested in the world, China is increasingly reaching out in its open-door policy for international opportunities (RSB4).

One faculty participant agreed that “localisation is a very powerful force in Hong Kong,” which could be a problem “because it might lead to a localised self-perpetuating, almost nationalistic, culture”(RFB1). Unfortunately, he continued, “the whole political system is very much looking towards the North, towards Beijing and Zhongnanhai (the government headquarters there), believing that our economic well-being is in the hands of the central government (RFB1). In fact, he opined, “Hong Kong is going through a ‘sinicising’ process and has been very much sinicised or sinified already” (RFB1).

Another faculty participant shared the above view and believed, however, that the “sinicising process,” at least in terms of a narrower mindset, actually began with “the rise of local consciousness during the 1980s in response to the economic take off then” (RFB4). He suggested further that “in a mature economy, as people become richer, they will feel better about themselves” (RFB4). In the case of Hong Kong, he recalled that “the colonial government also used to encourage local consciousness in order to fend off the cultural and political influence from China “(RFB4). This is unfortunate because “as an international financial centre and under the forces of globalisation, Hong Kong needs to internationalise in the sense that we need to have a broader, global perspective” (RFB4). The growth of local consciousness could be a deterrent in this respect, with the mass media playing an important contributing role as well.

If I remember correctly, when I was a teenager, a newspaper of several pages, such as *Singtao* and *Wah Kiu*, would have at least one page of international news. Now, *Mingpao* has more than 20 pages altogether, but there is only one page or half-a-page of international news (RFB4).

Under such an external environment, maybe it is not surprising that “the number of Hong Kong students studying abroad has gone down” along with “the diminishing interest in studying English” (RSB4). As mentioned in an earlier section, a number of participants also found that “many HKBU students are quite parochial in terms of their interests and tastes in popular culture” (RFB4) and that some of them “prefer being taught in Chinese because it is easier for them” (RSB4).

Section Conclusion

This section has looked at some of the perceived barriers, disadvantages and risks associated with internationalisation. It answers the fourth specific research question. Aided by globalisation and the advancement of information and communication technology (ICT), universities are now operating across spatio-temporal boundaries in various forms of off-shore programmes, distance learning, branch campuses, and the like. The two case universities being examined here are no exception, especially in the case of U of L. Hence, many of the disadvantages and risks that U of L participants mentioned are a direct result of operating in the international education market. Higher education in the U.K. has indeed become an international business and, as such, is open to the same market forces as any other business. International competition, market volatility and a variety of other forces could affect U of L's institutional reputation and competitiveness, as well as its budget in relation to foreign student income. For HKBU, disadvantages and risks are not as closely linked to the international education market, at least not for the time being. However, they are still closely associated with the recruitment of non-local students, from mainland China in this case, and the rapid rise in exchange student numbers during recent years. The success of the University's new joint venture in China remains to be seen. In the meantime, both case universities have to cope with internal as well as external barriers to internationalisation. Despite their different national and institutional contexts, the barriers they have to deal with are surprisingly similar. That is, the reasons giving rise to these barriers may be different, but the barriers themselves

look remarkably alike: faculty resistance inside and a potentially xenophobic environment outside.

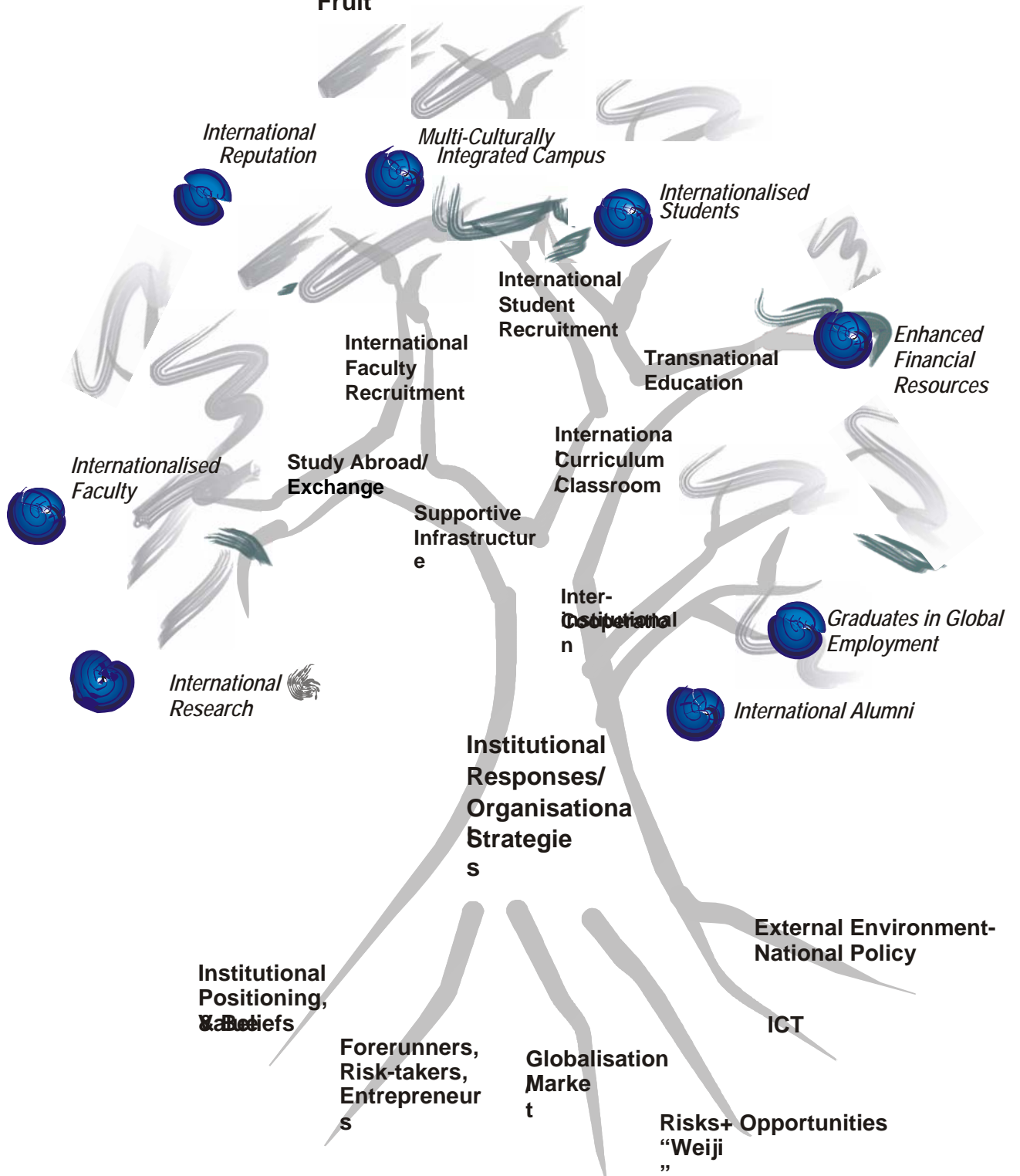
(3) Growing the Internationalisation Tree of Fruit

In the IAU survey (IAU 2003), when respondents were asked about why their institutions were internationalising, they described “their reasons for internationalisation in terms of providing opportunities for specific activities as opposed to the outcomes or benefits of those activities *per se*” (IAU 2003, p. 8). The problem is that internationalisation has become a heavily value-laden concept with an attendant capacity to invite the assumption that virtually any activity which helps to promote international exchange will yield a good outcome. Hence, Parsons and Fidler (2004) decided that UK higher education is de-internationalising because of the reduction of language learning and study abroad by U.K. domiciled students. In the same vein, the “internationalisation tree” created by Söderqvist and Parsons (2005) grows international programmes and activities only. The benefits, or in terms of the tree metaphor, the fruits of internationalisation, are often simply taken for granted.

Similarly, most participants in this study had difficulty in answering the fifth specific research question regarding the possible outcomes of internationalisation. They reiterated either the concepts and meanings of internationalisation or the rationales for doing so, which they believe would also be the outcomes. Can they then specify some of the outcomes, say, in terms of the international outlook or intercultural understanding of their graduates? The

answer was: “I could only attempt to do so if I had some means of assessing that” (RFL4). “It is like learning outcome, it is very difficult to single out the outcome of internationalisation” (SMB3). So, this is another problem of internationalisation. As Fielden (2006) points out, most of the benefits of internationalisation are “intangible” (p. 7). In this connection, quite a few participants also readily admitted that the presence of an international faculty and student body does not necessarily lead to the internationalising of the university, as is reflected in the following statement by one U of L staff participant: “Yes, you have all these ingredients, but you are not making a cake” (RSL1). The “cake,” in his view, is the wholesome outcome of internationalisation, which might be “the kind of courses being offered, the experience that students receive, and the international profile of the University” (RSL1). Instead of an internationalisation cake, the following “internationalisation tree of fruit” is proposed as a metaphor of internationalisation and some of its possible outcomes (Figure 1). The tree metaphor befits the processes within which the internationalising of the two case universities is situated and it aids the presentation of the findings and analysis of data discussed in this and the foregoing two chapters. Furthermore, it can enrich understanding by clarifying relationships between different dimensions or aspects of internationalisation and distinguishing between their qualitatively different contributions, as explained in the following paragraphs.

Figure 2: Internationalisation Tree of Fruit



Source: Soderqvist and
Parsons (2005)- Modified

Surrounding the roots of the tree are all of the “necessary” nutrients for its potential growth:

- Favourable external environment including national policy
- Institutional positioning, values and beliefs
- *Weiji* (risks as well as opportunities)
- Globalisation in terms of the existence of a global educational market
- Forerunners, risk-takers, and entrepreneurs responding to opportunities
- ICT – the availability of technology aiding worldwide course delivery.

However, not even all of the nutrients listed above are sufficient to fully enable the tree to bear fruit. The nutrients themselves must lie within a stimulating and activating context of institutional responses, strategies, and processes, resulting in the organisation of international activities and programmes such as the recruitment of international faculty and students, global course delivery, study abroad, international curricula, etcetera. That is, proper strategies and mechanisms must be in place to bring forth the benefits of internationalisation in a sustainable manner. Only then might some of the beneficial outcomes or fruits of internationalisation appear: international reputation, international research, internationalised faculty and students, enhanced financial resources, international alumni, graduates employed globally, etcetera.

Given the different forces at work both within and outside of their walls, the internationalisation trees of fruit that each of the two case universities grow, it is important to note, will not be the same. For example, based on the findings, the tree that U of L grows will have stronger “branches” in terms of global delivery of courses and international student recruitment, while HKBU’s tree will have greater strength for the support of student study abroad and internationalisation-at-home. The internationalisation tree of fruit answers the last specific research

question about the possible outcomes of internationalisation. As the tree embodies all the elements of the internationalisation of universities explored in this study, it also concludes the findings and analysis.

(4) Chapter Conclusion

Part I of the findings and analysis in Chapter Four has looked at the background factors and the beginnings of the internationalising process at the two case universities, that is, the nutrients surrounding the roots of the internationalisation tree of fruit. The first section, “setting the tone,” answers the first specific research question about the meanings and concepts of internationalisation. It concerns the institutional positioning, outlook, values, and beliefs that facilitate the response of institutions and personnel therein to the need for action and, in this case, to internationalise their institutions. Section two, “responding to threats and opportunities (*weiji*),” describes the responses of the two case universities to the external environments resulting in the current wave of internationalisation. In section three, “rationalising actions,” participants talk about the benefits of internationalisation, that is, why they do what they do. Together with section two, it answers the second specific research question of why the two case universities are internationalising and whether they are internationalising in distinctive ways.

This chapter, part two of the findings and analysis, has examined the more substantial elements of the internationalising process that resemble the branches and leaves of the internationalisation tree of fruit. Section one, “building a broader context,” answers the third specific research question and lists some of

the organisational and programme strategies that the two case universities have implemented in the face of changing circumstances and conditions. The fourth specific research question regarding challenges and problems in terms of barriers, disadvantages, and risks is dealt with in section two. The present section, “growing the internationalisation tree of fruit,” discusses some of the possible outcomes of internationalisation and answers the last specific research question.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

(1) Addressing the Five Specific Research Questions

(1.1) What does internationalisation mean to the two case Hong Kong and British universities?

(1.1.1) An Activity Approach Underpinned by Institutional Outlook, Values and Beliefs

There is no simple or easy definition of internationalisation, which is a fluid concept used in different contexts and discourses (Callan 2000). Therefore, unsurprisingly, participants in this study expressed divergent views when they were asked to comment on the meanings and concepts of internationalising of universities. In the end, a majority seemed inclined towards the “activity approach” (Knight and de Wit 1995; de Wit 2002). For U of L participants, internationalisation means “a number of things that a truly international university should be doing” (SML4). Similarly, for their counterparts at HKBU, internationalisation “refers to doing things, whatever they may be, that will have an impact on both students and faculty, in terms of giving them a more international and global perspective” (RFB2). Note, however, that the justification they gave for their universities’ actions in internationalising are very different and are clearly aligned with their respective institutions’ outlook, values and beliefs. U of L aspires to be “an international university that is committed to the region” (U of L 2006d). Hence, U of L participants were very conscious that the University’s activities must be underpinned by its international positioning. HKBU, on the other hand, strives to be “an outstanding university in China” and believes that a

“worldwide vision” will enhance its capacity to act as “a gateway between mainland China and the global community” (HKBU 2006b). Thus, HKBU aspires to be a good national university and its goal through internationalisation is, first and foremost, to serve the motherland. As such, it is natural that HKBU participants interpreted internationalisation more in terms of the University’s likely ability to enhance the global perspective of its students and faculty, which, in turn, should enable the University to better serve Hong Kong’s bridging role vis-à-vis China and, by so doing, promote links with many other parts of the world.

A Dual International-National Emphasis

Although both U of L and HKBU have internationalisation aspirations, they are also strongly committed to their own regions/countries. However, there is a subtle difference between their dual international-national emphases. While acknowledging the importance of internationalisation, HKBU, with good reason, places its position and role within the motherland on an even higher plane, as Hong Kong continues to try to shake off its former colonial identity, to recreate itself, and otherwise reintegrate with the motherland. Indeed, the President of HKBU argued for the use of the term “translocalisation” instead of “internationalisation” so that the University can include the recruitment of mainland Chinese students and collaboration with Chinese universities as part of its internationalisation agenda. U of L, on the other hand, decided that it can best meet national needs by functioning as an international centre of teaching and research excellence (OECD 1999). It might be ventured, then, that U of L has a

more global view of internationalising, whereas HKBU adopts a more limited view focused on China. The outlook of both universities is conditioned by their different institutional aspirations, which, in turn, are a reflection of their respective institutional and national contexts.

Two Contrasting Universities, Two Different Sets of Circumstances

U of L and HKBU are two contrasting cases. They were deliberately chosen in the first place (maximum variation sampling) to provide two contrasting case universities which might reveal different purposes for, and processes of, internationalisation. U of L is a well-established, comprehensive, research oriented British university with an international reputation. It was one of the 19 UK universities featured in the world's top 200 universities in the Shanghai Jiao Tong International League Table in 2004-05 and was ranked 18th out of 110 UK universities in the Times League Table for 2006. HKBU, on the other hand, is a relatively young, primarily undergraduate teaching institution serving the community of Hong Kong. Founded as a private college in 1956, it became a publicly funded institution in 1983. In 2006, HKBU is about half the size of U of L in terms of both student and faculty numbers.

Nationally, U of L and HKBU also operate in very different policy environments. Internationalisation is a key British national goal, which, apart from international student recruitment, is linked internally with its Race Relations Amendment Act 2000 and the Widened Participation Agenda. The Race Relations Amendment Act basically aims to promote racial equality while the

Widening Participation Agenda aims to increase the intake of students from disadvantaged backgrounds who are currently under-represented in educational enrolment. In the latter case, the issue or objective might actually be race related as much as it is class related. Therefore, the core ideal of internationalisation with respect to the promotion of intercultural understanding would seem to blend well with the spirit of both the Race Relations Amendment Act and the Widening Participation Agenda. Given the multicultural environment that U of L inhabits in the city of Leicester (one-third of the 300,000 residents being visible minorities), internationalisation is as valid within the local context as it is internationally. In contrast, although Hong Kong was a British colony for more than a century, it is largely a culturally homogeneous Cantonese speaking southern Chinese society. The issue of internationalisation only began to arise in the late 1980s when the change of sovereignty was imminent. On the eve of the return of the territory to China, Hong Kong was advised by the Business and Professional Federation of Hong Kong to assume “twin roles”: Hong Kong-China and Hong Kong-International. That is, Hong Kong must be able to interact productively with China as well as with the international community and also act as an effective bridge between China and the world.

(1.2) Why are the two case universities internationalising, and are they internationalising in distinctive ways?

(1.2.1) Responding to Respective Threats and Opportunities

Discussion in the last section, both implicitly and explicitly, points to the importance of national and institutional contexts as well as the overall aims of the

universities and where they want to position themselves nationally, regionally and internationally. These contexts would be expected to determine the universities' internationalising efforts and direction (Bartell 2003; Davis 1995). However, it still took "*weiji*" – the Chinese term for threats as well as opportunities – to nudge the two universities into their current heightened state of international activities. A sharp decline in public funding in Britain, coupled with the introduction of full-cost fees for foreign students in the late 1970s, has provided U.K. universities, including U of L, with a compelling reason to tap into the global educational market. This is in stark contrast to the situation in Hong Kong, where the higher education sector is almost fully funded by the government (even in 2006), and there is a strict quota limitation on the recruitment of non-local students. However, the situation in Hong Kong currently seems to be changing as a result of funding cuts in recent years and the fact that sub-degree and taught postgraduate programmes can no longer rely wholly on government funding. According to HKBU participants, Hong Kong is facing a three-pronged threat: (a) Hong Kong might lose its unique position as a gateway to China; (b) the competitiveness of the university sector has been put in doubt because of funding cuts in recent years; and (c) Hong Kong students might be disadvantaged in the job market vis-à-vis their counterparts in mainland China.

Positives versus Negatives

U of L and HKBU also faced vastly different circumstances when they embarked upon their respective paths leading towards the current heightened state of

internationalisation. U of L was and still is surrounded by all of the positives associated with internationalisation. Externally, it enjoyed the existence of a global educational market, the monopolistic position of the English language, the perceived value of a UK higher education, particularly in the former British colonies, and the support of the national government in the global promotion of the “Education UK brand.” Internally, it had a fleet of “entrepreneurs,” “forerunners,” “risk-takers,” “new-age academics,” as well as “mavericks” who took advantage of the availability of these positives and established in the 1980s what were then known as distance-learning “entrepreneurial centres.” As a result, over the years, the University has succeeded in building up a complex global distance-learning network, one of the largest among UK universities.

In contrast, HKBU exemplifies the antithesis of every one of the above positives. While U of L is ambitiously expanding its enrolment of international students, HKBU is only allowed by the government to enrol up to a maximum of 10 percent non-local students in its undergraduate programmes and up to one-third non-local students in its research postgraduate programmes. On the other hand, the University will not be able to admit more non-local students even if the government quota were to be relaxed, due to various constraints. First, there is a severe on-campus student housing shortage. Second, its effort to recruit international students is disadvantaged by the fact that the University is not well known internationally. Nor is there any organised effort by the Hong Kong government to promote the “Hong Kong brand” in higher education. Third, there are dissenting voices in the community over the recruitment of non-local students

because of the high cost of government subsidised tuition fees. Fourth, there is resistance on the part of some faculty members and students, for various reasons, to the use of English as the official medium of instruction in order to facilitate the recruitment of international students. Lastly, the University has lost half of its pool of expatriate staff during the past decade and has had difficulty in replenishing it due to funding cuts in recent years as well as reluctance in some departments to hire non-Chinese candidates.

Translocalisation versus Internationalisation

The two different sets of circumstances facing U of L and HKBU are partly a direct result of national contexts and government policies, and partly internal to the universities themselves. This fact raises a key question: Should universities in Hong Kong in general, and HKBU, in particular, even attempt to internationalise? In view of the “three-pronged threat” perceived by HKBU participants, the answer would likely be “yes.” But in the case of HKBU, specifically, it could only afford to have “modest aims” in internationalising the campus because of “resource competition and other priorities” and because the University does not aspire to “world class status” (SMB3). For the time being, the University is largely engaged in a process of “translocalisation,” focusing on the recruitment of students from mainland China and heightened cooperation with Chinese partners across the border. Perhaps this is a more realistic path to take given all of the negatives that HKBU faces in internationalising. After all, upon its return to the motherland, Hong Kong “acquired a region” (Teather *et al* 1999) and

there is a huge higher education market there, which was not available to Hong Kong before. Besides, a further key question is why should all Hong Kong universities try to be the same? Will HKBU students be disadvantaged in comparison with their counterparts at other universities if HKBU foregoes internationalisation? Probably not, especially if HKBU holds on to its ideal of a “whole-person education,” within which internationalisation can at least play a modest role.

As compared with HKBU, and given all of the positives involved, are UK universities in general, and is U of L in particular, internationalising in a genuine sense? The internationalising of universities should be evaluated in terms of the scope and pervasiveness of internationalism in the life of the institution (Davies1995), and an “entrepreneurial strategy” of exporting and franchising educational services worldwide does not necessarily lead to a true internationalisation of the home institution (Green and Baer 2001). Therefore, the crucial question to ask U of L is whether the University has strategies and mechanisms in place to ensure the “pervasiveness of internationalism” in its institutional life. That brings us to the third specific research question: What policies and programmes are in place to support internationalisation at the two case universities?

(1.3) What policies and programmes are in place to support internationalisation efforts at the two universities?

(1.3.1) Meeting the Needs of “Customers” and Striving for Sustainability

There are two kinds of strategies that universities can employ to support their internationalising efforts: organisational and programme strategies. Organisational strategies relate to policies and infrastructure while programme (or curriculum) strategies may be differentiated by type as either internationalising-at-home or internationalising-abroad (Knight 2004). Internationalising-at-home, or IaH for short, denotes activities, except for outbound mobility, which have an international dimension or focus; a good example of IaH is an internationalised curriculum (Wächter 2003). For U of L, the focus is on international student recruitment and meeting their needs when they arrive on the campus. Hence, most of the measures put in place at U of L also constitute a business strategy for the sustained growth of international student recruitment.

The efforts of HKBU, on the other hand, aim to reduce faculty resistance to the use of English as the official medium of instruction and to internationalise the campus for the benefit of local as well as mainland Chinese and international students. Hence, it might be said that both U of L and HKBU are striving for the sustainability of their core business because, regardless of where they come from and who pays their tuition fees for them, students are important “customers” who provide both universities with a major source of income. They are as important to U of L as they are to HKBU because it is undeniable that higher education is now, in effect, a business due to the existence of a vibrant global

educational market. In this regard, UK higher education as “business” may be gaining more currency with the introduction of a maximum tuition fee of £3,000. UK students might soon choose to study in other member states of the European Union where there is an abundance of courses being offered in the English language and where tuition fees are either non-existent or significantly lower than in the UK.

In Hong Kong, more and more students are enrolling in mainland universities where tuition fees are only a fraction of those charged locally. If there is one common feature to be found at the two case universities, it is that neither of them is inexpensive for students to attend. Hence, the most important non-price factor in terms of meeting the competition for both U of L and HKBU is “the quality of the student experience” (SML2).

Internationalising-at-Home and Abroad

In order to meet the needs of their “customers,” both universities have altered their managerial structures in an attempt to boost faculty support and provide better student services. For instance, both have recently installed a vice-president (or director) to look after international affairs and have strengthened their capacity for coordination and communication at the central level. U of L does not have an internationalisation strategy, at least not on paper, but its other strategies, such as research and resource development, which translate into worldwide recruitment of faculty and international students, have produced a “by-product” that is supportive of internationalising the University. One staff member

spoke of this “by-product” as “incidental internationalisation” (RSL2). That is, internationalisation is occurring at U of L, but not in a well-planned and deliberate manner. HKBU has recently drafted an internationalisation strategy, but how much it can really accomplish remains to be seen.

Programme-wise, U of L is doing very well in internationalising-abroad in terms of the global delivery of its courses and the recruitment of international students, but, like other UK institutions, it is not doing so well when it comes to encouraging its own students to study abroad. HKBU, due to all of the negatives that it faces, can recruit students primarily from mainland China only, but it does very well with its financial support for students’ study abroad-related expenses and the active promotion of student exchange. As for internationalising-at-home in terms of internationalising the campus, HKBU also seems to be doing a good job, particularly in view of its success in adopting English as the official medium of instruction in order to help raise the English language standard among students and facilitate the recruitment of international exchange students.

In comparison to internationalising-abroad, internationalising-at-home will benefit a larger number of students and have a more entrenched long-term effect. However, institutions may still opt for internationalising-abroad because it is *perceived* as being more adventurous and, rightly or wrongly in the case of global delivery of courses, *potentially* profitable. On the other hand, internationalising-at-home, for example, in terms of internationalising the curriculum and adapting teaching style to the needs of international students may meet with faculty resistance (Fielden 2006). Given the characteristics of the

university as a collegium and a professional bureaucracy (Davies 1995), it might be hypothesised that resistance to internationalising-at-home will be far greater in a western “research-led” university, such as U of L, than in a smaller, “primarily teaching” institution in Chinese society, such as HKBU. This seems to be evidenced by the fact that the level of “academic autonomy is quite high” at U of L (RFL4), while “strong determination at the very top” is deemed to be necessary at HKBU (SMB1). Perhaps this explains why internationalisation at U of L is “an organic, generative, or eclectic process” (RSL3), while HKBU has made quite a lot of headway in internationalising-at-home, for example, in instituting English as the official language of instruction and a number of international programmes on campus.

Prospects for Further Development

In this connection, the two case universities are also internationalising in response to the external environment, both nationally and internationally. Will U of L lose interest in recruiting international students if and when the financial need for international student income disappears, as two faculty participants feared would be the case? It seems unlikely because, as pointed out by one U of L management participant, the University is “locked into [the international student] income stream” and is “dependent on it” (SML2). Several other U of L participants agreed with him because there is “a limit on the number of local students that [the University] can enrol” (SML4). On the other hand, higher education has become a business and as with any business, “the risk is in not

doing it” (RFL2). Therefore, the only “option” is to monitor the market situation and set a realistic recruitment target accordingly (SML1).

At HKBU, despite various policies being in place and measures taken, there is still faculty resistance to both the use of English as the medium of instruction and the reception of international students. However, there seems to be both the political will and a sufficient number of people at HKBU, who are determined to make sure that internationalisation is at least “a modest aim” of the University. In the meantime, there are barriers, disadvantages and risks associated with internationalisation that both U of L and HKBU have to deal with. That is the fourth specific research question.

(1.4) Are there any perceived barriers to internationalisation, and are there risks and disadvantages involved?

(1.4.1) Market Volatility versus Cultural Conflicts and Moral Pollution

While much of the concern at U of L about disadvantages and risks is related to course delivery in a volatile and competitive global education market, the main concern at HKBU is the possibility of cultural conflicts and undesirable influences being introduced into the campus by international exchange students. International competition, market volatility and a variety of other forces, such as security concerns, currency fluctuations and fraudulent conduct of international recruiting agents could affect U of L’s institutional reputation and competitiveness, as well as its budget in relation to foreign student income.

For HKBU, disadvantages and risks are not as closely linked to the international education market, at least not for the time being. However, they are

still closely associated with the recruitment of non-local students, from mainland China in this case, and the rapid rise in international exchange student numbers during recent years. A number of HKBU participants expressed a concern about the possibility of “moral pollution” because some international exchange students tend to be “more lax about sex” or they “may drink a lot.” This, and a more general worry about the erosion of cultural identity and the emergence of cultural conflicts in the process of internationalising may even remind those who are familiar with Chinese history of certain profoundly destabilising fears and resentments from the past, such as those that became the driving force behind the May Fourth Movement, for example (RFB1).

(1.4.2) Faculty Resistance and Xenophobia

In terms of barriers, it is interesting to note that although the national and institutional contexts of the two case universities are vastly different, the barriers they have to deal with are surprisingly similar. That is, the reasons giving rise to those barriers may be different, but the barriers themselves look remarkably alike: faculty resistance inside and a potentially xenophobic environment outside.

Acutely aware of the importance of external environments and national policy, one U of L faculty participant cautioned about the possible negative effect of the introduction of higher local (UK) tuition fees on the advantages of recruiting international students (RFL1). He referred to the possibility of the continued rise in local tuition fees such that in the future the recruitment of international students might cease to be profitable or even necessary. However, given that international

student fees are almost triple those of local students and the political unpopularity of raising local fees, such arguments appear dubious. Another faculty member was “torn between a local project, which is very good value for the money” and his “international work, which [he finds] so interesting” (RFL2). In fact, he finds international work so interesting, that he is reluctant to leave U of L because of it. He is not alone. As reported in the findings, other U of L participants are also positive about their international work. This seems likely to guarantee the continued interest in internationalisation in general, and in the recruitment of international students in particular. However, internationalisation in terms of the likelihood of admitting more immigrants into the U.K. may generate a fear in some people that the UK is being taken over by foreigners (RFL4), or stir up the “little English mentality that anything outside of the UK is bad” (SML2). Internally, U of L also has had to cope with barriers that are not conducive to the admission and teaching of more international students because of the academic culture in general, and the University’s research culture, in particular. For example, it was pointed out that academic departments which have a good research rating might be reluctant to offer more taught courses to attract international students for the sake of income generation because additional teaching might interfere with their research (SML4).

HKBU faces similar barriers, albeit in a somewhat different context. It has had to grapple with budget cuts in recent years and the high costs of internationalisation, as well as faculty and student resistance to the use of English in the classroom and to the recruitment of non-local students and

expatriate staff. In Hong Kong, the xenophobic impulse seems to stem from a powerful “localisation force” and deepening “sinicisation,” which are not conducive to internationalisation. It might not be too wide of the mark to suggest that the nationalistic argument on the part of some HKBU faculty members against the use of English is a reflection of this “sinicising process.” Perhaps this is also true for the especially vigorous recruitment of mainland students and the University’s joint venture in China.

(1.5) What are the outcomes and results of internationalisation, whether they are factual or perceived?

(1.5.1) Growing the Internationalisation Tree of Fruit

In Chapter Five, an “internationalisation tree of fruit” was proposed as a metaphor for internationalisation and some of its possible outcomes. The tree metaphor befits the processes within which the internationalising of the two case universities is situated and it aids the presentation of the findings and analysis of data discussed in this and the foregoing two chapters. Surrounding the roots of the tree are all of the “necessary” nutrients for its potential growth:

- Favourable external environment including national policy
- Institutional positioning, values and beliefs
- *Weiji* (threats as well as opportunities)
- Globalisation in terms of the existence of a global educational market
- Forerunners, risk-takers, and entrepreneurs responding to the opportunities
- ICT – the availability of technology aiding worldwide course delivery.

However, not even all of the nutrients listed above may be sufficient to fully enable the tree to bear fruit. The nutrients themselves must lie within a stimulating and activating context of institutional responses, strategies, and

processes, resulting in the organisation of international activities and programmes such as the recruitment of international faculty and students, global course delivery, study abroad, and international curricula. That is, proper strategies and mechanisms must be in place to bring forth the benefits of internationalisation in a sustainable manner. Only then might some of the beneficial outcomes (or ‘fruits’) of internationalisation appear: international reputation, international research, internationalised faculty and students, enhanced financial resources, international alumni, and graduates employed globally.

Different Environments, Different Fruits

Given the different forces at work both within and outside of their walls, the internationalisation ‘trees of fruit’ that each of the two case universities grow are bound to be different. For example, based on the findings, the ‘tree’ that U of L grows will have stronger “branches” in terms of global delivery of courses and international student recruitment, while HKBU’s ‘tree’ will have greater strength for the support of student study abroad and internationalisation-at-home. There is also a possibility that the internationalisation tree grown by each university will be completely different in kind, due to local differences in environment. After all, the internationalisation tree as a western “transplant” might not grow very well in an eastern environment. Perhaps it is also appropriate to question whether an internationalisation tree can ever grow to maturity within a sinicising environment. On the other hand, the internationalisation tree in the U.K. might not yield fruit

because of the lack of proper institutional strategies and mechanisms to bring forth the greater benefits of internationalisation such as intercultural learning and understanding among both staff and students. This has been a major finding permeating the present thesis: when universities internationalise in an unplanned, non-strategic way, they may fail to derive the full benefits that are to be gained from the process.

(2) Conclusion and Implications

(2.1) A Complex, Multifaceted, and Value-Laden Concept

The internationalising of universities is a complex and multifaceted concept comprising many elements. As indicated in the discussion above, the concept can be interpreted differently, have different emphases, and serve different purposes. To a certain extent in the case of U of L, it is associated with the notion of internationalism or the “archaic universalism” espoused by the earliest universities in the Middle Ages when they transcended national frontiers in medieval Europe, with students and scholars wandering from Bologna to Paris to Oxford (Scott 1998). For HKBU, paradoxically to a certain extent, this version of the concept is being used for the realisation of nationalistic aspirations (Knight 1999, 2004; Nebres 1996).

Internationalisation is also a value-laden concept. That was true in the past as much as it is today. For example, international students are expected to bring academic, economic, political, as well as socio-cultural benefits to their host countries (Knight 1997b; 1999; 2004). Can universities achieve the many

supposed benefits assumed to flow from internationalisation? Based on the findings of this study, the answer is mixed at best. Economic benefits in terms of international student income are easy to see – but can they be expected to continue? Some forces indicate not – such as global terrorism, developing countries building their own universities, and the possible future restriction of population movements. Other forces, however, signal the opposite, such as increasing wealth, the expansion of free trade markets, and the prestige of studying in overseas universities. There are no clear indicators for the other benefits. For instance, the non-integration of international students in their host communities has been borne out repeatedly by research (UKCOSA 2004; UNITE 2006) and is largely confirmed by the reports of the participants in this study. The socio-cultural benefits in terms of intercultural learning are therefore questionable. The same could be said of political and academic benefits. As de Wit (2002) shrewdly points out, the academic rationale for internationalising is often used without evidence or proof, and political arguments for internationalisation should be viewed with caution because government policy is seldom value-neutral and might contradict the humanistic values espoused by the university.

Notwithstanding the above arguments, the term “international” is often used as “a synonym for high quality, excellent, or world class” (Teather 2001, p. 20-22). Therefore, it is presumed that internationalisation would bring in positive competition and raise the standing of Hong Kong as an international education hub (Sing Tao News 2004). This, of course, depends on whether the standards

of international staff and students are higher or lower than those presently in Hong Kong. Specifically, HKBU decided that it could afford to internationalise only modestly because it does not realistically aspire to “world class” status. On the other hand, does the presence of international students in the U.K. necessarily raise the quality of the teaching and learning in the classroom? Given the frequent complaints about the English standards of international students, a positive answer cannot be assumed. In fact, the recruitment of international students has raised serious quality concerns, for example, in the Australian higher education sector (Devos 2003). Many UK universities, including U of L, have English language units offering language assistance to international students. Therefore, the academic quality argument for internationalisation of higher education, at least in terms of the recruitment of international students, could very well be nebulous and questionable.

(2.2) Magnitude and Range of Differences of Manifestation of the Concept

The complexity, multifaceted nature and value-ladenness of the concept of internationalisation have led to a magnitude and range of differences in regard to how the phenomenon of internationalising of universities manifests itself at the two case universities. For example, realisation of the supposed benefits of internationalisation hinges on integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into many or all aspects of the life of the institution. The word “dimension” here could refer to “a perspective, an activity or a programme” (Knight 1995, p.15), in other words, virtually all of the things that a university

does. Whether it be the recruitment of international students or non-local students, hiring academic staff from an international pool, internationalising-at-home or abroad, universities can claim to be internationalising as long as they are engaging in one or more of these activities that have “an international, intercultural and global dimension.” Thus, HKBU could rightly argue that its faculty members, who are locally born but trained overseas, receive training that gives them an international perspective which they can then bring to the curriculum (SMB3). U of L, on the other hand, according to the perception of its participants, has done rather poorly in internationalising the curriculum despite its relatively large number of foreign-born but UK-trained staff. Does this mean that the place of training or experience is more important than a person’s place of birth, at least insofar as the internationalising of the curriculum is concerned? Or does it signify that U of L academics understand that it is an essentially British/English curriculum experience with which overseas students come to engage?

In the same vein, HKBU recruits students from mainland China as part of its internationalisation agenda and translocalisation strategy. Given the regional diversity of China and the long separation of Hong Kong from the mainland, HKBU’s translocalisation strategy is very well-grounded. In an enlarged Europe, recent attempts to create a “European space in higher education” have seen EU-students treated as “home students” in all member states including the UK, and at least one U of L participant felt that these “home students” also bring “an international dimension” to the teaching and learning process (RFL4).

Externally, HKBU is “internationalising” by operating a branch campus in mainland China while U of L claims to be doing so by delivering its courses worldwide through cyber space, distance learning and mixed mode delivered programmes in places as far apart as Asia and the Caribbean. A critic might claim that both universities are not genuinely internationalising because the ability of these two endeavours to internationalise the home institutions is minimal. However, both of them are clearly trying to make full use of their respective comparative advantages in terms of their positions which could have certain institutional benefits, internationally or otherwise. U of L is profiling its name and image at those overseas locations where it is offering courses and HKBU is expanding its base of operations beyond Hong Kong. In other words, both HKBU and U of L are responding to opportunities that are currently available to them and, at the same time, operating within the parameters that confine them. Would HKBU recruit international students and faculty worldwide if it was in the same position as U of L? Most likely it would. On the other hand, would U of L build a branch campus in China if it was in the same position as HKBU? Most likely it would. In sum, the rich contrasting approaches that they adopt and the combination of elements they use to internationalise their institutions demonstrate and reflect their skilful adaptation of the concept to their advantage. Each reflects the realism and practicality of what is possible in terms of internationalising – given their relative reputations, resources and contexts.

(2.3) Unplanned Beginnings Turning into Strategic Importance

It is clear from the findings that the origins of the present internationalising efforts at both case universities were anything but planned. This is particularly evident in the case of U of L, where participants described the beginning of the University's global distance learning programme in the 1980s as having occurred "more by accident, more by serendipity, rather than by design" (SML2). As for HKBU, at least the first step towards the current phase of internationalisation was "forced upon" it by the government (SMB3). Recruitment of non-local students was "an economic imperative" for U of L and an order from the paymaster for HKBU. For both universities, the origins were relatively recent compared with the longevity of their histories. Internationalisation is a recent phenomenon – but one whose impact is no less for that.

Having begun the process, internationalisation in terms of the recruitment of international or non-local students has become an entrenched part in the institutional life of the two case universities, particularly in the case of U of L. This is despite the fact that there are associated risks, disadvantages, and barriers, as detailed in the findings and analysis. Given the investments that both case universities have made in management as well as service support infrastructure for international or non-local students and the limitations of their respective local markets, the stake is simply too high for them not to continue to tap into markets beyond their borders. In this regard, the financial needs for HKBU to do so are not as high as for U of L – reflecting Hong Kong's relatively more healthy economic status. However, in view of the funding cuts to the Hong Kong higher

education sector in recent years, perhaps it will not be long before the recruitment of non-local students becomes an “economic imperative” for HKBU as well. If recent forecasts are correct, there would be no shortage of international students for both U of L and HKBU (Hong Kong Trade Development Council 2005; BBC News 20 April 2006). At the same time, competition will be severe and there will be new providers appearing on the scene. Given the increasingly wide choice, international students will be more sophisticated in their decisions as to where to invest their money. Therefore, new ways of internationalising and new markets have to be found, for example, forging joint partnerships with higher education institutions in emerging markets, such as Eastern Europe, South America and Vietnam.

(2.4) The Dialectical Relationship between Internationalisation and Globalisation

In one discourse, the internationalising of higher education is perceived as a counteracting force against the converging effect of globalisation (Knight 1999). Globalisation breaks down national borders and blurs the differences between societies. Internationalisation, on the other hand, recognises the existence of national boundaries and the uniqueness of individual societies and cultures. Therefore, the core value of internationalisation is to promote intercultural communication, cooperation, and understanding. Unfortunately, as internationalisation tries to promote international cooperation, it is also hastening the pace of globalisation because of the need for a common base for intercultural exchange. The monopolistic position of the English language and the

harmonising of academic degree structures within the European Union are cases in point. Furthermore, together with the attendant advancement of information and communication technology (ICT), globalisation has led to the creation of a huge global educational market. Aided by ICT, universities as well as many for-profit educational providers are now operating across spatio-temporal boundaries. As such, the threat of the dominance of a global culture leaving little room for cultural diversity is very real. If this were to happen, it would confound the very values that internationalisation espouses (Teekens 2000). Hence, while internationalisation of higher education is supposed to celebrate diversity and interaction between cultures, it may also be aiding the harmonising forces of globalisation at the same time. De Wit (2002) attributes this phenomenon to the “dialectical” relationship between globalisation and internationalisation.

Is a dialectical relationship between internationalisation and globalisation inevitable? Can universities in developed as well as developing countries thwart the negative effects of globalisation by way of internationalisation? Specifically, could the two case universities turn this “dialectical” relationship into a “symbiotic” one, transforming internationalisation and globalisation into a mutually beneficial relationship? There is some evidence that internationalisation in terms of intercultural learning is occurring at U of L, albeit not in a deliberate and planned manner. HKBU, on the other hand, has drawn up an internationalisation strategy. Both case universities seem to understand the importance of the “quality of the student experience” and have put into place both management structures and programmes to meet the demands of their “customers.” It is hoped that their

efforts in this regard will be increasingly organised and coordinated leading to intercultural learning for both staff and students in due time. Intercultural learning could not be achieved if there were no international students, but internationalisation is more than marketing educational services abroad and increasing the number of international students or providing special services to meet their needs (Bruch and Barty 1998). Ultimately, internationalising efforts should be evaluated in terms of the extent of intercultural learning and the pervasiveness of internationalising institutional life (Davis 1995; Middlehurst 2002). It is these perhaps higher, loftier purposes that need always to be in sight in a university world that is ever more financially driven.

(3) Limitations of the Study

(3.1) The Researcher Effect

In Chapter Four, U of L and HKBU participants rationalised their actions vis-à-vis the benefits of the internationalising of universities, in general, and of their own institutions, in particular. While U of L participants described glowingly the benefits of internationalisation vis-à-vis the University and their personal and professional development, HKBU participants spoke in more general and theoretical terms about rationales and hopes. This perhaps is not surprising given HKBU's shorter history and the problems it faces in internationalising, both internally and externally. On the other hand, the difference could also be due to the "researcher effect" (Mercer 2007). Would U of L participants have spoken less positively about their international students if the author of this study were not an international student herself? Similarly, the "researcher effect" might also

have come into play at HKBU as participants there may have engaged the researcher as a former colleague with whom they felt they could openly and unreservedly share their frustrations and problems. That is, a different story could have been told by a different researcher. Interviews, after all, are a “social encounter” where “mutual construction” of the interview data takes place ((Cassell 2005; Clarke 2002; Denzin 2001; Holstein and Gubrium 1997; Roulston 2001; Rapley 2001; Shah 2004; Silverman 1993; Sinding and Aronson 2003; Taylor and Bogdan 1998). Hence, the outcome very much depends on the “local interactional contexts” from within which both interviewees and interviewers work towards the construction of a particular story (Rapley 2001).

(3.2) Perspective Specificity

In line with the above considerations, a different story also could have been told if different participants had been selected or if a different analytical perspective than the one developed in this study had been chosen. Although there are many stakeholders in the internationalising of the two case universities, only the views of three groups of stakeholders have been examined: senior academic managers who have policy and decision making power, faculty members who are involved in internationalisation issues and activities, and administrative staff in international education/exchange offices. They were chosen for their knowledge in the subject matter, as all of them are involved in the internationalising of their universities in one way or another. However, their identification with, and commitment to, internationalising their universities may also lead them to paint a

rosier picture than what the “reality” actually warrants (Rosenthal and Rosnow 1975). Or they simply may not want to reflect unfavourably on their own institutions. A number of studies have identified gaps between what people say they do and what actually happens inside their respective institutions (Parsons 2002). Furthermore, individuals who agree to be interviewed are likely to have different view points from those who refuse (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996). There were, in fact, several potential candidates who turned down a request for participation in this study.

Despite their shared interest in internationalisation, the participants in this study did not speak with one voice, although their level of agreement outweighed their level of disagreement on many issues. Given the nature of the university as a collegium and professional bureaucracy, disagreements, for example, between management and faculty participants, came as no surprise. However, due to the institutional focus of this study as well as constraints of space, these divergent views have not been systematically analysed and independently presented. For this and all the above reasons, it is impossible not to imagine that an entirely different story could have been told. Nonetheless, a key outcome of this study was the surprising commonality of view between participants representing all three groups.

(3.3) Historical or Cultural Locatedness

All that has been said above notwithstanding, the fact that the cases under study have “historical or cultural locatedness” must also be taken into account (Scott

and Usher 1996). Case study respects the “particular contexts” of the cases in question (Simons 1989). At the same time, the two case universities are also individually “a single example of a broader class” or “one of its types” (Denscombe 1998). So, could the findings about the role played by internationalisation in the functioning of Hong Kong Baptist University and the University of Leicester be applied, say, to other cases in different contexts through precisely replicated studies? This would depend on how similar “the case study example” might be to “others of its type” (Denscombe 1998, p. 36). The two case universities being examined here certainly are not “unique” in the sense that they represent only one of their types. Therefore, the findings of this study, which are particular to the Hong Kong and British situations, respectively, could very well be comparable to what one might find to be true about the characteristics of institutions in similar contexts elsewhere.

(3.4) Constraints Imposed by the Approach of the Study

The process approach adopted by this study emphasises internationalisation as a cycle. Accordingly, it explores the factors and reasons for internationalisation, why and how the two contrasting case universities internationalise, barriers to internationalisation, associated disadvantages and risks, and finally perceived outcomes of internationalisation. As such, the topics covered in this study are wide-ranging. They include - the values and beliefs espoused by members of the two case universities, both University external environments, the opportunities that are available to them as well as the parameters that confine them and the

resultant organisational and programme strategies that they adopt. In addition, the study covers the disadvantages and risks that they face in the process. However, given the institutional focus and comparative nature of the study, in-depth analysis of each and every theme that emerged from the data has not been possible. As the aim has been to present a broad contextual understanding for each university in line with the five specific research questions and then to compare them at the university-wide level, pursuing every theme relating to internationalisation - in depth - would have been unwieldy. Future researchers of internationalisation in higher education might wish to investigate a small number of themes and ascertain their impact on the internationalising of universities.

(4) Recommendations

(4.1) One Model Does Not Fit All

The findings reveal major differences between the two case universities, in terms of both national and institutional contexts, as well as currently available opportunities and the parameters of choice. The differences are partly a direct result of national contexts and partly internal to the universities themselves. Therefore, both national governments and universities are well advised to heed contextual circumstances in their choice of strategies for internationalisation. HKBU cannot do what U of L does, and U of L cannot do what HKBU does. In other words, each institution is building on its respective strengths and positions of advantage, on what it has to work with, and in the way that it can best do what it wants. In sum, one model of internationalisation does not fit all. This is as true

for institutions operating in different cultures as it is for different institutions operating within the same culture. There are over one hundred universities in the U.K. Although they all operate within the same national context, their institutional contexts are different with respect to historical background, organisational culture and academic profile. The seven universities in Hong Kong are also different from one another in these respects and could not be expected to internationalise in exactly the same way.

In whatever ways they internationalise, faculty input and support is paramount. For example, although there is a lot of potential for expanding the provision of distance learning, U of L may have difficulty doing so because its faculty members generally place more emphasis on research than on teaching. Therefore, proper recognition for teaching and “entrepreneurial” activities should be instituted to encourage a change in the faculty’s attitude towards teaching. At HKBU, most faculty members prefer not to teach in English either because their English is not good enough or because they are afraid of negative student feedback. Thus, they should be encouraged to improve their English and, at the same time, need to be assured that they will not be penalised, for whatever reason, if they teach in English. It is likely from the faculty’s point of view that internationalisation has become a “managerial jurisdiction” (Schapper and Mayson 2004). Hence, there should be more open discussion on the pros and cons as well as the overall objective of internationalisation based on a realistic assessment of institutional capacity and other environmental factors. Hidden resentment or surface compliance on the part of the faculty could translate into

quality issues, for example, lowering standards in the assessment of the work of international students. There will not be ownership unless faculty members are convinced of the need for as well as the intrinsic educational value of internationalisation. Their conviction as to the benefits of internationalisation or the lack thereof will, in turn, influence the level of student participation in international activities.

(4.2) Further Studies

First, as was pointed out earlier, participants in this study certainly did not speak with one voice. There are also other stakeholders that this study has not been able to give a voice to – students, but also faculty and staff members who are not directly involved with the management level decision-making that goes into the internationalising of the two case universities. In a 14-country survey of the academic profession, Postiglione (1996) found that faculty members at different types of institutions, and also depending on rank and discipline, had dissimilar views about the distribution of power in the management of their universities. Are faculty members at different types of institutions, and also depending upon their rank and discipline, likely to have dissimilar perspectives on the management of the internationalising of their universities? Further in-depth studies comparing different stakeholders' perspectives on the internationalising of universities would be a highly worthwhile undertaking.

Secondly, this study is thought to be the first in-depth qualitative case study comparing the internationalisation of a British university and a Hong Kong

university to have been undertaken. Not only are they contrasting cases in terms of their institutional and national contexts, they differ also in terms of their cultural contexts. However, given the particular institutional focus of this study, the cultural contexts involved have not been fully explored. As Knight (1997b) points out, national identity and culture are key issues for internationalisation. In the same vein, Bartell (2003) posits that successful internationalisation requires institutionalising a strategy and process that is representative of the culture within which it occurs. In a comparative analysis of the internationalisation of higher education in the Asia Pacific region with that in Europe and America, certain programme strategies were found to be completely unique to Asian countries, for example, the employment of expatriates and a “one-sided South-North” pattern of collaborative relationships (Knight and de Wit 1997, p. 22). With respect to this study, much still can be learned and said about their institutional and management cultures as well as the cultures of Hong Kong and Britain and how the national and institutional cultures would influence the internationalising efforts in one way or another.

Thirdly, there does seem to be uniquely “Hong Kong” and “British” versions of internationalisation represented by the two case universities because of their decidedly different national and institutional contexts, and it is tempting to suggest that they may even represent two distinct models of internationalisation:

The Internationalist Model, represented by U of L:

- Most likely found in highly developed economies and countries with a multicultural population, especially English speaking countries enjoying the monopolistic position of the English language and the existence of a global educational market;

- A well-established, research-intensive and comprehensive university with a significant number of international faculty and students, international research, and an international standing;
- Aims for international positioning, research at an international level, academic excellence, and world class status;
- Internationalising efforts focus on internationalisation-abroad such as the global delivery of courses, international alliances, and development aid partnerships, with some internationalisation-at-home attempts by individual departments/ faculty and staff members;

The Translocalist Model, represented by HKBU:

- Most likely found in less developed economies and countries with a culturally homogeneous population, especially in post-colonial societies where nation-building is a priority or at least a concern;
- A primarily undergraduate teaching institution with some research, a large proportion of faculty who are overseas trained, a small number of international students and research students, serving mainly the local community;
- Aim for being a good national university providing a quality education including the cultivation of a national as well as global perspective among students;
- Internationalising efforts focus on internationalisation-at-home such as internationalising the curriculum through the injection of an international dimension on campus and, in the case of non-English speaking countries, the creation of an English speaking environment, supplemented by some internationalisation-abroad efforts such as study abroad.

The above “internationalist” and the “translocalist” models only apply to U of L and HKBU, respectively, and are particular to their specific institutional and national contexts. However, in another sense, the two models may not necessarily be nation specific in nature. For instance, there are universities in Hong Kong which have an international standing and which might fit the “internationalist” model. In the same vein, there may also be U.K. universities that could fit the “translocalist” model. In any event, the viability and usefulness of these two models if applied on a more universal scale needs further exploration.

(5) Looking to the Future

Whatever form Internationalisation takes - financial or academic - it clearly plays an important role in the functioning of the two case universities. There are overwhelming influential factors internal to the two universities that propel both towards further internationalisation. However, international and national contexts also necessitate constant evaluation and re-evaluation of institutional positioning vis-à-vis the direction and extent of their internationalising efforts. The highly competitive and ever-changing global educational market means that there is constant need for reassessing strategies and finding more imaginative ways to address emerging challenges and meet the goals of internationalisation. For instance, more and more universities are reaching out physically to where the international student markets are by building campuses overseas. In order to deal with severe competition, many universities have also resorted to greater use of virtual learning environments and ICT to cut costs of global delivery of courses.

Barring unforeseen disruptive forces, the advancement of globalisation and the attendant development of ICT will continue unabated and internationalisation of higher education can be expected to continue to be an absorbing preoccupation for both university managers and academics alike. The internationalising of universities has evolved into a multifaceted concept over the past two decades, that is, since the current heightened state of internationalisation began. It seems certain that universities will continue to seek and adopt new ways of internationalising, and, without doubt, there will be an

even greater array of manifestations of the concept in the future. However, given the dialectical relationship between internationalisation and globalisation, the internationalising efforts of universities, while taking account of contextual circumstances, should ultimately be judged in terms of the extent of intercultural understanding and cooperation that is fostered among students and faculty. These higher and loftier purposes of internationalisation always need to be kept to the forefront in an academic world that is increasingly financially driven.

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Interview Memo Samples

I. Interview Memo #8: Interview with RSL1

The interview with RSL1 went very well. He is rather new on the job. So, it's both good and bad. As he is still in "honeymoon" with the University, so to speak, he is full of enthusiasm for his job, so much so that he seems to be too positive. He talked about all the potentials without touching upon possible barriers and obstacles, except those that are well known, e.g., UK students' reluctance to go abroad on exchange. I heard this afternoon from a faculty member that Leicester faculty members frequently complained about the deficiency of international students saying that it's a double edge sword in the recruitment of overseas students in that they bring in money, but the resources spent on them are very high too. Their English is not good, and a staff i/c health services said international students consumed much of the service at the Sick Bay. So, I tried to prompt RSL1 to talk about how faculty felt, but he continued with all the positives such as how many international faculty members are among the staff and how internationalised the curriculum is, etc., etc.

RSL1 might also be deliberately more positive because I am an "outsider", i.e., he might not want to air dirty linens in my face. It was such a difference from what I heard from my former colleagues in Hong Kong, who seemed to be much more willing to share their misgivings and grievances with me. Anyway, the interview lasted 1-1/2 hours and we couldn't even finish all the research questions. Maybe I could convince him to think more about the challenges at our next interview.

2. Node 2 1 'What'- HKBU Memo #5[3]

Response from 3 SMBs, 2 RSBs, and 2 RFBs:

All these seven interviewees talked about "what", mostly, in terms of "activities." One SMB said there has never been any discussion about the meaning of internationalisation at the University. It seems that everyone understands what it means by internationalisation and there is very little dispute. Is this bad or good news, he asked?

Yes, is it good or bad news, when most of the time people talk about activities instead of the substance (i.e., meaning?) of internationalisation? Does "substance" refer to "international outlook, i.e., not inward looking"; "global perspective"; and "understanding the world and different cultures"? Are these terms equal to "international dimensions" in Knight's formulation? That is, is dimension "substance"? Can activities such as sending students abroad on

exchange assure the “substance” of internationalisation? But, then, can you measure the substance of internationalisation, e.g., in a person, or the university, simply by the number and kind of activities that the person or institution engages in? Can the cross-cultural sensitivities measurement be used to determine whether a person is “internationalised” or not? Will failing to focus on the substantial level of internationalisation run the risk of a false assumption that any activities, as long as they involve the “international others” would naturally lead to internationalisation at the substantial level?

One of the RFBs seems to have the best answer vis-à-vis the process approach definition of internationalisation adopted for this study. He said, “Internationalisation refers to doing things, whatever it is, that will impact the students and faculty, to give them a more international and global perspectives.” It captures people’s tendency to think of internationalisation in terms of activities and also the rationale/objectives for these activities. The rationale-neutral definition by Knight could run the danger of losing sight of the “substance” of internationalisation.

3. Node 2 2 ‘Why’- HKBU Memo #4[1]

Response from three SMBs about “why” to internationalise:

National – HK became just another city of China after 1997 and needs to have its own niche position and should build on its heritage and strength in east-west culture and relations; U.S. in the days of Kennedy internationalised for political reasons, i.e., to export American ideals of democracy and to gain sympathy for its foreign policy.

Institutional - seeking international recognition used to be the reason when HKBU was not recognised locally; for survival in early days;

Globalisation – needs to keep in touch with the world and understand cultural diversity; pace of globalisation will quicken; globalisation intensifies internationalisation in terms of encounters between different cultures;

Incentives – recent government subsidy provided an impetus; Australian and British universities motivated by o/s student tuition fee income; needs consideration most important, i.e., if people see the need, they would internationalise; fully-funded public universities would not see the needs to internationalise, e.g., to recruit fee-paying o/s students;

Students – Understanding the world so that students can function in different cultures; used to be for facilitating further study by students; student body mostly homogenous;

It seems that needs and incentives are the most important reasons to internationalise, e.g. if not because of the recent government subsidy given to the university, it wouldn't have expanded its exchange programme; conversely, the university/faculty don't see the need to recruit o/s students (see barrier). In the same vein, the university used to internationalise because the need to gain recognition while its credential was not recognised locally, for the need of survival.

Although educating the students to understand the world is important in the globalised world, responses under barriers indicate quite clearly that it is not going to be the most important motivating factor given priority competition and limited resources. Why did the University have funds for expansion into China and launching new programmes, and not have funds for internationalisation? The reason probably being, as quite a few interviewees said, the outcomes of internationalisation are mostly "intangible" and can't be seen and touched. SMB4 said it so well, you can't ask for more money for exchange because you can prove that the student having studied abroad got a job (something along that line, to be checked).

4. Node 2 1 'What'- UoL - Memo #1[1]

Response from RSL1, RSL2, SML1, and RFL2:

International Faculty: RSL1, SML1, RSL2 all pointed to the large number of international faculty as an indicator of internationalisation, but RSL2 is more critical: "But what about content; what about the things that we actually teach? I do not think that it is internationalised at all."

International Students: All four also pointed to the large number of international students as an indicator of internationalisation. To SML1, however, that is too narrow. It should include the internationalisation of the curriculum, research and partnerships. Again, RSL2 is more critical: "We just do what we do. So, that is just export really; it is not internationalising us.... What we are transmitting is British world service."

RSL1 summed it up and admitted that the presence of an international faculty and student body does not necessarily lead to internationalisation of the university. "Yes, you have all these ingredients, but you are not making a cake... to make something out of the ingredients... It might be your courses, your curriculum."

Internationalisation and Globalisation: RFL2 opines that internationalisation is riding on the back of globalisation: "I conceptualise globalisation as the increasing trade in goods, services, knowledge, culture, people, and all of these things are moving across borders more and more rapidly and with greater and greater ease."

RSL1, however, differentiates globalisation as being “the big business... everything being gobbled up... [leading to] homogeneity, whereas internationalisation suggests acceptance and recognition of the rights of differences.” Hence, internationalisation is “about seeing, and it is about bearing in your mind that the world is there that is just at your doorsteps of everything you do.”

Internationalisation has to work at! Hence, the internationalisation may or may not bear fruit! RSL1’s suggestion of a broader context in order to sustain the recruitment of international students is interesting. Does he mean tat a “broader context” (i.e., in his words, internationalisation) will contribute to a more conducive environment for the recruitment of international students? If so, how can this conducive environment be created?

5. Node 2 2 ‘Why’- UoL - Memo #1[1]

Response from RSL1, RSL2, SML1, RFL1 and RFL2:

According to these five participants, rationales for internationalisation include “economic imperative”, the availability of a “global educational market” and the “advancement of ICT”, as well as “educational benefits” in terms of students, faculty, the university, and national interest.

All these represent the “necessary” conditions, at least for the present phenomenon, under which the internationalising of universities takes place: the economic imperative, the global market, in terms of both educational and job markets, and the availability of ICT, but how long will these necessary conditions remain unchanged? As RFL1 observed, the economic imperative for the recruitment of international students may disappear, as tuition fee of domestic students rises. Externally, the market does not stay unchanged and strong competition is surfacing in “emerging” markets such as Hong Kong and Singapore. For instance, many students particularly those in Asia are already seeing the growing currency of a degree from a Chinese university such as Qinghua and Beida. On the other hand, again as RFL1 pointed out, it costs China too much foreign exchange in educating its people outside of China and the number of Chinese students studying overseas will decrease as China gradually builds up the academic strength of its universities.

Aide Memoire

For research question 1, what does internationalisation mean to the selected Hong Kong and British universities? That is, how do the interviewees define the concept of internationalisation? Will their definitions be different from those described in the literature review? If they are, are their definitions culturally influenced?

3. Can you tell me what does internationalisation mean to you? That is, how would you define the concept of internationalisation?
4. Can you elaborate the concept in terms of higher education, in general, and in terms of your university, in particular?
5. How would you define “globalisation” and, in your view, are there any differences or relationships between “internationalisation” and “globalisation”?
6. Are the views expressed in the above your own? If they are not, where do they come from? If they are, are you aware of any other definitions of the concepts of internationalisation and globalisation?

For research question 2, why are the universities internationalising? As universities do not exist in a vacuum, forces both within and outside of their walls could influence the extent of internationalisation. What are these forces in Hong Kong and in Britain?

7. In your opinion, what are some of the reasons for internationalisation? Government initiatives? Institutional competition? University (or departmental) policy? Individual choice?
8. Do these reasons apply to your university? That is, is your university internationalising for the same reasons?
9. Where do these forces for internationalisation come from, externally or internally, or both?

For research question 3, are there risks and disadvantages associated with internationalisation and also barriers?

10. Do you think your university is internationalising to its fullest extent? If not, what are some of the barriers?
11. Do you see any potential risks and disadvantages associated with internationalisation?

For research question 4, what policies and programmes are in place to support the internationalisation efforts? For example, what organisational and programme strategies are being adopted? Is there a rhetoric-reality gap, i.e., between the response to this question and those to questions 1 and 2?

12. Can you tell me some of the policies, if any, at your university that support internationalisation? For example, are there any mission statements, strategic plans, or personnel policies in this regard?

13. How about organisationally? Are there offices and staff specifically assigned to look after international activities and programs?

14. Can you name some of the international programmes and activities at your university?

15. And can I have all, or as many as possible, copies of the policy, mission statement, strategic plan, etc. on internationalisation, and also the literature and documents describing the above programmes and activities?

For research question 5, what are the outcomes and results of internationalisation, factual or perceived? Rightly or wrongly, many universities equate internationalisation with quality and status. Will the selected Hong Kong and British universities think the same way?

16. What do you perceive are some of the outcomes of internationalisation? For instance, do you see any benefits derived from the international activities and programmes in which your university is engaged? Can you give me some examples?

17. Who are the benefactors? The students? The faculty? The staff? The University?

18. Are they worth the efforts?

17. Finally, are there any other information or comments that you'd like to give?

REPORT ON NODE (2 1) '~/What'

Restriction to document: NONE

(2 1) /Themes/What

*** Description:

This node contains the "what" of internationalisation, i.e., meanings and concepts.

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+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: RFB2

+++ Retrieval for this document: 1 unit out of 45, = 2.2%

++ Text units 4-4:

RFB2: At one level, it means preparing students for a globalised world 4

+++++

+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: RFB2

+++ Retrieval for this document: 9 units out of 217, = 4.1%

++ Text units 3-5:

Researcher: Last time you told me that from an American background, 3

internationalisation means that people should be in touch with lives 4

beyond Hong Kong. 5

++ Text units 37-42:

RFB2: For me, the globalisation process probably means something a 37

little bit different in that I think more about business and economics 38

and integration of different things. Internationalisation, on the other 39

hand, refers to doing things, whatever it is, that will impact the 40

students and faculty, to give them a more international and global 41

perspective. You can assume that that is more or less the same thing. 42

+++++

+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: RFB3

+++ Retrieval for this document: 26 units out of 356, = 7.3%

++ Text units 3-20:

RFB3: I think we can look at it from different levels. One level concerns 3

the faculty and the other level concerns students. It usually concerns 4

students more and at that level we are talking about bringing and sending 5

out students. For faculty, internationalisation is not new, particularly 6

in Hong Kong and especially among science faculty members, who are very 7

international. Staff recruitment is world-wide; apart from sabbatical 8

leave, members attend conferences everywhere. The concept is equally 9

important, for example, in curricular design and the educational 10

philosophy of the University; we should embrace an international outlook. 11

That is, we are not training students for Hong Kong. and for the Pearl 12

River Delta (PRD) only. For example, in science, I hope the students, if 13

they have no language barrier, can enroll in the top graduate schools in 14

the world. They should qualify for top schools in the United States, 15

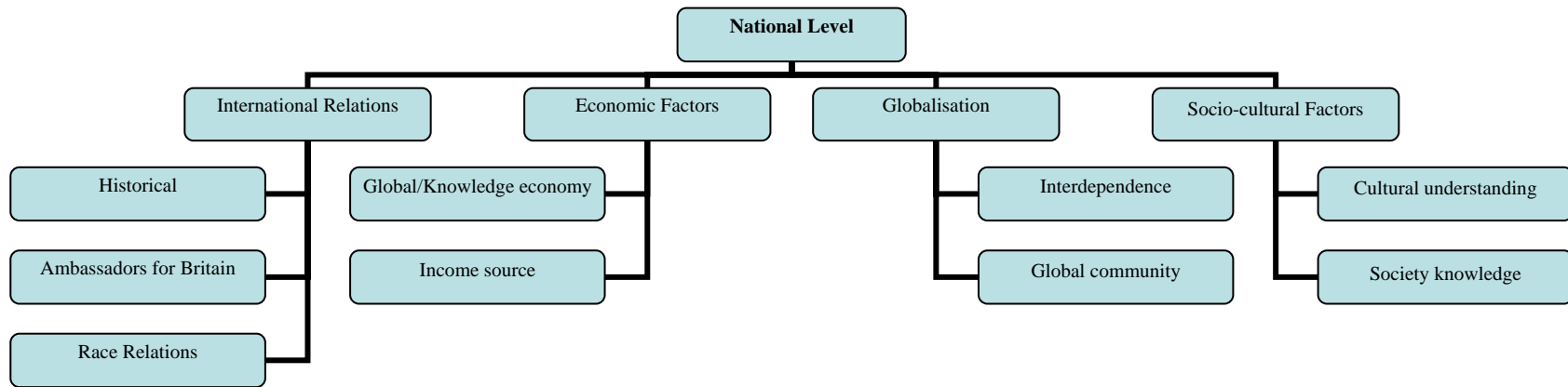
Canada, Singapore, and the United Kingdom, wherever they want to go. 16

That is, they can meet international standards; it is a way of benchmarking 17

for us. In sum, I think the concept is very important; not just for the academic side, but for the whole university including the management as well.	18 19 20
++ Text units 92-99:	
RFB3: Yes, I think there is a relationship between the two. In a way, globalisation is pushing us to compete. For example, students have to learn Putonghua now. If they do not, they would be redundant in the future. Another example, students in accounting are now being trained to take licensing exams in China. Because of globalisation, training has to be applicable worldwide. On the other hand, I think the difference between internationalisation and globalisation is that the former is an internal effort while the latter is an outside environment.	92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99
+++++	
+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: SMB3	
+++ Retrieval for this document: 4 units out of 139, = 2.9%	
++ Text units 3-6:	
SMB3: An international outlook, not inward looking, for example, faculty is recruited world-wide. This is important, particularly because most of our students are local. Internationalisation involves a number of dimensions: faculty, students, curriculum, campus life and exchange.	3 4 5 6
+++++	
+++ ON-LINE DOCUMENT: SMB4	
+++ Retrieval for this document: 48 units out of 380, = 13%	
++ Text units 4-11:	
SMB4: I would see internationalisation in every aspect of higher education, including teaching, research, and service. Perhaps it is less to do with service because service is usually quite local. I mean, if you talk about service to the public and the community, then that is bound to be quite local. You can talk about providing service to the international community, but it still is the local international community, right? But, of course, if we are talking about the academic community, that might also be international.	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11
++ Text units 84-90:	
Researcher: Based on your affiliation and experience with Baptist in the past 3-4 years, when they talk about internationalisation, do you get any messages that is what they mean, or trying to do?	84 85 86
SMB4: Frankly speaking, I have not engaged in any profound discussion of the topic. There is a lot of time when we talked about internationalisation, but we mostly talked about partners. There is really not much talk about the meaning of internationalisation	87 88 89 90
++ Text units 97-100:	
Researcher: I see, on one hand, there is not much serious discussion or debate, and, on the other hand, everyone seems to understand what internationalisation is all about.	97 98 99
SMB4: Right, there is very little dispute.	100

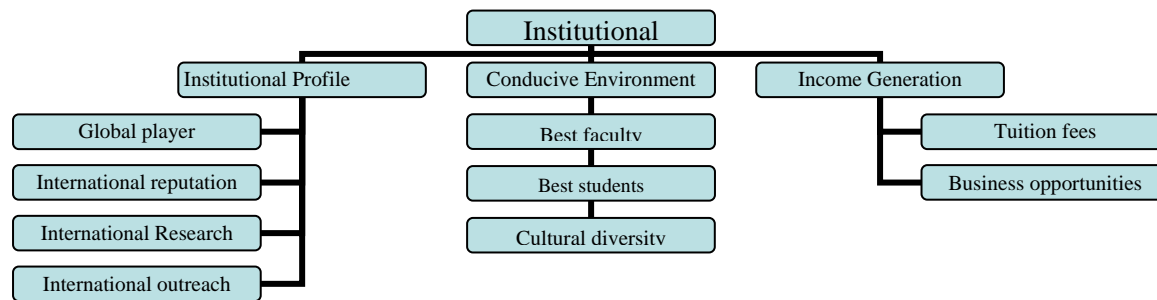
Thematic Coding Samples

University of Leicester
Rationales/Benefits

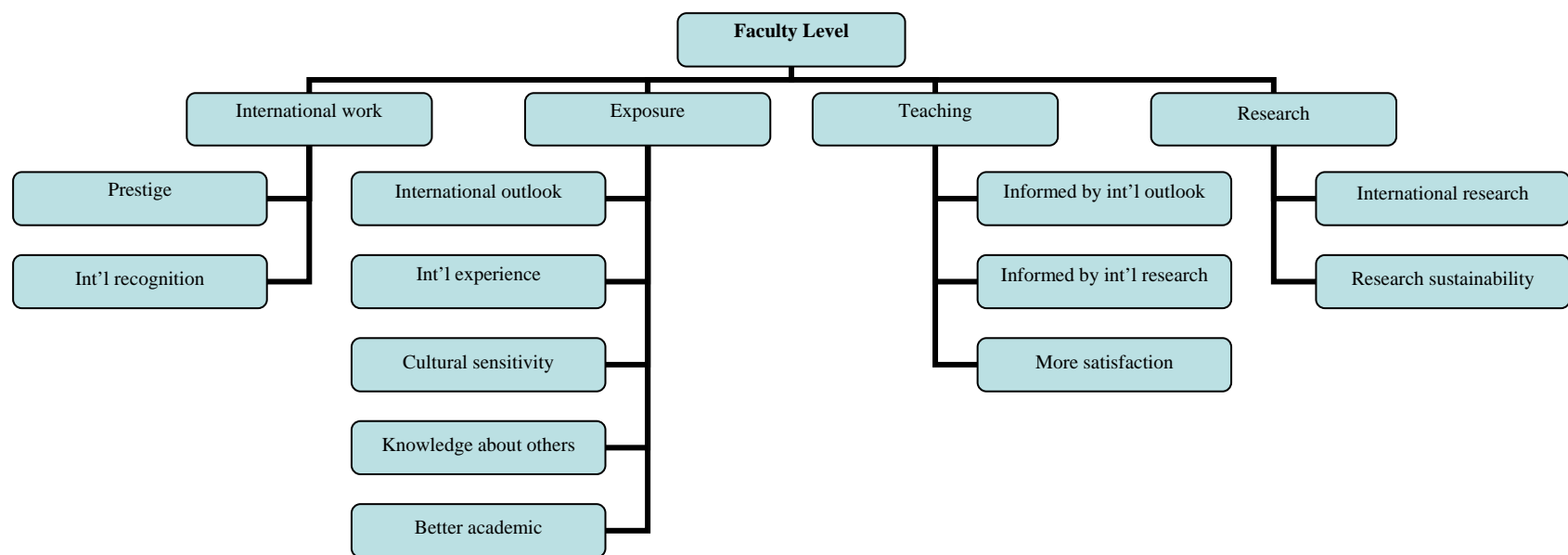


APPENDIX IV

University of Leicester Rationales/Benefits



University of Leicester
Rationales/Benefits



University Of Leicester Rationales/Benefits

