Minna Söderqvist

INTERNATIONALISATION AND ITS MANAGEMENT
AT HIGHER-EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

APPLYING CONCEPTUAL, CONTENT AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

HELSINKI SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
ACTA UNIVERSITATIS OECONOMICAE HELSINGIENSIS
A-206
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ABSTRACT

INTERNATIONALISATION AND ITS MANAGEMENT AT HIGHER-EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS – Applying Conceptual, Content and Discourse Analysis © MINNA SÖDERQVIST

This doctoral dissertation answers the following research questions:

1) What are the understandings of HEI internationalisation?
2) How does middle management of internationalisation of higher-education institutions understand the management of HEI internationalisation?

The study was conducted in two phases. First, an objectivist research design was applied. A framework of internationalisation and its management was created and evaluated with the help of content analysis of the population of Finnish European Policy Statements; 44 EPSs were analysed. Second, as much data fell through the cracks of analysis, a social constructionist research design was chosen. A discourse analysis based on interviews of ten middle managers of internationalisation in Belgium and Finland and of five rectors from the same countries was conducted. The analysis was based on 42h and 50 minutes of interviews, i.e. 388 pages of transcribed tapes.

The study makes several contributions. First, it contributes to the opening up a new scholarly research field in International Business, the managing of internationalisation of 1990s in the developing higher-education field. Higher education is becoming an industry; commercialisation of higher education is an important phenomenon especially in the Anglo-Saxon countries, whence it is spreading all over the world through e.g. OECD and GATS. These important empirical developments need to be further studied with IB research tools.

Second, it argues that social constructionist thinking, which is still seldom applied, through the use of discourse analysis, can extend knowledge generation in IB. What we see, at least to a certain extent, depends on what we expect to see; with new types of research questions new knowledge can be created.

Third, it creates new knowledge. A thorough concept analysis of HEI internationalisation, a holistic management model for HEI internationalisation, and a national level of understanding of the managing of HEI internationalisation were the contributions of the first phase of study. The second phase of study contributed by giving three detailed discourses on HEI internationalisation as well as three detailed discourses on managing of HEI internationalisation. These new views on internationalisation and its managing provide a point of departure for a wide range of further studies. These results can be also benefited from by both the middle and top managers of HEIs, and national and supranational educational authorities.

Keywords: Internationalisation of higher-education institutions, managing of internationalisation at higher-education institutions, social constructionism, discourse analysis
PROLOGUE

1 INTRODUCTION

To succeed internationalisation must be internalised, it must be “owned” by institutions. But before it can be internalised, it must be made explicit. In the long run only by encouraging this sense of institutional “ownership” and by developing clear institutional strategies on internationalisation, can its quality be assured.” (Scott 1992, p. 31)

Higher education has become commercial, whether we like it or not. Since 1995, the World Trade Organisation has included higher-education services in GATS\(^1\). Helsingin Sanomat, Finland’s leading newspaper, joined the discussion with a full page article on the theme “Buy a Degree from Us” at the end of April 2002 to make the public aware of this commercialisation development.

At the same time, public higher-education institutions are going through major changes. First, new higher-education institutions, polytechnics or universities of applied sciences were founded in many European countries in the 1990s. Second, in several countries, education has been decentralised, i.e. educational institutions have new management tasks as, for example, health care. Public management is no longer public administration, but an important area of strategic management due to the changes in public sector. Educational institutions, for example, now operate in quasi-markets. Third, mass-internationalisation of the new and traditional universities was very rapid during the same time period. New educational programs have helped institutions to create systems and procedures for the “new internationalisation”. It is no longer only a few enthusiasts travelling but new professional groups – for instance heads of international relations, international coordinators, or internationalisation managers – who perform these tasks. However, still mass-internationalisation means that less than 10% of the students and even fewer teachers participate in mobility activities.
The research design is introduced in this introductory chapter. First, it is developed in terms of the research gap, the problems, the objectives and the research questions. Second, the structure of this study is described and the main arguments and major findings of each part of the study are presented in brief.

1.1 Research Design: Research Gap, Research Problems, Research Questions and Research Objectives

1.1.1 Research Gap

This subchapter briefly presents the phenomenon under study, namely internationalisation of higher-education institutions (HEI Internationalisation) and the problematics of the management of HEI internationalisation. The mass internationalisation of higher-education institutions in Europe is a recent and significant phenomenon, not least, as Scott (1998 p. 123) says, since such institutions are "a key institution of the knowledge society" or as Sadlak (1998 p. 106) puts it, "because higher-education institutions have become central in modern society and their role has shifted from being a reflection of social, cultural and economic relationships to being a determinant of such relationships". According to Sadlak (1998 p. 104), it is not too presumptuous to claim that there is more international content within an average university than within a transnational, globally operating organisation because of the very nature of tertiary-level learning. While internationalisation has matured in some markets and has been given another focus through governmental actions, new forms such as presenting higher education as a commercial product in the global market (Mallea 2001, Hagen 1999, Oetlli 1999, Hazell 1997) have arisen. Gibbons (1998) continues on these lines by claiming that the massification of higher-education institutions has given them a competitive advantage in today’s society of which not all of them are even aware.

Thus, the mass internationalisation (Scott 1998, Sadlak 1998) of the 1990s, which is probably still on the increase (Wächter et al 1999), together with the growing importance of higher education in modern societies (Callan 1998, Elliott 1998, Gibbons

---

1 General Agreement on Trade in Services
1998), has created an important study phenomenon. It is claimed that, after decades of efforts by idealistic individuals and progressive institutions, HEI internationalisation has now become a key entrepreneurial issue for educational institutions (Reichert & Wächter 2000 p.32, Windham 1996 p.9).

However, there is no consensus as to what the concept “HEI internationalisation” means (Teichler 2002, Knight 1999, Callan 1998, Blok 1995) amongst either scholars or practitioners (see Söderqvist 2001b,c). Theories of HEI internationalisation are still practically non-existent (Teichler 2002, van Dijk 1995 p.19, Smith 1993 p. 5). The internationalisation of new higher-education institutions, the polytechnics, has seldom been analysed (van der Wende 1996). Internationalisation through the teaching of International Business has generated a wide range of studies, especially in the United States (e.g. Arpan 2001, 1993, Arpan & Kvok 2001, eds. Cavusgil & Horn 1997). The first and to the author’s knowledge the only comprehensive study of the state and dynamics of international business education in Europe concerned the years 1989-90 (Luostarinen & Pulkkinen 1991). Since internationalisation in this context is quite new, earlier research has been dispersed; scholars have covered various aspects of internationalisation according to their respective interests (see Söderqvist 2001b,c for review). In this research, HEI internationalisation is understood as a process from a national HEI towards an international HEI.

The HEI internationalisation is interrelated with another phenomenon in school development in 1990s, namely the birth of polytechnics, professional universities or universities of applied sciences in many European countries. As Sadlak (1998 p.101) puts it, "all societies, whether modern or modernising, post-industrial or developing, are experiencing increasing demand for access to higher education, foremost in order to respond to an increasing requirement for trained citizens for an economy which more and more depends upon knowledge-related skills and the ability to handle information... only higher-education institutions can produce such citizens in big numbers and varied kinds”.

Educational management is phasing in new schemes to integrate internationalisation into the general management of these newer and also of the older higher-education institutions (Wächter in ed. Crowther et al. 2000, Wächter et al. 1999
p.45, van der Wende 1999 p. 210, Callan 1998 p.54). Despite its importance, literature on education management is not very wide (e.g. Ekholm 1992) – and almost non-existent on international management.

Management of HEI internationalisation is rarely studied. Strategic thinking in the university context (Malkki 1999, ed. Mäkiä & Vakkuri 1998) and university strategies for internationalisation have been investigated (Saarinen 2000, Davies 1995). Although the international dimension is a serious concern and a development area in many educational institutions, the problem of how to implement it has not been solved. A need for new management in internationalisation has been expressed (e.g. Wächter et al.1999 p.45). Parsons (2001) is amongst the few who have studied the management of internationalisation in HEIs by making a comparative case study of the United Kingdom and Germany. None of the earlier studies known to the researcher covers the holistic management of internationalisation in higher-education institutions or emphasise the middle management of internationalisation even though a whole new professional grouping now exists (Söderqvist 2001b,c; Callan 1998).

In international business, internationalisation has usually been studied as an internationalisation process of firms or through the internationalisation of international business as a subject, but seldom through managing an international education organisation. Nevertheless, for example international business scholars like Sullivan (1998), Toyne & Nigh (1998) and Toyne (1989) propose that international business needs to progress beyond the firm just as other fields of management science have progressed in the last two decades.

Also, constructionist textual methods have not been commonly used in international business research (e.g. data research in JIBS archives 7.5.2002). According to the author’s knowledge, no review of the epistemological or ontological approaches used in international business studies has been published. Only a few IB scholars (e.g. Björkman 1999, Sullivan 1998, Toyne & Nigh 1998, Toyne 1989, Daniels 1981) have considered the importance of epistemological and ontological questions. As international business is quite new as a field of study, the few analytic articles have concentrated on the impact of authors, disciplines (marketing, management, economics, finance), Journal of International Business Studies Journal as such, and publishing in international

There has been a call for causal studies and advanced statistical methods, as well as for elaborating more longitudinal research. This seems to be in line with the positivist paradigm. Considering qualitative research from a more interpretative perspective that sees knowledge as a form of understanding can lead to revaluation of the full potential of qualitative research methods (Stayaert 1997). Interpreting requires a dialogue between the researcher and the texts as voiced by the interviewees (Denzin & Lincoln 2000). Using analytical and synthetic devices to interpret these texts, listening to them from the researcher’s context enacted through development of specific research questions and conceptual directions the researcher attempts to identify the shared understandings. The common epistemic values and the associated research procedures are not the only ones possible. It can be very fruitful to study a phenomenon with another type of knowledge production. What we see depends on what we expect to see, at least to a certain extent. Starting with different research designs produces new answers and contributes to a wider understanding of a phenomenon.

1.1.2 Research Problems

There are two interrelated phenomena to be studied. The first one concerns the conceptual confusion involved in the use of HEI internationalisation and related concepts, for example internationalisation of firms, internationalism, international business, international education, globalisation and Europeanisation amongst scholars (Söderqvist 2001b,c, Knight 1999, Callan 1998, Blok 1995) and practitioners (Field notes from Campo-meetings 26.3.2001, 15.12.2000 and the European Association of International Education (EAIE) conference and 5. - 8.12.2001 and 30.11. -1.12.2000) in the higher-education field. As Blok (1995 p.1) put it,

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2 Campo-meetings are unofficial meetings of the internationalisation managers of Finnish polytechnics held several times a year.
“There was no common conceptual framework for the definitions, aims and instruments of internationalisation. When colleagues from different countries discussed internationalisation, they often, quite unconsciously, had different things in their minds.”

Knight (1999 p.13) expressed the same view four years later:

“... it is clear that internationalisation means different things to different people and as a result there is a great diversity of interpretation attributed to the concept.”

Conceptual diversity easily leads to misunderstandings of the rationale behind internationalisation, the means required to achieve a particular objective, and the nature of the objectives themselves.

Second, moving from centrally managed institutions to decentralised management in the school context has created new situations. Rapid mass-internationalisation with the help of EU programmes has created completely new professional groups and tasks, such as the middle management of internationalisation. However, the administrative management tradition still exists (see e.g. Willman 2001). There is a non-systematic, non-holistic way of managing internationalisation in many higher-education institutions (Parsons 2000, Saarinen 2000, see also eds. Cavusgil & Horn 1997). Understandably, due to the different interpretations of the phenomenon, it has proved difficult to manage, since there is no common idea (see e.g. Söderqvist 2001a) of what is to be managed. Neither is it easy to provide a structure for the management or to set up an organisation, since there is no strategy for framing the crucial issues. Lack of a clear organisational agenda results at the individual level in experiences of high work-related stress. The persons responsible for internationalisation feel unsupported by the organisation in their work. Finally, if nothing is done to clarify the situation, job satisfaction tends to decrease and turnover to increase. High turnover leads to the need for initialising periods and to inefficiency.
1.1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were formed to study the management of internationalisation at higher-education institutions especially from the non-studied middle management’s point of view:

(1) What understandings are there of HEI internationalisation?
(2) How does middle management of internationalisation of higher-education institutions understand the management of HEI internationalisation?

The following sub-questions were formed to help to answer the research questions:

(1a) How has internationalisation been defined and understood in the research literature? How does it differ from the related concepts: international business, international education, internationalism, globalisation and Europeanisation? (ch. 4.4.5; Söderqvist 2001b,c)
(1b) What are the society level phenomena related to the mass-internationalisation of higher education in Europe in the 1990s? What are the rationales for internationalisation? (ch.4.4.4; Söderqvist 2001b,c)
(2a) What kinds of strategic and operative objectives, and what kinds of strategic measures and operative programmes, are included in the written documents\(^3\) outlining the planning of internationalisation? (ch 2.3; Söderqvist 2001a,b,c)
(2b) What are the dominating understandings of HEI internationalisation and its managing\(^4\)? How is managing of internationalisation constructed in higher-education institutions: What type of rational acting does internationalisation create? What type of actors does the managing of internationalisation create? (ch 4)

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\(^3\) Most of the EPSs are written by the middle managers.
\(^4\) Managing is used when referring to the discourse analysis; management elsewhere
1.1.4 Research Objectives

First, the study aims at analysing the existing understandings of the different concepts related to HEI internationalisation. Accordingly, it is presumed that an activity or a process cannot be managed without sharing an understanding of what it means. Second, the study aims at identifying the different shared understandings of the managing of HEI internationalisation, especially from the point of view of a new and non-studied professional group, middle management of internationalisation.

Due to the multidisciplinary nature of the phenomenon, (the MANAGEMENT OF INTERNATIONALISATION of HIGHER-EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS), the study draws from insights from international education-policy, international business as well as management and organisation research. There is a common understanding that internationalisation is a multidimensional concept in both international business in terms of the firm (Luostarinen 1979 p.200) and in international education in terms of higher education (Callan 1998 p.55).

For the reader with an international business background, the study aims at providing a contribution in the form of an understanding of the HEI internationalisation, and for the reader with an international education background the aim is to provide further understanding of managing HEI internationalisation. It is hoped that both types of readers will benefit from the synthesis of these two issues.

1.2 The Structure of the Study – Its Parts and Their Main Arguments and Major Findings

This study has been conducted in two phases. First, an objectivist research design was in use. The creation of a theoretical framework of HEI internationalisation and its management was based on a conceptual analysis of internationalisation. This framework was evaluated by doing a content analysis of all the Finnish European Policy Statements.

Based on that analysis it was understood that HEI internationalisation and its managing have different meanings for different actors in different levels. The mass-internationalisation took place so rapidly during the 1990s in Europe that the HEIs
practised internationalisation simultaneously with the development of the educational policy expressed in the policy documents. There was virtually no time gap between policy development and policy implementation. Hence, it became evident that social reality was constructed in a dynamic interplay between policy texts and international coordinators, i.e. HEI practitioners.

According to Lehtonen (1996), different social groups and their discourses are using the meanings for their own purposes. The meanings and their making are understood to be processual (Lehtonen 1996), similarly to the definition of internationalisation as a process (Söderqvist 2001b). To analyse the processual aspects and meanings (Steyaert 1997) of internationalisation, a shift towards more interpretative research approach was needed. Thus, the second phase of the study was conducted according to the social constructionist principles of study using discourse analysis as a method.

Accordingly, the study is divided into different parts. The Prologue of the study, Chapter 1, entitled “Introduction”, presents the research gap, research problems, research objectives, and the research questions. I argue that it is important to understand the different meanings of internationalisation and its managing in order to develop internationalisation and its managing in higher-education institutions.

Part 1, called “Mainstream Study Approach” consists of Chapter 2, entitled “Managing Internationalisation in Finnish higher-education institutions”, presents a framework of internationalisation and its management and evaluates that framework in the context of Finnish European Policy Statements. The chapter contributes to the conceptualisation of the dynamics of internationalisation at HEIs by analysing the concept and by focusing on its processual nature. I argue that if the proposed holistic management framework were used, management of the HEI internationalisation would be more efficient; explicit management processes would articulate more goal-oriented and concrete decision making and management processes. The main findings show that the management of the HEI internationalisation process seems to be neither systematic nor holistic, as maintained by Saarinen (2000) and Teichler (1999). The quality of learning, teaching and research would benefit from a more planned, structured and funded way of management of HEI internationalisation.
More management training is needed.

**Part two** entitled “*Social Constructionist Approach of the Second Phase of the Study*”, includes chapters three and four, which present the second phase of the study. The results of the first phase of the study made me realise that the methodology adopted for interpreting data did not fully cover all the aspects of the research phenomenon. To interpret data that fell through the cracks of analysis, I turned to social constructionist thinking. **Chapter 3**, entitled the “Social Constructionist Research Approach in Comparison to Mainstream Research Approach in International Business”, discusses the differences between positivism and social constructionism. It explains the aims of social constructionist research and what issues are important in the evaluation of social constructionist studies. The aim is to encourage researchers to learn that their current epistemic values and the associated research procedures they employ in order to be respectable scholars are not the only ones possible (Moisander 2001). I argue that studying a phenomenon like HEI internationalisation and its managing can be very fruitful with another type of knowledge production. What we see depends on, at least to a certain extent, on what we expect to see. Starting with very different research designs produces new answers and contributes to a wider understanding of a particular phenomenon.

**Chapter 4**, entitled “Discourses on ‘HEI Internationalisation’ and ‘Managing HEI Internationalisation’”, first discusses the different understandings of internationalisation identified in the interview data of rectors and middle management. The aim of this chapter is to identify and analyse the culturally shared meanings that guide and constrain the representation of internationalisation. Based on the empirical study, I argue that the existing discursive ways to understand internationalisation still create problems for the practical implementation of internationalisation at higher-education institutions. The second part of chapter 4 focuses on the managing of HEI internationalisation instead of internationalisation itself. Based on the empirical study, I argue that the existing ways to understand the role of “international coordinator” or “heads of international relations” restrict their professional behaviour. In the current phase of internationalisation in most HEIs, more managerial type of leadership is needed instead of existing administrative managerial tradition.
The last part, called “Epilogue” consists of Chapter 5, entitled “Post Reflections on the Study”. It concludes the study by summing up the main results, reflecting upon them and by making a number of suggestions for scholars concerned with the managing of HEI internationalisation, for middle-managers, rectors and educational policy makers. It also presents reflections on the research design used, especially on the blending together of two different paradigms.

The study is written in a way that separate chapters can also be read independently from each other, even though they form an entity.
PART ONE – MAINSTREAM STUDY APPROACH

2 MANAGEMENT OF HEI INTERNATIONALISATION

2.1. Introduction

This chapter investigates management of HEI internationalisation in the 1990s. It is argued that to manage the process of internationalisation of an HEI, a shared understanding of the concept of “internationalisation” is essential. The dynamics of mass HEI internationalisation in Europe in the 1990s are different from those in earlier circumstances. An analytical framework of managing HEI internationalisation is proposed. The conceptual elaboration is illustrated by evidence from the empirical research. It is believed that this conceptual elaboration may have significant implications for future research and for management purposes.

The internationalisation of higher education is a recent and significant phenomenon, not least, because such institutions are “a key institution of the knowledge society” (Scott 1998), or because “higher-education institutions have become central in modern society and their role has shifted from being a reflection of social, cultural and economic relationships to being a determinant of such relationships” (Sadlak 1998).

While internationalisation has matured in some markets and has been given another focus through governmental and inter-governmental actions, new forms such as presenting higher education as a commercial product in the global market (Mallea 2001, Hagen 1999, Oettli 1999, Hazell 1997) have arisen. Related to this maturation process is also the quality of internationalisation (ed. Wächter 1999, Knight 1999, de Winter 1996, ed. Snellman 1995, Smith 1993). Gibbons (1998) claims that the massification of higher-education institutions has given them a competitive advantage in today’s society of which not all of them are even aware.
The management of internationalisation in higher education is rarely studied. The problem of how to implement it has not been solved (Luostarinen & Pulkkinen 1991). A need for new management (Wächter et al. 1999) and a need to understand the birth of a whole new professional grouping and its consequences for management have been expressed (Callan 1998). Due to the different interpretations of the phenomenon (Söderqvist 2001b,c, Knight 1999, Callan 1998, Blok 1995), it is difficult to manage. Neither is it possible to give a structure or an organisation for the management, since there is no shared understanding to establish the issues that require attention.

The aim of this chapter is to elaborate on the management of HEI internationalisation. An analytical framework is developed (based on Söderqvist 2001b,c) for understanding and investigating management the process of HEI internationalisation. The chapter has the following structure. First, the concept of internationalisation in the context of higher education is discussed. Second, empirical evidence from Finland is given to illustrate and support the views of the framework presented above. The data includes European Policy Statements from all the Finnish higher-education institutions, from 1996 when the policies were first written and from 2000 when they had to be reviewed. A discussion section concludes the chapter.

2.2 The Conceptual Framework of the Internationalisation of Higher-Education Institutions

2.2.1 Knight’s View on Internationalisation

Knight’s (1994) definition

“internationalisation as the process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching and services functions of higher education”

is one of the most frequently cited definitions in publications on the recent European
HEI internationalisation. Also, Knight (1999) introduced a typology of four different approaches to internationalisation: the activity, competency, ethos and process approaches. The activity approach uses different categories such as curriculum, student/faculty exchanges and international degree students to describe internationalisation. The competency approach emphasises the outcomes of education, which means that it is of increasing interest to identify and define global and international competencies. The ethos view has the emphasis on the culture or the climate on campus promoting and supporting intercultural initiatives. The process view, taken as a basis in this study, is of integrating international or intercultural dimensions into teaching, research and service through the combination of a wide range of activities, policies and procedures. Knight further claimed that her definition applied to both programme and organisational strategies. Programme strategies refer to academic activities such as teaching and research. Organisational strategies were defined as policies, procedures, systems and supporting infrastructures that facilitate and sustain the international dimension of the HEI.

2.2.2 Van der Wende: Internationalisation, An Educational Innovation and a Change Process

Van der Wende (1996) used the curriculum approach to study the internationalisation of new HEIs in connection with a large OECD study. She studied the essential characteristics of the internationalised curriculum, the potential for its application and the consequences. The characteristics were divided into formal and operational, the application procedure into process and influential factors, and the consequences into short-term and long-term consequences.

The most interesting idea of the study, however, was that internationalising the curriculum is a process of educational change aimed at improving the quality of education. The theory of educational innovation was explained to include five important ideas. First, educational innovation can be explained in terms of the different phases that can be distinguished within the change process. This is in accordance with how Luostarinen (1970, 1979) treated the issue in his internationalisation model for the firm
and with Pulkkinen (1991) for education. Van der Wende stated that three parts are usually distinguished in the educational change process: adoption, implementation, and institutionalisation. Luostarinen and Pulkkinen referred to the start, development, growth and maturation stages.

Second, educational innovation has different dimensions, social, organisational and behavioural changes, some of which were also referred to in Knight’s model. Third, various actors play different roles in the process. Fourth, the process is determined by the characteristics of the innovation itself, the innovation strategy and the institutional setting, and the international environment in which it takes place. Fifth, it is a lengthy process often characterised by many obstacles and interim adjustments.

2.2.3. Luostarinen’s & Pulkkinen’s View: Stages and Dynamics of Internationalisation

Luostarinen & Pulkkinen (1991) were the first and to the author’s knowledge the only ones in Europe to study internationalisation in terms of international business education. However, this approach has been in use in the United States since 1969, newest study is from 2001 (Arpan & Kwok 2001). Luostarinen & Pulkkinen described internationalisation through ten variables and four stages. The variables covered three main components of international business education: substance (curriculum), organisation (structure) and people (faculty and students). However, what is more interesting in Luostarinen’s studies, is the dynamics of internationalisation rather than examples of variables used for explaining the internationalisation of education, and especially one subject in it, international business. Luostarinen & Pulkkinen explained the dynamics through certain core concepts in the evolution process, hence comparable to van der Wende’s way of studying the HEI internationalisation as a process of educational change.

2.2.4 Proposed Framework

Based on the views above, a conceptual framework laying out the key factors and constructs and the presumed relationships between them (Miles & Hubermann 1994 p.440) was formed (Söderqvist 2001b) to provide analytical tools for describing and understanding HEI internationalisation as a basis for its management. The framework
consists of the definition, its illustration in four figures, and of eight propositions, the first of which suggests that recent internationalisation seemed to evolve through five stages. The other seven concern the various aspects of management of HEI internationalisation. It is postulated that, in order to understand the dynamics of educational change at HEIs, four basic factors should be taken into consideration: the educational setting, the environment, the innovation itself and the change strategy (Dalin 1978, 1989 in van der Wende 1996c p.28). The educational setting is said to be one of professional bureaucracy. The environment is highly complex, involving multilevel organisation and dynamic alliances and networking. Internationalisation itself incorporates two elements of change, namely interaction and management. The most important element as far as this study is concerned is the last one, change strategy. Individual and organisational strategies are distinguished, but the focus is on organisational strategies.

2.2.4.1 The Internationalisation of a Higher-Education Institution – the Definition, Its Operationalisation and Its Illustration

Knight’s definition has been extended (Söderqvist 2001b,c) by taking into account educational change process view (van der Wende’s 1996) and holistic view on management (Luostarinen 1991, 1979). The internationalisation of HEIs was defined as follows:

The internationalisation of a higher-education institution is a change process from a national HEI into an international HEI leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and research and to achieve the desired competencies.

Figure 1: Söderqvist’s Definition of HEI Internationalisation

The above discussion is illustrated in the four figures (figures 2-5) below. Knight’s programme strategies were analysed and a hierarchical structure, with some changes to the contents for each of them, is proposed (figures 2-4). The adapted versions are
intended to help to explain the relationships between the different activities influencing implication of management strategies. Söderqvist’s understanding of HEI internationalisation is compiled for the fourth figure (figure 5), including the aims of HEI internationalisation, the stages of mass-internationalisation in the 1990s (see Table 1 and its explanations), and the internal and external environments of this phenomenon (see discussion in chapter 4.4). Also, the confusing neighbouring concepts (discussed more in ch 4.4.5 and in Söderqvist 2001b,c) are presented at their places in figure 5.

The external environment is influenced by important simultaneous societal phenomena. These are said to be globalisation, commercialisation, legislation, and funding. Globalisation is understood to differ from HEI internationalisation; it is not just a more modern word meaning the same thing as internationalisation. In globalisation, the events of one country/continent have an impact on those in another country/continent. Legislation is understood to frame the context of HEI internationalisation at many levels: regional, national and European. For example, massification of education is a trend in Europe. Also, an important supervising element of internationalisation, has an influence on HEI internationalisation at the regional, national and European level. Commercialisation is connected with the neo-liberal values and capitalism gaining importance in today’s society. Higher education is becoming a marketable and accountable service like any other product on the international market. GATS is an example of this trend.

The internal environment is influenced at least by two major phenomena: ethos approach to internationalisation (Knight 1999) and the type of organisation. The ethos approach concerns the culture on campus: whether it promotes and supports intercultural activities. HEIs are characterised as professional bureaucracies (see 4.4), which implies inertia, resistance to central directives, and decentralisation of expertise and autonomy as well as the liberty to pursue knowledge and an opportunity to enjoy independence of means and mind and intellectual autonomy.

Figure 5 depicts HEI internationalisation as consisting of the five stages that are explained in more detail in Table 1 (p. 39) and in the discussion after the table.

It is argued that HEI internationalisation has two main aims, which are given in the right corner of the figure, either competency building or enhancement of quality.
Competency building is especially present in the new HEIs (see chapter 2.3) and enhancement of quality is understood to be a major aim in all the HEI functions; it becomes visible, for example, in benchmarking activities and peer-reviewed articles.

Mobility and networking are examples of the main tools for HEI internationalisation in Europe, illustrated by arrows passing through the different stages of HEI internationalisation. For some, mobility is a synonyme for HEI internationalisation, but here it is understood to be only one of the major tools for implementation of HEI internationalisation. To have mobility and curriculum development, networking - another important tool - is essential.

The theme of this dissertation, management of HEI internationalisation, is argued to be especially important in the institutionalisation of HEI internationalisation stage. Some examples of other important activities connected with other stages are also given in figure 5, such as language and culture efforts, dissemination of results, joint research efforts, and presentation of the results of joint research efforts.

It is argued that HEI internationalisation suffers from conceptual unclarity. This is the reason why the terms “internationalism”, “international education”, “international business”, “globalisation” and “EU” (for “Europeanisation”) are included in the figure 5 (see chapter 4.4.5). Internationalism is understood to be a value, an aim, towards which the process of internationalisation brings us. Internationalisation of HEIs is understood to be the change process of a national HEI into an international HEI. International education and international business are two subjects taught in HEIs, and thus important, especially in the internationalisation of the curricula and research stage. Globalisation and Europeanisation are understood to be phenomena shaping the external environment of HEI internationalisation.
Academic programmes

Mobility
- incoming and outgoing
  - short-term/long-term

Teacher mobility

Student mobility

Language studies and communication studies

Curricula for the institute's own students

Curricula for visiting students

Study abroad
  - Short or long visits
  - Degree studying

Work abroad

Foreign languages

The country's language to visitors

Content teaching in a foreign language

Cross-cultural communication

Curricula accepted abroad

Curricula accepted at home

Courses

Modules

Degrees

Joint modules

Joint degrees

Double degrees

Includes international subject

International comparative approach

Area studying

Compulsory parts taught abroad by home-institute lecturers

Figure 2: Academic Programmes (Developed from Knight 1999) © Minna Söderqvist
Figure 3: Research and Scholarly Collaboration (Developed from Knight 1999) © Minna Söderqvist
Figure 4: External Relations and Services (Developed from Knight 1999) ©Minna Söderqvist
FIGURE 5: SÖDERQVIST’S INTERNATIONALISATION OF A HIGHER-EDUCATION INSTITUTION
(Developed from Söderqvist 2001b) © Minna Söderqvist 2002

AIMS:
1) Competency Building
   (a school)
2) Enhancement of
   Internationalisation of Institutionalisation
3) Commercialisation of
   Quality (more intense competition)

1. Marginal Activity
   2. Student Mobility
e.g. Language and Culture-related Efforts

3. Internationalisation of Curricula and Research
   International Education
   International Business
   Teaching: e.g. Joint Curricula
   Research: Joint Efforts
   Dissemination of Results
   Presentation of Results

4. Institutionalisation of Internationalisation
   Management of Internationalisation

5. Commercialisation of the Outcomes of Internationalisation

Internal environment: Ethos (The Culture – whether it promotes and supports internationalisation), Type of organisation (Public institution/professional bureaucracy)

External environment: Globalisation, Commercialisation (accountability, commodification), Legislation (EU, national, regional), Funding
2.2.4.2 Management of HEI Internationalisation

Since the internationalisation of an HEI is understood as a dynamic change process, it calls for a holistic perspective; change in an institution is a holistic change, hence the reference to a holistic management system (e.g. Hill & Jones 1998, Hunt et al. 1997, Luostarinen 1979). Such a system is said to include several subsystems, namely information, planning, organisation, implementation, and evaluation, financing being an important dimension in all of them (see figure 6). The management system includes the structure of the previously-mentioned subsystems and a system description. When strategic management is implemented it is crucial to analyse, according to all these components, what is done, by whom, to whom, when, how, with what budget and under whose responsibility. Project management (Brown 1999; Guss 1998, Jessen 1998) is one of the tools for the implementation.

![Diagram of Holistic Management System](image)

**HEI INTERNATIONALISATION**

Management based on planning is understood to fulfil its aims better than management based on emergent strategies because of the systemmatic thinking involved. It is assumed that the objectives of internationalisation are phrased and communicated – otherwise it
is impossible to evaluate whether the desired outcomes were achieved. The definition further emphasises that the planning of this process is a holistic two-level-action, with strategic and operative aspects. This is illustrated in figure 7.

**Figure 7: A Holistic Planning System for the HEI Internationalisation, Adapted from Luostarinen (1999)**
Internationalisation is said to influence the holistic functioning of the HEI, and to require active participation and development together with institutions of other countries (Ammatillisen koulutuksen kansainvälistäminen 1998). Thus, strategic management is called for. Clarkson and Walls (1995) echo this by claiming that HEI internationalisation, as a holistic phenomenon, with its language-competence needs and multiculturalism ideals, represents a challenge to the directors of the institutional change process, who have to develop their own and their employees’ preparedness for internationalisation, as well as to develop an international network.

Organisational change is a key aspect of strategic management. It is defined as a complex and difficult process for organisations to manage successfully, the first problem being to make managers realise that change is necessary and to admit that there is a problem. Once the need is recognised, actions can be taken and the potential obstacles to change can be analysed. It needs to be appreciated, however, that organisations are not just rational decision-making systems in which managers calculate the potential returns on their investments; instead, they are arenas of power in which individuals and groups fight over prestige and the possession of scarce resources. If strategic change is to be managed effectively, the politics and conflicts need to be handled creatively. The most successful organisations are those in which changes are regarded as the norm and managers are constantly seeking to improve organisational strengths and eliminate weaknesses so that they can maximise the future goals. (Hill & Jones 1998, Luostarinen 1979).

2.2.4.3 Propositions

1) **Mass-internationalisation of higher education institutions evolves through five stages.**

The five stages may include characteristics from an earlier stage, and it should be noted that not all organisations proceed in this order. The five stages are described below:
| **Zero stage**  
| Internationalisation as Marginal Activity | - There are some free movers  
| | - Internationalisation is an exotic and status phenomenon – some important actors in the organisation travel to conferences  
| | - Foreign languages are taught  
| **First stage**  
| Student Mobility | - Awareness of the need to internationalise  
| | - Commitment to planning and implementing different programmes enhancing the mobility of students  
| | - Creation of international offices to handle the routines of student mobility  
| | - Internationalisation is taken as an end in itself  
| | - ECTS becomes an important tool to facilitate counselling and the acknowledgement of foreign studies  
| **Second stage**  
| Curriculum and Research Internationalisation | - Awareness of teachers necessary to make internationalisation of the curriculum and research possible  
| | - Organising of teacher mobility  
| | - Internationalisation taken as a means to enhance the quality of education  
| | - Different ways to internationalise the curriculum  
| | - Appointment of international coordinators to handle curriculum and research internationalisation  
| **Third stage**  
| Institutionalisation of Internationalisation | - Internationalisation is given a strategy and a structure  
| | - Networking both through cheap travel and new ICT; partnerships and strategic alliances  
| | - The quality of internationalisation is receiving more attention  
| | - Multiculturalism  
| | - Appointment of an internationalisation manager  
| **Fourth stage**  
| Commercialising the Outcomes of Internationalisation | - Exporting education services  
| | - Franchising education services  
| | - Licensing  
| | - Joint ventures  
| | - Strategic alliances  
| | - Creation of organs to promote commercialisation  

Table 1: Söderqvist’s Stages of HEI Internationalisation  
©Minna Söderqvist

The table can be illustrated by some examples. At the “internationalisation as marginal activity” stage, internationalisation is regarded as something exotic. Only top
management and the small circle around it is concerned. Teachers are lucky to get funding to attend international conferences. Foreign languages are taught and some special courses show that international affairs are taken into account. Some students travel to study in institutions abroad, but there is no organised activity and no system for including such studies in their degrees.

At the “student mobility” stage, internationalisation is taken as an end in itself, as a serious activity including not only inward and outward student exchange, but also joint projects and courses that provide students with an opportunity to travel and meet each other within the study context. The biggest contribution of the organisation is to organise practical affairs, housing, registration, counselling in many forms for both ingoing and outgoing students, and the dissemination of results: an office for setting up the routines is created.

The “curriculum and research internationalisation” stage gives a clue to the activities. Internationalisation is taken as a means of enhancing the quality of education. The HEIs aim to have more influence on all the students from its internationalisation efforts than it has only as a result of student mobility: internationalisation at home is called for. Also, teachers start to travel more in order to lay the basis for collaborative and project-based courses. This can prove to be very problematic; teachers need to be informed, motivated, rewarded, and helped with the practical arrangements at both the sending and the receiving ends. These projects require more personnel.

At the third stage, “institutionalisation of internationalisation”, it seems that if all the possible outcomes are to be achieved in terms of the personal and organisational costs pertinent to internationalisation, it has to be institutionalised and it has to have a structure and a strategy. When people already have their personal networks, it is easier for them to use new ICT to co-ordinate and co-operate. The quality of the process and of the outcomes require still more attention. When many nationalities and cultures are in contact every day, multicultural issues are raised. Activities increase, and the process of internationalisation spreads throughout the organisation, creating the need for an internationalisation manager.

At the “commercialising the outcomes of the internationalisation” stage, educational institutions receive less money from governments and they need the same
amount as earlier in order to guarantee the desired pedagogical and research results (e.g. Parsons 2000). Different types of non-investment international operations are used, such as exporting, franchising and licensing. Internationalisation starts to resemble the description in the “Internationalisation of the Firm” (Luostarinen 1979), and further elaborated by Luostarinen and those who have adopted his framework.

Luostarinen & Pulkkinen presented their stages model in 1991, based on an analysis of the state and dynamics of International Business Education in 1989 – 90. There are four major differences from the present analysis. The first is the moment of time, since this analysis is being carried out ten years later. Second, the Luostarinen & Pulkkinen analysis focused on internationalisation of a university through International Business education, whereas the focus in the present analysis is on the internationalisation process of an organisation, i.e. an HEI. A third difference concerns the present role of the European Union in influencing the mass internationalisation that took place in the 1990s. A fourth difference is the rapid speed of change and its impact on the evolution of higher-education institutions.

Both of these analyses are based on a process view. Luostarinen & Pulkkinen’s study was derived from Luostarinen’s extensive work on the internationalisation of the firm in Finland. The present analysis, however, was in addition to that based on Knight’s process view and on van der Wende’s view that internationalisation represents an educational innovation. The main differences between these starting points are the following: The present author has considered internationalisation and its stages as a means towards the enhancement of the quality of research and teaching (Knight 1994), whereas, Luostarinen & Pulkkinen do not explicitly state why universities should internationalise. Luostarinen & Pulkkinen also suggested different dimensions of internationalisation. Their ten variables were divided into four stages, whereas in this new proposal, the following stage includes the activities or elements of the preceding one. The dimensions are grouped differently according to the influence of the European Union’s programmes and their demands, e.g. the present author’s curriculum development includes Luostarinen & Pulkkinen’s faculty, language studies, language of instruction and orientation, as can be seen from Figure 2, which sets out the author’s understanding of international curricula and mobility. As such, dimensions such as
institutionalisation, networking, IT, quality, multiculturalism and commercialisation do not exist in the earlier model, possibly due to the increased influence of the last five years in today’s society compared with the society of the late 1980s.

Management of HEI internationalisation can be described as in Figure 8, and then be split into seven propositions:

"Based on an analysis of its external and internal environment it is desired in a public higher-education institution to actively and systematically manage the change process from a national HEI into an international HEI leading to including an international dimension in all the parts of holistic strategic and operative management, namely information, planning, organising, implementing and evaluating; financing being an important element in all of them, in order to enhance the quality of the desired outcomes of internationalisation at the higher-education institution in question. These desired outcomes can be grouped under teaching and research. Mobility, networking and management are the main tools for achieving them. Operative management works best if the HEI internationalisation change process from a national HEI to an international HEI is divided into several projects; project management serves as the theoretical basis for the actions taken.

Figure 8: Söderqvist’s Integrated Understanding of HEI Internationalisation and Its Management (Adapted from Söderqvist 2001b) ©Minna Söderqvist 2002

There are several assumptions on which this is based. The first is that internationalisation is a dynamic change process (Knight 1999, van der Wende 1996, Luostarinen 1979, Johansson & Wahlne 1977). “Dynamic” means that the result or output of a previous decision/action/stage influences the following one, or constitutes the input for it (Luostarinen 1979, Johansson & Wahlne 1977). Second, HEI internationalisation is assumed to be an educational innovation/change (van der Wende 1996) implying that different stages - usually adoption, implementation and institutionalisation - are to be found within the process. Third, it is assumed to be an evolutionary process, a product of a series of incremental decisions (Luostarinen 1979, 1970, Johanson & Wahlne 1977) influenced by learning and lateral rigidity in a similar way as in the internationalisation of the firm (Luostarinen 1979). Fourth, being a complex process (Callan 1998, van der Wende 1996), it is assumed that a systematic holistic approach to management leads to better results than an ad-hoc or emergent
strategy would produce.

In the following, the figure 8 is split into seven propositions that are discussed briefly:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2)</td>
<td>The strategic objective of the internationalisation process is the enhanced quality of the desired outcomes of teaching and research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3)</td>
<td>The desired outcomes of teaching and research are decided on the basis of an analysis of external and internal environments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4)</td>
<td>Internationalisation as a change process means the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of holistic management. In the planning system, the desired outcomes are expressed when strategic and operative objectives are communicated through planning documents.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second proposition is based on Knight’s (1999) definition of internationalisation. The desired outcomes are in the fields of teaching and research.

The third proposition is based on the holistic-management principle (Luostarinen 1999, 1979; Hill & Jones 1998) according to which the information system analyses the environment and establishes the basis for the planning of internationalisation. Let us give an example of the institutionalisation stage. The desired outcome may be the institutionalisation of international activities, in which case the higher-education institution has to have the necessary financing and administrative procedures, a clear structure, and an expressed internationalisation strategy. The present author would like to emphasise that it is not relevant to discuss what items should be internationalised without knowing the objectives of the internationalisation.

Strategic objectives include the mission, the vision and long-term objectives. Operative objectives can be seen in short-term plans, budgets and programmes concerning how to achieve the strategic objectives. A management system comprises information, planning, organising, implementation, and evaluation systems, financing being an important dimension in all of them. Operative planning does not only comprise budgeting; planning of the organising and the implementing go hand in hand with

5) Organisational changes caused by and needed for the internationalisation of higher education are planned actively and systematically through project management.

Active management differs from the more passive “carrying out of orders from the education authorities” type of functioning, and the systematic approach is emphasised. Project management (Brown 1999, Jessen 1998) is said to offer good tools for planning the management of internationalisation and incorporates the integrated management of scope, time, cost, and human relations.

6) Mobility and networking are some tools for achieving the desired outcomes of the internationalisation of the higher-education institution.

The European Union’s influence on mass internationalisation is clear (Teichler 1999). As mobility and networking are emphasised in programmes such as Socrates, Erasmus and Leonardo, planning their use is important if internationalisation is to proceed smoothly.

7) There are many actors involved in the process of internationalisation on the institutional level: rectors, internationalisation officers, teachers and other administrative staff.

There are many actors involved in the internationalisation process, all of whom should be named, appreciated and given enough resources. Actors can be identified by analysing the activities, and especially in the case of teachers, bearing in mind the history of independent professionals, a structure must be created that embraces them all. The commitment of all the actors is needed. This can be stated in terms of organisational values, for example, but it needs to be seen in practice at the action level. Students are part of the higher-education institution, but they do not have a planning role.

8) Since the internationalisation of higher-education institutions is a process, it demands gradual and continuous development of the different systems along with its own development.

2.3 Content Analysis of Finnish European Policy Statements

Finland is active in educational and research co-operation in the European Union. Special attention is given to the implementation of EU educational and research programmes, as well as to the removal of obstacles to mobility. The Finnish higher-education system was developed in the 1990s according to a dual model; universities and polytechnics complemented each other. In terms of university activities, basic scientific research and researcher education, as well as basic education, are emphasised. Universities are responsible for the continuous growth of the research volume in our knowledge-intensive society, for ensuring the supply of researchers and high-quality labour, and for producing scientific knowledge, often as a basis for innovations. The task of polytechnics is to foster the connection between industries and know-how development to serve the needs of small and medium companies and of different areas. Polytechnics are developing research and development together with industries, and are producing experts to meet industrial needs. (Suomalainen koulutus 1999)

2.3.1 Methodological issues

The Finnish European Policy Statements (1-4-pages documents written in order to obtain EU funding) of all the Finnish universities and polytechnics from the year 1996 when they were first written and from the year 2000 when they were reviewed were studied (Söderqvist 2001a, b). All in all, 224 pages of naturally-occurring data were available for analysis, and another 484 pages provided background information. Applied content analysis was the method of analysis. It is emphasised that the aim of the analysis was to evaluate the proposed framework, not to conduct a major empirical study. The research question 2a, "What kind of strategic and operative objectives and what kind of strategic measures and operative programmes are included in the written
documents outlining the planning of internationalisation?" served as the basis for the analysis of the documents. Four rounds of analysis were conducted with separate aims (Söderqvist 2001c). The European Statement Policies were chosen, despite their limitations, since they are acknowledged to be the only strategic material that all the Finnish HEIs have prepared with more-or-less similar aims in mind, presenting their internationalisation strategy together with their aims related to the EU programmes.

2.3.2 Guidelines to Follow when Writing the EPS Strategies

The HEIs had a free hand to write the EPS strategies without any specific structure. According to the Socrates Guidelines (2000), the higher-education institution should describe its general plan for strategic development over the medium term, and set out its short-to medium-term strategy for European co-operation in the European Policy Statement. European Policy Statements seemed to have three functions (Ollikainen 1997):

1) they describe the institution and its aims, its strengths and its needs for development, thus making the other parts of the application understandable
2) they provide publicity for the Commission
3) they reflect the history and traditions of action in a particular institution.

In addition to the EU guidelines, the Finnish HEIs use the development plan of the Ministry of Education (1999). According to this, the primary objective of international co-operation is to support the birth of high-quality education and research. International co-operation in education and research supports the internationalisation of the Finnish economy and promotes Finnish know-how. The internationalisation of the curriculum, joint education and research projects and international mobility all contribute to the achievement of language and communication competence, tolerance, cultural knowledge and all-round education. Content teaching in foreign languages must be of high quality. One of the main focuses of Finland’s EU policy is the development of the northern dimension, i.e. the setting of the scene for addressing the special questions and problems related to the economic and social development of Lapland, Russian
Karelia and the Barents area.

However, EPS strategies could also be seen as written elements of the holistic management system, involving the planning and implementation of strategies based on the analysis of the internal and external environment, and involving information, planning, organisational and evaluation systems.
### 2.3.3 Table 2: Findings Based on the Content Analysis of EPSs from Finnish HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Role of EPSs</td>
<td>Majority: EPS = internationalisation strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minority: Both and: EPSs as the only internationalisation strategy and EPSs as European Strategies exist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some: Not possible to draw any conclusion of the state of affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Structure of EPSs</td>
<td>Very varying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Influence of Socrates I on HEI internationalisation</td>
<td>Papers informed that Socrates I had helped in the internationalisation of institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internationalisation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finnish HEIs’ stages</td>
<td>Majority: student mobility – stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many indicated that curriculum internationalisation is their major focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Only one: commercialisation of the outcomes of internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integrated Understanding of Managing HEI Internationalisation (see figure 8)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Taking into Consideration the Action Premises</td>
<td>Actions were not justified with an analysis of the situation/changes of internal and external action premises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Active and Systematic Way of Management</td>
<td>1) Lack of reporting of scheduled and budgeted plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Aims a) Universities: activity related aims b) Polytechnics: competency development aims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Proposed actors do exist, but often even if the titles of the persons are the same, their tasks differ considerably</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Change Process</td>
<td>Change process not commented, neither project management as a tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. International Dimension of Functions of Holistic Management</td>
<td>1) These functions were not referred to in a systematic way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Evaluation is mentioned in all polytechnic EPSs and in few university EPSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) International dimension is not mentioned - and could not be mentioned as the functions were not mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Enhancement of Quality of the Desired Outcomes</td>
<td>1) Quality of outcomes was referred to in all desired outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Enhancement of quality is the objective of internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Teaching and Research as the Desired Outcomes</td>
<td>1) Manifold activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Mobility and Networking as Main Tools</td>
<td>2) In universities emphasis on research - in polytechnics research also important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1) Mobility and networks are the main tools carrying out activities under the theme of internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Regional clusters between universities and polytechnics found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3a) Universities: 60% of them report industrial networking and 30% regional networking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3b) Polytechnics: 100% of them report industrial networking and 100% regional networking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4 Concluding Discussion

The aim of this chapter has been to discuss the concept of management of HEI internationalisation. The study showed that the conceptual confusion surrounding HEI internationalisation cited in the literature persists. This chapter contributes to the conceptualisation of the dynamics of internationalisation in HEIs by analysing the concept thoroughly and by focusing on its process nature. The current understanding of the process and the dynamics of internationalisation in higher-education institutions leaves room for improvement. This chapter attempts to deepen understanding by comparing analysis from different fields of science, i.e. international business and international education.

It was argued that if the proposed holistic management framework were used the management of HEI internationalisation would be more efficient in the sense that explicit management processes would articulate more goal-oriented and concrete decision-making and management practises. Better results could be achieved with less effort. New solutions to the management problems could be found both in the theoretical and practical level. The above claims are justified by referring to the complex issues related to the rapid "mass internationalisation" of the 1990s (e.g. Callan 1998) and to internationalisation of firms as such (e.g. Luostarinen 1979). A systematic treatment would better ensure consideration of all the different aspects and dimensions of internationalisation. Also, this claim is supported by experimental knowledge, as the researcher has worked for some years in the middle management of internationalisation at two higher education institutions.

The empirical analysis has implications for management of the higher-education institutions. The findings presented in table 2 are briefly discussed here. The investigation showed that management of the internationalisation process seems to be neither systematic nor holistic, as it was also argued by Saarinen (2000) and Teichler (1999). Nor is the internationalisation process itself understood as a holistic system. The quality of learning, teaching and research would benefit from a more planned,
structured and funded way of management of internationalisation. Many of the findings suggest that more management training is needed at the middle management level. As the acting heads of internationalisation at polytechnics are often former teachers and in universities former administrators, they do not necessarily have any management education to help them in their new tasks. Management education would increase their overall competence, provide them with an understanding of the different levels of management, and help them to use the different existing management tools, both in strategic management concerning visions and in operative management concerning operative plans and their implication. Also, results indicate that discussions related to the existence of different levels of strategic planning (i.e. European strategy v.s. International Strategy of an HEI) or that handling international relations is not equal to internationalising the whole institution, in other words changing the HEI from a domestic institution to an international institution, are needed. Also, since many HEIs already have extensive networks, it would be wise from the managerial point of view to use these networks more efficiently and develop them towards real alliances between higher-education institutions. Second, clearer instructions are requested from the EU authorities. One plan cannot serve both as a strategic and an operative plan as the instructions now indicate if there is a strict limitation of pages. Also, for the sake of coherence, the private type management culture applied increasingly at the national level should be applied at the EU level as well.

The present investigation opens up several paths for further studies, of which deeper analysis of the managing the process of HEI internationalisation is chosen and is reported in chapters 3 and 4.
PART TWO – SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST APPROACH OF THE SECOND PHASE OF THE STUDY

3 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST RESEARCH APPROACH IN COMPARISON TO MAINSTREAM RESEARCH APPROACH IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

"Scientific thinking is fundamentally cooperative, social and cannot proceed far without the stimulus of outside contacts”
Frédéric Bartlett, 1958

3.1 Introduction

This chapter has two aims. It presents my own research topic as a part of international business (IB) research field on the one hand and the assumptions behind the use of the methodology in the second part of this doctoral study on the other. The EU and the phenomenon of globalisation have expanded the concept of internationalisation to many fields and contexts. Also, the management science approach has spread from companies to other sectors of society. The existing IB knowledge should be applied in these new contexts. New, less researched areas of interest are opening up for IB research.

Also, with a thorough presentation of IB research, I aim at showing how IB research would benefit from a new line of inquiry using the social constructionist approach, and how an interpretative turn would assist other social sciences in
benefitting from the results of IB research.

### 3.1.1 A Gap in International Business Methodologies

Increasing interest on the part of the social sciences in methodological, epistemological and ontological questions cannot be ignored by international business (IB) scholars. Based mostly on a review of articles on these topics in the Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS), JIBS as the flagship of IB research (Sullivan 1998), I argue that only a few IB scholars (e.g. Björkman 1999, Sullivan 1998, Toyne & Nigh 1998, Toyne 1989, Daniels 1981) have considered the importance of epistemological and ontological questions. Most of the scholars reviewed have tried to refute the articulated and unarticulated criticism that IB is not a valid area of research. To further legitimise IB as a research topic, they have called for conceptual, integrative analysis and rigorous use of quantitative methods.

However, as IB research has existed since the 1950s (Wright & Ricks 1994), it is the time to move forward. It is now time to ‘see the forest’ from the trees and to consider, in addition to the rigorous use of tools to measure one particular tree, what kind of a forest the trees make up (Sullivan 1998, Boddewyn 1981). The time has come for us IB scholars to ponder our idea of reality and truth and the basic aim of our research. Once we have reflected upon these questions, we shall have more knowledge about the “right” types of methodology and methods.

As enormous progress has been going on in the social sciences (see e.g. eds. Denzin & Lincoln 2000), IB research could make use of the knowledge developed by other social scientists (Toyne & Nigh 1998). Also, in interaction the major social sciences could consider IB’s contributions to an understanding, for example, of the processes of globalisation. IB has been explicitly defined by Nehrt, Truitt and Wright (1970) to concern firm level activities across national boundaries. As opposed to this narrow view of IB (see also Sullivan 1998), IB scholars like Toyne & Nigh (1998) have argued that IB should progress beyond the boundaries of the firm as other management science fields like marketing and management have done. As early as 1992, Melin called for symbolic
interactionism and sensemaking processes. Sullivan (1998) argued that interpretation makes sense in the complexity of today’s world. These ideas are understood to be behind the social constructionist approach (Denzin & Lincoln 2000, Steyaert 1997).

The contribution of this chapter is to show why a turn towards more interpretative approaches based on the social constructionist thinking of science making would be beneficial to IB researchers. New types of questions could be set and new types of answers obtained. The knowledge found would fulfil the aim of social constructionism, i.e. to understand and reconstruct the constructions that people initially hold, aiming toward consensus but still open to new interpretations as information and sophistication improve (Guba & Lincoln 1994 p.113). Discourses and the assumptions, beliefs, ideas, norms and values related to them construct, guide and limit the choices in the organisations. When they are identified they can be discussed. The writing and studying researcher would be openly and honestly brought forward instead of trying to replicate the mantra of objectivity (Suoranta 1996).

3.1.2 Structure of Chapter Three

First, in chapter 3.2 I shall present three discourses on IB research based on a discourse analysis of the review of JIBS archives from 1970 to date5. Some other evidence of research done by IB scholars known by the author will also be presented. The first discourse identified is about the existence of IB - whether it is a valid research topic. The second is about the focus of IB research and what it should be (MNE, firm level activities across national boundaries, taking into consideration the environments). The third is about what is the “right” research type with the emphasis on the conceptual, rigorous, integrated, normative research, and less reference to the methodological, epistemological and ontological issues.

Second, I shall present social constructionism and its evaluation criteria as one way to take advantage of scientific advancements in other areas of social sciences and present qualitative research from that angle. I shall discuss issues like post-modern views of truth, research, and the role of the researcher. I shall try to show how IB research would benefit from this newer approach and refer to some basic differences

5 The analysis is done at the same way than in chapter 4, where the way to analyse is presented thoroughly.
presented by Lincoln & Guba (2000). According to them, the ontological beliefs of social constructionism are relativism, and local and specific constructed realities, whereas positivism and post-positivism are seen to be based on reality. In other words, in constructionism truth is relative; it is related to a specific situation, time and place. Epistemologically, social constructionism is transactional and subjectivist, and its findings are seen to be created, whereas epistemologically positivism is dualist and objectivist, and its findings are considered to be true. Methodologically, social constructionism is seen to be hermeneutic and dialectic, whereas positivism is seen to be experimental and manipulative, to verify hypotheses and to use quantitative methods. Post-positivism is understood to differ moderately from positivist thinking, to apply a modified experimental/manipulative approach, to practice critical multiplicity, and to consider falsification of hypotheses. It may include qualitative methods, but with the same type of aims as quantitative methods.

As knowledge is understood to be social, it cannot be separated from the knower. The evaluation criteria in social constructionism differ from those of positivism or post-positivism. Smith & Deemer (2000) argue that judgement criteria should be taken as a list of features that are agreed on in a particular time and place, a list that can be challenged, added to, subtracted from and modified. Denzin & Lincoln (2000) discuss this wish to say farewell to criteriology, but still propose several criteria for validity.

Third, I shall present one loose theoretical framework that is part of social constructionism (Jokinen et al. 1993, Potter & Wetherell 1987), namely discourse analysis, as an opportunity to apply the social constructionist research approach.

The choices regarding research and science making made for this second phase of the doctoral study are presented together with the data analysis, findings, and discussion in chapter 4.
3.2 Three Discourses on International Business Research

3.2.1 "Validation of International Business as a Research Field”

The first international business studies were published about 50 years ago - in the 1950s - by international marketing scholars. Soon after, in the 1960s, the issues of human resource management and foreign direct investment were included in the international business agenda. International economics was left out, whereas international business strategy and structure, and cultural studies have gained increasing interest. Today, dozens of subareas in international business research show that international business is an extensive field of study. (e.g. Wright & Ricks 1994)

As international business research is a relatively new phenomenon compared with the older issues in management science, to say nothing of the social sciences in general, there is a lot of either explicit or implicit argumentation about the value of IB research that seeks to refute the articulated and unarticulated criticism that international business is not a valid area of research. As explicit examples, Daniels (1991) argued that

"still International Business research faces some credibility problems”

and Inkpen (2001)

"... by assuming that the debate about IB as a field of research remains a relevant issue. I will argue the opposite: that a debate about IB as a legitimate field of issue is an irrelevant issue and that journals like JIBS shoud focus on publishing cutting-edge research on IB problems regardless of the author’s orientation to a particular field of study...”

There is, however, a consensus that a considerable amount of study (Toyne & Night 1998) has been generated from this multidimensional and complex phenomenon (Inkpen 2001, Luostarinen 1979).
3.2.2 "Focus of International Business Research"

Since 1965, the Graduate School of Indiana University has had an international Business Research Institute. One of its first mandates was to prepare an inventory of recent and current research in international business and recommendations for future studies. After discussions with a number of leading academicians and business leaders, a working definition was established and published in 1970 by Nehrt, Truitt and Wright (Wright & Ricks 1994). It defined

"international business research to concern firm level activities across national boundaries".

The same continues to be more or less valid (Wright & Ricks 1994), for example in the JIBS publishing policy for 1985 where IB is said

"to be a firm level activity that extends from one country to another".

In order to identify the existence of discourse (see more 3.4.) "rebuttal"6 can be studied (Lehtonen 1996, Jokinen et al. 1993). It means that even though scholars do name the dominant discourse, they present arguments against it, pretending that other scholars know that discourse as well as they do, even without presenting it. An example of this is the rebuttal of the discourse of IB research concentrating on studies of phenomena concerning MNEs, namely the discussion of the extension of the IB field (e.g. Sullivan 1998, Toyne & Nigh 1998, Ricks, Toyne and Martinez (1990) Toyne 1989, Adler 1983, Robinson 1981). In 1989, Toyne proposed exchange (=collective result of political, social and economic forces) as a unit of study that would provide analytical boundaries and linkages permitting the cumulation of complementary findings. According to him, variation in social processes also extends to knowledge generation, thus producing

6 Eero Suoninen gave the term in English in an email to me 20.8.2002 – he is one of the authors of Jokinen et al. 1993
different ways of developing questions, theories and methods. About ten years later, Toyne and Nigh (1998) proposed that

"the attention should be shifted from the firm as the central unit of analysis to a more comprehensive, multilevel, hierarchical view of the international business process".

Toyne & Nigh (1998) argue that while other fields have become more international in scope, their domains have progressed well beyond the firm and its activities in the last two decades, and that IB should do the same. Also, they call for cooperation that would generate increased understanding of the researched phenomenon, as well as multiple perspectives that could be used as potential knowledge generators. Management, marketing and finance are said to acknowledge that

"phenomena and the relationships of their inquiries are much more extensive than what simply occurs in economic enterprises, demonstrating that the subjects of their inquiry occur in organizations and situations other than just the firm". (Toyne & Night 1998).

Sullivan’s (1998) comment is part of this discourse as he said that some scholars suggest that

"international business suffers from a narrow vision".

Ricks, Toyne and Martinez (1990) have also desired to extend the unit of analysis by saying that (quoted in Wright & Ricks 1994)

(they) "identified research on international coalitions as possibly the single most important and challenging area for IB researchers".

Adler (1983) has also called for the extension of the firm view, but again from another point of view. She calls for
"creating new research based solutions to existing management problems".

Also, Robinson (1981) is part of this focus discussion by arguing that

"little research is being done on the internal dynamics of international business".

Interdisciplinary research drawing upon different disciplines and not only concentrating on studying the MNE is called for by many (e.g. Wright & Ricks 1994, Daniels 1991, Dunning 1989, Dymsza 1984, Terpstra 1972). This doctoral study is one example of interdisciplinary research as explained in chapter one.

Toyne & Night (1998) are among the few scholars to agree explicitly that

"IB is a part of social sciences and that it would be necessary to turn into knowledge developed by other social scientists".

However, Daniels (1991) maintains that

"IB specialists are seldom first to apply the new theories and methodologies to business and that there are plenty of scholars who do not come out to fight for a field before it becomes acceptable".

3.2.3 "The ‘right’ Type of Research in International Business"

Ontological Issues

Burrell & Morgan (1979 p.1) state that the assumptions of the ontological nature of the social world can be either that reality is "out there" or that "it is a product of one’s mind". In IB research, reality is understood to be "out there". This can be seen for example in the use of methods. The most commonly argued "right" type of research
methods are based on an idea of reality “out there”.

One characteristic of a discourse is that it includes some issues and excludes others from the texts studied (Lehtonen 1996). As an example of international business research in the articles or reports reviewed, ontological issues are not often mentioned. An example of this “right´type of research in IB” is from the paper archives of JIBS 1970 – 2002 (http://aib.jibs.net; 5/2002): if ontology is used as a key word, only three (3) articles can be found.

Lenartowicz & Roth (1999) are two of the few scholars who state explicitly in their JIBS article that

"it is important to recognize these assumptions explicitly”.

Toyne & Nigh (1998) share this idea and state that

"research questions depend on the assumptions and continue by saying later that
... what knowledge we seek, for what purpose for whose benefit and why?...”

As an example, in the descriptions of their research results Au (1999) and Lyles & Slak (1996) write about their premises. Au (1999), for example, discusses the antecedents and consequences of intra-cultural variation, but on the level of methodological questions. For example, he states

"that researchers do not always systematically report the standard deviations of their measures and systematic studies are rare or that identifying factors that determine the ICV of managerial variables across the cultures is needed.”

7 They make four assumptions about culture. First, they assume a value-based model of culture; second, they assume that culture is essentially an objective and observable phenomenon. Third, they assume that culture is relatively stable over time and fourth, they assume that culture can be identified based on the shared attributes of a group (Lenartowicz & Roth, 1999 p.795)
Epistemological Issues

Epistemological issues are assumptions about the grounds of knowledge, about how one might begin to understand the world and communicate this as knowledge to fellow human beings. These assumptions entail ideas about what forms of knowledge can be obtained and how one can sort out what is to be regarded as “true” or “false”. The epistemological assumptions determine whether knowledge can be acquired or whether it is something that has to be personally experienced. Assumptions about human nature are also important, whether human beings are regarded as products of the environment or whether man is regarded as the creator of his environment. (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 p.1-2)

Positivist arguments (see also chapter 3.3) are most evident and present in the articles reviewed, even though “epistemology” gives very few search results; only five articles from 1970 through 2002 touched upon this aspect (JIBS paper archives; http://aib.jibs.net; 5/2002). Neither did review articles (e.g. Jacquie 1981), nor for example articles ranking IB journals or IB literature (e.g. Dubois & Reeb 2000, Chandy & Williams 1994, Inkpen & Beamish 1994, Pierce & Garven 1994, Morrison & Inkpen 1990), or state of art articles (e.g. Wright & Ricks 1994, Ricks 1985) touch upon the discussion of epistemological assumptions.

According to Huber (1995 quoted by Denzin & Lincoln 2000), the positivist understanding of the world presumes a stable, unchanging reality that can be studied with the empirical methods of objective social science. Proponents of positivist studies also claim that their work is done within a value-free framework (Denzin & Lincoln 2000). According to Gergen (1990), positivist scientists are those who claim that their skills in observation and reason enable them to step outside the vagaries of common opinion and political prejudice, to press beyond the frontiers of the unknown, and to fetch truth from the lands of mystery.

However, positivism can be also regarded merely as a loose framework without unique, unambiguous rules, as Neilimo & Näsi (1980) state. They list some typical characteristics of positivism that include concepts like objectivity, closeness to natural sciences, causality, explanation, verification, atomism, analytic thinking, operationalising,
the importance of empiric observations, neutrality of the researcher, the world outside
the researcher, and the importance of sense perception. I argue that most international
business research is positivist with respect to epistemology (Burrell & Morgan 1979).
Some examples found in the review of JIBS articles of the epistemological comments are
given below. Brewer (1998) is amongst the few who would like an explicit

"discussion on state of research on international business, in which epistemology and
the advancement of research on international business topics are directly issued."

Otherwise, the comments categorised under the discourse of epistemologically “right”
type of research are more like the following. Holistic research is called for, as is an
eclectic approach in IB (e.g. Melin 1992, Luostarinen 1979). Research on the dynamics
of change is called for as well (e.g. Robinson 1981, Luostarinen 1979). Why, what and
how questions are preferred (Au 1999). Robinson (1981) commented on the objectivity
desired from the researcher:

"The only way... is to be an intimate observer... but even the researcher’s presence may
well influence the process and destroy the validity of any generalisations that may arise
from his observations."

The normative tradition exists. Caves (1998) states

"the business normative goal is to advise managers on the best choice for some
business policy."

Adler (1983) says

"... action research tends to emphasize what could be rather than what is..."

and Jacquie (1981) stated in his report that
"a normative view is taken."

Even Eisenhardt & Zbaracki (1992) ask for greater attention to normative implications. Cross-cultural research, however, has generated some discussion on epistemology. Lenartowicz & Roth (1999) discuss recognizing recommendations of how to conduct better cross-cultural studies. Adler (1983) presents six different approaches to researching cross-cultural management issues and discusses their assumptions concerning the similarity and difference across cultures and the extent to which management phenomena are not universal. Negandhi (1983) turns our attention to the three conceptual approaches used by the comparative management theorists, namely the economic development orientation, the environmental approach and the behavioural approach and discusses their basic premises.

Björkman (1999) also connects FDI analysis to epistemological issues and brings forward how the definition of the cognitive objective of the study is to define the use of the research approach, the type of knowledge gained, the nature of the theoretical problems with which researchers are occupied, and how these issues are interrelated.

**Methodological Issues**

Methodological issues are guided by the above mentioned types of assumptions about the nature of the social sciences (ontological, epistemological and assumptions about human nature). The two extreme cases are first, in the objectivist approach (positivism), the concepts themselves, their measurement and the identification of underlying themes or second, in the subjectivist approach (social-constructionism), an understanding of the way in which the individual creates, modifies and interprets the world in which s/he finds her/himself. (Burrell & Morgan 1979 p.3)

Nomothetic research (Neilimo & Näsi 1980, Burrell & Morgan 1979) is based on the ideas of positivism. It is said to

- aim at explaining, answering why-questions, often presenting law-like claims
- include a conceptual phase of study, either a framework in the beginning or a model in the end
• have an empirical phase, essential to the study
• put the framework and the empirical results to discuss
• make the researcher a neutral outsider
• study external behaviour, but seldom the values or norms
• have, in order to guarantee objectivity, numerous regulations on how to operationalise, acquire data and treat data (Neilimo & Näsi 1980)

Nevertheless, in IB research the recommendations for research making mainly concern methodological issues. As an example of this discourse, the JIBS paper archives make 417 references to “methodology” as a search item; “qualitative methods” give only five (5). That is, in this discourse, methodology is understood to mean quantitative methods and their rigorous use. It is no wonder that Brewer (1998) asks for a diversity of methodology. However, even when a depth of understanding is desired (e.g. Lyles & Salk 1996) as a shift from descriptive to explanatory studies, this means only a more sophisticated use of statistical methods in this discourse. For example, quantitative methods as path analysis are proposed (Lyles & Slak 1996, see also Adler 1983).

Methodology is not a major issue in IB research reporting. For example, major IB conferences, like those of the Academy of International Business or of the European International Business Academy, have no methodology tracks. However, some scholars are aware of the lack of attention to methodological issues within IB research as the following quotation suggests

"Since new area of study, we insisted upon sound methodology, BUT preferred substance and advancement of knowledge over methodology” (Dymsza 1984).

According to Neilimo & Näsi (1980), this lack of attention to scientific assumptions is one of the characteristics of the nomothetic research tradition. Negandhi (1983) also shares this idea of IB as nomothetic research by asking for

a shift from nomothetical to analytical research.
So, even though Hawkins (1984), amongst others, states that IB research is a potpourri of methodologies, I argue that the main stream IB research is clearly inside the tradition of nomothetic research (see also Sullivan 1998), favouring quantitative survey methods. Daniels (1991) also states that methodologies have changed very little over time.

The “right” type of research in IB is *conceptual and theory building, integrative studies* (Wright & Ricks 1994, Ricks 1985, Negandhi 1983, Adler 1983). For example, Wright & Ricks (1994) look for conceptual and theory building studies by arguing that

"research seems to lag behind in its approach to the multidimensional concept”.

Adler (1983) shares this view by saying that

"*it is important not to limit to narrow conceptual tools nor to rigid methods but to take them in interaction*”.

Also, the preferred “right” type of research uses the methods rigourously; tests, operationalises, validates, checks correlation, uses rigour in statistical methods, uses sophisticated quantitative techniques, and has a systematic and rigorous approach etc., as the majority of the articles reviewed called for (see e.g. Sivakumar & Nakata 2001, Lenartowicz & Roth 1999, Mullen 1995, Singh 1995, Wright & Ricks 1994, Daniels 1991, Behrman 1984, Dymsza 1984, Brewer 1983, Hofstede 1983, Sekaran 1983, Boddewyn 1981).

“*The ‘right type of research’ is also longitudinal* (Sullivan 1998, Cave 1998, Melin 1992, Luostarinen 1979). According to Melin (1992), there are four types of longitudinal studies, and the best known (Pettigrew 1992) presents just one type. The longitudinal case method has been called for, and mainly European IB research (e.g. Korhonen 1999, Tahvanainen 1998, Marschan 1996, Stenberg 1992) but also other strategic decision making research (see review of e.g. Eisenhardt & Zbaracki 1992) have responded.
3.3 Social Constructionism and Its Evaluation Criteria in Comparison with Positivist Research Making

Burrell & Morgan (1979 p.3) present the subjective-objective approach to social sciences as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjectivist Approach</th>
<th>Objectivist Approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominalism</td>
<td>Ontology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-Positivism</td>
<td>Epistemology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntarism</td>
<td>Human Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideographic</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Realism                             |
| Positivism                        |
| Determinism                       |
| Nomothetic                        |

Figure 9: Burrell & Morgan’s Subjectivist and Objectivist Approaches to Science

This division above, and Burrell & Morgan’s definitions of the concepts in the middle presented in chapter 3.2, are used as a basis for the structure of this chapter, even though some scholars use these concepts differently, as can be seen in this chapter.

Positivism was introduced in chapter 3.2 together with the international business research discourses. In the following, social constructionism is compared with positivism. The few comments made by IB scholars on social constructionism are presented.

3.3.1 Ontological Differences

The core of social constructionism is that a human being is seen as a social, cultural and language using creation, whose knowing is related to the understandings of others and to social constructs (Willman 2001). Burr (1995) expresses the main points of social constructionism as follows:
Critical thinking to self-evident knowledge: our perceptions are not objective and sure, but based on interpretation and classification.

- Knowledge is historically and culturally dependent.
- Thinking requires a language.
- Knowledge is created in social interaction.
- The object of study is the social interaction and the social practices.

Sometimes, odd understandings of constructionism or the larger related concept of constructivism (see more 3.3.2) are presented as in Mir & Watson (2000), when they argue that “constructivism occupies a methodological space characterized by ontological realism and epistemological relativism”. Denzin and Lincoln (2000 p.21) clearly state that “the constructivist paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (knower and respondent co-create understandings) and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures.” The former view belongs according to Smith and Deemer (2000 p.884) to the quasi-foundationalist response and they argue that “it is time to move beyond any lingering hopes for a foundational or quasi-foundational epistemology to change our metaphors ... and to accept that relativism is our inescapable condition as finite beings.”

Berger and Luckman (1966/1994) stress that in social constructionism language constructs reality. Philosophers of social constructionism often go much further and deny any interest whatsoever in an ontology of the real. They argue that knowing and knowledge are created in relations between humans, as they discuss, negotiate and share the world around them (Potter 1996). Michel Foucault is probably the bestknown philosopher of this type of strong/radical constructionism even though some scholars point out that he did not want to be considered as a social constructionist or philosopher but as a historian. He tends to be considered primarily as a philosopher of power. However, in the 1980s, discussions of Foucault’s writings have concentrated on his theorization of the connections between power and knowledge. Lately, interest has turned towards his later writings on ethics and the self (Mottier 2001). Gergen (1997), however, denies this problem phrased between the different ontologies. He defines, that
whatever is, simply is, until the moment we begin to refer, to name, to describe, to enumerate – then we enter into a world of relationships, a set of culturally contingent and historically embedded traditions.

The ontological points could be summarised by Guba and Lincoln’s (2000) definition in which the ontological beliefs of social constructionism are relativism, local and specific constructed realities whereas postivism and post-positivism are seen as reality, either apprehendable (positivism) or imperfectly and probalistically apprehendable (post-positivism).

3.3.2 Epistemological Differences

The different assumptions regarding ontology and human nature pose interesting problems for epistemology (Morgan & Smircich 1980). Social constructionist epistemologies - hence there are multiple different approaches - begin by drawing on everyday, uncontroversial, garden-variety constructivism. Most constructivists agree that knowing is not passive, but active. Humans invent concepts, models and schemes to make sense of experience and continually test and modify these constructions in the light of new experience. Willman (2002) expresses the difference between social constructionism and constructivism to be where these constructs are born; in social constructionism they are socially shared, whereas in constructivism the constructs of individuals are more often studied. In constructivism, cognitive techniques are used, whereas in social constructionism analysis methods aim at identifying shared understandings. Sullivan (1998) is one of the IB scholars who argues that interpretation is required to make sense of a complex world and thus he uses cognitive techniques. Furthermore, there is an inevitable historical and socio-cultural dimension to this construction. (Tynjälä 2000, Schwandt 2000 & 1994, Matikainen 1999).

In social constructionism, the role of language is essential. It is understood as a range of activities in which we express and realize a certain way of being in the world. It is seen neither as primarily a tool for gaining knowledge of the world as an objective process nor “as an instrument whereby we order the things in our world, but as what
allows us to have the world we have. Language makes possible the disclosure of the human world” (Taylor 1995 in Schwandt 2000). The elements of culture are constructed in a certain time, place and language. Even though language is essential, its importance is not in the symbols or structure of style of language, but in the meanings that are constructed and shared with the help of language. Suoranta (1996) argues for the contextuality of research and states that if context is seen to build research designs, then scientific action, language as a means of communication and the situational time and place of the research action are bound together. This gives meaning to the researched phenomenon. He reminds us that any scientific or artistic product starts to detach itself from the author’s intention and attaches itself to the interpreter’s intentions as soon as it has been created.

As Suoranta (1996) states, the truth is difficult to find in the positivist research tradition since the world has become so complex. Methods derived from the natural sciences have come to be seen as increasingly unsatisfactory as a basis for social research and systematic attention has been devoted to a search for effective alternatives (Morgan & Smircich 1980). Gergen (2000) explains this point as follows: “Multiple and competing claims to truth cause growing confusion and distrust. Unambiguous truth and objective reality outside the researcher are difficult to defend. Over time, the very idea of transcendent truth, truth surpassing anyone’s particular perspective, becomes suspect. Foundationalism is replaced by relativism; strong truth claims seem increasingly parochial. In order to understand the different phenomena their social characteristics have to be studied. A shift toward the relational – i.e. turning away from the concepts of self and group in favour of such concepts as interdependence, conjoint construction of meaning, mutually interacting entities and systemic process - exist.” (Gergen 2000)

The nature of knowledge is facts or laws in positivism and probable facts or laws in post-positivism, while in social constructionism, knowledge consists of constructions about which there is relative consensus among those competent to interpret the substance of construction. Multiple knowledges can coexist when equally competent interpreters disagree or depending on the social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender factors that differentiate the interpreters. These constructions are subject to
continuous revision with changes most likely to occur when relatively different constructions are brought into juxtaposition in a dialectical context. (Guba & Lincoln 1994) In IB research, Toyne (1989) proposes to study the power relations, and together with Nigh (1998) calls for developing advances in knowledge generating a more general understanding of humans and their social constructions, an understanding that research takes on new meanings.

According to Guba & Lincoln (1994), knowledge accumulates in positivism and post-positivism by a process of accretion; when the facts take the form of generalizations or cause-effect linkages they may be used most efficiently for prediction and control. Generalizations may be made, with predictable confidence, to a population of settings. In social constructionism, knowledge accumulates only in a relative sense through the formation of ever more informed and sophisticated constructions via the hermeneutical or dialectical process as varying constructions are parallely present. (Guba & Lincoln 1994)

Social scientists, philosophers and other scholars have realised that social development is no longer linear and predictable, and that the old self-evidences behind different infrastructures and ways of living have disappeared (Suoranta 1996). The old scientific ways to explain phenomena are no longer so useful. It is a time of transition. This difficulty could be turned into richness, into another solution by starting to rely on the social constructionist tradition and the belief that truth is relative, depending on the situations, timing, and contexts. In other words, according to Gergen (1997), social constructionism encourages relatedness, wholeness, and connection. The truth is not absolute but constantly negotiated between people.

However, even when truth is relative, three criteria for it can be given according to Tynjälä (2000). First, acts that in practice are proved to be well-functioning, can be taken as truth. Second, if there is a consensus amongst human beings, it is a truth. Third, truth cannot be in contradiction with itself. Truth is very pragmatic. The socially constructed meanings are important. Suoranta (1996) emphasises that as truth is relative, the truth itself is not interesting, but how it is produced.

Guba & Lincoln (1994) discuss the differences between the aims of inquiry of the positivist and social constructionist paradigms. The aim or purpose of inquiry for the
positivists and postpositivists is explanation enabling prediction and control, whereas in social constructionism the aim is to understand and reconstruct the constructions that people initially hold, aiming toward consensus, but still open to new interpretations as information and sophistication improve.

As values are fed into the inquiry process in several ways, they represent one major point of departure between positivist, conventional modes of inquiry and interpretative forms of inquiry. They are fed into the inquiry process in many ways; they guide the choice of problem, paradigm, theoretical framework, major data-gathering and data-analysis methods, context, treatment of values already resident within the context and the choice of format for presenting findings. (Lincoln & Guba 1985) Hence, it is important for the researcher to state her/his values. Kluckhohn and Strodbeck (1961) in Negandhi 1983 suggest that "Value orientations are complex but definitely patterned (rank ordered) principles, resulting from transactional interplay or three analytically distinguished elements of the evaluative process – the cognitive, the affective and the directive elements - which give order and direction to ever-flowing stream of human acts and thoughts as these relate to the solution of "common human” problems.”

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) summarise that “epistemologically social constructionism is transactional, subjectivist and findings are seen as created, whereas epistemologically positivism is dualist and objectivist, findings are true and in post-positivism findings are probably true.” Morgan & Smircich (1980) compare interpretive paradigms to extreme positivism by saying that "a mechanical conception of the universe as a closed structure of extreme positivism gives way to an epistemology emphasizing the need to understand process and change reflecting a conception of the world as an organism, an open system. This epistemological position stresses the importance of the monitoring process, the manner in which a phenomenon changes over time in relation to its context. This more interpretative understanding is not concerned with the notion of causality that underlies the positivist epistemology, because it becomes impossible to find a point at which causal forces begin due to the nature of interaction and feedback between elements in a contextual field.”
3.3.3 Methodological Differences

The role of the researcher is an important difference amongst the methodological differences between positivist and social constructionist approaches. The quantitative methods traditionally used in the social sciences, drawing principally on the methods of the natural sciences, attempt to make the social scientist an objective measurer outside the studied phenomenon and with no influence on it (Morgan & Smircich 1980).

According to Guba & Lincoln (1994), the inquirer is in the role of expert in the positivist tradition and in the role of participant and facilitator in the social constructionist approach. Later, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) present the researchers with the metaphor “bricoleurs” and stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. They emphasize the value-laden nature of inquiry and seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. Recently qualitative researchers are more and more convinced that there are no objective observations, only observations socially situated in the worlds of and between the observer and the observed. Scientists can no longer remain as external observers, measuring what they see; they must move to investigate from within the subject of study and employ research techniques appropriate to that task (Denzin & Lincoln 2000, Morgan & Smircich 1980).

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) also argue that in positivist research the only appropriate voice is the voice from nowhere. Today, in social constructionist research, not only is the researcher present and the researcher’s voice heard in the text, but also the participants speak for themselves. Denzin & Lincoln (2000) further argue that the authorial voice is rarely genuinely absent or even hidden. Reflexivity demands that we interrogate ourselves regarding the ways in which research efforts are shaped and staged around binaries, contradictions and paradoxes and how these paradoxes shape not only the identities called forth in the field and the discovery processes in writing, but also our interactions with respondents.

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8 bricoleur = a researcher who assembles images into montages; a jack of all trades or kind of professional do-it-yourself person. All kinds of bricoleurs: interpretive, narrative, theoretical, politique. The interpretative bricoleur produces a bricolage, i.e. a pieced-together set of representations that are fitted to the specifics of a complex situation (Denzin & Lincoln 2000 p.4)
Suoranta (1996) shares this idea and states that it is more honest to bring the writing and studying self forward in the many situations than to replicate the mantra of objectivity. He continues with the idea that through the awareness of subjectivity it is possible to become objective.

Many techniques or methods are then available for the social scientist, depending on the basic assumptions of science making. Lenartowicz & Roth (1999) are examples of IB scholars who state that available methods can be borrowed from other social sciences. Wright (1994) is an IB scholar who desires to combine the nomothetic and ideographic study approaches, but still proposes only case studies. I believe that more reflection on one’s own assumptions about the ontological, epistemological and methodological issues provides an answer, for example, to the question of qualitative or quantitative study. A positivist scholar, like most IB scholars, relies more on hard facts; thus s/he more readily chooses a quantitative study approach, for example multivariate statistical analysis, a survey, or a detailed laboratory-type experiment. On the other hand, a social constructionist scholar wants to understand the different shared meanings and finds qualitative science making choices easier towards the aim of believing in the capacity of human brains to produce knowledge and chooses for example between participant observation, biography or different textual analysis methods. Sullivan (1998) has used cognitive science techniques, constructivism, to study the “narrow vision” discourse of IB research.

According to Guba & Lincoln (2000), positivist adherents believe action to be either a form of advocacy or a form of subjectivity, either or both of which undermine the aim of objectivity. The shift towards connecting research, policy analysis, evaluation and/or social deconstruction with action characterizes much new paradigm inquiry work (social constructionist research is included among the other new paradigm trends) both at the theoretical and at the practice and praxis-oriented levels. Action has become a major controversy. However, in international business studies, being close to business life and “reality”, good research has always had to provide some “managerial implications”. As a result, the controversy is not as serious in this research field as in some others (see e.g. Wright & Ricks (1994), van Raaij (1978 quoted in Boddewyn 1981), Wright 1970) – managerial implications are desired.
According to Denzin & Lincoln (2000), qualitative research is a field of inquiry in its own right. It crosses disciplines, fields and subject matters. A complex, interconnected family of terms, concepts and assumptions surround the term qualitative research. There are separate and detailed literatures on the many methods and approaches that fall under the category of qualitative research, such as case study, participatory inquiry, interviewing, participant observation, visual methods and interpretative analysis.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) also propose an initial, generic definition: "Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretative, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn it into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. It involves an interpretative, naturalistic (see more Denzin and Lincoln 1985) approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. It involves a collection and variety of empirical materials, case study, personal experience, introspection, life story, interview, artefacts, cultural text and productions, observational, historical, interactional, visual text that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals’ lives. Accordingly, qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected interpretative practices, hoping always to get a better understanding of the subject matter at hand. It is understood, however, that each practice makes the world visible in a different way. Hence there is frequently a commitment to using more than one interpretive practice in any study”.

On the contrary, according to the positivist understanding, qualitative research studies the world of lived experiences, where individual belief and action intersect with culture. There is no preoccupation with discourse and method as material interpretive practices constituting representation and description. The textual narrative turn of qualitative research can hence be rejected by the positivists. (Denzin & Lincoln 2000)

In short, “methodologically social constructionism is seen in this presentation as hermeneutic and dialectic, whereas positivism is experimental, manipulative, verifies hypotheses and chiefy uses quantitative methods. Post-positivism is understood as
modified experimental/manipulative, critical multiplism, falsification of hypotheses and may include qualitative methods” (Denzin & Lincoln 2000).

3.3.4 Summaries of Differencies and of Advantages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISSUE</th>
<th>POSITIVISM</th>
<th>POST-POSITIVISM</th>
<th>SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inquiry aim</td>
<td>Explanation: prediction and control</td>
<td>Understanding: reconstruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of knowledge</td>
<td>Verified hypotheses established as facts or laws</td>
<td>Non-falsified hypotheses that are probable facts or laws</td>
<td>Individual reconstructions coalescing around consensus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge accumulation</td>
<td>Accretion – “building blocks adding to “edifice of knowledge”, generalizations and cause-effect linkages</td>
<td>More informed and sophisticated reconstructions; vicarious experience</td>
<td>Trustworthiness and authenticity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness or quality criteria</td>
<td>Conventional benchmarks of “rigor”; internal and external validity, reliability, objectivity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Excluded – influence denied</td>
<td></td>
<td>Included – formative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>Extrinsic – tilt toward deception</td>
<td></td>
<td>Intrinsic – process tilt toward revelation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquirer posture</td>
<td>“Disinterested scientist” as informer of decision makers, and change agents</td>
<td>“transformative intellectual” as advocate and activist</td>
<td>“passionate participant” as facilitator of multivoice reconstruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>Technical and quantitative; substantive theories</td>
<td>Technical, quantitative and qualitative, substantive theories</td>
<td>Resocialization; qualitative and quantitative; history, values of altruism and empowerment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Paradigm Positions on Selected Practical Issues Adapted from Guba & Lincoln (2000 p.166)
Why? | What? | Results
---|---|---
More complex world | Extension of IB | a) More versatile understanding of the world: new answers to new questions → a1) Possibility to contribute to other fields of science; More widely useful theories and respected discipline
Need to be respected scholars in a respected field of science | Search for a new major question as an ontological need: out of calls for better use of methods → focusing on what research to do and not on how to do research |
Universal claims on truth no more possible in a complex world | Many voices forward Active knowing Social processes studied with the help of language as a mediator (also, language creates reality) Hermeneutic Subjectivist studies, values reflected actively Multiple approaches, multiple action, multiple actors | b) More awareness → better ethical decisions c) Enhanced possibilities for dialogue between different interest groups

Table 4: Advantages for IB Research of Social Constructionist Approach ©Minna Söderqvist

3.3.5 Evaluation Criteria of Social Constructionist Research

Evaluation of a scientific study is one of the important processes of science making. There is a discourse that social constructionist research cannot be evaluated with the same criteria as positivist research even though positivists propose systematic, comparative, replicative observation and measurement to all types of research (see e.g. Guba & Lincoln 2000, Lincoln & Guba 1985, Morgan 1984). It is not possible to judge the validity or contribution of different research perspectives in terms of the basic assumptions of any one set of perspectives, since the process is self-justifying. Different research perspectives make different kinds of knowledge claims and the criteria as to what counts as significant knowledge vary from one to another (Morgan 1984b).
Nevertheless this basic understanding, i.e. exact evaluation criteria for social constructionist research, cannot exist. This is because when reality is understood to be a multiple set of constructions made by humans, no one solution to the evaluation problematics can be given.

According to Guba and Lincoln (2000), foundationalists argue that real phenomena necessarily imply certain final ultimate criteria for testing their truthfulness, whereas antifoundationalist social constructionists refuse to adopt any permanent, unvarying standards for which truth and any agreement regarding what is valid knowledge arises from the relationship between members of a stakeholding company (Lincoln 1995 in Guba & Lincoln 2000).

Smith & Deemer (2000) argue that in the age of relativism, the issue of who is making judgements about what inquiries, for what purposes, and with whom one shares these judgements is of critical importance. The issue is the responsible use of power while avoiding its excesses. However, they do not give any criteria or ideas for applying these ideas, but instead discuss the conditions of the possibility of criteria and individual or collective judgement. They emphasize that the quasi-foundalist time is over and that one can no longer believe in epistemological relativity together with ontological realism. They argue that relativism is merely the inevitable result of the fact that we as human beings are finite. So for them, judging is a moral and practical affair, not an epistemological one. Criteria for judgement should be taken as a list of features that are agreed on in a particular time and place, a list that can be challenged, added to, subtracted from and modified.

Gergen (1997) says that evaluation must be practiced with an eye toward its function within multiple contexts. Validity is not like objectivity. It has to be considered since the answer to the question whether the findings are sufficiently authentic to be acted on cannot be left without an answer. One of the issues is the conflation between method and interpretation. The postmodern approach suggests that no method can deliver an ultimate truth (e.g. Richardson 1994 in Denzin & Lincoln 2000).

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9 Antifoundational is the term used to denote or a refusal to adopt any permanent, unvarying or foundational standards by which truth can be known (Denzin & Lincoln 2000 p.177)
Despite these problems, Lincoln & Guba (1985) and later Denzin & Lincoln (2000) argue that some criteria are necessary and propose four of them for naturalistic\textsuperscript{10} studies, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These replace the positivist internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity that are based on different assumptions of research, i.e. on positivist assumptions. Both of these sets of four criteria are said to answer first the question of truth value, how confidence can be established in the truth of the findings and second, the question of applicability, how the extent to which the particular findings of a particular inquiry have applicability in other contexts. The third issue is said to be consistency and to answer the question of how the findings could be repeated with same/similar subjects in the same/similar context. The fourth issue is neutrality, the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are determined by the subjects and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests or perspectives of the inquirer.

The first of the criteria proposed by Lincoln & Guba (1985) is credibility. It is to be achieved through prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, referential adequacy and member checks. For transferability, they say that only thick description enables someone interested in making a transfer decide whether the transfer is feasible. For dependability, they propose in addition to the same techniques as for credibility, overlapping methods, stepwise replication, and inquiry audit. Confirmability is to be achieved through the confirmability audit. These criteria can be criticized; first, they are overlapping and second they are based on naturalistic inquiry that is a “pre” social constructionist view compared with today’s social constructionism. For example, triangulation and member validation tend to be inappropriate for social constructionist analysis. Texts as data cannot be treated as simple statements of events to be triangulated with other people’s accounts or observations when it is understood that reality is produced in texts (Moisander 2001).

Although Denzin and Lincoln (2000) discuss the wish of Scheurich (1997), Schwandts (1996), and Smith (1993) to say farewell to criteriology, they do propose several new criteria for validity that are more firmly rooted in social constructionism. These criteria are rooted in the axioms and assumptions of the social constructionist

\textsuperscript{10} in the natural world
paradigm. **Validity as authenticity** means authentic, trustworthy, rigorous and valid inquiry. This is divided into fairness – that all stakeholder views are apparent in the text. **Ontological and educative authenticities** raise the level of awareness by individual participants and by the individuals who surround them. **Catalytic and tactical authenticities** refer to the ability of an inquiry to prompt action and to involve researchers in training participants to political action.

Another validity type, **crystalline validity**, is developed by Richardson (1994, 1997 in Denzin & Lincoln 2000). Crystals change, reflect externalities, and refract within themselves. What we see depends on our angle. We know more and doubt what we know. **Catalytic validity**, developed by Lather (1993 in Denzin and Lincoln 2000) seeks to interrupt, disrupt and transform pure presence into a disturbing, fluid, partial and problematic presence, to catalyse change. **Ethical validity**, is developed by Lincoln (1995). It means that the way we know is most assuredly tied up with both what we know and our relationship with our research participants.

The issue of **control** is also deeply embedded in the questions of voice, reflexivity and issues of post-modern textual representation, but only for new-paradigm inquirers. For more conventional positivist-minded inquirers, the issue of control is effectively walled off, according to Guba and Lincoln (2000), as it threatens claims of rigor, particularly objectivity and validity. In social constructionism, participants take an increasingly active role in selecting questions of interest for any inquiry and in designing outlets for findings to be shared more widely within and outside the community. Control is one of the issues referring to the ongoing problem of illegitimate questions; questions that have no meaning because the frames of reference are those for which they were never intended. For example, if knowledge is social, it cannot be separate from the knower.

The criteria used in this study are discussed in chapter 3.4 and 5.
3.4 Discourse Analysis

3.4.1 Discourse Analysis - a Loose Theoretical Framework

As uncertainty has increased in society through constant huge infrastructural changes, the need to understand has grown. As the explanation and prediction attempts of the positivist tradition have reached a dead end, new methodologies are sought. It is no longer interesting to determine what is true, but how truth is constructed. (Suoranta 1996) One of the major recent developments in the social sciences has been the generalisation of different types of studies concentrating on the use of language (see e.g. Fairclough 1999). All these methods share the understanding that language does not mirror reality, but instead constructs it. There are narrative, rhetoric, discourse or conversation analytic methods. (Nikander 1998, Potter & Wetherell 1987)

Fairclough (1999) gives four reasons why a textual analysis has an important role to play in social scientific research. First, a theoretical reason is that texts constitute one important form of social action. There is a misperception of language as transparent, not recognizing that social analysis of discourse entails going beyond this natural attitude towards language in order to reveal the precise mechanisms and modalities of the social and ideological work of language. Second, from the methodological point of view, texts constitute a major source of evidence for grounding claims about social structures, relations, and processes. The evidence for the constructs comes from the texts. Third, a historical reason is that texts are sensitive barometers of social processes, movements, and diversity, and textual analysis provides particularly good indicators of social change. According to Fairclough (1999), the fourth, political reason is that through texts, social control and domination are exercised. Textual analysis can thus establish critical awareness.

Discourse analysis is one solution amongst this textual approach to understanding how the truth is constructed. It is not a single distinct method, but more a loose theoretical framework (Jokinen et al. 1993, Pother & Wetherell 1987). In discourse analysis similarities and intergrity are sought on the one hand, diversity and
different meanings on the other (Fairclough 1999 & 1995, Jokinen et al. 1993, Potter & Wetherell 1987). Based on the assumption that social realities are constantly under construction, discourse analysis aims to investigate how people use the interactional and interpretative resources that the available discourses provide (Moisander 2001).

The discussion above is summarised in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Why?</th>
<th>What?</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texts &amp; talks important forms of social action, they exercise social control and domination, open space for action, and are sensitive barometers of social processes</td>
<td>Language used to study meanings and systems of meanings New types of data possible to be used</td>
<td>a) Source for evidence for claims about social structures, relations and processes b) Historical evidence from the evolution of meanings and systems of meanings c) Critical awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To understand how the truth is constructed</td>
<td>Analysis of how the interactional and interpretative resources available are used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Advantages of the Use of Discourse Analysis as a Method © Minna Söderqvist

The object of study in discourse analysis can be any type of text: speaking, interviews, conversations, meetings, memos, emails, different documents. The level of analysis is discourse, not respondent/informant/participant. Rhetorics become essential, as discourses are legitimated by them. Since reality is constructed in texts, they are understood to be active actors, not just objects that stand still. People as actors exist through the subject position concept, the user of the discourse, and self. Self is constructed through the discourses. (Jokinen et al. 1999 & 1993, Lehtonen 1996, Potter & Wetherell 1987)

Discourse is a difficult concept, as there are many different contradictory
definitions. The word “discourse” comes from the French word, “le discours” which means *speaking, speech*. Perhaps the best known discourse analyst, Michel Foucault (1994), sees that discourses are *practices* that systematically form the objects of which they are speaking. In other words, discourse refers to the process where meanings are produced. Discourse is social action and interaction, but also a way to construct reality, one form of knowledge. Meanings are not abstract, but produced in social, historical, and institutional context (Lehtonen 1996).

What adds to the confusion, however, is that the end results of the process are also said to be “discourse”. Discourses have a double character; they construct social reality and are themselves constructed (Potter & Wetherell 1987).

There are many discourses and people use them in different situations. There are usually multiple, overlapping, interconnected and changing discourses (Potter 1996) as an individual is capable of holding a multiplicity of views, values, and sentiments, many of which conflict implicitly or explicitly (Gergen 2000).

Discourses cannot be analysed without their context, the place and the time. Jokinen et al (1993) separate sentence, episode, interaction, cultural and limitation context. In any case, discourses help to analyse the concrete and changing ways in which people using language give meanings to it (Lehtonen 1996). Discourses also create and maintain a certain social order. Social order and social relations are seen in meanings and in action. (Peräkylä in Matikainen 1999).

Potter & Wetherell (1987) state that since the concept discourse has so many meanings, interpretative repertoires should be used as a concept instead. But then, Jokinen et al (1993) claim that the concept of discourse is useful in the analysis of power relations and institutional practices, whereas interpretative repertoires are useful in everyday language analysis. For Jokinen et al (1999, 1993), both concepts are unbroken, harmonious systems of meaning relations that are constructed in social practice and that at the same time construct social reality.

The discourses do not exist as such, but some parts of them are in the texts as tips and traces and they are results of the researchers’ interpretations (Jokinen et al 1993). In discourse analysis, the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee is taken into consideration in the analysis, contrary to positivist methods
where an attempt is made to eliminate the influence of the interviewer. As a result, the interpretation of meanings is always partial (Eskola & Suoranta 1998). Thus, the texts have different meanings depending on to their users (Lehtonen 1996). A major advantage is the fact that the conceptual space is capable of grasping how different solutions to a problem arisen do exist. Through a bottom-up approach the processes are reconstructed. (Hjelmar 1996)

The dominating discourses are bound to time and situation. Marginal discourses are usually contradictory. (Lehtonen 1996, Burr 1995)

3.4.2. Different Types of Discourse Analysis

There are several ways to understand what discourse analysis means in different scientific fields (Nikander 1998). Accordingly, different scholars have categorised discourse analysis in different ways. Nikander (1998) presents four types of language-based analysis and presents researchers doing that particular type of analysis. Narrative studies are done by e.g. Sarbin and Gergen, rhetorics are studied by Billig; Potter, Wetherell, Edwards, Parker, Harré and Staerns are discoursive analysts and e.g. Antaki, Drew and Peräkylä are conversation analysts. She also presents two schools of discourse analysis and calls them the Loughborough School and the Manchester School. The emphasis of analysis in the Loughborough School, presented for example by Potter and Wetherell, is the variation and functions of the language and how language participates in the creation of the reality. Interpretative repertoires are used as means of analysis. The critique of the Loughborough School is that it presents individualism and does not pay attention to political and power questions. The Manchester School is presented by Burman and Parker and it studies the cultural, ideological and dominating systems of meanings. No tools are given, but some principles through which the deconstruction of discourses is possible are presented. The critique is that this school emphasises the power questions and leaves aside the individual action. Jokinen in Jokinen et al (1999) compares discourse analysis with four other textual ways of study, namely new ethnographic approach, conversation analysis, new rhetorics, and semiotics and describes their differences compared with discourse analysis. In this context, she
argues that in discourse analysis, the focus of study comprises the textual practices and the relation of meanings to the practices building these meanings, to use interaction texts and other data as data, and to analyse the different cultural meanings and the processes producing these meanings.

Fairclough (1997) divides discourse analysis into seven categories of which he prefers critical discourse analysis. Critical discourse analysis seeks to deconstruct the power relations and constructive influences into social identities and ideologies, whereas the uncritical analysis emphasises the description of discourses and their richness. The other six analysis types of discourse analysis are linguistic and socio-linguistic analysis, conversation analysis, semiotic analysis, critical linguistic and social semiotics analysis, social-cognitive analysis, and culture generic analysis (Fairclough 1997).

Another distinction of discourse analysis is to present two wide categories; the language and socially-oriented traditions (Willman 2001, Nikander 1998). In the more linguistically oriented analysis, discourse/ speech/ parole is in the center of the analysis without a larger context, whereas in the second category the attention is on the cultural processes and social action related to the use of language (Willman 2001).

Matikainen (1999) divides discourse analysis in organisational research into four categories. First, there is the social psychology-based discoursive analysis, which is a large theoretical-methodological framework presented for example by Potter & Wetherell (1987), and not a theory or method of analysis. The second category is conversation analysis, which is more exact as a method, and strives towards empiric generalization. Heritage, Maynard, Suoninen and Peräkylä are conversation analysts (Tampere conference “Texts, interaction and ethnography”, 27. - 28.5.2002). The third category according to Matikainen is Billig’s rhetoric social psychology and the fourth category emphasizes social and psychological processes and not the use of language. Representatives of this last category are Hosking & Morley. (Matikainen 1999)

3.4.3 Evaluation Criteria of Discourse Analysis

Moisander (2001) has proposed in her dissertation how the quality of discourse analytic study can be improved (see also ch. 3.3.5). In research evaluation, it is first essential to
involve the correspondence between a theoretical paradigm and the observations made by researcher. Therefore, researchers should specify explicitly the basic assumptions on which the study is based. A discourse analysis can be characterised by five assumptions that should be remembered when evaluating the study.

- the assumption that language creates reality
- the assumption that there are different competing discourses
- the assumption that the discourses are context-specific
- the assumption that the actors are connected to the discourses
- the assumption that the use of language produces action and consequences (Jokinen et al. 1993, p. 17-45)

Second, Moisander (2001) proposes that to improve the quality and empirical validity, it would seem particularly important to analyze how and to what extent the interpretations of the data reflect the situational factors specific to the context of data generation. Third, analytic integrity would seem to be a central goal. One must show how specific aspects of the text produce or bring forward specific aspects of the discourse. The relevancy of categorization and the procedural consequentiality of context are to be demonstrated by the researcher in focusing on particular features of the text. My assumptions for this study are presented in chapter 4.1.
4 DISCOURSES ON “HEI INTERNATIONALISATION” AND “MANAGING HEI INTERNATIONALISATION”

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 Objectives of the Second Phase of the Study and Its Justification

This doctoral study was conducted in two phases. First, an objectivist research design was used. A theoretical framework for the internationalisation of higher-education institutions (HEIs) and its management was built. This framework was then evaluated by means of a content analysis of the population of Finnish European Policy Statements. (see chapter 2)

Based on the objectivist study, I understood that HEI internationalisation and its managing have different meanings for different actors on different organisational levels. Mass-internationalisation took place so rapidly during the 1990s that the HEIs practiced internationalisation simultaneously with the development of educational policy, as expressed in the policy documents. There was virtually no time gap between policy development and policy implementation. Hence, it became evident that social reality was constructed in a dynamic interplay between policy texts, their authors, and international coordinators, that is HEI practitioners. According to Lehtonen (1996), different social groups and their discourses use meanings for their own purposes. The meanings and their making are understood to be processual (Lehtonen 1996), like the definition of internationalisation as a process (Söderqvist 2001b). To analyse the processual meanings of internationalisation (Steyaert 1997), a shift towards a more interpretative research approach was needed.

Also, the results of the first phase of study made me realise that the methodology adopted to interpret data did not fully cover the research phenomenon. To
interpret the data that fell through the cracks of the analysis, I turned to social constructionist thinking. Chapter three presented the differences between positivism and social constructionism as well as the aims of social constructionist research and those issues that are important for the evaluation of social constructionist studies.

The aim is to encourage researchers to see that the epistemic values and associated research procedures currently adopted by them to become respectable scholars are not the only ones possible, as Moisander (2001) has stated. This new-paradigm approach is still rarely used, especially in the Finnish context (see e.g. Meriläinen 2001, Moisander 2001, Katila 2000, Vaara 1999), in management research in general and in IB research in particular, so I argue that it can offer some fresh views. Studying a phenomenon like HEI internationalisation and its managing can be very fruitful with a less common type of knowledge production. What we see depends, at least to a certain extent, on what we expect to see (Alajoutsijärvi et al. 2001, Richardson in Denzin & Lincoln 2000, ). Starting with a very different research design produces new answers and contributes to a wider understanding of a particular phenomenon.

Chapter four presents the results of the discourse analysis of “HEI internationalisation” and “managing HEI internationalisation”. It aims to answer the following main research questions: (see also chapter 1)

- “What understandings are there of HEI internationalisation?” and
- “How does middle management of HEI internationalisation understand the management of HEI internationalisation?”

In order to facilitate the analysis, some subquestions were formed.

- “What are the dominating understandings?
- “What type of rational acting does HEI internationalisation create?”
- “What type of actors does managing of HEI internationalisation create?”
4.1.2 Presentation of Data

Thirty (30) interviews were carried out amongst the persons responsible for managing internationalisation in ten (10) higher-education institutions in Belgium and in Finland. Also, four interviews with two persons from the Ministry of Education and Center for International Mobility were conducted; altogether thirty-four (34) interviews were made from 1998 to 2002 for the discourse analysis. (see Appendix 1)

Finland was chosen, as I have been working in Finland with my study phenomenon. Belgium was chosen since it resembles Finland by having a state-driven system, but differs from Finland by being in the centre of the European Union. The EU is an important actor in creating discourses on HEI internationalisation through its programmes for mobility. Being close to the Technical Assistance Office (TAO) and other European Union organs might offer some advantages to the Belgian HEIs with regard to the EU procedures.

The higher-education institutions from which the rectors and middle managers were interviewed were chosen to reflect different approaches to the managing of HEI internationalisation. The differences could be seen in the objectives and resources for internationalisation. Also, I chose different types of higher-education institutions and their middle managers to enhance the variety. This means that representatives of institutions from both capital regions and other areas of the country were interviewed from both countries, Belgium and Finland. Also, HEIs of different sizes that provide education in different fields were chosen. Both traditional and established universities and newcomers, polytechnics, were included in the study to gain a more holistic view of HEI internationalisation.

Moreover, a new group of actors that first appeared in the 1990s, the internationalisation managers, often called either “Heads of International Relations” or “Coordinators for International Affairs”, had varying career experiences; some in both polytechnic and university categories were new in their duties and some had already been serving in such capacities for many years. With this variety of backgrounds I hoped to identify the shared discourses amongst the interviewed experts.

The interviews in the HEIs were carried out on two levels; both upper and
middle management were interviewed. Five rectors, presidents or general directors of four higher-education institutions in Finland and one in Belgium were interviewed. Four of these interviews present polytechnics and one a university. In addition, one person had a double role; he was also the president of ARENE, the association of Finnish polytechnic rectors.

As the main focus of the analysis was on the middle management level, two Belgian and three Finnish polytechnic middle managers of HEI internationalisation and two Belgian and three Finnish university middle managers were interviewed.

All of these persons were interviewed twice and all the interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. Altogether, this amounted to 42 hours and 50 minutes of interview tapes and 388 pages of transcribed data.

Partly during the same time period (1999 – 2000) I worked as a part-time international co-ordinator for two degree programmes at a polytechnic in addition to my job as Senior Lecturer. This practical working experience shed a different light on the phenomenon by revealing a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study than the discourse analysis alone could have done.

4.1.3 My Assumptions of Science Making

Before presenting how the analysis was conducted, I present my assumptions of research and science making based on the discussions in chapter three. I start from my ontological belief that reality is constructed through language use. Social constructionism is more established in some social sciences, but it is not often used as a research approach in international business studies. Denzin & Lincoln (2000) state that the “constructivist paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (knower and respondent co-create understandings) and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures”. This study was carried out according to this view.

I understand the role of researcher as an active knowledge producer, and also as an instrument of knowledge production. I believe that no objective manners are
possible as we, even as scholars, are human beings and not machines. I believe in the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and that the situational constraints shape the inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln 2000). I believe in Suoranta’s (1996) idea that it is more honest to bring the writing and studying self forward in many situations than to try to replicate the mantra of objectivity. I also agree with his idea that through becoming aware of subjectivity, it is possible to get closer to objectivity.

I accept Fairclough’s (1999) first three reasons why textual analysis has an important role to play, namely the theoretical, methodological and historical reasons presented in chapter 3.4.1. I use discourse to mean both what is and how it is constructed. I understand discourse analysis as a social process, hence I concentrate on how language participates in the creation of reality. I do not analyse the texts grammatically on the level of individual words or from the interaction point of view and therefore, I have not done a conversation analysis. I am not interested in power questions in the first place and hence I have not done a critical discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis, like any other qualitative method, requires several readings and interaction between theory and data (Alasuutari 1999). There is no one commonly known discourse analysis method (see 3.4.2). Instead, there are several different understandings of discourse analysis. I present the ones I found useful in conducting of this study. Potter and Wetherell (1987) give a list of ten steps for researching discourses. The stages are not clear sequential steps, but merging phases. Their stages are 1) research questions, 2) sample selection, 3) collection of records and documents, 4) interviews, 5) transcription, 6) coding, 7) analysis, 8) validation 9) report, and 10) application. I have applied this approach.

Lehtonen (1994 p. 198 – 199) poses four questions to facilitate the analysis: 1) How does this text function? 2) What meanings become actual in specific reading situations? 3) What type of meanings and why do these people produce in this text in this historical place and time? and 4) What influences have this text in people’s everyday life?


11 suomeksi vastapuhe, itsetodistelu, faktuaalistamisstrategia ja argumentaatiopositio
argumentation”\textsuperscript{12}. Suoninen in Jokinen et al. (1993 p. 120 – 124) explains, based on Silverman’s ideas, that “rebuttal” means that the interviewee takes the interview’s question as an accusation, even though the interviewer does not present an accusation. Hence, the interviewee takes into consideration a dominant discourse that is not even presented explicitly. However, since my aim is to identify the shared discourses, the power aspect is not in the focus of the study. Thus, the concept “rebuttal” is used to identify the shared understandings and not to analyse the power distribution.

Suoninen in Jokinen et al. (1993 p. 124 – 130) explains that “self rebuttal” means that the analysed text is scaled with the unsaid - but culturally strongly present points of views - with which it could be in contradiction. It is a defense against one’s own words. Juhila in Jokinen et al. (1993 p. 151 – 188) states that “factualising strategies” convince us a piece of knowledge is self-evident and right. Jokinen in Jokinen et al. (1993 p. 191 – 194) presents the concept of “argumentation position” borrowed from Billig. This refers to the position that the speaker takes as a starting point for her/his argumentation. There are always several competing context-specific positions to choose from.

My research aim is to identify the discourses of “HEI internationalisation” and “managing of HEI internationalisation” in my research context, namely in European higher-education institutions. The emphasis is, according to the principles of the qualitative method, on how-questions instead of why-questions (Alasuutari 1999). Hence, the object of interest is how internationalisation and its managing are constructed at higher-education institutions.

\textit{4.1.4 Data Analysis}

The different steps taken during the analysis are presented below. During the interviews I took notes (5 - 12 pages per each interview) with a portable computer. The idea in the discourse analysis is to allow maximal variance and let the respondents answer freely. Meanings are understood to emerge from the interaction between the researcher and the respondents. The focus of this study is to identify the shared meanings, not to analyse the interaction. Nevertheless, the idea is quite different from the “lean” positivist

\textsuperscript{12} Terms given in English by Kirsi Juhila in an email 26.8.2002 and by Eero Suoninen in an email 20.8.2002, both authors of Jokinen et al. 1993 and 1999
objective questionnaire, with which the same questions are repeated in the same form to several respondents in order to minimise the influence of the researcher.

Having done all the interviews I listened to them once to check facts. Next, I transcribed the interviews; this took several months as it requires several rounds of listening. On average, transcription of one side of a cassette (30 min) took about 8 hours. The considerable time spent in that phase allowed me to become deeply familiar with the data.

The process of transcribing also made me realise how “reductionist my orientation” (see e.g. Jokinen et al.1999, p.33) in the actual interviews was as indicated by the note taking (5 –12 pages/interview). By allocating my own time to the transcription of the interviews I was able “to use the special resources of the researcher” (see e.g. Jokinen et al.1999, p.33). Thus, 5 – 12 pages of interview notes multiplied to 7 – 47 pages of transcribed data in which I was able to identify ambiguous and imbedded meaning making, which had otherwise been left unnoticed.

As I am not doing a conversation analysis, neither did I use their method of transcription. I aim at analysing the social construction of the meanings concerning HEI internationalisation and its managing. (See Appendix 3 for an example of my method of transcribing.)

The amount of interview data in this study is large even for the type of discourse analysis used in this research, since 17 persons were interviewed with two different sets of questions (see appendix 4), and altogether there are 42h and 50 minutes of interview tapes transcribed to 388 pages. This was due to the pressures from the positivist surroundings. From this data I chose essential parts to be analysed.

During the transcription, I opened up a dialogue with the interviewees. I also discussed with five non-interviewed experts the results of the first phase and have presented my results at several conferences. All this helped to develop my ideas towards this doctoral dissertation.

Having transcribed the interviews, I first marked all the extracts in two different colours to determine where HEI internationalisation and managing HEI internationalisation were present, implicitly or explicitly. Second, I made summaries per
interviewed person of the types of talk and then summaries of these summaries to have 2 to 3 pages of rough understanding of what the shared understandings consisted of. In these papers I also noted who, i.e. how many persons had spoken about the same element of either HEI internationalisation or its managing.

At this phase I went back to the theoretical basics of the discourse analysis, what it is, and how it can be conducted. Having redone that very thoroughly, chapter three being the result, I started again with the summary papers of different interviewees. I classified the ideas in a new way, this time according to my research questions.

In the next phase, I started the reporting of the analysis by adding the interview extracts to the elements identified in earlier phases. Then, I had to write a separate paper of “what should I tell to anybody if I could tell”, in order to break out of my mental block. After that, I found that my research questions needed to be reviewed; it was more fruitful to concentrate on acting with HEI internationalisation and on actors with managing of HEI internationalisation to understand the discourses and not to try to do both for both type of discourses. It was not essential in these different types of discourses, one which concerned the phenomenon and the other a certain type of behaviour, managing.

Next, having started by an analysis paper of what type of actors there are in the managing of HEI internationalisation I turned to what is rational acting in internationalisation. With these two papers I got “my Heureka” and was able to name the discourses on HEI internationalisation; I discovered how all my data extracts on internationalisation could be gathered under three discourses.

With these results, I rethought why they are important. Again, I went back to the theoretical thinking; why it is important to identify the discourses. I found that the main result of the analytic discourse analysis is the detailed outline of reality (Jokinen et al. 1999); that there are no self-evident meanings and that the meanings organised the life and identity of societies (Lehtonen 1996), hence it is important to identify them, as they help to reflect upon current acting. Third, I found that knowledge - the discourses - is at the same time a societal product and a societal change producer (Berger &

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13 In the interaction analysis type of discourse analysis very small amounts of data are preferred, since the data is analysed very deeply. However, when the emphasis is on the social constructions and their
Luckman 1966/1994). Also, I checked how they can be described and how the description can be reported in an intelligible way. Next, I did the 8th reading of the data, all 388 pages, according to my latest outline. Then, I was able to name the discourses on managing of internationalisation and check that all the elements of the data on managing HEI internationalisation could be explained through these discourses.

As integrity and transparency are essential in discourse analysis (see chapter 3.4.3), I chose to write a very detailed report. I understand the report phase to constitute one part of the confirmation and validation procedure itself, as Potter & Wetherell (1987) propose.

Also, it is essential to frame the findings and to discuss their context (ch 4.4). According to Jokinen & Juhila in Jokinen et al (1999), one way to solve the relation of contextuality and cultural continuity is to eliminate the context from the analysis and to come back to it after the analysis. Hence, the interest stays in the data. Reflecting on the findings, based on the situational and theoretical context, is done later. This is what I did. The analysis forced me back to my literature review materials and I wrote chapter 4.4 as a result.

Next, I read my material through, the 9th time, searching for narrative elements concerning organisation and use of money. They served me as “final check points” towards the identified discourses. (see appendices 6 & 7).

To validate the discourses, I searched for coherency in them and for insightful, fruitful and novel explanations (Potter & Wetherell 1987). Towards the end, I organised the discourses in table form to check their coherence and logic. I also sent the report to the persons interviewed to obtain their comments. Unfortunately, due to the time limits, I cannot reflect on their comments in this report, although I plan as a post-doctoral step to discuss them through scientific and professional articles and conference presentations. Through sharing the results of the research, it will be possible, in a later phase, to develop my managerial conclusions into “best practices” for the everyday managing of HEI internationalisation (see also some elements presented in 4.5.2).

Another important fact to report concerns the language of study and reporting. Since discourse analysis is based on analysis of language, I first did the analysis of the extracts in the original language and only afterwards translated the report into English.

different variants, it can even be good to have more data.
4.1.5 Principles of Reporting the Analysis

The discourses on HEI internationalisation and its managing are presented below. The objective of an analytical discourse analysis is to break down or to specify reality (Jokinen et al. 1999), since there are no self-evident meanings (Lehtonen 1996). We have the freedom to choose, but our power to decide from which set is limited (Lehtonen 1996).

Dialectical words and other expressions from which it could be concluded who said what, or what type of organisation the interviewee comes from, were eliminated, since the middle managers of HEI internationalisation in particular so requested. Also, some expressions typical of spoken language have been removed to make the report more readable. This approach also suits discourse analysis as a method, since it is the discourses and not the actors that are important. In my case, the units of analysis were “HEI internationalisation” and “managing of HEI internationalisation”. “MM” means middle management, i.e. somebody who belongs to the middle management level of the higher-education institution, and “R” means rector or president of an HEI. The number after the letters distinguishes the speakers from each other. It is not given in some cases, since otherwise it would have been too easy to judge who is behind the words from what is said, if one would have put the pieces with the same number together.

I use detailed description and numerous data extracts to describe the shared understandings, the discourses on “HEI internationalisation” and of “managing the HEI internationalisation”. Also, I try to show how the discourses are constructed by describing on the one hand rational acting in “HEI internationalisation” discourses and on the other hand, the type of actors created by the “managing of HEI internationalisation”. I first present the discourses on HEI internationalisation, as its managing is inevitably understood by first understanding the phenomenon of internationalisation.
4.2 Discourses on HEI Internationalisation

4.2.1 Three Discourses on HEI Internationalisation

“All this internationalisation that we are now talking about, if the research aspect is left out, is a product of the last ten years. First, it was done with a lot of enthusiasm and pioneering spirit, and little by little the acting has become settled and professionalised and specified.” MM9

Three discourses on HEI internationalisation are presented and described in this subchapter. I have named them the “Basic processes of HEIs to be financed by internationalisation”, “The HEI as an appreciated and competitive actor” and “Towards a multicultural and more equal world”. “HEI” refers to all types of higher-education institutions: universities, art universities and polytechnics, also sometimes called universities of applied sciences or universities of professional education.

4.2.1.1 “HEI Internationalisation: Basic Processes of HEIs to Be Financed by Internationalisation”

In most cases, being a dominant discourse, internationalisation is defined to be a basic process of an HEI, related either to education or research, but in any case an issue that is funded by the EU or other sources, as the following quotes will show:

“It is good to remember when dealing with people from the units, so we have to remember that it is not their only task, to remember that the real task of an HEI is to provide these students with a professional education and to do it in a most versatile way, that internationalisation is just one part of this diverseness...that in that sense we have our own task but it is only part of the education task of the HEI.” MM3

“We have an international curriculum which is taught in English.” MM1

“A stay abroad is good for their language training.” R5

“Through internationalisation we want to improve the quality of education and research.” MM8
“It was a huge step that we managed to build some important EU projects in education and research,” R2

“That we have experts on Chinese, Spanish, German and French languages and cultures and cooperation,” MM3

“That a starting point in these project courses is that the students themselves pay about 100 euros and that the Erasmus grant gives them a youth hostel level accommodation and travelling expenses. But that they have to pay for their food and other things themselves.” MM4

It can be concluded from this fact that Knight’s (1994) widely quoted definition on HEI internationalisation as

“The process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching and services functions of higher education”

still effectively describes the shared understandings of internationalisation in a nutshell. The service functions are not (yet?) a discourse, either in Finland or in Belgium, even though there are some references to them in the data.

“If we take internationalisation, we are not market driven. What you develop is purely a service. I am completely against the idea that education is a product, so I think myself, I always see myself as a civil servant, which I am.” MM6

This discourse is full of traditional ways of thinking; brand new ideas that do not straight away seem to fulfil the basic aims of an HEI are not at all supported in this discourse:

“MS: But it does not mean any new modes of operation, no subsidiaries abroad or anything of that type? MM4: Oh no, my God, no!”

One of the traditional ways to determine HEI internationalisation is to do it through international cooperation in Finland and in Belgium, as van der Wende (2001) argues to be the case in continental Europe, and according to her, the Anglo-Saxon countries prefer a more competitive view. The following quotation also shows clearly how the EU and the national authorities of education through the EU have a strong influence on the contents of HEI internationalisation:
“This international cooperation of the HEI, well, it has a macro and micro level and something in between. In terms of education policy, we try to develop this acting according to the EU-lines and our own national policies. And in the micro level it means cooperation between people. And there are different systems, forms in which this cooperation is realised. There is the mobility, mobility of students and teachers, but also workshops, PD, curriculum development projects and so on. And the aim is to develop education in this field, in this country, and also to gain visibility internationally. And the exchange of information and different views and cultures and through them the development and new findings are important. And, when I said that we develop according to the EU and national policies, we of course try to influence these policies, what the spirit and directions are, so that we actively participate in their development.” MM8

The importance of the EU Mobility programmes is clear in this established dominating discourse (Lehtonen 1996), since most financing is applied for and received through them. It is reasonable that the requirements of the EU programmes, especially Socrates and Leonardo, but also research programs and other sources of financing, are met in order to obtain funding.

This also means that the Socrates terminology is the dominating terminology when international activities are discussed, i.e. terms like student and teacher and mobility are mentioned, or projects, modules, intensive programs, networking, teaching in English, and learning agreements are discussed (Socrates, Guidelines for applicants, 2000). Also, efforts to facilitate these Socrates activities are often mentioned, such as curricula in English so that the incoming students can have some courses to choose from or cultural courses to prepare the outgoing students for the conditions awaiting them in the exchange country.

One characteristic of the dominating discourses is the fact that they or parts of them are used most often (Jokinen et al 1993). Another characteristic of dominating discourses is that they are not even questioned, that they are described as if they were so self-evident that no explanations are needed. The data extracts below were said in that vein during the interviews. Also, they show that Socrates talk is one shared by both rectors and middle managers. This characteristic differs from those concerning managing of HEI internationalisation discourses.

“For example these different applications, Socrates etc.” R3
“The international organisation kind of guides the units so that they can take the Socrates education.” R4

“Within these international projects, let’s say development of learning related issues has been done. They have been a bit different, we have prepared modules and built networks and thought about methods. Then we have these double degrees that are somewhat further developed mode of student mobility; it goes so far that the student gets a degree from two countries.” R3

“Networks, cultural background, curricula in English as a visiting card, web pages in English, student and teacher mobility and in the future exchange and mobility related to the research projects.” R1

“If we develop teacher mobility, the quality of student mobility will inevitably improve, since our teachers can recommend better courses from the partner institute and fulfil easier the ECTS as well.” MM10

“Let’s admit that European mobility is more like a routine.” R1

“Yes, surely our international activities are far wider than we ourselves believed in in the mid 1990s. Wide student mobility, moderate teacher mobility, small annual conferences, a couple of symposiums and one bigger conference and this internationalisation is like part of our everyday routines. So it is that big achievement, maybe the biggest in the whole area of internationalisation.” R1

“Mobility of teaching staff and mobility of students, internationalisation of curriculum, the introduction of English as the teaching language, international projects.” MM2

“So all the courses have to be, all the learning agreements have to be on the central level in the end of May. They are officialised in a departmental meeting before that.” MM2

“Internationalisation at home, mobility, cooperation with companies, partner networks.” MM3

“These acceptances... I said that our reputation must not be destroyed by that, since it is exactly the idea that all the studies abroad are accepted as part of the home country studies. Hence, the studies won’t get longer; if everything is accepted they will not last longer.” MM4

“Mobility, international work placements, associations, projects, staff mobility to keep up the network, intensive programs, language studying, English as the language of study, project courses, ECTS, language courses for teachers.” MM4

“I had been there since the seventies, doing a lot of international things. I had this experience, these contacts, and this was a very good start for success from the very first moment in these European Programmes.” MM

“Mobility, we promote different European programs, we read two different journals, we go to different departments and try to convince them. We give them the appropriate documents, they provide the content, then we have to ‘write’ the projects, put in the right words, we do the follow-up once the project is implemented; Promotion, profile of the university, internally and externally we try to attend as many conferences as we can. The logistics for mobility, Inventing ideas to discuss and implement. Program management. Advising. Policy Preparation. Here we have in fact the tasks of the international office.” MM7

“Internationalisation comprises the activities of our teams, student, teacher and researcher mobility and different contracts.” MM9
“Socrates regulations state clearly that the teacher mobility has to be at least one week.” MM4

The state has been willing to support HEIs in obtaining EU financing and it has also set its own quantitative objectives for HEI internationalisation. These objectives have been effectively internalised amongst actors at the HEIs. Several people referred to the student mobility aim of 4-5% in Belgium and 30% in Finland. Also, the newer degree student objective of 4-5% and the teacher mobility objective of 20% for mobility of over one month were often mentioned (see also Opetusministeriö 2000, 2001 concerning the Finnish situation). Also, the importance of money is admitted by the actors. They point out that those activities are done from which funding is obtained, as the following extracts show. The future is frightening because the Ministry of Education will no longer provide separate funding for HEI internationalisation. These extracts are all from Finnish HEIs; according to the interviewees, Belgium has not provided separate internationalisation funding to its HEIs.

“This is very problematic this teacher mobility in polytechnics and it has been discussed a lot with the Ministry. My boss said it was discussed again last week (Why?) The ministry recognizes only mobility of over one month and the polytechnic teachers are in a very different position from the university professors.” MM

“We got substantial sums for internationalisation every year. The state wanted to support the internationalisation of Finnish higher education and supported it quite heavily in the beginning.” MM

“Of course it is still guided by the objectives set by the Ministry. We should reach them in order to get internationalisation money in the future, and this will also be a big issue in next year’s performance appraisals.” MM

“The Board of Education said that polytechnics have to show their connections with Asia, and some money was provided, so in practice all the HEIs went to Asia.” MM

“The continuity of internationalisation is a big issue; we are approaching the time that separate funding, which we have had for about ten years, is going to be stopped.” R

“Then we’ll really see who is international when the money has to be taken from the normal budget. Now the money comes from outside, it’s easy. It will be more controlled in the future - what to do and where to go. Now we have to start to critically think where.” MM

“Money is crucial and a guiding factor. We used to get separate funding from the Ministry and we got these prizes, so people are used to having money. So that now when the Ministry funding will end. It was
the first time last year that we had to take money from the units for this central internationalisation. And then it was hard to explain what the units will get in return. That money directs cooperation and now, for example, buys the costs of the common network. So, if Socrates gives money to Europe, of course Europe is important. If some other funding is available, to some places, it will have an increasingly strong guiding role in directing things. We are in the part of the country that receives regional funding. It is different from some other places where they get nothing. Of course we have to analyse the sensible uses from this point of view. “MM

“So, if you are interested where our own funding comes for these EU programs, it comes from the allowance from the Ministry. It was 150 000 euros this year and will be 153 000 euros next year.” MM

The following extract demonstrates the role of the funding from the Ministry of Education, but also shows faith that the authorities will continue to provide this allowance, even though it was clearly stated at the beginning that the funding would be stopped after the starting phase. Also, it shows the thinking that public services are financed by public money, maybe from a different source but in any case from a public source. The third idea found in this extract is that in this particular area regional cooperation with companies is not possible.

“This is a big question, which arouse straight away. With what resources, with what money? Now we have had separate project funding for internationalisation and we have been able to do a lot with it. I believe that the Ministry will also provide separate funding later and if we want to widen our activities we will have to find other financing. And then the other public funding possibilities come first. Like EU money and TEKES and so on. Some financing on a smaller scale can be obtained from the companies, but it is not easy in this area to arrange it.” R

International activities are also mentioned as sources for more funding of other activities.

“Regional money, European money, city money” MM7

“Internationalisation has a profit making basis, which has upset some HEIs to some extent.” MM1

“Some years ago when we started this internationalisation I tried to get in contact with some people who could explain European projects, their organisation, and how to join these projects. Now I am learning a lot of new things on internationalisation at home. I have had interesting discussions on how to get money from internationalisation.” R
“Important projects can generate money.” MM1

“Then, every week I have some contracts to be signed or applications to be made. We are making applications and contracts to get international funding all the time.” R2

“So to start up a new project the HEI should obtain funding, but in the end the project should become self-supporting or should even be a financial means to finance other international projects.” R5

Above, internationalisation was described with dimensions such as cooperation, learning environment, Socrates activities, role of state money or other funding, and generating of funding. Some figures that came up in the interviews are given in the following table. They can be informative to some people used to the description of HEI internationalisation through these dimensions. The figures are not exact, and they were not provided for all the HEIs in the same way because different people emphasised different issues in the interviews. A table based on the Socrates reports is provided in appendix 7.
One of the characteristics of discourses is that they are interwoven. Some parts of discourses are taken to support other discourses. Discourses can be classified as dominating discourses, emerging discourses, and relic discourses. (Jokinen et al. 1999, Lehtonen 1996).
Below, some examples of interwoven parts of discourses are given. For example, the “Basic processes to be funded by internationalisation” discourse exists at the same time with and is interwoven with “The HEI as an appreciated and competitive actor” discourse. In the first data extract, the EU is an important determinant of internationalisation, but however, it is appreciated to act according to developments in business. In the second one, industrial competitiveness is interwoven with the EU mobility programmes.

“The need for internationalisation arises in the first places from developments in business. They are internationalising very quickly and we are educating for them, so we have to follow the development and trends in business, or even better be ahead of them, if possible. We are not just a separate country, but we are part of international trade and the EU has also influenced a lot of this internationalisation development, which shows, for example, in the liberalisation of many things and how things move freely from one country to another.” R3

“But maybe the EU, Erasmus and Socrates programmes etc., have been an important impulse for establishing the competitiveness through higher education, so one contributory factor has been the mobility of students and teachers.” R1

“Self rebuttal”, going forward or being innovative? The following extracts show how HEIs are trying to widen their internationalisation outside of Europe. Europe is the home ground where one has to be, but it is not the only place with which one wants to cooperate now that the disadvantages of the European programmes have also been noticed. Some examples are the bureaucracy involved through a lot of regulations and the problems caused by the necessity of providing funding of their own. Also, student interest in more “exotic” places outside Europe is one reason for widening HEI internationalisation outside of Europe.

“These exchanges cannot be seen as the equivalent of what internationalisation should be. It can be an aspect, the easiest aspect.” R5

“And I tried to get in contact with people that don’t do this small world, this world of the European Union, the approach and the programme. I tried to get in contact with other kinds of people so that we may find other ways of international cooperation.” R5

14 CLIL= Content and Language Integrated Learning
"You have now something where you have to answer to questions, but they have already the questions... well sort of the questions and you have to prove the answer." R5

"Yes, it's kind of a routine. And we should be a bit creative. Another reason for trying to be creative is that otherwise internationalisation remains or becomes Europeanisation. We have some contacts in well, you know, now in the States, and in China, in Russia and in Hong Kong." R5

"I am trying to understand an application now for two other schools, American universities, to have a consortium here in Europe, and with some universities and American universities, and we have to submit that application at the end of May. so this is a way to that, to interact." MM1

"The conference in Japan... the relations with Argentina, the contract with a Japanese university." R1

"Australia, Oceania, North-Western Russia, the Baltic countries, South-Eastern and Eastern Asia, Korea, Japan, the Philippines, Malesia, Thailand, Mexico, Canada, Namibia, South Africa, the United States, Norway" MM10

The discourse “HEI internationalisation: basic processes to be financed by internationalisation” can be summarised to have six basic elements. It is interwoven with the basic teaching, learning and research-related objectives of the HEIs. It is cooperation-based and not competition-based. It aims at getting financing for the basic processes by meeting the requirements of the EU programmes. National authorities are in favour of getting financial support from the EU for the basic processes. As one of the important objectives of HEIs is to provide useful education for the needs of business, it is interwoven with the discourse “HEI internationalisation: towards a multicultural and more equal world” in which the global society is an important element and global working an important part of acting in a global society. The Bologna process has its influence on the basic processes of HEIs, so it is also taken into consideration in this discourse, especially by the “traditional” universities that also offer the masters and doctoral degrees.

4.2.1.2 “HEI Internationalisation: The HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor”

Another clearly dominating discourse of HEI internationalisation is the one where an HEI is an important and appreciated actor. According to Jokinen et al (1993), one of the characteristics of a dominating discourse is quantitative domination, while another is the exclusiveness, i.e. self-evidence and presenting issues without other alternatives. This
chapter presents this discourse of “HEIs as appreciated and competitive actors”. Today, competitiveness is a characteristic that commands respect; the market laws also dominate the field of higher education. Some examples of this “appreciation talk” are expressed below. First, there are three data extracts in which the commitment to being international is a source of respect. In the following two data extracts, respect is gained through benchmarking, through comparisons with others that show that we are also good.

“The Board of our HEI strongly believes that internationalisation is the issue for which we want to be known, and as we are already, we want to continue to be. And the stakeholders in this area are committed to that. It is seen for example in the budget; we have the resources for internationalisation.”

MM3

“Yes, this is an international HEI.”

R4

“The internationalisation of an HEI is that we have knowledge and knowhow at the international level, at the internationally appreciated level. It means these contacts, exchanges, mobility, electronic mobility.”

R3

“... in administration, it maybe means the most benchmarking – type of comparisons and assessment of quality, comparison of quality to other same type of HEIs.”

R3

“One aspect in this development of teaching is that when we have teacher mobility, it allows us to benchmark which is very important for the development of an HEI.”

R1

“Also, one important role is that we see that in our home country, that our knowledge and knowhow is the best available. We are not so good to praise ourselves but we actually know a lot.”

R3

As they are meanings, discourses can be seen in the data extracts, but also, even though some issues are absent from the talks, they can belong to a discourse and be essential parts of it. Lehtonen (1996) and Jokinen et al. (1993) have presented two tools for this type of situation, to facilitate analysis. “Rebuttal” and “self-rebuttal” are both ways to identify the discourses. They are close concepts and mean that even though some meaning is not stated explicitly, arguments against it are presented, assuming that the other speakers also know the meaning against which the talk is directed. Sometimes little hard evidence can be found, there are just some hints. It is difficult to find good examples as it also depends a lot of the researcher how the
different “talks” are understood, whether they seem to be explicit or implicit. Below an objection is made to respect for an HEI as a competitive market actor.

“If we take internationalisation, we are not market driven. What you develop is purely a service. I am completely against the idea that education is a product, so I think myself, I always see myself as a civil servant, which I am.” MM6

In the next data extract, respect for internationalisation as a status activity is opposed:

“I think we have to go on with this student and professor exchange. If not internationalisation becomes something with higher status level... that is going on without students and staff knowing what is happening at that level. You can’t compare internationalisation to for instance research. Research is done at an HEI and the majority of the students never hear or discuss it. You should not internationalise that way.” R5

The context of the discourses is interwoven with the discourses (Jokinen et al 1999, 1993, Lehtonen 1996). Sometimes the line between the context and the discourse is just like a line drawn on water. I understand the creation of new HEIs to be a context phenomenon (see more 4.4), but somebody else would argue differently. In any case, appreciation and respect are connected to this creation of new HEIs. When the new HEIs were founded at the beginning of 1990s, one of the criteria in Finland was to have international activities – perhaps since the traditional universities have always argued that they are international, that research is international. Hence, in order to become an appreciated actor, as polytechnics were given a higher status than second level educators, the HEI had to be international and prove it with facts in the application to become a polytechnic. Also, having received polytechnic status, internationalisation legitimised the polytechnic as a higher-education institution, i.e. as an appreciated actor in society.

“Oh yes, maybe the application to become a polytechnic, internationalisation was one of the 14 criteria.” R

“The Ministry of Education, from the very beginning, when polytechnics were founded, in the beginning of the 1990s, stated that internationalisation is an important objective of polytechnics. All the polytechnics
started with an experimental, trial phase. You had to be good to get the permission to be a permanent polytechnic... so you had to do as the Ministry of Education said, in order to get the permission, you had to do as they say a good polytechnic does, to get permission so you could not neglect internationalisation. So it must have been a very materialistic, the objective to start internationalisation.” MM

“The international exchange is connected with growth and development as an HEI.” R

“And when they met domestic students in Shanghai, they were surprised; all the students were from polytechnics.” R

“That this type of action would be established as an activity of the polytechnics.” R

“Yes, if you look at what universities have done, it is more a matter of research cooperation and it cannot be a model for polytechnics, which have to seek their own ways in this sector and to connect it to other polytechnics and that way to industrial life.” R

Appreciation comes through appreciated actions. It is appreciated to set objectives, to be a leader in HEI internationalisation development, and to help others to join in, as in the first data extract below. In the second one, the HEI wants also to influence more general things, like value development. And the third represents a third type of appreciated action, this time connected with the way of functioning like a company, having a corporation perform international activities together.

“This HEI coordinates two networks. One is Nordic and the other European; nowadays it is an association. And our HEI’s president is the president of this association. It started about ten years ago already, and we have been the coordinators all the time. And, at the same time we have been the leaders in cooperation due to Bologna, in the development of degrees in cooperation. Many of the other schools are quite small or have limited resources for international cooperation so we have been able to support them in this development work and in the passing of information.” MM

“This HEI still wants to develop qualitatively and in its internationalisation and its aim is to be one of the most appreciated HEIs in its field, to which people come from the other side of the world, so which is one that attracts the most talented people. This integrates and influences societal development not only in this country, but values and value development more generally.” MM

“I think it is more important essential to have forms of corporation, a real corporation that we do together something with an HEI or 2-3.” R

The appreciated acting helps students get jobs, which is an appreciated aim of an HEI, and also it gives them an authentic learning environment – another, this time
pedagogically appreciated, aim. Thus, international industrial cooperation is an appreciated activity.

“...in this case to provide students with opportunities of a certain degree to create an international carrier...” R2

“Students can participate in this activity by being partners in projects. They can have work placement in these companies or do their thesis for these projects, so, either directly by working in these projects or indirectly by getting contacts and so on. And students see concrete examples of what is going on.” MM3

Appreciation is an interactive phenomenon. In order to be appreciated you have to show appreciation towards others. To show appreciation to partner schools and visitors from them, rectors and presidents interact with them.

“Yes, in these visits, there is always a coffee together, which I attend.” R4

“It seems to be that very often the rector has to attend to show that we appreciate these relations enough and that they are important for us.” R3

“Probably we have every week one delegation from somewhere visiting us.” R2

“And then, there is a lot of this PR, it means that we have a lot of visiting professors. And of course, I meet the visiting students a couple of times each year.” R1

The contracts are very important for networking. The signing of a contract is a solemn cultural rite, in which the rector participates to show the value s/he places on the contract.

“But I sign the contracts, I guess that most contracts are signed by me.” R4

All the HEIs, whether they are universities or polytechnics, seem to promote regional networking, as an HEI is an important and appreciated actor.

“To support this area, its companies and cultural life, to be a strong regional influential agent, for example by developing the international work placement practices.” MM

“One of our future challenges is to open consciousness of this area and to internationalise industry in this area, this HEI has that type of an effect... That we are like professionals of internationalisation, we bring that knowhow to help and support companies.” MM
“Yes, this has started from a need. From the thought that one of the objectives of a polytechnic is to promote the development of the area, we have to participate. On the other hand, it is well a fact, that the HEI is the leader of internationalisation and international activities in this area.” MM

An appreciated actor in today’s society has numerous international contacts and international contacts are created only with appreciated actors. Also, as can be seen from the last extract below, the co-existence of two types of HEIs is another element of appreciation. An appreciated actor is able to work with the other type of higher education and this was seen in the EPS analysis of the first phase of study to function both ways. The interaction element of appreciation is evident.

This “HEIs are ...” discourse is interwoven with the “Basic...” discourse, as the EU demands networking for activities such as mobility, projects and ICPs, to which it provides financial support. The “contract talk” is interwoven with the networking, since evidence of networking is required for funding. The linking or entanglement of high profile and networking can be found in two successive phrases, as the last example below shows:

“And it is connected to the building of these concrete international relations, which is an essential part of the daily work. It means the actions we undertake and the actions others start and at this moment, the emphasis of our international activities is very heavily in Asia, and will certainly remain there for a long time.” R2

“And then I meet international students and professors, university people, embassy people, people from cultural and scientific institutions, domestic civil servants, business people, representatives from international associations. I work as an expert in projects, I give presentations in conferences.” R

“It started with teaching, and a very massive programme to internationalise that included networking with other universities and a large number of international conferences throughout the whole 1990s, that was it.” R

“Probably every week we have contract negotiations, a preparation of an application or a contract. They are done all the time for international financing.” R

“Important projects can generate money” and then straight away the following words: “And it has the automatic link to universities. To have a high profile.” MM

MS: What is the biggest benefit of the university link? MM: Money I think. MS: For that they pay their part
or? MM: No, that you get more support from the central, visibility, think jointly.”

The appreciated acting is entangled with the global world talks, especially with global markets, and hence with the third discourse, which will be presented in the next chapter, namely the “Towards a Multicultural and more equal world” discourse:

“I’d like to get people at our HEI to understand that we should see ourselves as an HEI functioning in the international market, in the international higher education field, as an HEI that internationally recruits teachers, personnel and students, and as an HEI that educates students and experts for that market.” R2

The discourse of “HEI internationalisation: the HEI as a competitive and appreciated actor” can be summed up as follows. Internationalisation is an appreciated activity that legitimises the HEI as an HEI, in addition to the fact that internationalisation as such, and international relations especially, are appreciated. Internationalisation creates possibilities to benchmark, and to find out how appreciated the HEI is and what it could do to be even more appreciated by its partners, since appreciated partners create an appreciated institution. Vision setting is important to gain more appreciation and it is connected with the role of regional motor and trendsetter for internationalisation throughout the region where the HEI is situated.

4.2.1.3 “HEI Internationalisation: Towards a Multicultural and more Equal World”

The third discourse is based on the spirit of the United Nations. It could perhaps be characterised as a relic discourse that is becoming stronger again and is now an emerging discourse (Lehtonen 1996). The general good is sought, at home and internationally, for all the people of the world. It is desirable to give students opportunities to experience this. As a more loyal way of thinking, it challenges the two above-presented dominating discourses that are based more on the hard economic facts of life, on the existing neo-liberal thinking in the Western countries.

Since the same people can have several partly or fully contradictory opinions at the same time, this also shows up in the elements of the different discourses; meanings change constantly. Thus, discourses are constantly evolving, changing, and challenging
each other. (Jokinen et al. 1999, Lehtonen 1996) The struggle is over how reality is understood and what can be said about it.

The following extracts demonstrate how it is desired, in the spirit of the United Nations to keep peace in the world.

“Well, it should bring cohesion to this world. One big objective is to keep Europe peaceful, to add tolerance and understanding, and this objective has also to exist globally.” R1

“Of course internationalisation is guided by all the beautiful thoughts about the world’s globalisation.” MM4

“Up to now we have not done anything in the developing countries.” R5

“In addition to the fact that we strive for the common and general good, so we always think how this will make us better.” R2

“That last autumn we issued a tolerance declaration, since people have been beat up and mobbed. We wanted to stress how these visiting lecturers and students are a valuable to the region, that they are not stealing our tax money. But that they give us something we don’t have yet.” MM

In this discourse, the main point is that we live and we want to live in a global world, and to provide resources to be able to live and work peacefully in this global society and to respect each other, despite cultural differences. In the last three data extracts, interweavings with the “The HEI …” discourse come up again, because this internationalisation also helps one’s own society or region to be competitive in the world. As this is an emerging discourse, there is a great deal of entanglement.

This dominant understanding related to the globalisation of this discourse can be seen from the quantity of the data extracts below. Also, the meanings below are given without any choice; things simply are this way, you cannot question the meanings. This is one of the characteristics of the discourses.

“The HEI educates citizens for a global society and they must have a strong international aspect.” R4

“If this is examined from the students’ point of view, it provides them above with all the readiness to act in a more and more global world. It provides the cultural understanding to act, proficiency in foreign languages and social skills.” R1

“Our students and teachers must be international and be prepared to work with people from other countries. This internationalisation that we can offer at an HEI at practical level comprises language proficiency, understanding of different cultures, experiences, opinions, and conceptions, travel to foreign
places, and knowledge of some other cultures.” R3

“It is important for this country that our youth and workers have internationalised… they have to know, however, their own identity and own national culture” MM3

“I think it is very important to educate young people; they must go abroad. And I think we must merely provide chances, and a service to them. It is important for their personal development.” MM6

“That a student goes abroad to another country, hears different views, acquires entirely new knowledge, then he has a far richer education and he has to have been able to get over difficulties, inevitably, since always, however well things go abroad, it is always more difficult than at home. So, you always develop yourself or mature as a person. You acquire competence and conceptions and general education and maturity.” MM10

“To provide students with an education thanks to which they can become competent for international working life and find jobs internationally and promote cooperation between people from different cultures and to have natural attitude with people from different cultures.” MM10

“I can’t imagine that in the 2001st century students can graduate after attending only one HEI. In contact with another one, with a third one, they can see the differences, they can make their choices and …” R5

“Well, the main aim of internationalisation is to support the professional growth of students, since teaching and students are the main thing. That they would have better professional readiness to find their places in working life, to go abroad, to work in international companies, to understand people from foreign countries here at home. The secondary aim is the regional benefit.” MM

“What is more difficult, is to genuinely internationalise the acting of an HEI, to reach a phase in which internationalisation is no longer one sector of the activities that an HEI has to maintain, but that it would be a central idea in all our activities. To learn and to accept that our environment is no longer our native country, but the world. How to get everything out of this international aspect and how to make it profitable for your own society. All in all, the internationalisation that we are now trying to make happen serves our own country’s development, even though we act internationally.” R2

“We seek a heavy interaction with international industrial life.” R1

These instructions and resources for living in a global world are also provided to the incoming students, not only to one’s own students. Also, with the interwoven idea of competitive acting, with the idea of attracting more international degree students, it would be essential that this multicultural competency exists amongst both one’s own and the incoming people, to ensure a fruitful international learning environment.

“We would need to have a team to have it here everyday. With more degree programmes in English we’d
have even better prospects, wider prospects to take international students for study here.” R3

“More highly educated people for this country, our own people is not enough, we need foreign experts; There are employment related objectives that for example even when our young people go abroad to study it would be desirable that they returned." R1

“And when it has been discussed, this attracting of foreign students and for example students from the Eastern European countries, or Russia, or Asian countries, I find it interesting that people say that not with our tax money. If this is to be deepened, there are many undiscussed areas.” R1

If a more equal world and a more multicultural world is desired, not only should students be able to come and go more easily, but also all the other actors, especially the academic staff, should have a broader view and be active in the promotion of internationalisation at home. An international atmosphere on the campus, international interaction at home, is the key to the realisation of a multicultural world at home. Teacher mobility would also be an effective tool for creation of this multiculturalism on a practical level.

“The vision is that we don’t make any difference whether we function inside one country or in the neighbouring country or in Europe or somewhere else. These international activities are done, people come and go, and ICT is used to help networking with other students. In a longer perspective, internationalisation is part of the action.” R3

“It seems that because we have had a weak international culture, it has been clearly difficult to internationalise our everyday operations, but maybe with these international degree students – and also with the growing group of international mobility students, so we will eventually have a stronger international culture. This is of course because when they are in contact with many teachers, or many teachers have to have contacts with them, the international culture must evolve.” MM4

“And of course the result, when a teacher has been in teacher mobility should benefit the teacher, or his or her students, but the other teachers as well, as students come and go and teachers stay a bit longer. Every teacher needs to write a report and I hope that it is not just a report, but that everybody will get a copy and think a little about what follows, so that it would not just be a matter of a one-week visit abroad. That teacher mobility would have continuity, in the form of projects and vice versa. That a well functioning, effective teacher mobility would have consequences in many things, and would be firmly integrated with our teaching.” MM4

There is also an example of an outright conflict between the discourses:
"Internationalisation is maybe more than a means. It is maybe an end in itself." R5

As internationalisation is considered one of the basic processes of an HEI, with the aim of offering an international, multicultural learning environment to everybody, there has recently been a lot of talk about how to internationalise those who do not go abroad and enjoy the fruits of the student mobility. The European Association of International Education has called this view as “Internationalisation at Home” (see e.g. eds. Crowther et. al 2001). With this dimension the “Towards a Multicultural...” discourse is interwoven with the “Basic Processes...” discourse. On the one hand, the idea of offering many opportunities for meaningful multiculturalism is shared, while on the other hand, it should be achieved through means other than mobility. This idea of internationalisation at home is presented below.

“We have quite an international environment here. We have enough international students; they offer opportunities to those students who do not go abroad themselves. The next phase is to have international cooperation in teaching and in different research and development projects: that has been done a little. And then the following step is more internationalisation in teaching.” R3

“Well, we have foreign students in this locality, we have our students studying abroad, we have foreign guests, visiting professors. Maybe joining the EU, maybe one of the biggest benefits has been to widen the international networks of higher education institutions and also the realisation simultaneously that the EU includes the whole of central Europe.” R2

“How does this whole international organisation support internationalisation of the whole institution? We have these means like promoting mobility, summer terms, preparing contracts, degrees in English”. R

“We have to still increase "internationalisation at home", so that those studying for domestic degrees would have more cultural training and more language studies, so that they would participate more.” R4

The challenge of the existing status – internationalisation - is entangled with the wish for more equal internationalisation. The emphasis on appreciation makes some people think that internationalisation is somehow a matter of status, providing opportunities for a lot of travel abroad, staying in hotels, meeting people of high hierarchical levels, and not just hard basic work towards a more multicultural environment in more complex conditions. The first data extract below shows the status idea and the second the fear of hard work. Maybe the emergence of the “Towards a Multicultural...” discourse is also
based on one side on the struggle of NGOs against the commercial globalisation?

"And I am afraid that internationalisation would lose contact with what we call the basis – that is the
students and everyone in the field” and later, “I am always afraid that internationalisation will become
something very specialised. And that it.. it will live a life of its own.” R5

"The challenge is how we get a bigger group not everybody needs to participate - but at least dozens of
people. It is important to find the group who wants to participate in this.” R3

The discourse called as “HEI internationalisation: towards a multicultural and more
equal world” can be summed up by the following features. The whole discourse exists in
the spirit of the United Nations. According to this discourse, we are all part of a global
society, and we need multicultural competence to be able to live in it peacefully. The
idea of a global society is interwoven with the idea of the “Basic Processes…” discourse
in which global working is an important aim. The HEI should support both the incoming
and outgoing students and teachers in acquiring these competences. Neither should the
other students and teachers be forgotten: “internationalisation at home” activities help
to reach this aim. In this discourse, internationalisation is not only a means to achieve
appreciation, financing or working places, but an end in itself.

4.2.2 Rational Acting in the Discourses on HEI Internationalisation

There are at least two ways to analyse discourses (Jokinen et al. 1999, 1993). First, the
data can be analysed in a way that the discourses are identified, and second, by
understanding how the discourse is constructed or created. (Jokinen et. al 1999, 1993).
Having identified the discourses and having been able to organise the meanings of HEI
internationalisation through the three discourses presented above, I also wanted to
understand what type of acting results from these discourses. To do that, I searched for
information on the question of what is rational acting in the discourses on HEI
internationalisation. As, Moisander (2001), for example, has mentioned that it is
essential to explain the relation between the analysis and the data to the readers to
make the study more reliable, I also use numerous data extracts in this chapter to
describe my thinking. Jokinen et al (1993) has stated that the opportunities for analysis
are limitless, so I want to present only those points I find essential to answer to the research questions of this study. My material could also be further used to answer other questions.

Different discourses make different types of acting rational. I have identified two dominating discourses and one emerging discourse. All the three discourses are interwoven in many ways, as described in the last chapter. Hence, also the rational acting of different discourses is interwoven.

4.2.2.1 Rational Acting in the Discourse "HEI Internationalisation: Basic Processes to Be Financed by Internationalisation"

As financing is one of the main characteristics of this discourse, it is reasonable to have many activities that are supported with external funds. The first data extracts are about this.

Socrates, the biggest EU programme, supports student, teacher and staff mobility. To have a lot of mobility, diverse support is needed. Also, there are numerous regulations to follow in these programmes and such regulations organise the working days of internationalisation personnel at HEIs. As there is a lot of work, internationalisation personnel tries to involve the whole staff. The number of data extracts illustrates how dominating this type of rational acting is in HEI internationalisation.

"It is said in our internationalisation strategy that we participate in the Nordic and the European Union based research and education programmes." MM

“Our mission statement says that every HEI has to internationalise." MM1 (+MM2)

“I use different documents to report via my boss to the local authorities, then European policy statements, then national accreditation unit collects information. I prepare publications and brochures for incoming and outgoing students.” MM1

“We have informal sessions with teacher evaluation of the exchanges; Common learning modules, contracts; National Socrates Meetings; We have frequent visits to our partners; ICP meetings; We contributed to a questionnaire, we published that book; We have visitors from the partner schools.” MM1
"It's the steering committee on the departmental level that reads and can comment on student reports."

MM1

"So I am trying to do a lot myself, but there is also a lot I am helping the others. It is basically collecting information, affecting the material and informing the other level where internationalisation is at work."

MM1

"I have always been involved in setting up the projects."

MM1

"For the final part of the day I can do, I start my writing."

MM1 (+MM3, MM6, MM7)

"I interliaise with people on the level of departments."

MM1 (+MM2,MM3,MM4, MM5,MM7,MM8,MM10)

"At the departmental level, the coordinator is responsible for the implementation of the signed agreement, Socrates or whatever. The follow-up of that implementation, the integration of incoming students and teachers and also the responsibility of contacting colleagues at departmental level in order to propose projects, proposals in research and to be present in meetings and also for writing projects, of course. And then giving information to the departmental board. At the central level, all the follow-up of the project at the administrative level, financial level, Tempus, Socrates, whatever. And we are also responsible for the accommodation of incoming students. And also for welcoming them, mostly we go to the airport or to the railway station. We look also for supplementary insurance. We also try to cook some projects at the central level, if possible. New partners also come through the central level. And Erasmus, we look for a delivery of strategy to the board at the central level. So, and the link between the rector and the departments."

MM2

"All the projects have to make a report. All the students have to make an evaluation of their stay. Outgoing teachers have to make a report." MM2

"We try to collect all the ideas."

MM2

"We have 3-4 meetings with the incoming students. We organise trips for them to better know the region. We do some days of intercultural communication. We also started the integration of teachers this year. We have more information than we can give to people asking us for information. We now have an information package from ECTS. We are building an English web-site. We have professionally- oriented language courses."

MM2

"Systematic tutor training, infos, international days, video conferencing" MM3

"A lot of my time goes into networking; the approval of invoices takes a surprising amount of time; applications and reports cause a lot of work; but these contract conditions, I know that I can answer straight away, that I do not have to get my papers first; the follow-up of the teaching mobility allowance from Socrates; emails from teachers; visiting teachers, planning of meetings."

MM4

"A lot of time goes into the organisation of mobility, logistics, contracts, bilateral agreements, launching the idea inside the university, promoting certain destinations, networking."

MM6

"Supporting students, supporting professors to develop international programs" MM6

"Network meetings, correspondence, visits, preparing of conference programmes, improving the data processing" MM8
“Mobility programmes, getting to know the areas, English degrees, garden parties with visitors, joint degrees, application making, reporting, contract negotiations, coordinating of networks, organising of work placement, teacher mobility, welcome parties, Christmas party, orientations for incoming and outgoing students, “friend family” activities” MM

“This is a lot based on the internal deadlines and on the other hand, on the demands of our partners and outside interest groups. Sometimes you work really hard to get the documents in time for Brussels or wherever they go.” MM4

“We have a lot of deadlines. I really work, fight against the deadlines. This is very hard, there are always deadlines ahead, you know.” MM6

“Well, we have used a lot of time to build this network in order to have these desired activities. It has really been on our responsibility to build, especially the infrastructure for student mobility. It has taken all our energy.” MM4

“Teachers are in a key position: we need the right people to work.” MM4

Rational acting is found in direct talking about money, not only in talking about activities that generate money incomes.

“Now we have to get it going, we have to have that type of actions that the Ministry measures, if we want to have money.” MM4

Rational acting in the “Basic processes of the HEIs” already involves preparations for the effects of the Bologna process, especially in the minds of the “traditional” university personnel. (Bologna Declaration 2000, 1999).

“So in the International Relations Office you will not be dealing only with this typical thing of Erasmus, but you will have questions from students that ok, I want to do social law, can you tell me where I can go, a full Master’s or part of one. So there will be another type of mobility. I speak about in ten years. I think we will have to introduce this market-driven approach to attract students. And our role should be, to guide and coach these students in the IRO. I think internationalisation will be more embedded in faculties; Because we will introduce the Bachelor’s and the Master’s degree, in the Bologna declaration, I think there will be much more mobility in that Master’s than there has been.” MM

Rational acting in the “Basic Processes...” discourse can be summarised to include
activities to obtain EU or other funding. This means that there are activities to promote those activities like tutoring, welcoming parties, information days, and then there are the real financially supported activities like mobility, curriculum development, joint projects and all the related bureaucracy.

4.2.2.2 Rational Acting in the Discourse “Internationalisation: the HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor”

There are two types of appreciated rational acting in the discourse “the HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor”. First, the HEI itself is an appreciated actor, and second, the internationalisation manager’s acts are appreciated as the representative of the HEI. Also, the rector’s acts are appreciated, as in any case the rector institution is one of the most respected professions. Participation by rectors in contract negotiations and in visits as a demonstration of involvement and interest was mentioned above.

Below, I shall give some examples of the different elements of this discourse. The acting of the HEI is appreciated by inviting the internationalisation manager to present the international activities of the HEI in different connections, inside and outside the HEI:

“The government invited me to come and talk at the Socrates National Day.” MM1
“We do a lot of work for that because we do much more than the grants only. So all the initiatives taken by the Ministry go through this committee.” MM (and MM1, MM2)
“When I visit the foreign HEIs” MM3
“A big part of my time goes to participating in different types of meetings.” MM4
“Discussions with the rector and the directors of the different units” MM4

Regional activities are appreciated, whether they happen inside or outside the school environment:

“We have regional networking.” MM2
“We are the only HEI in this region.” MM3
Being a model for other HEIs is appreciated:

"We have been a model for a lot of other people." MM6
"But we have searched for models and given them and will search for and give them later on as well." MM9

Appreciated acting can be found through the “rebuttal” concept, as are all the elements in the type of discourse analysis represented by this study. Business-like acting is highly appreciated in general, but in this case it is opposed even though competitiveness is also desirable.

"MS: What do you mean that you don’t want, that you are not business people?
MM6: I mean the market-driven thing that you just develop something and put it on the market."

The end result of appreciated acting is that the student gets a job. Education as such is not so important and essential as earlier; it is just a means towards an end, to help one to find a meaningful place in a society full of hard values and competitiveness.

“So that the international dimension would help the students to get employment and that it would somehow be seen in their papers.” MM4
“The main objective is to support the professional growth of the student.” MM5
“That we have started to very strongly support the fact that our own students would get an international career.” R2

To ensure that others also understand how important our acting is, we have to tell them. Image managing is required.

“We want to be seen, we want to be present in the world.” MM6
“When the university has to be marketed worldwide with very little resources, networks are a very important way to act. They demand continuous activity and initiative and back stage acting.” MM10

Cooperation is one appreciated way of acting and is interconnected with the “Basic Process...” discourse through financing, since the EU finances activities that need
networking.

“We have development projects with university W abroad and we coeducate in a third country with another university.” MM3

“We are together preparing an entire degree. They are doing it for their country and we participate in it.” MM3

“Well, the foreign partners are number 1.” MM4

Rational acting in “the HEI as...” discourse can be summarised as follows. The internationalisation manager behaves like an appreciated person; s/he is invited to give speeches, to travel in order to maintain networks, to innovate and to create opportunities for students. The HEI is rational if it is a model for others, has regional influence and networks.

4.2.2.3 Rational Acting in the Discourse “HEI Internationalisation: Towards a Multicultural and More Equal World”

There were not many examples of rational acting in this discourse. One of the possible reasons is that this discourse is only emerging and shared only to a limited extent. The activities have not yet become routine. This is supported through one of the key persons of “Internationalisation at home” (IaH) activities in the European Association of International Education, Bengt Nilsson. He wrote in an email (30.7.2002) to me that IaH still means "anything beyond mobility" and that they would be happy to consider ideas for actions based on research.

Internationalisation at home was described in chapter 4.2.1.3 as one of the ideas through which HEI internationalisation can be opened more widely to all the actors in the HEIs so that not only the participants in mobility benefit from the fruits of internationalisation as a natural and essential part of the learning and teaching environment offered. Some examples of this are provided below:

“I’d like to have more foreign degree students.” MM2

“So that internationalisation would become a common activity.” MM3
“That there would be a common part of studies that would be done for the internationalisation people, e-learning is planned as well, but that internationalisation would be a natural part of these studies at the HEI.” MM3

“That the result of the visit would not just stay with the professor, but that it would be passed on in the organisation, shared by many people, not only with students but also with colleagues. So that it would be applied further in projects.” MM4

Team work is part of this discourse. Also, this discourse is so appreciated and rewarding for the actors that people work for it without compensation; salary is not important, but the fulfilling of the tasks.

“I have a very enthusiastic team of colleagues and we did this for many years on the top of our normal working loads.” MM1

However, helping others is an important activity, especially in this discourse. It makes the helper feel appreciated and strong as s/he is able to be a model or of concrete assistance to others.

“But then, if someone is coming from KIEV for the first time, at three o’clock in the morning, at the railway station, we don’t want that girl to be alone.” MM2

“We are now building a model for what to do in crisis situations.” MM5

Students’ work is appreciated. This is also interwoven with the EU supported “Basic Processes...” discourse. Students are used to help especially with mobility-related activities, like in the example below students go to welcome the incoming students at the airports, harbours and railway stations.

“The students get all my support. They are doing fantastic work. They go to the airport and take people to the airport so that I don’t have to do it.” MM4

To sum up, rational acting in the “Towards a Multicultural...” discourse consists of internationalisation at home activities, team working and appreciation of others.
4.3 Discourses on Managing HEI Internationalisation

4.3.1 Dominating Discourses on Managing HEI Internationalisation

Based on the above mentioned discussion of the three discourses on internationalisation, I was able to detect the managing discourses. Since managing as a function can be characterised with some elements that are part of all managing (see e.g. Mintzberg & Waters 1985), it was hard to categorise in some cases. The recognised discourses were called “Norm Managing”, “Visionary Managing” and “Participatory Managing”. They are presented below.

4.3.1.1 Norm Managing

The first discourse of managing, “Norm managing”, is closely connected with the “Basic Process to Be Financed by Internationalisation” discourse. It is also the dominating managing discourse, so even in the other discourses on HEI internationalisation there is a great deal of “Norm managing”. By “Norm managing” I mean a kind of normative managing in which the instructions from those hierarchically above are applied without thinking too much about why the actions are taken. Somebody else, somewhere else has merely decided on the acceptable grounds for the actions. This is a very traditional way of functioning in a school environment (see chapter 4.4.6) Nevertheless, the tradition is changing in many parts of Europe (see chapter 4.4.6).

“Norm managing” is described below with some data extracts. It is largely routine work, including a lot of administration and for instance, applications, information work, contracts and statistics as the following examples show. Also, the hierarchy of the HEIs is referred to.

“It was like coordinating, in the beginning. For example, my predecessor did all the Socrates and Erasmus applications as they had to be centrally done, by one person, and also he compiles the applications and statistics, plans, analysis and guides for the national authorities of education. Of course I have to do the same, but I think that is the routine type of work that is repeated every year...” MM5
“That it is the job of the coordinators to find the teachers. That I also give them a lot of information of opportunities.” MM5

“I prepare the applications, I help the HEI management by taking care of the contracts. I try to find the partner institutions, I help with the practical procedures; my job is internal information on internationalisation, the continuous interaction with the units, finding financing, being the secretary of the committee, participating in the writing of strategies, helping the management to implement the strategies, marketing student mobility, taking care of the image of the HEI abroad.” MM10

“In order to internationalise the HEI really, we have to, we depend on our bosses, I mean the rector, deans, departmental heads, heads of all the units.” MM2

“We should be on the same hierarchical level as the other functions of the HEI.” MM2

“That I do the budget and the follow up for all the projects.” MM4

“meetings, emails, working groups, phone calls, visits, conferences, applications, reports, contracts, image building, meeting the interest groups” MM9

“60% of this work is clearly communication, information, marketing, cooperation, PR, interaction and the remaining 40% is administration.” MM10

One part of the “Norm managing” concerns belonging to a hierarchical organisation in which one is responsible for only a certain task. When, for example, responsibility for taking the initiative is in the upper levels of the hierarchy, it is understandable to comment like this:

“The lack of commitment by teachers is a problem. I don’t know what to do.” MM4

If there is no direct commonly shared vision of the future in the organisation, the traditional hierarchical administrative way of performing tasks is applied. Hence, the acting varies a great deal. One other reason why the acting varies greatly is the general characteristics of management, which is very fragmented (Mintzberg & Waters 1985).

“There are no fixed regulations. There are no fixed ways of what to do during the day. It all depends on the work that has to be done. A report for the financing department. The possibility of starting a project for one unit. There are also the internal meetings, in the central level and with the units, with some professors, with the Ministry, with the region. There are the partners. There are the activities outside the country.” MM2

“Not being able to anticipate the actions, it is both a richness and sometimes a burden.” MM9

“It is difficult to prioritise. You have many things going on at once, many things to be promoted
Much work is done after regular office hours, after client servicing, either in the office or often at home. One of the reasons for this is the fragmentation of the day; people cannot concentrate on more demanding things during routine work. So, “Norm Managing” activities postpone the more independent type of work to be done later.

“So, I collected all the problems and I wrote a paper about it.” MM7
“I’ll take this home haha. I usually do this at home, like writing this all, writing on my computer (at work) I cannot do.” MM6
“. and then the writing in the evening.” MM3
“Then I take my things home. I do quite a lot of my writing at home.” MM1
“. but very often I have to postpone the more difficult thinking work to the evening.” MM10

The discourse of “Norm managing” can be summarised to include fulfilling of the tasks assigned by superiors. It means, for example, preparing of applications, reporting on activities and implementing mobility-related activities.

4.3.1.2 Visionary Managing

The second discourse of ‘managing HEI internationalisation’ identified was called “Visionary managing”. It is in particular present in the “HEI as an appreciated...” discourse, but also the challenging character of the “Towards a multicultural...” discourse needs some “Visionary managing” to promote the changes needed to progress from the dominating discourse towards this emerging discourse. The main differentiating characteristic of the “Visionary managing” is that it is based on one’s own analysis of the rationales for managing; the appreciated and competitive international acting is conducted on the basis of one’s own analysis. As it is “visionary” it includes innovations, new things to be conducted. As real managing, and not just “performing orders”, the emphasis is on a sense of responsibility and initiative. To be effective, visionary managers want to create enthusiasm for the set visions.
“But concerning me, a lot of my work is developing new things, innovation and creating new projects and cooperation with units, for example their motivation to new projects and things like this.” MM5

“Head of International Services, I prepare the internationalisation strategy, I am the Socrates coordinator, I am the second in command in of the unit of research and international affairs, I conduct the performance appraisals of the personnel, I recruit, I decide on the lines of our sector.” MM

“We just had a two-day-development session with the whole unit. It was managing, development, preparing to the future, education of one’s ability to be a public performer.” MM9

“The managing of internationalisation is that you function as part of the puzzle in which the place of an HEI is determined in the international community. The objective is to promote the basic tasks of the HEI. To generate enthusiasm and help the students and staff. To bring information from the international fields concerning big questions and to act in a way that you at least don’t cause any harm.” MM9

“Our task is to make decisions concerning the whole HEI. Do them in a way that those in the units, with half a day or with a few hours at their disposal will have an easier time because the common things have been prepared. To bring synergy advantages.” MM3

“The most important thing in the development of internationalisation is to plan more and minimise pulling to all directions. Well, coordinating and management are the areas that have to be developed here so that the units can develop on a long-term basis without huge efforts.” MM8

“I did statistics for the network and analysed the actions of last years and then a proposal, or raised a question, what we want and I proposed a certain structure for the development of the network.” MM8

“And then, I plan to outline the internationalisation strategy; I don’t really bring anything new, everything has been discussed and the information is here, but not necessarily everybody has all the information. And it is not internalised. So, it will be a good tool for the units in long-range planning when it is one sheet.” MM8

“The task of an HEI is to promote the region, its industry, and well, it is a fact that in our area at least, the polytechnic take the lead in the international activities.” MM

“That I have had in my own mind a manager’s job description, that it is the way I work.” MM5

“How the work goes depends on the employee himself.” MM5

Another element of the “Visionary managing” is that a visionary manager sets targets for him/herself and has the vision towards which s/he strives for.

“We have written down in our objectives that one international conference per year and 2-3 smaller seminars per year.” MM5

“When I started here I thought that excellent, now I have this aim, I’ll create a worldwide campus here, the whole reality of this HEI will change and I’ll make many things possible for these students.” MM10

“That in everything we look for better quality and better structures.” MM3
“Let’s make a statement, what we want to do in the future, as an IRO.” MM6

Entrepreneurship culture is entering HEIs. I consider it part of “Visionary managing”, since “Visionary managing” is based on internal entrepreneurship, on the active initiative of actors, and on being more creative than in “Norm managing”, where orders from superiors are carried out.

“A company culture has to be created. It has to be based on a clear and precise central vision and strategies, including of course internationalisation.” MM2

“How can we make the internationalisation accepted.” MM2

“You have to react, to find solutions and even if they don’t work, you have to retry. And not just wait for things to change on their own.” MM2

“That the activities have to have a framework and that you can then act effectively inside the framework.” MM3

“That somehow when you have started to bring entrepreneurship to this organisation, especially project activities.” MM3

“That now we study to be more creative and to function as a team, in which they also have responsibility for taking the initiative.” MM3

PR work, or image managing, is done to promote the HEI based on its own image in order to be able to be an appreciated actor. It is done with a low profile, even though it is considered to be an important part of managing activities. However, it is also opposed.

“A big part of this marketing is pure PR, I take care of the guests, especially the guests of the rector. In many cases they also want to meet the Socrates Coordinator, who elsewhere may be a more important person than here.” MM10

“The university is made known with very small resources.” MM10

“The second thing is too much PR. They had a lot of working...” MM7

“Visionary managing” discourse can be summarised by including elements like innovativeness, objective setting, frame making, strategic managing and entrepreneurial managing. It is based on an analysis of one’s own environment.
4.3.1.3 Participatory Managing

The “Participatory managing” discourse means managing in which the equal status of all actors is taken into consideration at a practical level. Equality is sought, for example, when multiculturalism is regarded as one of the most important dimensions. Hence, this type of managing is the most common in the “Towards a multicultural...” discourse of HEI internationalisation.

It is essential in “Participatory managing” that both the general way of managing the HEI and managing HEI internationalisation are participatory. It is essential that managing HEI internationalisation gets as much attention as the other areas of HEI management, and that the manager of international affairs is an equal actor in the organisation along with the other members of middle management; S/he can attend the meetings, bring information for processing and participate in decision making. Also, in “Participatory managing” the internationalisation manager takes the other actors of the organisation into consideration when making decisions on HEI internationalisation. The following data extracts show some of the elements that made me call this discourse “Participatory managing”.

“The meetings of the Board, we have decided that all the managers have the right to attend these meetings, that we know what issues are discussed, so just for the information flow, and always when I have something to present, I can go there and present my ideas. It is the same for in the meetings of the field directors.” MM5

“My most important duties consist of analysing the external environment and informing the top management of the HEI, as soon as possible, of what is coming up, so that we can be prepared and if possible in advance.” MM10

“It is not only my power, but I guess I get it from other people and help in the processes, so that I don’t always want to be the one who decides issues. That my main duty is to bring things forward, not to decide on them. Of course, in the end, it might be that I have to dictate the decisions, stay behind it and go to jail if needed.” MM3

“Personal work, the physical, the present, being there, talking to people, the personal touch. The trust, you get along with each other, I think is very important. Such work takes a long time, you need a lot of time to develop this kind of contacts.” MM6
To sum up, the internationalisation manager is taken both as an equal actor and s/he takes the other actors of the organisation equally into consideration in the “Participatory managing” discourse. Team working is one tool for this purpose at all the levels of the organisation. Trust creating is important for creating a participatory atmosphere.

4.3.2 Types of Actors Constructed by ‘Managing of HEI Internationalisation’

4.3.2.1 Commitment to Managing HEI Internationalisation

There was a lot of commitment-related talk in the interviews. The actors are deeply committed to internationalisation and its managing. It is especially so if the person has personal experience from earlier times. In that case, there are enough inner forces to meet the demands of change and to see the opportunities offered by HEI internationalisation. The personal experience can be either professional, or more personal, related to the family or to one’s own studies. The same people had many type of experiences in many cases. Three internationalisation managers out of ten have a language teacher background, which of course supports the idea of promoting foreign customs and cultures. In some cases, the commitment was huge; it was connected to health problems or to sacrificing one’s family life to promote the good objectives of HEI internationalisation. Many of the people are really apostles of internationalisation. Many find it a huge challenge.

“MS: What was the force that pushed this, why did you start the teaching in English and where did this internationalisation programme come from? Or was it just in the air? R2: I don’t know. If I think myself, of course the fact that I have worked one year in another country and another year in another continent, and on the other hand, I have studied very actively and developed international cooperation, of course all these experiences have their influence. That I wanted to do it and that I was able to start it."

“MS: Yes, maybe based on your own experiences as well? R1: Yes, definitely. When I think backwards, I have had excellent superiors, especially this H. who was a very international guy.”

“And we have had good experts, NN and MM, to teach other cultures beforehand. And then the foreign
cultures of different countries; And then we have met people, it has been very concrete.” R1

“When you are committed to your work and you kind of put your heart into it.” MM3
“The fact that the whole phenomenon, HEI internationalisation, is so fascinating.” MM2

“That I do it and don’t count my hours and don’t ask to be paid for the extra work.” MM4
“We always did it on the top of our normal working load.” MM1
“I cannot participate just a little, I am always fully committed.” MM3
“It is very difficult, I think, to find people who are in the office, who are devoted as much as I am, as a lot of people are. You know, they see it much more as a job.” MM6

“We do a lot of work ..” MM6
“The work is hard, you should work day and night and all the time. It is not that desirable even though it is very challenging, but there is so much work.” MM5
“... for me it is a challenge.” MM2

“Family preparedness for this kind of international living” R1

“On the other hand, I can say that it started in childhood. I have lived in a family in which internationalisation was a normal, natural part of living. I have lived abroad, I have travelled abroad, I have studied international issues.” MM9
“And this internationalisation is an essential part of my life not only through hobbies but also through family life.” MM3

“I am a former teacher.” MM1, MM2, MM3, MM4, MM5, MM7

4.3.2.2 Rectors as Actors seen by Middle Managers

The relationship with one’s own superior is a key issue to middle managers. I did not ask about it, but still received numerous comments attesting to its effectiveness. Again, a “rebuttal” element in the discourse analysis. In this case, it can be understood to illustrate the fact known by many involved in HEI internationalisation based on the Socrates studies (e.g.Barblan & Teichler 2000, 1998), i.e. HEI internationalisation has often been a bottom-up phenomenon, in many cases rectors do not support it in practice, and internationalisation managers have had to overcome a fair amount of organisational inertia and opposition. This has been discussed a great deal in EU
internationalisation.

Moreover, although in this research the rectors sound committed, middle management would like to be assured that the commitment will be transferred into action. There are lots of examples below, however, where no problems of this kind are evident.

"But I have all the support of my management." MM3
"He is completely positive." MM2
"My superiors let me to understand, clearly, that they appreciate my work." MM4
"I use different documents to report via my rector to the authorities." MM1
"The rector is uncommonly active in international cooperation and really has supported it strongly." MM8
"Our rector shows that he trusts my professional skills and he supports me." MM3
"That our rector is a key person. He can show with what he says that he appreciates internationalisation. And then carry things forward." MM5

"That I am directly responsible to the rector. That the issues he initiates are important to me and to this unit." MM9
"My boss, it’s the rector." MM2

Only a few direct comments reveal problems. But, it should be born in mind that the discourses are characteristically not straightforward; reading between the lines is necessary to identify the meanings.

"Another problem... We are working in the rectorate, but the rectorate is not involved internationally. So we hire them, we hire the boss in the broad sense... there is no direct boss...I am completely my own boss." MM6
"Everything that my boss asks is a priority." MM7
"My rector is very busy. I have to plan carefully what I can take up with him." MM10

4.3.2.3 Rectors as Actors Seen by Themselves

Rectors, even though they are a more coherent group than middle management, and even though they are distinct from internationalisation managers, can be divided into
different types of actors. There were two types of actors identified in the “talks” of the five rectors interviewed. There were three persons R5, R4 and R3 that reveal an actor who creates frameworks for action, delegates, and make things possible and one, R2, who outlines visions and wants to have influence on the societal level, to affect educational policy and to be a leader in his field. As discourses always compete (Jokinen et al 1999, 1993, Lehtonen 1996), there were signs of both types of actors in one person’s talk. These two types of rectors as actors are presented below.

Sometimes rectors are leaders. They create enthusiasm in the organisation. Sometimes they are more like managers. They want to prepare the environment for internationalisation, participate in strategy creation, push things, apply decisions and be supportive.

“I try to create some enthusiasm for internationalisation in the higher-education institution; I want to create an environment in which this internationalisation can be followed; I think that my duty is to be well-informed.” R5

“I try, in the Board and in the other meetings, to bring forward, and on the other hand to sense the feelings of our decision makers, and then apply them in practice. So, if there is a good idea presented, my job is to bring it forward, to make it possible. So, I have made that types of proposals to the decision makers when needed.” R4

“To decide on the rules of the game and then freely apply them. The rector is responsible for the whole polytechnic, so for the activities and the budget.” R

“A rector leads and manages the functions of the HEI, and internationalisation is one part of this. It is the rector’s role to define strategies and to participate …” R3

“We have to think about a variety of means, how internationalisation will be applied, the objectives, strategies, this is the discussion in which the rector participates.” R3

“To define the strategy and then to channel the resources, directly or indirectly.” R1

“This kind of moral building and some concrete supporting... and then of course, somehow you try to point out by participating actively in internationalisation is important.” R1

“It is important that the staff knows that we are in favour of internationalisation." R5

The other type of rectors as actors comprised those who outline visions, want to improve society as a whole, and to make the other actors understand HEI internationalisation differently; first, to understand that the context of all the teaching
and learning is not a domestic one, but an international higher-education field, and second, to be in a leading position in this international field through superior competences.

“I try to push an idea according to which we would see ourselves as an HEI functioning in the international field and in the international higher education market.” R2

“... to understand and function accordingly, that internationalisation is not one field to be maintained, but that it is an essential idea in our activity. And to learn and accept that our environment is not our country, but the whole world.” R2

“In addition to striving towards the general good, I always think how this will contribute to becoming better.” R2

“... How to get everything out of this international dimension and how to get it to function so that it helps to develop our society even though we function internationally.” R2

“It supports our aim to create world class competences and hence, to support development of our society.” R2

“But it is a big issue whether internationalisation has a wider effect on the region. I think it does.” R1

4.3.2.4 Internationalisation Managers as Actors Seen by Themselves

The transcribed interview “talks” show that internationalisation managers have many types of actor roles. The functions performed by them are often not clear, even to the persons themselves. The following first longish data extract somehow describes, however, the versatility of the actor role. It includes a holistic view of the work, integration of HEI internationalisation with education and research, ensuring that HEI internationalisation is emphasised in the strategies, making operative plans, networking on many levels, communication and marketing, routine work, innovation of projects, project management, being responsible for the quality of all tasks, budgeting and follow up of financial affairs, being in the supervisory position. The second one speaks about the same point, that the actor’s role is not obvious and that the processes have been clarified and illustrated in figures.

“This picture that I have tried to draw helped me to analyse what international acting and my work consists of. I have to master the work holistically. This integration of international affairs with education is
an essential part of it. Then these strategies, I have to act so that internationalisation is not left out of the strategies. The focus, the objectives and so have to be considered for a couple of years at a time and then yearly. And at this level, I have to attend meetings and communicate with the Board, the Unit Directors, local government, municipal council; this means that networking is an essential part of my work, also inside the HEI, with the units. Also, to promote networking by the units, to promote projects. And then networking in the area and at the national level with other HEIs and also with other interest groups and then international networking. And communicating and marketing to all directions.

Then there is all the writing of applications and reporting and statistics, study guides in English, preparing of brochures, web pages, motivating student and teacher mobility, supporting professional growth of the students and convincing teachers and staff that internationalisation is a part of everyday life. This is helped by the visits to the units and by taking part in various functions, and by initiating the coordinators.

And then one part of the work is innovation, planning, administration, and of course the innovation of these seminars and conferences. So, to ensure the quality of the international activities, so that the resources and the environment, and the conditions and processes are ok and that we reach our objectives together.

And financing is one essential part, to follow up the budget and to find new financing and to motivate the units to find new financing.

Then we have a fulltime secretary so that I have been able to delegate tasks to her. For example, I have prepared and she has typed, or done the statistics. And then, I also encouraged her to know a little of everything, to be able to react for example when I am abroad.” MM

“We drew this figure, we put the main processes in it, and we also wrote all the processes down so now we have a chart of each process.” MM

Below, I present the different types of actors by means of the above discourses on managing of HEI internationalisation, in the same order as above.

There are numerous actor roles under the “Norm managing”, and a lot of “talks” about it, as it is the dominating discourse. The internationalisation managers are “hands”. They do many things themselves, as they carry out orders from the superior hierarchical levels of the organisation.

“I am trying to do a lot myself, but there is also a lot I do to help others as well.” MM1

“I have always been actively involved in setting up the projects. Everything that happened in the institution, I was involved.” MM1
“I spend a lot of time in my office.” MM1
“That this way I am happy that I can work full-time and the work starts to take shape.” MM4
“My everyday routine is hard work.” MM4
“I like working with the students, I like working with the texts.” MM6
“I would say that I am a Jack-of-all-trades. A lot of practical work.” MM9
“I put them in the database myself.” MM9
“Prepare a brochure or update a brochure for incoming students, which is published in English.” MM1
“My task is to coordinate and to promote...to support the internationalisation of the HEI, to make applications, to coordinate joint applications.” MM8

A “Norm manager” lives in a hierarchical world in which s/he is not even expected to make decisions or to participate in strategic decision making.

“That they are strategic decisions and I want to have the management’s decisions on them.” MM4
“I have no official authority to act.” MM4
“It is part of the work of the unit directors.” MM4
“That if a civil servant thinks that he cannot decide himself this type of issues, they have been put on the agenda of this committee.” MM9

There are not only superior but also inferior levels of hierarchy compared with the internationalisation managers. Hence, a “Norm manager” can define that some parts of the work are not his/her work. In the first data extract, either the international relations or the international programs are part of the work, but holistic management of the area is not. In the next ones, some other parts of the work, such as information letters, initiating of new projects and preparing of strategies are excluded from the job.

“You called the international office the Office of International Affairs; in my opinion it is not. In Britain, it is the International Relations’ Office, IRO. And in the USA it is often the Office of International Programs.” MM10

“If I just would get somebody to collect all the material from my bookcases, and from the international secretary’s office, all the material received from the partner institutions concerning these types of studies, and would make a some kind of summary to the students, a kind of information letter...” MM4
“But I cannot do it.” MM4
“That the ideas have to originate from the teachers and their needs that I am not going to find them.” MM4

“That I cannot do everything, and the secretary cannot do everything, then we don’t achieve the aims.” MM4

“If we think of my job description, it has not been part of my job to define strategies.” MM4

One part of the role of “Norm manager” is to emphasise being part of the administration personnel – hence, one’s own manager and leadership role is not so essential. Moreover, if you are part of a centralised organisation, you just have to do some things, like the Socrates contract with Brussels.

“I belong to the central administration.” MM1

“We are very centralised in my institution.” MM2

“. and it has always been taken care of in a very centralised way” MM4

“But the Commission by its own actions and regulations clearly defines the action models. Every HEI has to have a Socrates Institutional Coordinator, however much it would like to decentralise all its actions. The contract always has to be sent from somewhere. Somebody has to do the work.” MM9

I also define the expert role to be a part of the “Norm manager” role, as “Norm managing tasks assigned by superiors are performed independently. There are many different types of tasks, international services, coordinating, administrative tasks, networking, helping one’s superior, follow up, as the following data extracts show.

“And another point what I am doing, I try to develop the international services.” MM4

“So I am the coordinator for internationalisation and I have a colleague who is at the administrative level, let’s say the secretarial level, for the follow-up and for, well, a lot of paper work.” MM2

“I was there from the seventies, doing a lot of international things. I had these contacts, and this experience and this was very good start to be … successful from the first moment in these European programs.” MM

“A certain procedure from my boss, so it takes a lot of preparation from me.” MM7

“and follow up of international and national objectives thinking of how to apply them.” MM8

“For example I prepared statistics and an analysis of last year’s actions and then a proposal for what we want to do and how to do it.” MM8

A major question emerging from the data analysis is whether the “Norm managers” are
busy, suffering stress from the EU deadlines, or whether there is too much work for one person to handle. The data suggests that there are too many different types of work for one person. It is difficult to have lunch, holidays, family life, or even to avoid burnout.

"And then it is difficult to leave the work, to have a holiday or free time." MM9

"I spend a lot of time in my office." MM1

"I don't have lunch." MM1

"I am not taking days off." MM1

"I do a lot of writing at home." MM1

"So the office hours are not followed. It is a permanent job, 24 hours a day, I would say." MM2

"I try to say that I now work 11 hours a day, and compensation for the extra hours comes neither in money nor in leisure." MM2

"Well, I come normally at eight o'clock or at half past eight. And normally my days are full of meetings and the meetings stop at about four or five o'clock, and then I do, I read my the emails, I see them through, at least 50 messages, and I go home at about nine or ten o'clock and then I have been forced to come back either on Saturday or Sunday or work at home. That I very rarely have a normal working hour. Now I am getting fed up, this is too much, this is crazy." MM3

"The work is tough; you could do it 24 hours a day." MM5

"If you count two person's working hours, it takes that much." MM5

"I am not complaining, but it is difficult to have holidays, even though you just have the normal holiday and no long teacher holidays." MM5

"I am often not in the office, except in the evenings; sometimes that type of work needs to be done as well." MM5

"We have a lot of deadlines, Socrates internal deadlines, national deadlines, and you try to work days on that you know." MM6

"I think this is very intensive work. We work with students, we work with deadlines we work with papers. We never stop working. There is a big difference in the higher-education institutions between certain services, they close TAK, but we never stop. We work weekends. It's everywhere in Europe in international office that people are very devoted to their work. I take work home." MM6

"I arrive between 8-9 and I'd go in the evening around 7. We work very long hours." MM7

"This being busy is very descriptive. Being busy all the time. I don't like it." MM9

"But I don't like this continuous underresourcing. We don't have enough persons to perform these tasks. It is a big problem. This work is done at the cost of private life. It is very difficult to have holidays, for example. One reason that I can do this work is that I am single." MM10

"Then you burn yourself out. Yes this happens of course. I have been away almost a couple of years, it was too much. But I recovered... and again, there I am haha" MM
The actor roles of “Norm manager” and “Visionary manager” are interwoven through networking, through the creation and maintenance of networks, at HEI, region, national and international levels, and all this by the same person. Internationalisation managers are creators and keepers of the networks, as well as apostles of internationalisation, as can be seen from the following data extracts. Being an apostle of internationalisation also can be understood as an actor role of a “Participatory manager”, so that an actor role is part of all the discourses on “Managing of HEI internationalisation”.

“The next phase is to put these different networks together. The world is quite small at this very moment.” MM10

“The Finnish internationalisation people interact very much through these email lists, CIMO days, and in other ways. It is continuous benchmarking. And then, the Commission…” MM

“And networking was a very important part of my job.” MM6

“That I coordinate the international networks of the HEI. 30% of my working time goes into interaction through emailing.” MM4

“I have always worked closely with people from the regional authorities.” MM1

“I belong to two or three committees…” MM1

“And the higher-education institutions meet once a month, these institutional coordinators." MM1

“It is a result of meetings with the government people, the discussions I may have with the academics who have been calling or coming to see me. It is also a result of our discussions in the institution and also what I have got out of the institutions with colleagues, discussions with industry, discussions with…” MM2

“The second aspect, there are the meetings, internal, central level, meetings with the departments, with certain professors, with the Ministry, with partners, participating in activities outside the country.” MM2

“Communication, sometimes via telephone, concerning work placements, national authorities, students, EAIE, VHLORA…” MM

“And we have the Board, the Director’s team, the staff meetings, the administrative tasks, PR, interest groups, Chamber of Commerce, regional PR, the team of directors for different Degrees, committees, project team, student and teacher meetings, visitors.” MM3

“Board, Directors of Units, Internationalisation Team, Team of Directors of Degrees, Senior Lecturers’ Meetings, Campo meetings, Local government, District council, about ten different project teams.” MM5

“With administrative units, internationalisation coordinators, visitors, managers, directors, CIMO, Ministry people, journalists, students, teachers” MM

“We have very regular meetings with the groups from different units and there I get feedback from the teaching staff.” MM1

“We had a meeting every six weeks, all the departmental coordinators and myself.” MM2
“And then I have the thematic meetings, depending on the project, depending on the problems of the department.” MM2

“Some heads of departments also give me information that they find on web-pages, or something like that, asking me if it is interesting.” MM2

“We try to collect all the ideas possible and I also discuss them with the rector.” MM2

“I think that by bringing them [the teachers/professors] in contact there is an evolution. It’s very strange since when they speak about their research they are very international. They work in international teams. A lot of international people, they have international projects. But when it comes to education, and sending their students out, that’s different…” MM

“We go to different departments and try to convince them…” MM7

“And there as well, there are many views, so in practice you cannot decide on anything; you just have to make them think that they have figured it all out themselves.” MM10

“Each day you have to convince persons and you have to tell them why they should consult your office. And all these things. In fact, I think, it’s not an easy job.” MM7

“Your task is to be the apostle of internationalisation… and don’t start to take care of anything, I was told.” MM10

“Lots of informal meetings” MM1

“I prefer working informally. I meet colleagues every day.” MM1

“Mostly through discussions with colleagues and coordinators.” MM2

“Interaction with teachers takes a surprisingly lot of time.” MM4

Internationalisation managers can be called travellers, or “a travel agency”, as one was called by his colleagues. Travelling seems to arouse emotions. It is acting that is not understood and not taken as a professional activity, so it is easily critisised. Travelling is taken as a status activity - being abroad, meeting people in director roles - and it is not always seen as hard work towards the objectives of HEI internationalisation in quite a complex setting. Both “Norm managers” and “Visionary managers” are busy travellers, as networking forces them to travel. Ones travel since the EU demands it indirectly and the others travel to fulfil objectives they have set themselves. Travelling also suffers from EU regulations, forcing, for example, the persons travelling to stay longer abroad than they would otherwise to qualify for cheaper flights.

“That this internationalisation, if it is taken as luxury, as something not so important, that I don’t like.” MM9

“Every three years there must be a visit.” MM1
"I remember the ICP meetings very well." MM1
"And they called me the travel agency, haha." MM1
"And then, if you go for a visit, you have to do the normal works either before or afterwards." MM3
"The financial director said that for the first two months he will take my passport away, so that I could go nowhere before I know my own organisation." MM3
"Understanding from the environment can be difficult. That people are very envious, when it includes travelling. And the PR and the visitors. People think that we are just having fun. They think that I just head for the beaches when actually I also work abroad from eight in the morning to midnight. And that the fact of visiting one or two new HEIs per day is also hard work. You have to be ready for all types of situations. Somehow the expertise and the professionality is not understood. It is considered to be only social life." MM3
"When we were creating the European networks I travelled with the rector and we went straight to the practical affairs." MM4
"That I would say that once a month I make a work trip." MM4
"The travelling days are a problem, since you have to be abroad on weekends." MM4
"I would say 30-40 travelling days a year. And that includes weekends. I find it quite a problem that I have to stay weekends at work and then either cannot or am not allowed to have time off either." MM9
"If you count all days, it is about 100 per year." MM5
"I don’t know how much my predecessor travelled, but I am now running this existing thing." MM8

The second discourse of managing internationalisation was the “Visionary managing”. As it is a challenging discourse, there were still few hints about the actor role of “Vision manager”. In any case, it can be found in the data extracts below. A visionary manager has visions and sets objectives. S/he strives for institutionalisation of HEI internationalisation, as it is important at this stage of the process (Söderqvist 2001b,c): the routines, procedures, processes and job descriptions are decided on. In addition, as a leadership activity, a visionary manager strives for enthusiasm and creates new things. S/he dares to be a leader, to admit that s/he has a power role.

"When I came here I had in mind to create a worldwide campus so that the whole reality would change so that I could make many things possible for these students. I had a vision of it, all the time." MM10
"I try to institutionalise this." MM2
"And when I came, we reflected upon the basic processes and job descriptions.” MM3
"That I somehow have somehow the responsibility together with this team.” MM3
"And then he said I want you to take over the whole higher-education institution.” MM1
“Guiding of international activities and leading and managing this internationalisation organisation.” MM3

“But I have had in mind the manager’s job description. I have been forced to take responsibility and to make decisions.” MM5

“I am the manager of the international services. I have the supervisory position.” MM9

“I myself did a paper describing the objectives of the term, how we would reach them and what we needed to be do.” MM5

“And my objective is to shape the internationalisation strategy.” MM8

“Now we are moving from sporadic actions to planned coherent actions. For a long time, we did not have any managing, but now we are starting to really manage internationalisation.” MM9

“To create enthusiasm” MM9

“I know that if you don’t constantly develop things, you get out of the process, out of the competition.” MM10

“There is a lot to do so that international affairs, international cooperation and interaction would become everyday activities.” MM11

“That I have the title of coordinator, but I am the manager or director.” MM12

“I have the keys of power.” MM3

To have a certain image is to pass on a vision of a certain state of affairs. The meaning of image creation has become stronger in some HEIs. It is thought that managing internationalisation is creating the image of the HEI, that image managing is one means of marketing in the ever tougher competition for students, teachers, and experts.

“We want to be seen, we want to be present in the world.” MM6

“We want the unit to have a higher profile inside the HEI in general.” MM9

“I try to keep these activities visible, so that information is passed on at the same time and to create enthusiasm.” MM10

“PR, image building...” MM10

To set objectives is the aim of a “Visionary manager”, but sometimes this cannot be done since the HEI does not support it.

“In the future we have to focus more on the policy things... like today, we have no targets.” MM7

“So I set it to myself as a priority. But the strange thing is that this is not supported by the higher-education institution.” MM7

“I manage more or less the office, but it’s not official.” MM7
There were only a few data extracts describing the “Participatory manager” actor role. The main reason is perhaps that the “Towards a multicultural “… discourse is an emerging discourse and “Participatory managing” mainly exists together with it. Also, when it is evident from the data that in any case the “HEI internationalisation” discourses are stronger than the “Managing HEI internationalisation” discourses, even amongst the middle management of internationalisation, who are really performing the managing tasks. It is also apparent in the “Participatory manager”. Some data extracts showing the role of team creator do exist. In any case, the clearest actor types for “Participatory manager” at the moment are related to information: an analyst of information, a processor of information, a communications officer. Information is sought and collected from the international field, analysed and passed on in one’s organisation. Also, the same is done inside the organisation to promote new projects.

“The most important is to create a team spirit” MM3
“I have been forced to teach the personnel that they report only to me, that I don’t participate in everything.” MM3
“That I try to guide this towards a more open culture attempting to change, attitudes from the very beginning.” MM3

“One of my most important tasks is to analyse the environment.” MM10
“This is continuous interaction.” MM10
“To bring messages, to bring input from the international field.” MM9
“So it is basically collecting information and affecting the material and then informing the other level where internationalisation is at work. Getting informed myself and then informing others. And at the same time, coordinating their work.” MM1
“And communicating is one big part of the activities. So that we know who knows what and are not doing the same things but creating together something new, joining forces with us.” MM5
“We can introduce a lot. We have a lot of information from the outside world…” MM6
“I coordinate the information from outside and from inside and I work with it and try to think who could benefit from it.” MM8
“We made a round in the autumn, to get information, plans, interests and at the same time we provided information on what type of existing systems, financing, and so on there is. So we put pieces of information together, we exchange information.” MM8
“I went around to the units and presented myself and listened to them.” MM3
To sum up, the different “managing HEI internationalisation” discourses construct different types of actors. In “Norm managing”, the internationalisation manager is often a “hand”; s/he does not participate in decision making, but takes care of different tasks given by superior, internal, national, or international authorities. Another type of “Norm manager” actor is an expert who knows how to develop internationalisation, how to apply the EU regulations in order to get financing, and how to travel to keep up the network. The rector in “Norm managing” creates the frameworks for activities and some enthusiasm for subordinates to perform the tasks s/he has delegated.

In “Visionary managing”, the rector sets visions and desires to develop society, whereas the internationalisation manager is a strategic middle manager: s/he sets visions, objectives, strategies and timetables, analyses the environment, markets her/his institution and by being the apostle of internationalisation, creates enthusiasm amongst the staff of the HEI.

In “Participatory managing”, the rector also has the roles of creating frameworks and enthusiasm. The internationalisation manager is an actor who tries to commit the informal and formal organisations to the same goals. Also s/he collects, transforms and communicates information inside and outside the HEI.

4.4 The Discourses Identified Discussed in Context

To frame the above analysis of the discourses on “HEI internationalisation” and of the “Managing of HEI internationalisation” some important situational facts specific to the context of data generation for this study from the 1990s and 2000s are referred to. Moisander (2001) as well as Lehtonen (1996) and Jokinen et al. (1999, 1993) have indicated the importance of analysing how and to what extent interpretations of the data reflect the situational facts specific to the context of data generation. Jokinen et al (1999) describe discourse analytic research with a triangle in which the apices are “meanings”, “communicativeness”, and “culture”. The apices of this triangle are interrelated. Consideration of context means that acting is analysed in a special time and special place and that these factors can be defined in many ways (Jokinen et al. 1993). Lehtonen (1996) emphasises the changing character of the frontier between
context and text. Texts are always produced by some contexts, but at the same time the texts reorganise their contexts and shape them. The following discussion clarifies the context as how I as the researcher have interpreted it, and at the same time it ties the context and the analysis together.

4.4.1 Some Important Social and Societal Changes Influencing HEI Internationalisation and Its Managing

LeVasseur (1996) pointed out three periods characterising the changes in higher education between 1970 and 1995. He argued that these periods did not necessarily coincide, but that they happened in the same chronological order in the OECD countries. First, there was a period of rapid expansion to meet growing student demand. Second, there was a phase of coping with resource stagnation and reduction and third, the relationships between central authorities and institutions have been changing.

These same ideas have been shared by others. Barry et al (2001), Scott (1998) and Sadlak (1998) have paid attention to the role of the massification of higher education related to its internationalisation. There are many more institutions and many more students desiring to fulfil societal needs. Salmi (2001) shares this view by pointing out that in most developed economies a trend towards higher and different skills has been observed. Sporn (1999) put forward the same ideas with different wording; she argues that continental Europe is facing three major challenges: expansion, diversification, and massification. There is a desire to provide education for all, to a larger portion of the population. Diversification is the name she gives to the birth of binary, dual, or other higher education systems. By massification, Sporn refers to overcrowded and overburdened institutions that are hard to work in, to study in, and to manage. The changing conditions are referred to in managerialism demanded of universities (Deem 2001, Bayenet, Feola & Tavernier 2000, Sporn 1999, Deem 1994).

Bruch and Barty (1998) acknowledge that the process of globalisation in commerce and communication has inevitably affected educational systems and objectives. Meek (2000) shares the view that a number of interrelated social and economic changes are occurring simultaneously and combine to transform the nature of
higher education. Bruch and Barty (1998) list changes; communication networks have expanded rapidly, cultural isolation has become untenable, and international experience and fluency in globally important languages has become highly desirable, or even necessary for survival in relation to both individual career plans and national ambitions. The ready availability of equipment, expertise, research facilities and infrastructure is a powerful attraction. Improving economic and political conditions have facilitated educational mobility. More students have been able to afford the costs and more institutional places were available for them in other countries. The ease and speed of travel have generally improved. Scholarships and exchange schemes have encouraged mobility. Meek (2000) continue the list with greater heterogeneity of students, the necessity of mass higher education, increasing competition between both universities and universities and other types of education providers, limited and declining levels of public funding, and emerging IT and telecommunications transforming how work is done.

Reichert and Wächter (2000) emphasised the role of technological advances in transportation and information. Scholars and academics have taken advantage of them to multiply and intensify their contacts. Students and academics can travel quickly, safely and cheaply between countries, not to mention the information flow. In conclusion, it could be argued that the external factors related to the internationalisation of higher-education institutes were highly positive and encouraging, not only because of the European Union’s programmes but also due to other societal changes at the end of the 1980s and during the 1990s.

These same issues came up in the interviews. First, limited funding and creation of new HEIs were often brought up. Second, the influence of all the technological changes can be seen in the actions taken by the HEIs. For example, all the information, formal and informal, between the many different networks nowadays move electronically, as could be seen for instance in the chosen data extracts where the internationalisation managers explained the rush- and stress-related factors by referring for example to the huge numbers of emails arriving daily and needing and causing a great deal of actions (ex. 50 per day/MM3, MM5). Third, in the curriculum development aimed at in the “Basic Processes…” discourse, the new possibilities of ICT were utilised.
Fourth, national ambitions were seen in many of the extracts of the rectors R2 and also R1, who referred e.g. to the needs of qualified workers and for the reputation of the institution to be able to offer opportunities for international careers to their students.

Fifth, the need for language capabilities is taken seriously everywhere. In many of the extracts of the “Basic Processes…” discourse the different languages taught were mentioned as were the content and language integrated learning – meaning several courses, modules and even whole degrees taught in a foreign language, usually in English.

Sixth, the mobility of students, teachers, researchers and staff is one of the basic actions facilitated by the European Union through programs such as Erasmus and Leonardo.

4.4.2 Influence of European Integration on HEI Internationalisation and Its Managing

It could be argued that internationalisation was aimed at promoting peace after World War II, as Brown (ed. Callan 2000) did. First-hand experience of other students in other countries was to be the best antidote to ignorance, mistrust, and prejudice. It was also maintained that the concept of studying abroad, first advocated in the US, was later adopted and adapted by the European Commission to involve young people in the building of Europe. The role of the European Union was extensive in the mass internationalisation of higher education in the 1990s, as reported by Barblan and Teichler in their many works.

There are numerous publications in which the European Union has set out its goals, strategies, and action plans on the harmonisation of education and the implementation needs in different member countries (see e.g. White Paper 1995, Uuden Euroopan hahmotteleminen 2000b, Education Policies and European Governance 2001b). In 1995 (White Paper on Education and Training) guidelines were issued up until the end of the 1990s. Internationalisation in schools was clearly emphasised:

“… the impact of the free movement of people will make it essential for
The EU Commission also identified five general objectives in fulfilling the new demands, namely:

1) encourage the acquisition of new knowledge
2) bring schools and the business sector closer together
3) combat exclusion
4) develop proficiency in three Community languages
5) treat capital investment and investment in training on an equal basis.

The fourth of these objectives is directly aimed at internationalism, and the first two are aimed more indirectly than the third and fifth. However, in the White Paper itself, the three related objectives all mention EU international programmes as action tools for their fulfilment: “Proficiency in three community languages” is to be supported by Lingua, Socrates and Leonardo, “To encourage the acquisition of new knowledge”, the Commission desires to support mobility and to use Socrates, Leonardo, Esprit, Telematique, Media II, and Info 2000 to bring it about, and “To bring schools and the business sector closer together” is to be achieved through Erasmus, and particularly through the Leonardo programmes.”

Simultaneously, and/or stimulated by the developments fostered by the European Union, some countries and organisations had similar aims for European higher education in the 1990s. The Magna Charta (1988) expressed the need to encourage mobility among teachers and students; a general policy of equivalent status, titles, examinations, and awards of scholarships was considered essential to the fulfilment of the mission of European universities. The Sorbonne Declaration (1998), ten years later highlighted the need for transparency, but also caused many misunderstandings amongst education policy makers from different European countries (Haug 1999). Originally, the four biggest European countries signed the declaration.

A joint project of the Confederation of European Union Rectors’ Conferences and the CRE – the Association of European Universities - presented four principles for a kind
of “European higher education space”, of which three, namely mobility, diversity and openness, were clearly connected to the internationalisation of studies. In this paper Haug (1999) stated that, first, the most powerful engine for change and improvement in higher education in Europe had and would come from the growing awareness of alternative approaches and best practice in other countries. Second, European higher education could only fulfil its missions in a worldwide perspective based on competition and co-operation with other regions in the world. Third, measures not respecting the fundamental cultural, linguistic and educational diversity in Europe could jeopardise not only the progress already made but also the prospect of continuing convergence in the future. His fourth guiding principle concerned reforms of credit systems and degree structures in terms of substitutions and the improvement and guaranteeing of quality in curricula, teaching, and learning.

*The Bologna Declaration* (2000) on the “European Space for Higher Education” formulated a clear common goal: to create a European space for higher education in order to enhance the employability and mobility of citizens and to increase the international competitiveness of European higher education. It set the deadline of the year 2010 and gave specific objectives:

- The adoption of a common framework of readable and comparable degrees.
- The introduction of undergraduate and postgraduate levels in all countries
- ECTS\(^{15}\) - compatible credit systems.
- A European dimension in quality assurance.
- The elimination of the remaining obstacles to the free mobility of students and teachers, as well as researchers and higher-education administrators.

The process was continued in 2000 by highlighting the need and time to act in order to change the structure of European studies. Haug (1999) argued that international education was entering a new age; the main thrust in the 1990s was co-operation and exchanges within existing structures, together with efforts at transparency and horizontal mobility. There was the need, and it was now time to act to change from the co-operation and mobility phase to the phase of structural change, to organise diversity, to have intergovernmental action throughout Europe, and to introduce new forms of mobility: vertical mobility and free movement at the postgraduate level. The need to

\(^{15}\) European Credit Transfer System; 60 ECTS credits represent one year of study; [http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/socrates/ects.html](http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/socrates/ects.html) 6.8.2002
regulate transnational education and educational services and the need to learn to compete better in world markets for higher education were emphasised not only by providing courses in English, but also by offering the right types of courses, user-friendly student services, and understandable degrees, and by publicising and explaining the offerings through permanent representations and recruitment efforts on site, as the UK, the US and Australia have been doing for a long time. This “Bologna Process” has been interwoven with the Commission’s actions; in 1996 and in 1998 recommendation proposals were presented, ministers of education met in Paris and Prague in 1998, in Bologne 1999 and Florence 1999, in Bucharest in 2000 (Hingel 2001).

International organisations such as the European Association of International Education (EAIE), the Academic Co-Operation Association (ACA), the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, the Centre for International Mobility in Finland (CIMO), its sister organisations, and the different national organs like the ministries for education (see more Söderqvist 2001c) in different countries have also played important roles in creating internationalisation as we know it today. Many reports in which these organisations attempt to influence the development of the phenomenon itself, internationalisation from different perspectives, have been written. The topics discussed include international education in Europe and other geographical areas, quality issues, international work placements, and student mobility.

In the European Union context, the rationale for internationalisation is clearly Europeanisation: the achievement of European excellence, the strengthening of Europe’s position in the global economy, safeguarding and strengthening its cultural heritage, strengthening the basis for further political development and for European political union, a European Community dimension in higher education and a European dimension in curricula. These phrases in the documents of the European Commission in relation to international co-operation are expressions of the political significance of European Community policy with respect to international education. This eurocentric view is understandable from the Commission’s point of view but becomes a danger in itself if it is the dominant factor in higher education in Europe. It is the responsibility of new and old higher-education institutes to maintain their commitment to universal values and their role as future-oriented institutions promoting and anticipating global

According to Teichler (1999), the internationalisation of non-university higher education was almost non-existent before the European Union programmes, which were a success due to four factors: their mass approach, practice orientation, regional emphasis, and their preference for organised study abroad and curricular integration.

As seen in the report on the analysis, these ideas are fully internalised in the HEIs. The most influential discourse, “Basic Processes of HEIs to Be Financed by Internationalisation” is full of EU-based acting. Also, in the second discourse “The HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor”, the ideas of the need for qualified workers are fully present. Also, the third discourse, “Towards a Multicultural and more Equal World” could be interpreted as a counter-reaction to the influence of EU mobility, meaning that these contextual factors are also fully taken into consideration in it, but as a starting point, not as an aim.

4.4.3 Creation of Non-University Higher-Education Institutions in Europe

Lampinen (ed. Lampinen 1995) explains the reasons for the creation of a non-university higher-education sector to be the anxiety of competitiveness, the growing need for new students having passed the matriculation examination to continue their studies in higher education, and the need of many fields for highly-qualified workers. Amongst others, Mikkonen & Määttä (in eds. Lasonen & Stenström 1995) showed that real changes happened in the educational level; curriculum planning advanced, training programs developed, and teaching methods changed radically. Quality assurance started in the form of application of Total Quality Management and ISO standards (James 2000, Clarkson & Walls 1995). Quality assurance was a rising issue in the beginning of 1990s. Institutional evaluations were even supported by the national authorities. Assessment is connected to the development of institutional effectiveness and quality. It was seen as a tool for improvement since it provides information on the functioning of the system. However, the information needs to be used for strategic planning, otherwise it becomes another administrative routine that does not serve academic needs. (Välimaa 1994).

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16 non-university higher education institutions = polytechnics, universities of applied sciences, hogeschools i.e. the new higher education institutions and not the universities
Engwall et al (1999) tie this need for quality control to the age and size of the HEIs based on Swedish studies; the smaller and younger the institution, the more important the control systems become.

In Finland and in Belgium, in the countries where “HEI internationalisation” and “managing HEI internationalisation” were studied, the non-university higher-education sector developed enormously in the 1990s. Both of them present the continental model and differ from the Anglo-Saxon model. Lampinen (1995) the categorises the Finnish model to be a dual model belonging to the same category as German and Dutch models, in which “scientific” universities and “professionally oriented” universities co-exist and meet to different needs. Both the Belgian and the Spanish model are described as based on level and type differences in which universities and other higher-education institutions differ considerably from each other.

This development meant that many mergers between the different HEIs in both countries caused many problems familiar to alliance and merger researchers in business context (see ex. Vaara 1999). The merging phenomenon has also been studied in the HEI context (Lang 2002, Beerkens 2001, Harman 2000, Sizer & Cannon 1997). The organisational, managerial, internal-competitive, financial and human resources problems were many (Lang 2002, Haarman 2000, Sizer & Cannon 1997) and they also influenced HEI internationalisation. The mergers were referred to many times, especially by middle managers who had to be able to cope with the changes in practices. As the mergers were considered part of the context, there are not many extracts on them in the analysis part. Some examples related to the organisational and human resources questions are given below:

"It will merge next year. It was a confederation at the first stage... so that means for my office, for our office, international office, we have three offices and we will be one office in the future so this will be merged." MM

"Now we have this merger, so we also have to find ways to make this institution work in the international field. And to merge in the international field as well. We are going to work as a team in the beginning...We have been talking about how we could allocate the work. And we were thinking of three areas, depending on our background and our pre-knowledge, or and what we’d like to do." MM

"So we started from the fact that all the three units internationalisation affairs were put together and have..."
been handled centrally ever since, despite the other experiments.” MM.

“In different fields the activities have been very different. We have had very different resources.” MM5

As discussed in the earlier section, many mergers have taken place recently and they cause managerial problems. In some cases, the mergers have not entirely extended to routine work; there are, for instance, still your partners and mine, your contracts and mine, as can be seen from the following extracts. They also show that because of the different histories of the different parts of the organisation, the acting can vary a lot.

“I struggled with NN for an information letter since I thought from the very beginning that as it is based on the rector’s signature, and the rector starts from the point of view that all internationalisation is part of the whole HEI. But in practice it was negotiated on the basis of one unit and of course based on that unit’s partners.” MM4

“In different units, in different fields it has been very different. But some joint objectives we could have; that’s a problem.” MM5

“There are a couple of departments that are still not involved in internationalisation.” R5

“That there is a different situation in every unit and there are different points of development. So the challenges in the units are different.” R3

“The units have the main responsibility for their activities, but progress in internationalisation, still depends on the directors of different units and maybe on some key teachers to obtain enough resources to continue internationalisation and deepen it.” R1

The effect of the creation of the new HEIs on HEI internationalisation development was also apparent when I asked about the reasons for starting internationalisation. The polytechnics, the new higher-education institutions, frequently answered like examples in this extract show, with the data that HEI internationalisation was started because national and supranational authorities required. It was either required to obtain the HEI status, as discussed elsewhere, or it was required to obtain funding for the basic processes of an HEI.

“It must have been the need for coordination; that was a must. And one reason was that, for example, the Socrates/Erasmus application had to be done, one application from the whole school. Ministry of Education also required just one application and then we also had to write down the objectives of internationalisation in the very beginning on a paper. And, also, the European Policy Statements for the
This answer is not at all understandable to university people who continuously repeat that universities have always been international, meaning that one, maybe the most important, but just one, function, research, has always been international. Professors can handle the internationalisation of his/her own research and science making through personal contacts. There are many research-related internationalised practices such as international conferences and international journals. However, for example my discussions with Marnela (2002), Saalonen (2002) and Törmänen (2002), all of whom are or have been internationalisation managers, reveal that when the organisation also has internationalised in terms of education, the need for coordination has grown tremendously and special offices for international affairs have been needed.

The creation of the new non-university higher education also meant competition between the university and the non-university sector. The universities were afraid of losing their competitiveness, as they no longer had a monopoly of higher education and the different actors in universities did not always understand the rationalities of creating the new sector (see e.g. Lampinen 1995).

However, in the content analysis (Söderqvist 2001b,c) it was found that there are several clusters of universities and polytechnics functioning together in the area of HEI internationalisation and its managing. This came again to the fore in the later interviews. The same phenomenon is emerging in Belgium; Delplace (2002) stated that all the polytechnics are obliged to collaborate with one university. So, it could be concluded that even though an unpleasant atmosphere of conflicting views exists, the actors of internationalisation and its managing have found a common language, common problems, and common ways of solving them.

4.4.4 Different International Education Rationales for HEI Internationalisation

Different rationales for internationalisation are divided into four categories by Knight (1999): political, economic, academic, and social. These categories are explained as being more and more interrelated and not mutually exclusive. They are also considered
to be increasingly blurred and constantly changing.

The political reasons for internationalisation are said to be more national than institutional, as Scott (1998) has also argued. Historically, the idea of international education was to promote peace and national security (Brown in ed. Callan 2000), but nowadays it could be considered not only communicational and diplomatic, but also an export product. This means that the rationales for internationalisation have become more economic than political. Furthermore, it has been argued that at the national level there is a closer link between the internationalisation of higher education and the economic and technological development of the country, as the OECD studies, European Union policy statements, and Ollikainen et al. (2000, 1999) have also maintained. Van der Wende (2001) puts this even more explicitly by arguing that from a wider economic perspective, the growing need for a highly educated labour force in a knowledge economy in conjunction with an aging population is a strong rationale for recruiting talented students from abroad.

These national, or European, political reasons are present in this study. Often, internationalisation is justified by referring to future employment opportunities (see e.g. Opetusministeriö, 2001). Also, the discourse “The HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor” could be said to be based on this kind of thinking. Internationalisation is seen as a means towards the competitiveness of the region against other parts of the world, and as a way to act and work in a global world.

The competence view is related to, for example, Van der Wende’s (1996) list of the benefits for future employment of students. This lists consists of facts like development of an analytical and flexible approach, foreign-language proficiency, the acquisition of cross-communication skills, and the ability to co-operate with people from other countries. Sadlak (1998) argued that it was often acknowledged that studying abroad resulted in

- Acquiring new competencies
- Improving knowledge of foreign languages
- Familiarisation with new teaching methods as well as scientific equipment, organisation of laboratories
- Opportunities to purchase new books, software
- Establishing new personal contacts, professional networking
• **Familiarisation with another country, its institutions and their functions**
• **Personal development and building self-confidence**

A CERI study (van der Wende 1999) that was an international comparative investigation of curriculum development for internationalisation in higher education in six countries (Australia, Denmark, France, Germany, Japan and the Netherlands) identified eight outcomes:

• **Increased knowledge of the international aspects of the subject area**
• **Enhanced understanding and ability to communicate with people from other countries**
• **Improved foreign-language proficiency**
• **Enhanced labour-market opportunities, better qualification for international professions**
• **Introduction of new expertise and methods by foreign staff**
• **Professional development of domestic staff**
• **Innovations in taken-for-granted practices: new approaches to student learning and outcomes**
• **Social integration of student groups with different nationalities**

Grünzweig (2000) in his criticism of international mobility put these rationales in a different way, grouping them in three types: international exchange and study abroad contribute to **international understanding**, study abroad leads to **personal growth** and makes participants aware of **global interdependence**.

These skills of the three studies mentioned above were also referred to in the extracts. In particular, the discourse “Towards a multicultural and more equal world” put these ideas forward.

The Anglo-Saxon world, namely the US, the UK and Australia, seem to have one particular economic rationale in addition to those of other Western countries for their internationalisation. In their context, income from fees was important (Parsons 2001, 2000, Bruch & Party 1998, Elliot 1998, McNay 1995). As the Anglo-Saxon countries have a strong position in the international higher-education market, with English as the lingua franca, the flexible degree structures, more student-centred approaches, strong traditions in distance learning, off-shore delivery strategies, fee systems providing institutions incentives to market themselves, their foothold cannot be ignored. The US, the UK and Australia represent the first three of the five most popular destinations for
study abroad. (van der Wende 2001)

McNay (1995) identified two other main rationales for the UK institutions to go international in addition to the purely market-driven, extrinsic reason: the fee income, or obtaining funding from external sources such as the government or the EU. The second was staff-driven and intrinsic, the ideological commitment of some individuals, their personal satisfaction and self-development. He also mentioned academic tourism in connection with this second rationale. The third one was customer-driven and curriculum based; internationalisation occurs for cultural enrichment, for community linkages and to support the learning of new skills and competencies. Bruch and Barty (1998) supported these ideas some years later. They claimed that UK institutions mainly want international students for two reasons; they believe that internationalisation adds educational and cultural value to the institution and they want the cash value accruing from full-fee paying international students. Elliot (1998) also confirmed this by referring to the Higher Education Funding Council for England that states the purposes of higher education, the last of which is clearly “higher education as tradable activity”.

According to Callan (1998), the Dutch shared this economic rationale for internationalisation, stimulating links in higher education towards a policy based on the view of education as an agent in raising the competitiveness of the Dutch national economy. Callan also referred to the Swedish case, in which the rationale is more the need for language and cultural competence than fees from foreigners. A third rationale, colonial relationships, was also mentioned by Callan. The UK, France, Spain, and Portugal have broad ties with the areas where their languages are spoken.

This development has been going on together with the globalisation discussions of higher education as a tradable commodity. For example Knight (2002) has studied the impact of globalisation on higher education, with a special interest in trade liberalisation, quality, and governance. The markets for students, faculty, research, funds and e-learning are global as well as the competition for them. International business is becoming increasingly important in the institutional development of internationalisation.

During this study, the commercialisation of higher education was discussed in interviews with Himanen (2002), Marnela (2002), Törmänen (2002), Saalonen (2002)
and Virtanen (2002) when the framework of HEI internationalisation was taken up. “The Stages of Internationalisation in Higher-Education Institutions” (Table 1 of this study) in particular made these persons present their view against commercialisation. However, there was only one comment referring to commercialisation in the transcribed interviews. Hence, it is not an issue that would be a shared part of HEI internationalisation in Belgium and in Finland.

“If we take internationalisation, we are not market driven. What you develop is purely a service. I am completely against the idea that education is a product, so I think myself, I always see myself as a civil servant, which I am.” MM6

Van der Wende (2001) explains this missing commercialisation with different traditions; in the Anglo-Saxon world internationalisation is more characterised by competition, whereas in continental Europe the starting point is cooperation. In many continental countries free access to higher education is seen as an established right, which conflicts with the view of higher education as a commercial product to be traded on a world market. Not surprisingly, internationalisation in continental Europe means international learning and experience compatible with the traditional values of academia.

The academic rationale for internationalisation is said to be directly linked with the traditional universities and their role and development. The international mobility of scholars has been connected to the international dimension of research. Thys-Clément & Wilkin (1998) report that the need for internationalisation is seen as an essential and beneficial element promoting the development of universities.

This study discusses the internationalisation of 1990s and early 2000s, which is based more on mass-internationalisation, meaning the internationalisation of education in its many forms. International research is referred to, but HEI internationalisation is understood to mean the internationalisation of education in particular. Davies (non sine) also points out the use of internationalisation as a means to diminish geographical marginality or as a wish attract intellectual investment, both linked to academic rationales.

Knight (1999) argued that cultural and social rationales are of diminishing
importance, and are now taking a different course. The preservation and promotion of a particular culture is apparently more strongly motivated in countries in which internationalisation has been seen as a way of respecting cultural diversity, and as a counterbalance to the homogenising effect of globalisation. Culture-related talk of internationalisation is present in the emerging discourse “Towards a multicultural and more equal world”, as the name itself suggests.

To conclude, it was pointed out that the rationales of an individual, an institution and a country for the internationalisation of education are complex and multi-level, and evolve over time and in response to changing needs and trends (Knight 1999).

4.4.5 Existing Confusion of Concepts

The main emphasis in this study is on managing of HEI internationalisation. To fully understand HEI internationalisation one has to understand the neighbouring concepts, since they are used indiscriminately in the literature and in practice (Knight 1999, Callan 1998, Van Dijk 1995, Blok 1995, Smith 1993; Observations in Campo Meetings 26.3.2001 & 15.12.2000 and in the EAIE Conferences 5.12.-8.12.2001 & 30.11.-2.12.2000). Sometimes the concept means the same, sometimes different things. Sometimes different words are used to refer to the same concept. The conceptual confusion particularly applies to internationalisation, internationalism, and international education, but also to Europeanisation, globalisation and international business. Blok (1995), for instance, is as straightforward as Knight in saying

“There was no common conceptual framework for the definitions, aims and instruments of internationalisation. When colleagues from different countries discussed internationalisation they often, quite unconsciously, had different things in their minds."

Hence, it is important to understand what the internationalisation of a higher-education institution is and what it is not. International business was discussed in chapter three (3) of this study; internationalisation in the context of international business, international education, internationalism, Europeanisation and globalisation are discussed briefly below.
Internationalisation in the Context of International Business

Given the process approach to the internationalisation of higher-education institutions taken in the beginning of this study and by using the idea that internationalisation is a multidimensional concept, it seems appropriate to briefly highlight international business efforts concerning the process view of the internationalisation of the firm and the multidimensionality involved.

There are two perspectives from which internationalisation as a process has been approached: that of the Swedish researchers (Wiedersheim-Paul & Welch 1980, Johanson & Vahlne 1977, Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul 1975) usually referred to as the Uppsala model, and the one developed by Luostarinen (with Welch 1994, 1988 and Luostarinen 1979, 1970). They both take the perspective of a single firm, and they are considered to be most valid in the context of fairly small and highly industrialised countries, such as the Nordic countries. The Uppsala model is restricted to examining the penetration pattern in a certain market, whereas Luostarinen’s model presents an overall internationalisation pattern (Hentola 1994). Luostarinen’s model is based on extensive Finnish data (1007 companies out of 1504), including 94.7% of the total exports in 1976, and takes a holistic approach on both the theoretical and the empirical level. Both are based on the behavioural theory of the firm (Welch & Wiedersheim-Paul 1980, Luostarinen 1979, Johanson & Vahlne 1977) and on the belief that internationalisation is the product of a series of incremental decisions. Internationalisation is seen as a dynamic, gradual and sequential process, dynamic in the sense that the outcome of one decision or one cycle of events constitutes the input for the next decision/event. Learning inside the organisation is important for moving from one stage to the next, even though the time span of learning is decreasing in today’s world, compared with the 1970s.

Luostarinen (1979) also emphasises the internationalisation of a firm as a multidimensional concept that has several implications for management. Those relevant to the internationalisation of a higher-education institute are first that the planning of internationalisation should be included and integrated with the regular corporate
planning system, second that resources should be developed and allocated for internationalisation based on the understanding that the payback periods are initially long, and third that as internationalisation is related to all the functions and activities of the firm, it should be taken into account in the development of its information, organizational, implementation, control, and result systems. Fourth, as a process, internationalisation requires the gradual and continuous development of different systems along with its own development, and finally, since lateral rigidity is a barrier to all innovative strategic development, attempts should be made to reduce it.

Several scholars (Hedlund & Kvaerneland 1985, Turnbull 1985, Sullivan & Bauerschmidt 1990, Andersen 1992) criticize the “stages model” for its methodological limitations. However, it should be noted that most of this criticism is directed towards the Uppsala school although in many cases not explicitly stated. More concretely, the Helsinki model i.e. Luostarinen’s research, is not even referred to in the criticism. My starting point is that the criticism does not apply to Luostarinen’s stages model, which is based on extensive data, rigid methodology, and holistic thinking.

*International Education*

International education is the other most obvious discipline connected to the internationalisation of higher education. However, the concept is not at all clear here either. Sometimes authors, such as Smith (1993), speak about the international dimension of higher education. Sometimes internationalism is seen as international education leading to peace and other human values (Nilsson 2000, Johansson 1997), whereas in business literature internationalism refers more to connections between people and companies from different nations. On occasions, especially in the early 1990s, and with reference to the beginning of internationalisation in a particular institute, international education means international mobility and exchange (EAIE Occasional Paper 2, 1992).
Johansson’s figure of international education can be explained in a few words. The whole framework is based on the values of global humanism. Two elements of the reality in which the students live are emphasised, a multicultural society and international working life. Students should gain knowledge, attitudes, and skills from their international curriculum. Examples of all of these are given, as the second table shows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Attitudes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global Humanism</td>
<td>Knowledge of different countries and cultures</td>
<td>Interaction skills</td>
<td>Tolerance/acceptance of differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training for</td>
<td>Knowledge of refugees and immigration</td>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
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<td>multicultural society</td>
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<td>Internationalism in</td>
<td>Professional knowledge of different countries and customs</td>
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Table 7: Johansson’s Cross Tabulation of Elements of International Education
Internationalism vs International Education

It could be argued that internationalism is the reason behind international education. In that case, internationalism is seen as a step towards world peace, broadmindedness, understanding and respecting other people and their cultures, values and ways of living, understanding racism and alienation, in Nilsson’s (2000) words. Internationalism is also seen in this way e.g. in the UNESCO discussions (ed. Liikanen 1993). According to Godwin (1992) and Rinne (1992), this development education included interdependence, knowledge of one’s own and other cultures, societal and social justice, conflicts and how to solve them and change. In the 1970s and 1980s, the emphasis in Finland was clearly also on peace education, and internationalism was to be taught together with all other subjects. In practice, the realisation differed according to the teacher. There was a change in educational policy in the 1990s in Finland, as elsewhere (Kameoka 1996), and an active wish to promote international co-operation and communication was one of the emphases in the development of the whole education system.

Another possibility is to take the more critical view of Scott (1998, 1996). He argued that internationalism has always been stressed in the rhetoric of higher education, and pointed out that one has to remember that universities were founded by nation states, and that their missions are very national. Nevertheless, it is true that the world has become a global environment that forces higher-education institutes to reposition internationally. This lead him to conclude that it is in this context that internationalisation has to be conceived and promoted, and not in terms of sentimental nostalgia.

Another example of the difficulties in using these terms is taken from Windham (1996), who said:

"Internationalism is a personal as well as a national or institutional exercise."

From the context, it could be said that he is speaking more of internationalisation than internationalism. These two examples clearly show that sometimes these concepts are
used almost synonymously, without no deeper reflection on their meanings.

Critical views on international education as a means to achieving the objective of internationalism (humanism) have been put forward lately. In e.g. Grünzweig’s (2000) view, the potential of international education as a critical element in the creation of a new identity from which to judge a reality open to criticism has been lost now in these days of the massification of higher education and its internationalisation. According to Grünzweig, due to the European Union’s initiatives, a totalising culture can no longer create this.

*The Europeanisation of Higher Education*

A major study related to one specific example of regionalisation, namely Europeanisation, was carried out by Ollikainen (1999), who extensively analysed the Europeanisation of Finnish education-policy discourses in 1987 – 1997. Some other authors, such as Reichert and Wächter (2000), refer to Europeanisation as a geographical subset of internationalisation. Teichler and Barblan (together 2000, 1998; Barblan 1999, Teichler 1998) studied the effects of European Union programmes on internationalisation on several occasions in the late 1990s. They, like Windham (1996), found that on occasion the EU is a powerful actor for internationalisation, but that Europe as a region is actually predominantly a sub-category of less than systematic relevance. This opinion is shared by Crowthner (2000), who argued that internationalisation means Europeanisation, and for many European institutions Europeanisation is only the first step towards wider internationalisation and it is a question of degree rather than of nature.

However, it was pointed out by Teichler (1998) that some authors (Blumenthal et al. 1996) argue that Europeanisation as regionalisation contradicts the principles of internationalisation by establishing co-operation among neighbours in order to counteract pressures from more distant regions of the world.
Globalisation – being globalisation of the economy and society - could be taken as the reason for the internationalisation of higher-education institutes, as Meek (2000) and Elliott (1998) put it. Alternatively, it could be argued that globalisation is a topic over which there has been considerable controversy, and that it currently exists to a greater extent in some industries, such as financial services, than in others, as Gibbons (1998) claimed. Further, Gibbons suggested that globalisation seemed uncontested in the sphere of knowledge production, and support was expressed for the universities’ role as producers of primary knowledge. A geopolitical view was adopted by Sadlak (1998), who pointed out that control over territory was of less importance than control of and access to all kinds of markets, the ability to generate and use knowledge and the capacity to develop new technology and human resources. According to him, globalisation is not only a complex inter-linking of various and not only economic processes, but also a sombrely dominant framework for anxious peering into our future as individuals and members of society.

Globalisation can be given a much wider meaning, one that emphasises the impact of global environmental changes, the threat of immigration or asylum policies by the superpowers, and the growth of hybrid world cultures created by the mingling of global-brand culture and indigenous traditions, as e.g. Scott (1998) and Tesar & Moini (1998) put it. Scott further argued that if globalisation is thus perceived, higher-education institutions have a new and unexpected role. He further argued that it cannot be regarded simply as a higher form of internationalisation, as Robertson (in Risager 2000) suggested. Instead of their relationship being seen as linear or cumulative, it might actually be dialectical. In a sense, globalisation could even rival the old internationalisation. Risager (2000) saw this differently, and argued that globalisation is perceived as menacing, and internationalisation is almost like a mantra and a form of defence against the threat of globalisation. Knight (1999 p.14) suggests “Globalisation is the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, ideas...across borders. Globalisation affects each country in a different way due to a nation’s individual history, traditions, culture and priorities”... “internationalisation of higher education is one of the
Globalisation is also heavily linked to the commercialisation trend also discussed in chapter 4.4.1.1 together with other societal changes influencing internationalisation and its managing (see e.g. Chipman 2001, Deem 2001, Heyneman 2001, Salmi 2001, Meek 2000, Altbach 1998, Deem 1994).

Thus, internationalisation and globalisation are seen as different, but dynamically linked. Risager (2000) spoke of menace and defence, Knight (1999) mentioned globalisation as a catalyst and internationalisation as a response in a proactive way. Van der Wende (2001) referred to globalisation regarded mainly as the external macro-socio-economic process that cannot be influenced at institutional level, whereas internationalisation is perceived as policy-based internal response and can be shaped and influenced at institutional level. Wächter (2000) stated in the same way that globalisation is an uncontrolled process, determined mainly by fierce economic competition on a global scale, and by rapid advances in information and communication technology, and that internationalisation is based on conscious action. Even though this last claim can be questioned on the evidence of Luostarinen’s studies (e.g. 1979), in which he argued that internationalisation starts out as a sporadic phenomenon, the point was emphasized by Wächter (2000) as well that globalisation and internationalisation are not synonymous. Scott (1998) puts forward a more philosophical and value-related view of globalisation than the other writers. It could also be concluded from the discussions referred to above that if internationalisation is a concept that is understood in many ways, so is globalisation. However, the emphasis in this study is on internationalisation, not on a deeper and wider discussion of globalisation in the context of the internationalisation of the firm (see e.g. Kirpalani & Luostarinen 2000) or the internationalisation of higher education (see e.g. ed. Scott 1998).

To sum up the discussion of chapter 4.4.4 in relation to the second phase of study it can be said that even though internationalisation contains such a strong symbolic value that it can easily create biases when discussed, since this second phase of analysis aimed at identifying the shared understandings of internationalisation and its managing, it was no longer confusing, as it was in the first phase of study and it was no
longer the focus of this study to identify the different understandings of these concepts. They were just passed by and deserve a closer look in a separate study.

4.4.6 Special Characteristics of HEI Management

Governance by Superior Authorities

Traditionally, education in continental Europe in general (e.g. Askling & Kristensen 2000, Sporn 1999) has been under strong central control with prescribed standards for school administration and curriculum. The same phenomenon is also seen in the private side in Finland and Belgium. The process of industrialisation with strong state and bank involvement is observed in both countries (Kristensen in eds Whitley & Kristensen 1996). Also, both countries share a relatively short history as nations, Belgium since 1831 and Finland since 1917 (Iterson in eds. Whitley & Kristensen 1996). The governance traditions can thus be argued to be quite similar.

Recent years, however, have witnessed a rapid decentralisation of education. Detailed regulation and budgeting have given way to budgeting lump sum grants, the regulation of posts and recruitment is minimal, and decisions concerning organisation and degrees have been decentralised. The strategies have moved from state mandates to local control. (Lasonen-Stenström 1995, Rekilä 1994, Summa & Virtanen 1998). Teichler (1996) pointed out that when in 1980s governments in various European countries began to relax their supervisory activities, they expected the individual institutions to make strategic choices, to be more managerial and entrepreneurial, and to be held visibly accountable to society through evaluation. This has brought along considerable additional challenges to the development of HEIs (Willman 2001, Nikkanen 1998). Since the demand for flexibility in different forms, growing self-responsibility, and instability of the environment as well as economic development all lead to more and more attention to the actions of an organisation and its effectiveness, the traditional bureaucratic organisation form has been questioned (Söderqvist 2001b, Willman 2001 ref Laitinen 1996). Sporn’s (1999) point concerning this discussion is that state-run public universities have been “offered” a new degree of freedom together with the
privatisation of the public sector in general. Autonomy in budgetary, personnel and programmatic matters increase the need for institutions to learn to manage by applying business techniques. However, at the same time HEIs are confronted by the demand for doing more with less (Sporn 1999, Heinonen 1997): state budgetary decline but HEIs should continue to provide high-quality education to a growing student body.

However, one of the most controversial things for me during this study has been the contradictory characteristics of public administration and private management present in the relations between HEIs and national as well as European authorities. The above-mentioned tradition or culture of strong central control is still lively in HEIs even though some reforms through legislation or other measures have brought them closer to the market. As “Norm managing” is the dominating discourse of managing HEI internationalisation, the contradiction between public and private management has been fully present throughout this study.

Collegial and Professional Bureaucracies and Expert Organisations with Independent Units

HEIs are often characterised as collegial, professional bureaucracies. This implies inertia, resistance to central directives and decentralisation of expertise and autonomy (Davies 1995). Thys-Clément & Wilkins (1998) report that based on their study of 20 European universities, a top-down strategy cannot function in HEIs. Without active participation of the independent units, no initiative has any success because of resistance and diversion manoeuvres to render it meaningless. According to the report of Stearns & Bora (1998) based on their study of mission statements of higher education, these are revised with a collegial process in most HEIs.

HEIs can also be characterised as knowledge-based expert organisations. Barry et al (2001) refer to scholars having liberty to pursue knowledge in a rigorous and critical way, enjoying the independence of means and mind coming from financial autonomy, and intellectual freedom. James (2000) refers to two types of knowledge of HEIs. One is the main product, generated through research and transferred through teaching. The second, less explicit type, is the operational knowledge of values, policies
and practices, negotiated and reshaped during everyday managerial activities.

Expertise in the organisation sets high demands for management: innovative and visionary leadership is needed. In an expert organisation, authority needs to be earned every day (Clarkson & Walls 1995). Management of an expert organisation has been compared to driving a car with one’s hands off the wheel; acceleration and braking are possible, but choosing one’s direction is not. Experts are self-directed, they choose their methods, tasks, and work autonomously. (Lyytinen 1998) Engwall et al. (1999) point out that the role of leader is to create meaning in the activities of subordinates rather than to direct their work. Thus, HEIs demand a special type of leadership because they are strongly dependent upon the professional competence of individuals.

Askling & Kristensen (2000) summarise this management and leadership problem by referring to the ambiguity between on the one hand, the tendency towards centralism inside the HEI needed to cope with dynamic and demanding environments, and, on the other hand the need for decentralisation and respect for academic freedom and autonomy based on collegiality. The independency of the different units in both sectors, in universities and polytechnics, has been difficult to handle for the internationalisation managers whose tasks require a more centralised view of organisation as these extracts below express:

"More important are the heads of units in internationalisation." MM2
"The units are very very autonomous." MM2
"I think the internationalisation will be more embedded in the units [after the introduction of Bologna declaration]." MM6
"The directors of the units have all the power after the rector." MM6
"The autonomy of the unit is ensured and nobody can jump over his unit." MM10
"One of the guiding ideas was that the units are quite independent." MM5
"We need many more people from the units. Maybe we need a smaller central office then." MM6
"It would be super, if I could say that every subject must include a precise amount of international dimension and then be able to define what it is. But in practice in a big organisation having very independent units, and in them very many views, it is difficult to give any orders. It always has to be done so that they think they have created it, completely without me." MM10

This phenomenon has been discussed on a general level when speaking about HEI
management. For example, Rekilä (1998) points out that the biggest problem of management in HEIs is to have the commitment of the different parts of an HEI to different types of reforms. It requires strong individuals as leaders, which is contradictory to the HEI’s tradition of collegiality and professional bureaucracy (Rekilä 1998, Summa & Virtanen 1998). Askling & Kristensen (200) and Kekäle (1998) add to this that it is typical for HEIs that decisionmaking is decentralised to relatively autonomous units and experts – just like the interviewed middle managers pointed out.

**HEI Management: Part of Public Management with Pressures from Private Management**

HEI management is part of the public administration tradition, especially when this tradition is used to explain and describe the management activities of public, non-profit organisations. According to the literature reviewed, there seems to be some battles between its discourses. Public administration has been challenged by public management talk (Newland 1994). The differences between public and private management have been sought (Boyne 2002) as has the sector dependent best practice of decision-making (Nutt 2000). The creation of quasi markets for the public sector has been problematised (Ferlie 1992). The attempt to bring the culture of business to schools and reduce the power of professional educators over education has been criticised (Deem 1994). The concepts of new managerialism, academic capitalism, and entrepreneurial universities have been examined for their usefulness in explaining what is happening in universities in Europe and North America (Deem, 2001). Organisational strategies for HEI internationalisation have been presented (Knight 1999).

Interestingly, Boyne found that only three hypotheses out of his 13 hypotheses of differences between public agencies and private firms were supported with the evidence from 34 empirical studies of these differences. The three were that public organisations are more bureaucratic, public managers less materialistic, and less committed to them than their private sector counterparts. Of the three differences between public and private management mentioned by Boyne (2002), the two first are present in the discourses on managing of HEI internationalisation. Interestingly, the
third, commitment, cannot be said to be weak. On the contrary, the commitment of middle management seems to be almost unhealthy, for middle managers sacrifice their private life and even health to the managing of internationalisation (ch 4.3.3.2). The market culture criticised by Ferlie (1992) and Deem (1994) has also been strongly criticised by some middle managers in this study in the “Norm managing” discourse (see also 4.4.4). The governance dimensions of Knight’s organisational strategies (discussed in Söderqvist 2001 b, c), namely the expressed commitment by senior leaders, active involvement of faculty and staff, articulated rationale and goals for internationalisation and recognition of an international dimension in mission statement and policy statement, were also strongly present in this study’s discourses on managing internationalisation. The elements of the other three categories she presented, operations, support services and human resource development (see e.g. Söderqvist 2001c, p.63) were mentioned during the interviews, but they cannot be said to be shared understandings amongst all the interviewees.

Of the many aspects of private management, strategic management is mostly referred to in speaking of HEI management, one reason probably being the huge changes in the circumstances referred to in 4.4 (Bayenet et al 2000, Askling & Christensen 2000). The classic strategic model assumes that the organisation has an explicitly defined mission and that its environment is systematically monitored and analysed. As HEIs are often compared to professional bureaucracies or organised anarchy (Middlehurst 1992), the link between players and structure is relatively weak and the organisational goals somewhat intangible (Bayenet et al. 2000), contrary to the assumptions of strategic management. Askling & Christensen (2000) refer to calls for entrepreneurial or innovative universities which appeal to HEIs to regulate themselves and reallocate institutional, collegial, and individual autonomy. They propose a more network-oriented model of institutional governance, aiming at encouraging the staff to mobilise their own capacity for the best of the whole institution.

According to Middlehurst (1992), the policy change towards a managerialist ideology in higher education puts a premium on the efficient and disciplined use of resources, the achievement of value-for-money, and increased productivity. This calls for strategic management. The aims mentioned above are to be achieved through the
use of systematic planning, organisation and control, the measurement against declared objectives. These elements are part of the “Visionary managing” discourse recognised in this study. Demichel (2000) shares this by asking institutional leaders to negotiate with foreign institutions, to facilitate mobility, and to find innovative ways to promote teacher mobility against the institutional constraints. Liuhanen (1996) report on the experience of one university in which a shift from collegial and bureaucratic traditions towards more strategic procedures seemed to require both time and significant changes in university culture.

Middlehurst (1992) reminds us, nevertheless, of the point that the primary responsibility of higher education is to produce, disseminate, and preserve knowledge on a much longer scale than is possible or desirable in business, so it is generally accepted that they operate under a less immediate threat of bankruptcy. This means that the primary goals of higher education are academic; financial goals should be subordinated to them.

Boyne (2002) adds that the main conventional distinction between public and private organizations is their ownership. Unlike private counterparts, public agencies are funded largely by taxation and controlled predominantly by political forces.

However, financial support from the state can also cause both tensions and inefficiency. This can be seen in the “Basic processes to be financed by internationalisation” discourse in which financial support is significantly guided the activities undertaken. It calls for a proactive leadership to produce useful changes, thus urging middle management to function as apostles of internationalisation inside the HEI.

Willman (2001) found, in analysing the change management process of curricula, that many educational institutions did not have common strategy, no management, and no ways to realise the aims of this change. Thys-Clément & Wilkin (1998) report the same thing based on an analysis of over 20 European HEIs. All reported to have a strategic plan, but less than half implemented it on a short-term basis. Stearns & Bora (1998) report that HEIs are not specific in their mission statements.

Changes are difficult to make if there is no common culture of decision-making and action practice. Common language and common social norms and values are
needed. However, the tradition in educational institutions is different. Making a change of curricula to become a good practice was found to be quite a challenge to the educational institutions (Willman 2001). It is no wonder that the findings on the managing of internationalisation indicate the same problem. The traditional way of managing of HEIs, “Norm managing”, does not support strategic change management.

Background of the Managers

Middlehurst (1992) has discussed the leadership, management, and administration in higher education (see also Askling & Christensen 2000, Dietl 1996, Czarniawska-Joerges & Wolff 1991). She states that management is coping with complexity and leadership is coping with change. The functions of management are to order and to control, to make the organisation efficient and effective within agreed objectives. When a successful change cannot be imposed by fiat, it is the task of leadership to clarify the direction of change and to make the members of the organisation willing and enthusiastic partners in the change process. The function of administration is to implement policy within a framework of established systems, rules and procedures and serve the purposes of management or leadership. To sum up, according to Middlehurst, management controls, leadership guides and enthuses, and administration serves.

Nevertheless, the roles of manager and leader are generally combined. In professional organisations, the leadership function is carried out by senior professionals, whereas the administrative function can be delegated to outsiders or junior professionals, because it is under the direction of professionals. According to Handy (1984 ref. Middlehurst 1992) in professional organisations like HEIs, the policymaking is professional and collegial and separated from execution that is hierarchical and bureaucratic. Thys-Clément & Wilkin (1998) report that the distribution of power between academics and administrators is not clear-cut. Sometimes administration is excluded from meetings, sometimes an administrator is chosen from among members of the academic body. However, because of financial constraints there is pressure for tighter management in HEIs, which also influences the managing of internationalisation. However, Barry et al (2001) found no evidence of direct managerial control of daily
routines.

Different people have different backgrounds. What is noteworthy in this study is the fact that most of the university middle managers of HEI internationalisation in both countries have an administrative, civil-servant-type of background, whereas most of the polytechnics, people in both countries have a teacher background. Only two had any management education or former management experience.

“I am a former teacher. I am 100% administrative now.” MM2

“.as a teacher. It helped me to consider the effects of internationalisation of the educational staff, of the academic staff. I know that there are other, should I say, viewpoints, that there are people who say that the international relations coordinator should only be or essentially be a manager of people and things. I can see that point of view, but I can also see the other point of view. So, I think they are just two different profiles.” MM1

Also, another informative idea concerning background was presented. The state of affairs of HEI internationalisation is said to be stagnated due to the sex and youth of the persons performing the duties in the beginning of internationalisation.

“Some very young women, masters of science, who could speak languages and handle practical affairs, find the pots and saucepans, mattresses and everything else that was needed. Internationalisation has stayed in that stage.” MM11

The shared idea of the importance of these two categories, administrators and teachers, can be seen in the following extracts:

“But the people who are working in the central office are quite highly ranked.” MM6

“I feel that there are quite a lot of people working in the central office who think they are more important than the people working in faculties.” MM7

The attitude toward one’s own work varies considerably depending on one’s background, as can be seen for example in the following two extracts. In the first one, the managing experience facilitates the responsibility and initiative taking and in the second one the civil servant attitude of “Norm Managing” is quite strong:
“It depends on the employee how the work is constructed.” MM5

“That they are strategic questions, I want to have management’s decision.” MM4

The dominating discourses reveal that HEI internationalisation is not understood as a change process. Perhaps, because the education or professional experience of the people in the management and leadership functions of ‘managing of internationalisation change process from a national institution towards an international institution’ does not support their performance of these tasks, it is only understandable that HEI internationalisation is not understood from the change management point of view.

Role of Students in Managing

The role given to the students is also one of the context factors. There are strong discourses in society according to which several public service users should be taken as clients: patients, students... Thys-Clément & Wilkin (1998) report that sometimes the role of students is consultative, sometimes fully participative. Their involvement may extend to teacher assessment, teacher appointments, programme reviews and budgetary decisions. In HEI internationalisation, they serve as a pressure group towards the highest management in special questions of international affairs, as the student point of view is appreciated.

“That the representative in the meeting is the representative of the student union.” MM5

“The students have clearly appreciated that they have international opportunities and that they are directly involved in cooperation and that their representatives are always present.” MM10

4.5 Discussion of Managerial Questions

This chapter discusses some managerial problems and good practices that came up in the discourse analysis. The discussion of managerial problems seeks solutions by pointing out some issues. The discussion of good practices includes dissemination of some good ideas to the practitioners. The practical context is understood to be
important enough in this study to deserve a separate subchapter.

4.5.1 Managing Problems

Some of the managing problems related to HEI internationalisation can be understood through different discourses on HEI internationalisation and its managing. As the understandings of HEI internationalisation are sometimes quite contradictory, so are the ways to understand the managing of HEI internationalisation. Moreover, when people understand things differently, problems arise regarding what to do and how to do it.

Amount of work

The amount of work (see 4.3.3.2) is heavily criticised by middle managers. The huge amount of work is understandable when middle managers try to behave rationally according to many discourses on HEI internationalisation and managing of HEI internationalisation simultaneously. As shown in the analysis of these discourses, the rational acting is quite different in these discourses, even though there are some interwoven elements.

For example, because the “Basic processes...” discourse is controlled to a great extent by EU deadlines and regulations, there is little opportunity for other acting. This is particularly so if one is performing all the work alone or with a maximum of one other person as secretarial help at the central level, as is the case in the majority of HEIs studied (Söderqvist 2001a). The figure of around five persons working for internationalisation was calculated from all the working hours contributed by different teachers and coordinators all around the organisation (Söderqvist 2001a). It can be argued that at least three to five persons would be needed at the central level alone, depending on the size of the HEI, if all the demands of the different discourses are met.

Or, if one tries at the same time to behave as a “Norm manager”, “Visionary manager”, and “Participatory manager”, it is not surprising that time is lacking as rational acting in these managing discourses can be quite contradictory. For instance, as a “Norm manager”, there are many details to handle regarding the different regulations
of superior authorities; as a “Visionary manager”, one should have time to be creative and develop one’s own visions and ways to implement them and as a “Participatory manager” one should convince the whole organisation and take others’ opinions into consideration. This requires a lot of time consuming networking in different parts of the organisation.

Also, the networking performed by these managers alone is tremendous, as seen in the report on the analysis (see 4.3.2). More people are needed for it and enough time for these people to create trust inside the own organisation, nationally and internationally, to be able to function effectively according to the rational acting described in different discourses.

“That just the fact that you don’t have a strong strategic position then you don’t have enough resources either. Internationalisation should be taken as an essential part of the normal strategic management and planning and then recognize that it is the kind of work that takes far more time. You cannot do all things virtually. Real interaction, connections between people are very important and make people for example to travel.” MM11

“Personal resources are in a key position. These development tasks take a lot of time. MM4

“To strive for what? To have enough resources.” MM10

“The volumes are bigger. And what is interesting, the fact is that the number of personnel has stayed the same.” MM4

“I have not heard that anybody has done anything about the fact that we are running out of state money.” MM4

Another often mentioned problem, in connection with the amount of work, was the diversity and unexpectedness of the work as seen from the extracts below:

“This is connected to the post modern world, there are a lot of factors, it is unsecure, changing all the time, all the time dynamic. It is very difficult to provide exact systems, that’s why the framework is needed, to bring order to this chaos. That every day all the plans change.” MM3

“No matter how well you prepare the day before, when you come to work, read an email, everything changes.” MM9

“So if I go to my office and think that today, ok, I really would like to, let’s say, write a paper of three pages on Bologna or Sorbonne, I can be sure that I will not have one single sentence. ... the question is if this is not very efficient.” MM7
As a managerial problem, this could be solved with clear visions and priorities set out with scheduled, budgeted strategies to apply them (Hill & Jones 1998, Hunt et al. 1997, Luostarinen 1979), if this type of acting were possible, as proposed in the data extracts below.

“The most important thing is to plan more and minimise pulling in all directions. Coordination and management, they are the key issues that need development.” MM8

“An internationalisation strategy is still needed.” MM4

However, as discussed in the earlier chapter, the special characteristics of the HEI as an organisation, being a “professional bureaucracy”, an “expert organisation” or an “organised anarchy” (Middlehurst 1992), makes private management behaviour (Boyne 2002) difficult. In any case, I would recommend serious consideration of strategic holistic managing as a solution to the diversity and unexpectedness. It would certainly need time-consuming participatory methods to set out these visions and priorities, to get the commitment of the whole organisation, and to decide what is included in the work of an internationalisation manager. This would be a tremendous help to middle manager of HEI internationalisation.

Alvarez & Echevin (2000) point out another aspect; managerial work at HEIs does not take an analytical form. Many managers perceive their work as a list of urgent problems to be solved and do not seek to have an overall vision of their job. Still others feel that they spend most of the time reacting to ever-changing circumstances; such managers do not identify priorities since they are shifting all the time. They refer to Marschall & Stewarts’s study of 1981 where this was seen as a general phenomenon of managerial work. Also, it must be remembered that even if the priorities and strategies are set out, the problems will remain if there are not enough people to take the necessary actions.

The special characteristics of HEIs cause another problem that makes the work of an internationalisation manager difficult. Sometimes, the existing bureaucracy is too

“Half of the time goes to surprises.” MM10
much even for people who act like “Norm managers”:

“In all international things, the Commission changed the system recently. There is much more flexibility for the higher-education institutions, but what happens now is that the bureaucracy is in the university and they don’t change it! They don’t change it!” MM6

“One part of the problem is that the student services area is handled in one office and international affairs in another. And these two should know much about each other’s sectors.” MM11

“When we talk about web pages in English, they are not the Finnish ones translated into English but we have done them in the internationalisation team and I am responsible for the web pages in English even though there is a communication team in this HEI!” MM

A special money-related problem is the requirement of using APEX flights when doing the work; this means sacrificing private life and rest during weekends. In other words, the amount of work increases. If a manager has close to 100 travelling days annually, this becomes a real problem, and even one trip per month disrupts the family life.

In hierarchical organisations, the financial responsibility is often quite high in the hierarchy. It is clear that without one’s own budget, one has no power to decide and to execute decisions. This makes acting inefficient. (see 4.3.3.2)

One aspect of the problem regarding the amount of work can be altered by the middle managers themselves, at least to some extent. Now, when about ten years have passed with this new type of internationalisation, one could reflect on one’s own routines and ways of working together with colleagues and a councillor. Some models could be found. Even though the work is very challenging and interesting (see 4.3.1), one should keep in mind that for a happy life some other elements are also needed.

New societal myths emerge as an answer to the demands for change in the organisation form and power relations (e.g. Willman 2001); the current ideology of a good employee is based on hard work and long hours. This myth can be questioned. One should not have to accept it.

**Personnel problems**

Another often-mentioned problem has to do with people working together. As rational
acting in the identified discourses on internationalisation requires much networking, personal conflicts arise. Solutions need to be found case by case, as the problems are quite different, as can be seen from the extracts below. The problems exist on different organisational levels and types of acting. For example, the discussion between different actors on the different discourses would settle some problems, as professionals and managers can interpret identical issues differently (Golden et al. 2000). As collegiality is another characteristics of an HEI, due to the complexity of the issues, leadership should be based on shared thinking and joint efforts, established through mutual understanding.

“Well, there are big scars and wounds from the old culture.” MM
“That when you have difficult personal relations, then it is no longer easy.” MM
“The biggest challenge inhouse is to develop the cooperation between the units and to find the right division of work.” MM
“Everything is a priority for my boss.” MM
“One of my achievements is that I can work with her. I always know beforehand. I know if I want to achieve something how I have to present it to her. And the strange thing is that she said to me you know how you have to address me. So she knows I know. (haha then you keep on playing the game all the time) yeah yeah and that’s because I also like it because it is just a game but (it takes a lot of energy). Energy consuming. And I think I learnt a lot of it, so if I go, my future life can benefit from that.” MM
“I think I can never have children when she is my boss. Impossible.” MM
“Important problems... they are given the meaning of a different opinion of what international activities or what international office and unit should have as a role, but in my opinion they are problems of different personal chemistry.” MM
“I have met by predecessor once and he does not want to have anything to do with me.” MM
“It is difficult to reach people.” MM
“It is difficult, clearly, to understand how a teacher will take something or how a student will. Many times you are surprised, that how come, is that really how a student understands something. That I did not mean it that way.” MM

Commitment problems

Commitment to internationalisation and its managing came up in the analysis. Many middle managers pointed out how committed and supportive their superiors, the top
management of the HEIs, are. This was interpreted as “rebuttal” (see 4.1.3); this element of managing discourses is therefore really strong. Even without asking, people reacted. Understood that way, I explained this in European internationalisation by the fact that top management does not take seriously internationalisation of their institutions (see 4.3.1).

Summa & Virtanen (1998) refer to another explanation; according to vertical solitude communication between top management and middle management is interrupted. It is common in public organisations that the top management does not include the role of active manager/leader in its own organisation (Summa & Virtanen 1998). Neither can the heads of different units behave as a link between the top management and other levels in the HEI organisations because of academic freedom and the collegial decision-making in committees, which in turn hampers centralised managing of HEI internationalisation.

There can be commitment problems with internationalisation personnel. Those who have personal experience are really committed, as seen in chapter 4.3.1. Those who do not share this commitment go elsewhere, where they receive the same salary for much less work. That causes problems for those who stay, as the following data extract indicates.

“Trust is very important.. the way you get along with each other. And this is a thing. A lot of people are moving around and they don’t stay a long time and I think it’s a pity, because when these people go, they take a lot of know-how with them and a lot of personal contacts and you cannot just transfer them, to replace it, because it is a personal thing.” MM6

Another aspect of the personnel problems is career development. According to these data extracts, it needs more attention from the HRM people of HEIs.

“That also their career development would receive attention.. Very often you are already on the first day of work at the top – there is no possibility to develop.” MM

“Maybe one point is that as this field is full of women you can see how slowly salaries rise. If you perform well you should benefit from it.” MM
Appreciation Problems with Internationalisation Work Itself

As internationalisation management is a new function at HEIs, with a strong governance tradition and much “Norm managing”, the middle managers face problems with the status of their work as the following extracts show. Only the top management can solve these problems through organisational arrangements:

“That an internationalisation manager should be part of the Board or at least should have the right to be present in order to know and in order to bring information.” MM10

“That mentally and financially it is recognised as an important activity and that the internationalisation personnel are involved in decision-making.” MM12

“I asked the rector whether there would be anything strategically important concerning internationalisation. She looked at her papers and said no.” MM

“The weak status.” MM11

Also, the resistance from inside the organisation can be an appreciation-related problem. More “Participatory managing” and less “Norm managing” would help to solve the resistance problem.

“But the resistance has always been very great against international things.” MM1

“But our people responsible for training in our institution do not always give credit for what students are doing abroad.” MM1

Different Types of Management and Leadership Needed in Different Times

To sum up, I would like to refer to Middlehurst (1992) and Czarniawska-Joerges & Wolff (1991), who argue that different types of management and leadership are needed in different organisational stages. In times of scarcity or uncertainty, emphasis will be put on monitoring, assessment, and reporting. At other times, there is more freedom for leadership at departmental and work-group levels, stimulated by enabling management frameworks and a facilitative leadership style at institutional level. In the face of pressures, the leadership should be building internal commitment towards positive collective action and at other times supporting the key purposes of the HEI, and at all
times offering new visions, insights, and agendas that serve as unifying forces. All this needs further education and training. As it was seen in 4.4.6, the background of the present middle managers seldom supports the versatility of managing skills needed for effective performance. Anand (1996) emphasises that in order to succeed in their tasks the middle managers need to be trained. At the moment, it seems like the need for management/leadership training is neither understood by the top management nor by educational authorities, despite the great hopes placed in HEI internationalisation and the forthcoming globalisation. Moreover, as Van der Wende (2001) pointed out, if internationalisation is not fully applied in the HEI organisation, the challenges of globalisation will prove even more difficult.

4.5.2 Positive Practices to Be Disseminated

Business schools worldwide, for example, provide some concrete benchmarking help for middle managers confronting the problems of internationalisation. The Academy of International Business has commissioned global surveys of internationalisation activities in business schools since 1969 (Arpan, Folks & Kwok 1993). In the most recent survey conducted, Arpan & Kwok (2001) gathered information on philosophies and approaches to internationalising curricula, students, and faculty, on international linkages and alliances among institutions, organisational activities, faculty training and reward systems. In conclusion, they report that whereas most schools previously sought to provide students with only an awareness of the international dimension of business, schools now have the objective of understanding the international dimension for all students, and also increasingly to objective of expertise of international affairs. Non-US business schools were more satisfied than US schools about the progress of internationalisation at their institutions over the last five years. The development of HEI internationalisation in Europe can be seen. From the European side, Howers’s article (1994) can still offer many benchmarking opportunities in a practice-related way, based on the experiences of Groningen University.

Often, for some reason, only managerial problems are tackled in dissertations. Many good practices emerged from the data, and it would be important to disseminate
them (see also Appendices 6 & 7). Wider application of these practices could prevent many problems from arising.

The elements of good practices are introduced according to the logic of holistic strategic management (see chapter 2) despite the expert organisation problems discussed (ch 4.4). Strategic management is said to provide the following advantages (Thompson & Strickland 1987 quoted by Kekäle 1997):

- clarification of the aim will guide actions in the same direction
- recognition of environmental changes helps to utilise opportunities and prevent threats
- definition of the focus of action helps management to prioritise
- a clear strategy increases coordination between different strategic decisions in all parts of the organisation
- conscious preparation of strategy helps the organisation to act beforehand instead of drifting

**Commitment**

The importance of commitment, and the commitment of the whole organisation based on the actions of the top management came up, as it is often discussed in the managerial literature:

“It is important to have a clear organisation and that the internationalisation manager has a strong feeling that she is fully supported.” MM10

“All the units are very strongly orientated towards internationalisation and it is kind of built into their activities. And it is thanks to the rector and this international organisation.” MM8

**Information System**

The importance of analysing the environment carefully to predict the threats and opportunities was realised:

“The conception of meta processes, it is an important part.” MM9, MM10

“The Ministry will ask to have more foreign degree students in a couple of years.” MM9
Planning

Planning is important on two levels, the content of HEI internationalisation and the operational knowledge of running managing functions. “Good” internationalisation helps to fulfil the basic objectives of the university. It creates an international learning, teaching, and research environment in which the particularity of the different parts can be taken into consideration. However, the flexibility needed is also emphasised.

“Let’s make a statement what we want to do as IRO. If it is just registration, we should avoid it... Avoiding really things we take along. We take sometimes too much, we do everything for them we find.” MM6

“Loose framework” MM3

“We have educational, professional and other objectives. The values passed on to these students, about their professional identity, and their orientation to internationalisation come of course from this institution and its atmosphere and from its professors.” MM8

“The basic processes of HEIs have been taken as the basis for international actions.” MM5

“The idea is to support the main tasks of the HEI, but then there is a lot of content.” MM9

“We want to offer and improve research and education through international cooperation.” MM10

“And then another point, that I find interesting to be developed is data management. How could we by coordinating our own information and access to it support long-term planning by the units? So that the information would not come like ”IIK, now it is the application time” but that they would quickly and easily see the different application times. And I have also developed a data bank idea.” MM8

Organising

Good organising of managing functions facilitates implementation of HEI internationalisation. A clear organisation, clear processes, clear job descriptions and managerial competence are given as examples of rational organising.

“It is very important to have an international affairs organisation with an experienced management.” MM10

“Clear organisation” MM3

“Clear job descriptions” MM3
“A system of replacements” MM1
“Teams have been created, people doing the same tasks have been put into the same office, team responsibility has been developed.” MM9
“Clear, explicitly defined processes” MM3
“Informal and formal organisation strive for the same goals” MM1
“Help for office routines, clear duties” MM9

More personnel for the existing amount of work of HEI internationalisation would facilitate the many tasks to be performed. One solution proposed is that the leader/manager is a different person from the hand, i.e. does not have to do the actual work:

“And then I was told to never start taking care of anything.” MM10

Organising the manager’s own work according to the different duties helps:

“How to organise the work: statistics, and routine work and starting new innovative projects.” MM5
“Thinking of oneself: no visitors welcomed in the middle of July.” MM4

Also, responsibilities and rights should go hand in hand:

“The internationalisation manager should be part of the Board or at least present there in order to be able to bring information and to get information.” MM10 (+ MM5, MM3)
“And of course there should be a portable computer, and an opportunity to be connected to Internet with a portable phone, for example when you are abroad or travelling domestically.” MM5
“Initiative responsibility belongs to everybody→ carrots to be offered” MM3

IT can be of tremendous help, if properly organised. Joint servers, programs, intranet and databases are examples of helping elements.

“An effective IT system. And a practical tip of advice, we have a joint server so that we can use the same documents. I have planned the contents of the new intranet and I will have a meeting with the IT manager to discuss what type of programs are needed so that information could be coordinated the way I want. My idea is that anybody inhouse could handle anything, put if on computer, and then at the end of
the year they could find it there, without spending a lot of time collecting information." MM8
“A database of contracts open to everybody” MM9

Implementing

Many good practices are used in the implementing phase of holistic management of the content of HEI internationalisation; there are mobility and curriculum-related practices in particular. The projects needed for the EU funding are there if the internationalisation manager assumes the role of participatory leader and collects ideas from the organisation. It is also important to generate enthusiasm among the staff to get the personnel involved.

“Collecting the ideas from the organisation.” MM1
"The innovator role” MM5, MM1

Professional mentoring groups or peer support exist in both countries to help staff in the performance of duties:

“It is a kind of regional group; the cooperation contract was signed 4 to 5 years ago, and all the universities and polytechnics of this region cooperate. It was the first in this country. There are different subgroups, for example, the group for international affairs. We have held joint orientation sessions, language training for teachers, and training for ourselves.” MM

Rewards create enthusiasm for future efforts:

“We got money from the Board of Education for the cooperation between the polytechnic and the university and it was given out to our organisations as rewards. Many years these people came to thank for this rewarding.” MM10

Clear inside regulation helps to arrange the work systematically.

“Clear regulations for the degrees.” MM4

Network development is crucial in both “Norm managing” and “Visionary managing”.
Synergies are to be sought. An active role is said to help to obtain benefits from the network. Network administration also requires attention. Categorising of partners is one approach of how to do it.

“Synergies but also taking into consideration the differences” MM3
“Active role in networks” MM8
“Categorising the network and its administration openly and according to clear rules of the game” MM3

Systematic project management gives order to everyday routines and minimises ad hoc reacting.

“So we have a list of all our projects, with the coordinator, with the partners, which countries, which subjects.” MM7

Information management is another dimension of the systematic organisation of the tasks. There are several tools to be used; a common calendar and information letters are proposed below.

“An event calendar for everybody” MM3
“A separate internationalisation information letter. The information coming from the units in order to benefit from the synergies.” MM3

Image management helps to create networks as required by the EU. An HEI with a good reputation can create and maintain its network more easily than one without this image. Image management is proposed as an item to be considered.

“Our visibility towards the management has become better.” MM9
“To have a higher profile internationally” MM10
“It is in our strategy, and it can be seen in our activities, that we want to be part of international society.” MM9
“Taking care of our image” MM10

As mobility is the main element in today’s HEI internationalisation, there are already
many good practices at many HEIs.

“Different guides for incomers, tutor training, practices to support EU activities: separate info sessions for students and teachers twice a year, welcoming parties, cultural activities, asking the foreign students and teachers to participate in education and research, benefitting from multicultural possibilities, brochures, web pages, joint marketing, cooperation between different types of HEIs, networking inhouse, nationally and internationally, benefiting and using the feedback to further develop the organisation and its activities.”

To develop an international learning and teaching environment, many curriculum-related practices have also been created. For example, in addition to the ECTS system, responsibility for accepting credits earned abroad has been given to coordinators of internationalisation who have no personal interest concerned as teachers do. Intensive weeks are a way to attract foreign teachers to held courses. Co-operation with industry helps to create authentic learning environments. Mobility can be introduced as an obligatory element of the curriculum.

“Studies abroad must be accepted as part of the degree. Acceptance by the coordinator, not by the teachers.” MM4

“Mobility as an obligatory element of the degree – well informed beforehand.” MM3, MM4

“Intensive weeks” MM4

“Cooperation with the industries and the region to internalise professional practices.” MM3, MM5

Even clear societal action can be performed by an HEI. In one case, to oppose racism, the HEI mobilised the region to prepare a declaration of tolerance.

“A declaration of tolerance” MM

Financing

As financing is a dimension of all the subsystems of holistic management, it is amazing how few good practices seem to exist. However, this can be explained in two ways. First, financial questions are “taboos”. Second, the “Norm managing” tradition places the
responsibility for financial matters at high levels in the hierarchy.

“The criteria for distributing the money inside, taking into consideration the plans and realised activities, and the money needed to maintain the central office.” MM5

“A detailed budget under the responsibility of the internationalisation manager.” MM5, MM9, MM3

“Enough resources, understanding of the fact that creation of personal trust takes time.” MM12

**Evaluating**

Even though evaluation was emphasised in the EPSs, it was not longer so apparent in the interviews. One might ask whether “evaluation talk” in EPSs was merely part of the rhetorics desired by the EU? Or, whether there are already enough practices for collecting feedback so that it does not need any more attention. In any case, a good internal system of evaluation is crucial for holistic management thinking as a basis for the planning system. Good practices are needed.

"Follow up systems, teacher and student reports, project reporting" MM

"Follow up of marketing inhouse." MM7

### 4.6 Conclusions

#### 4.6.1 Theoretical Points of Views

At the very beginning of the study, the research problem was said to consist of two interrelated phenomena, on the one hand the conceptual confusion of HEI internationalisation and related concepts, internationalism, international business, international education, globalisation and Europeanisation, and on the other hand, the managing problems of the HEI internationalisation. The research questions were set as follows:

- “What understandings are there of HEI internationalisation?”
“How does middle management of HEI internationalisation understand the management of HEI internationalisation?

To facilitate the analysis, these were dealt within three subquestions:

- “What are the dominating understandings?
- “What type of rational acting does HEI internationalisation create?”
- “What type of actors does managing of HEI internationalisation create?”

With the help of analytic discourse analysis, three discourses on HEI internationalisation that explain all the talk of the interviewed rectors and managers concerning HEI internationalisation were identified. The first one was called “Basic Processes to Be Financed by Internationalisation”, the second “The HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor”, and the third “Towards a Multicultural and more Equal World”. The first two were characterised as dominating understandings and the third as an emerging discourse. The main features of these discourses are collected in the table below:
Three discourses were identified for managing of HEI internationalisation. They were

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse/Questions</th>
<th>Basic Processes to Be Financed by Internationalisation</th>
<th>The HEI as a Competitive and Appreciated Actor</th>
<th>Towards a Multicultural and more Equal World</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Features of the Discourse</strong></td>
<td>1) Interwoven with the basic teaching, learning and research-related objectives of the HEI 2) Internationalisation based on cooperation 3) EU Funding and EU activities 4) National authorities favour 5) Related to the global market as a work place for students 6) New areas (ref. Bologna process) coming up</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation appreciated 2) Appreciated activity legitimising the HEI as an HEI 3) Benchmarking possibilities 4) Vision setting 5) Appreciated activities create opportunities for students 6) Appreciated partners create an appreciated institution 7) Appreciated role as regional motor</td>
<td>1) In the spirit of the UN 2) We are part of a global society – we need to know how to function there 3) Incoming and outgoing globalisation 4) Internationalisation as an end itself, not only as a means 5) Internationalisation at home – activities → more equal internationalisation 6) Related with global commercialisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rational Acting</strong></td>
<td>1) Heavily subsidised mobility, projects, curriculum development and all the bureaucracy these activities bring with them 2) Related to preparing for the Bologna process</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation manager as appreciated actors giving speeches, training others 2) HEI as an appreciated actor: being a model for others, regional influence, educating for the work market 3) Image marketing 4) Networking</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation at Home 2) Team work 3) Equal appreciation of all the actors in the field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What entitles/justifies the discourse?</strong></td>
<td>Securing funding making for the basic processes in a world of diminishing public funding</td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>An equal, multicultural world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What type of consequences have this discourse got?</strong></td>
<td>Regulation of the EU and other sources of funding followed rigorously to obtain funding</td>
<td>Outward networking Need for managerial knowhow</td>
<td>Internal organisation and process development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What contributes to reaching the goals of the discourse?</strong></td>
<td>Enough resources Bureaucracy IT</td>
<td>Personal relations Further education</td>
<td>Restructurating of management processes; from national HEI → international HEI Internal attitude and faith in the discourse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Discourses on HEI Internationalisation, © Minna Söderqvist
called “Norm managing”, “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing”. “Norm managing” is the dominating discourse, whereas “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing” are only emerging discourses. It was significant that in the “HEI as an appreciated and competitive actor” discourse of HEI internationalisation considerable “Norm managing” occurs even though Visionary managing was the discourse first identified from the “HEI as an appreciated and competitive actor” discourse. It shows how there are no self-evident meanings and how discourses are situation-specific (Jokinen et al. 1999, 1993, Lehtonen 1996). It is also significant that the managers did not have as clear an understanding of the managing of HEI internationalisation as they did of HEI internationalisation. There are at least two possible explanations. First, since the phenomenon “HEI internationalisation” is quite new as such it has received much attention from middle managers. Second, middle managers do not often have managerial background. However, the commitment to internationalisation is notable. The main features of these discourses are gathered in the table below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse/Questions</th>
<th>Norm Managing</th>
<th>Visionary Managing</th>
<th>Participatory Managing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Features of</strong></td>
<td>1) Preparing</td>
<td>1) Innovativeness</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>the Discourse</strong></td>
<td>applications</td>
<td>2) Objective setting</td>
<td>manager as an equal</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>2) Reporting</td>
<td>preparing for the</td>
<td>actor inside the</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>on the</td>
<td>future from one’s</td>
<td>organisation management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>activities</td>
<td>own starting points</td>
<td>2) Team work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Versatility</td>
<td>3) Frame making for</td>
<td>3) Creating trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of activities</td>
<td>the HEI</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>4) Guest PR</td>
<td>internationalisation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5) Mobility-</td>
<td>4) Strategic managing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>related</td>
<td>5) Entrepreneurial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>activities</td>
<td>managing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rectors as Actors</strong></td>
<td>1) Preparing</td>
<td>1) Vision setting</td>
<td>1) Preparing the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the framework</td>
<td>2) Development of</td>
<td>framework for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for activities</td>
<td>society</td>
<td>activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Creating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>enthusiasm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internationalisation</strong></td>
<td>1) Hands: No</td>
<td>1) Realising visions:commitment, hard</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Managers as Actors</strong></td>
<td>decision making, belonging to work, use of power, administration analysing environment,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>administration</td>
<td>setting objectives and</td>
<td>defining strategies,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Experts:</td>
<td>developing</td>
<td>developing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>developing</td>
<td>Enthusiasm creators</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of services,</td>
<td>3) Image marketing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>applying</td>
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<td></td>
<td>EU regulations,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>networking,</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>travelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What entitles/justifies the discourse?</strong></td>
<td>Tradition of superior national and supranational authorities</td>
<td>Private management applied to public organisations</td>
<td>The HEI as an equal, multicultural workplace for students and staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What type of consequences have this discourse got?</strong></td>
<td>Regulations of the EU and other sources of funding followed rigorously to obtain funding</td>
<td>Outward networking</td>
<td>Internal organisation and process development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What contributes to reaching the goals of the discourse?</strong></td>
<td>Money, Bureaucracy, IT</td>
<td>Personal relations</td>
<td>Restructuring management processes, Internal attitude and faith into the discourse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Discourses on Managing HEI Internationalisation © Minna Söderqvist

In an analytic discourse analysis, the main result is the detailed outline of reality in the meanings identified in social practices and present in talk, texts, or otherwise through
language (Jokinen et al. 1999). There are no self-evident meanings, and the meanings organise the life and identity of societies (Lehtonen 1996). That is why it is important to identify them. The discourses identified help to reflect upon the current acting. Knowledge is both a societal product and a societal change producer (Berger & Luckman 1966/1994). When issues are brought to awareness, value and action choices can be made more consciously. When the discourses on HEI internationalisation are seen, the rationalities behind the managing of HEI internationalisation can be understood. Issues that would probably not be otherwise discussed can then be discussed. Reality can be constructed through the use of language, based on new knowledge, on a new way to express existing meanings. This discussion can open new horizons. The reasons for some problems are found and the problems solved.

In addition to this clear contribution in the form of discourses, this study has also contributed to the opening up of a new area in the study of international business, namely the managing of European HEI internationalisation of the 1990s in the often turbulent field of higher education (creation of new HEIs, commercialisation, e-learning). The internationalisation of firms has been studied since the late 1960s, but HEI internationalisation and managing of HEI internationalisation have rarely (Parsons 2001) been studied at the doctoral level. Toyne (1989) and Toyne & Nigh (1998) have called for an extension of the international business field, in the same way as other business domains have progressed well beyond the firm and its activities. This new field, managing of HEI internationalisation, can later benefit from the earlier findings of international business, especially from international human resources management, comparative management, and cultural studies. On the other hand, international business research can focus on a new major question arising from empirical developments in the world, as Buckley (2002) has asked for.

Also, being a cross-disciplinary study, international education can also gain. As international education is becoming more and more commercialised, international business has a lot to offer as used to in earlier times for other fields of management (Buckley 2002). Higher education is becoming an industry. The globalisation of education is an everyday fact. The commercialisation of education is an important phenomenon especially in the Anglo-Saxon countries, and it is spreading to other
countries as well. Management tools are needed. Since higher education is becoming another sector of business, the findings of earlier studies of the internationalisation of firms can perhaps later be used here, as they could perhaps be used in analysing any other commercialised public sector.

This study has also contributed to the opening up of a new method (see also e.g. Vaara 1999) based on scientific thinking that differs from the mainstream methods in international business research. New ways to study can produce the new types of knowledge so much called for by international business scholars, or as Toyne (1989) put it, “variation in social process also extends to knowledge generation, thus producing different ways of developing questions, theories and methods.” Discourse analysis is especially fruitful when a deep understanding of a less known phenomenon is sought. However, as discourse analysis is still fairly theoretical and abstract, it would also benefit from further use by other scholars.

4.6.2 Managerial Implications

The context of managing HEI internationalisation is complex. There are many major societal changes, and also significant changes in the educational field. HEI internationalisation has now evolved about ten years in its new form in Europe. For the current phase of HEI internationalisation of most HEIs, called “Institutionalisation of HEI internationalisation” in the first part of this doctoral study, a managerial type of management is needed. If internationalisation is understood as a process from a national institution towards an international institution (Söderqvist 2001b), change management and project management are needed. International experience needs to be present at all organisational levels. The dominating “Norm managing” is not enough; especially in “Visionary managing” and also “Participatory managing”, one’s own analysis of situational, HEI-specific starting points are essential. According to the emerging middle management literature, strategic managing cannot be left to top management alone; middle managers should also be active participants.

Czarniawska-Joerges & Wolff (1991) and Middlehurst (1992) have discussed the different types of management and leadership and the need for different types of
management and leadership in different phases of organisational development. However, this is not enough. When talking about a special type of public non-profit organisation, higher-education institutions, their special characteristics need to be taken into consideration: their governance tradition, collegiality, expertise, and the role of students. Also, the background of the main actors of internationalisation, the internationalisation managers, merits consideration. Without deep and extensive managerial education and experience it is difficult to behave efficiently and professionally in changing circumstances. As Anand (1996) has emphasised, middle management needs to be trained for its strategic and operative functions. Visions cannot be executed without knowing the meaning of vision management, strategy management, and operative management.

Also, in the changing circumstances, top management needs to take better care of the frameworks created for middle managers. Managers need to be treated as managers and have the rights of managers, not only the titles and duties. Power needs to be delegated as well. However, such framework creation is also relatively new for the top management of higher-education institutions, since the new waves of decentralisation are fairly recent. Top management also needs training to jump from the old administrative management tradition as part of “Norm managing” to the new, more entrepreneurial way of managing expressed in the “Visionary managing” discourse.

However, as much as the managerial functions are emphasised above, the creative and innovative leadership also needs to be part of the managing of HEI internationalisation. New ways cannot be found if the infrastructure does not support creativeness by ensuring sufficient resources and opportunities. “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing” are called for instead of arduous “Norm managing” based on yesterday´s rationalities.

4.6.3 Educational Policy Implications

National and supranational authorities also face huge development challenges. From the old governance tradition we are going towards new entrepreneurial managing. New tools like result-based management are based on completely different assumptions of
organisational reality from those of the collegial, professional bureaucracies or organised anarchies (Middlehurst 1992) called higher-education institutions. Prudence and careful reflection on the assumptions will be needed to develop more suitable tools for these conditions. Also, reflection is needed on the difference between traditional universities and new higher-education institutions.

Change is in evident in today’s world - that is clear. Räsänen (1998) and Thys-Clément & Wilkins (1998) point out that autonomous units should play a central role in the implementation of new ideas. The new strategies should emerge from existing competence and not conform to a top-down principle. Räsänen (1998) further proposes that HEIs be driven towards learning organisation principles, which focus on the quality of interaction inside the organisation instead of competition. Hence, training in institutional change (ed. Trowler 2001) and departmental leadership (Knight & Trowler 2001) needs to be provided to the top and middle management of HEIs and to allow organisational learning, not only to the internationalisation middle managers, but more widely in the organisation. As HEIs are public organisations, it is the duty of the authorities to provide the infrastructure needed for this training.

Facing a new situation, commercialisation of the higher-education field, a national or European vision of HEI globalisation or HEI internationalisation in particular is of the utmost importance. We cannot close our eyes to the changing reality, especially if commercialisation is opposed – and this message needs to be passed on to the middle managerial level of HEI internationalisation.

"Knowledge, is at the same time a societal product and a societal change actor”
Berger & Luckman 1966/1994
5 POST REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY

5.1 Synthesis of the Results

5.1.1 Comparison of the Major Findings of the Two Phases of the Study

This chapter summarises and compares the results of the first phase of study, of the conceptual and content analysis of the framework of HEI internationalisation and its management presented in chapter two (see also Söderqvist 2001a,b,c), and the results of the discourse analysis, the discourses on HEI internationalisation and of managing of HEI internationalisation presented in chapter four. These two parts use different paradigms. However, it is understood that the different paradigms coexist. With the help of two of them, the positivist and social constructionist, the versatility of reality can be captured better than if only one paradigm were used.

Three Discourses on HEI Internationalisation and the Proposed Framework on HEI Internationalisation

First, the discourses on HEI internationalisation are analysed in relation to Söderqvist’s view on HEI internationalisation based on the views of Knight, van der Wende and Luostarinen & Pulkkinen. This discussion summarises the answer of this thesis to the first research question, “What understandings are there of HEI internationalisation?” Second, the three discourses on managing HEI internationalisation are discussed together with Söderqvist’s framework of managing of internationalisation of HEIs in order to summarise the answer of this thesis to the second research question: “How does the
middle management of HEI internationalisation understand the management of HEI internationalisation? “Management” is used as a term when the objectivist research design is in question, and “managing” when the discourse analysis is in question as the two paradigms favour a use of different terms.

One of the contributions of the second phase of the study is the presentation of the different discourses on HEI internationalisation and its managing. The Internationalisation discourses were named the “Basic Processes of HEIs to Be Financed by Internationalisation”, “The HEI as an Appreciated and Competitive Actor” and “Towards a Multicultural and More Equal World” (see more ch. 4.2). The first two are the dominant discourses, whereas the third one is an emergent discourse based on a relic discourse. These discourses are assumed to be in motion all the time. On the one hand, they are establishing themselves and on the other, they are changing and new discourses are emerging. Also, the discourses are interrelated, entangled, and interwoven together as is everything in reality. (Jokinen et al. 1999, 1993; Lehtonen 1996, Berger & Luckmann 1966/1994).

The main features of these three discourses on HEI internationalisation are captured in the following table (see also ch 4.6.1).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse/Questions</th>
<th>Basic Processes to Be Financed by Internationalisation</th>
<th>The HEI as a Competitive and Appreciated Actor</th>
<th>Towards a Multicultural and more Equal World</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Features of the Discourse</td>
<td>1) Intertwined with the basic teaching, learning and research-related objectives of the HEI 2) Internationalisation based on cooperation 3) EU funding and EU activities 4) National authorities favour 5) Related to the global market as a work place for students 6) New areas (ref. Bologna process) coming up</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation appreciated 2) Appreciated activity legitimising the HEI as an HEI 3) Benchmarking possibilities 4) Vision setting 5) Appreciated activities create opportunities for students 6) Appreciated partners create an appreciated institution 7) Appreciated role as regional motor</td>
<td>1) In the spirit of the UN 2) We are part of a global society – we need to how to function there 3) Incoming and outgoing globalisation 4) Internationalisation as an end itself, not only as a means 5) Internationalisation at Home – activities→ more equal internationalisation 6) Related with global commercialisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational Acting</td>
<td>1) Heavily subsidised mobility, projects, curriculum development and all the bureaucracy these activities bring with them 2) Related to preparing for the Bologna - process</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation manager as an appreciated actor in the society 2) HEI as an appreciated actor: being a model for others, regional influence, educating for work market 3) Image marketing 4) Networking</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation at Home 2) Team working 3) Equal appreciation of all the actors in the field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What entities/justifies the discourse?</td>
<td>Securing funding for the basic processes in a world of diminishing public funding</td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>Equal, multicultural world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What type of consequences have this discourse got?</td>
<td>Regulations of the EU and other sources of funding followed rigorously to obtain funding</td>
<td>Outward networking Need for managerial knowhow</td>
<td>Internal organisation and process development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What contributes to reaching the goals of the discourse?</td>
<td>Money Bureaucracy IT</td>
<td>Personal relations Further education</td>
<td>Restructurating of management processes; from national HEI→ international HEI Internal attitude and faith into the discourse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Discourses on HEI Internationalisation, © Minna Söderqvist

A framework of HEI internationalisation was created in the first phase of study based on
Knight’s, van der Wende’s and Luostarinen & Pulkkinen’s views on HEI internationalisation (see chapter 2, Söderqvist 2001b,c). HEI internationalisation was defined as follows:

The internationalisation of a higher-education institution is a change process from a national HEI into an international HEI leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and research and to achieve the desired competencies.

Figure 1: Söderqvist’s Definition of HEI Internationalisation

As this view integrates parts of those of Knight, van der Wende and Luostarinen & Pulkkinen, it is discussed together with the discussion of their views in the comparison of the discourses identified.

The underlined parts of Söderqvist’s definition are different from Knight’s definition of internationalisation (1994),

"internationalisation is the process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching and services functions of higher education,“ and are further discussed below. The discourse called the “Basic processes of HEIs to be financed by internationalisation” is coherent with this definition in the sense that they both emphasise the basic functions of higher-education institutions: research, teaching, and learning. The services functions of HEIs were not strongly present in the practitioners’ discourse even though Knight also emphasises them. However, the process view of HEI internationalisation emphasised in Söderqvist’s definition is not present in this discourse. Internationalisation is seen as a setting given by authorities, either national or European, and hence it is not understood as an educational innovation process (van der Wende 1996).

The typology of four different approaches that Knight gave in 1999, namely the activity, competency and ethos and process approach could be said to be more coherent with the multidimensional view of internationalisation present in the discourses than Knight’s definition. Some elements of these four approaches are present in the three
discourses identified. The activity approach is about EU internationalisation which is one of the main elements of the “Basic processes...” – discourse. The competency approach is interwoven in both the “Basic processes...” and the “Towards a Multicultural...” discourses. Especially the internationalisation managers and rectors of the polytechnics and the art universities emphasised the competency view, the idea that an HEI prepares students with its basic processes for international careers and for an international world of employment. In the “Basic processes to be financed by internationalisation” discourse the competency approach is part of the basic objectives of an HEI: to educate people for the labour market. In the “Towards a Multicultural and more equal world” discourse the competency approach is interwoven with the idea of being able to work in a multicultural world that needs global competency. The ethos view is also interwoven with the “Towards a Multicultural...” discourse, as they both share the idea of promoting the intercultural dimensions of teaching and research.

Van der Wende’s curriculum approach to internationalisation is also interwoven with all the discourses. First, the EU and other sources of financing promote international cooperation to develop curricula. Second, appreciated actors network with other appreciated actors to create an appreciated international curricula. Third, as the curricula development touches all the students and teachers and not only those participating in the mobility activities, the emerging discourse of “Towards a Multicultural...” is also involved in this curricula development discussion. Van der Wende’s most interesting idea of internationalising the curriculum as a process of educational innovation aiming at improving the quality of education is to some extent present in the “The HEI as...” discourse because benchmarking was often mentioned as one means of improving the international actions of HEIs in this discourse.

The framework developed through the concept and content analysis pointed out the importance of understanding HEI internationalisation as a change process from a national HEI towards an international HEI. The discourse analysis results in contrast do not include any elements of a change process with the different stages, neither those of an educational innovation, nor those of Luostarinen & Pulkkinen (1991), nor those of Söderqvist (2001b,c) explicated by the framework. No change process talk was found except when talking about the beginning of internationalisation, where official
expectations concerning internationalisation were mentioned by polytechnic people as a requirement for polytechnic status. This is in accordance with the view of Hill & Jones (1998), who claim that the first problem of strategic change management is to make the managers realise that change is necessary and to admit that there is a problem. Only when the need is recognised can actions be taken.

The holistic management element of Söderqvist’s definition will be discussed together with the “managing of HEI internationalisation” discourses. The quality element of HEI internationalisation in Söderqvist’s definition is not present to a great extent in the discourses identified even though it was present in the content analysis of the EPSs. One reason for this might be that since the EPSs were written to obtain financing from the EU and as the EU appreciated a certain type of actions and rhetoric at certain times, the HEIs merely met that requirement in the EPSs. Then, if the quality dimension is not so important in the everyday routines of the middle managers of HEI internationalisation, they did not emphasise it in the interviews.

Luostarinen and Pulkkinen (1991) presented internationalisation through ten variables and four stages. However, no stage talk was found in this research – so the most interesting idea of their study, dynamics through certain core concepts of the evolution process, was not present in the talks analysed. Seven of their ten variables, namely “substance of IB teaching/curriculum”, “IB research”, “faculty”, “student body”, “language studies”, “language of instruction” and “orientation” are essential parts of the “Basic processes...” discourse. As their organisation variable is seen through international business subject it has no relevance in this wider context. The “attitudes of administration and staff” as well as “culture of the school” can be associated with the “Towards a Multicultural...” discourse, as their idea was that in the mature stage of internationalisation mostly polycentric or geocentric attitudes exist and that cultural sensitivity is essential in that final stage. What is interesting, however, is that in 2002, Echevin & Ray present a model for measuring internationalisation in educational institutions based on the same type of economic approach that is behind the Luostarinen & Pulkkinen study.

The operationalisation of the concept of internationalisation of higher-education institutions was presented briefly in chapter two of this report. Its first contribution was
to provide with the help of three figures a hierarchical presentation of the elements of “academic programmes”, “research and scholarly collaboration”, and “external relations and services, domestic and abroad”. These figures were developed on the basis of Knight’s (1999) ideas of academic programme strategies, which represent the first important element of her process approach to the internationalisation of higher-education institutions, the other one being organisational strategies. A fourth programme-strategy category called “extra-curricular activities” was accepted as such to present the present author’s understanding as well (Söderqvist 2001b,c). The second contribution of chapter two was to describe internationalisation with the help of a stages model (see Table 1 in the following page):

Luostarinen & Pulkkinen (1991) also presented a stages model. There are four major differences from Söderqvist’s analysis. The first is the moment of time, since this analysis is being carried out ten years later. Second, the Luostarinen & Pulkkinen analysis focused on internationalisation of a university through International Business education, whereas the focus in the present analysis is on the internationalisation process of an organisation, i.e. of an HEI. A third difference concerns the present role of the European Union in influencing the mass internationalisation that took place in the 1990s. A fourth difference is the rapid rate of change and its impact on the evolution of higher-education institutions.

Both of these analyses are based on a process view. Luostarinen & Pulkkinen’s study was derived from Luostarinen’s extensive research on the internationalisation of the firm in Finland, whereas the present analysis was also based on Knight’s process view and on van der Wende’s view that internationalisation represents an educational innovation. The main differences between these starting points are presented below. The present author has considered internationalisation and its stages as a means towards enhancement of the quality of research and teaching (Knight 1994), whereas Luostarinen & Pulkkinen do not explicitly state their idea. Luostarinen & Pulkkinen also suggested different dimensions of internationalisation. Their ten variables were divided into four stages, whereas in this new proposal, the following stage includes activities or elements of the preceding one. The dimensions are grouped differently, according to the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zero stage</strong></td>
<td>Internationalisation as Marginal Activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- There are some free movers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Internationalisation is an exotic and status phenomenon – some important actors in the organisation travel to conferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Foreign languages are taught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First stage</strong></td>
<td>Student Mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Awareness of the need to internationalise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Commitment to planning and implementing different programmes enhancing the mobility of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Creation of international offices to handle the routines of student mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Internationalisation is taken as an end in itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- ECTS becomes an important tool to facilitate counselling and the acknowledgement of foreign studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second stage</strong></td>
<td>Curriculum and Research Internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Awareness of teachers necessary to make internationalisation of the curriculum and research possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Organising of teacher mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Internationalisation taken as a means to enhance the quality of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Different ways to internationalise the curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Appointment of international coordinators to handle curriculum and research internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third stage</strong></td>
<td>Institutionalisation of Internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Internationalisation is given a strategy and a structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Networking both through cheap travel and new ICT; partnerships and strategic alliances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The quality of internationalisation is receiving more attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Multiculturalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Appointment of an internationalisation manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fourth stage</strong></td>
<td>Commercialising the Outcomes of Internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Exporting education services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Franchising education services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Licensing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Joint ventures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                       | - Strategic alliances

17 A strategic alliance can be defined as a co-operative agreement between actual/potential competitors. Its advantages include the facilitation of entry into foreign markets, the sharing of fixed costs and risks, the facilitation of the transfer of complementary skills between companies, and helping companies to establish standards. (Hill & Jones 1998 p.275)
influence of the European Union’s programmes and their demands, e.g. the present author’s curriculum development includes Luostarinen & Pulkkinen’s faculty, language studies, language of instruction, and orientation, as can be seen from Figure 2. This sets out the author’s understanding of international curricula and mobility. As such, dimensions such as institutionalisation, networking, IT, quality, multiculturalism and commercialisation are not part of the earlier model, possibly because conditions changed rapidly in last five years compared with the society of the late 1980s.

The third contribution concerning HEI internationalisation is the clarifying discussion of the conceptual confusion of internationalisation of higher education institutions and its neighbouring concepts (see ch. 4.4.5). The discussion is also illustrated by presenting these neighbouring concepts in figure 5 below. HEI internationalisation is presented through the five stages, as discussed above. Internationalism is argued to be one of the aims of HEI internationalisation. International Education is curriculum-related. International Business is one of the subjects taught in HEIs, even though in the North American tradition the objectives of internationalisation of the whole school are also discussed by international business scholars, based on the idea that introduction of international business into the curricula will increase awareness, understanding, and expertise in internationalisation (Arpan & Kwok 2001). Globalisation and Europeanisation (EU in the picture) are said to be phenomena of the external environment of HEIs, thereby influencing HEI internationalisation.
Figure 5: SÖDERQVIST’S INTERNATIONALISATION OF A HIGHER-EDUCATION INSTITUTION
(Developed from Söderqvist 2001b) © Minna Söderqvist 2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AIMS:</th>
<th>mobility</th>
<th>networking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Competency Building</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a school)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Enhancement of Quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(more intense competition)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marginal Activity</th>
<th>2. Student Mobility</th>
<th>3. Internationalisation of Curricula and Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>E.g. Language and Culture-related Efforts</td>
<td>International Education International Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching: E.g. Joint Curricula; Dissemination of Results</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research: E.g. Joint efforts; Presentation of results</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management of Internationalisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Institutionalisation of Internationalisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercialisation of the Outcomes of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Internal environment: Ethos (Culture promoting and supporting internationalisation), Type of organisation (Public institution/professional bureaucracy)

External environment: Globalisation, Commercialisation (accountability & commodification), Legislation (EU, national, regional), Funding
Three Discourses on Managing HEI Internationalisation and the Proposed Framework of Management of HEI Internationalisation

Three discourses were identified in the second phase of this study covering the managing activities of HEI internationalisation (see more 4.3 & 4.6.1). They were called “Norm managing”, “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing”. “Norm managing” is the dominating discourse, whereas “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing” are only emerging discourses.

It is notable that “Norm managing” is the dominating discourse of HEI managing also in the “HEI as an appreciated and competitive actor” discourse of HEI internationalisation, even though “Visionary managing” might be expected. It is interesting since only one discourse on managing was recognized for each discourse of HEI internationalisation in which there are two dominating discourses, whereas in the managing of HEI internationalisation discourses there is only one dominating discourse.

Perhaps another point is interwoven with this; the managers did not have as clear an understanding of the managing of HEI internationalisation as they did of HEI internationalisation. Even though it was made clear in the beginning of the interviews that the theme of the interview is managing of HEI internationalisation, there is more HEI internationalisation “talk” than managing of HEI internationalisation “talk”. However, the commitment to internationalisation is strong, most probably due to personal experiences, as discussed earlier. The main features of these discourses are collected in the table below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Questions</th>
<th>Norm Managing</th>
<th>Visionary Managing</th>
<th>Participatory Managing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Features of the Discourse</strong></td>
<td>1) Preparing applications 2) Reporting on activities to superior authorities 3) Versatility of activities 4) Guest PR 5) Mobility-related activities</td>
<td>1) Innovativeness 2) Objective setting, preparing for the future from one’s own starting points 3) Frame making for the HEI internationalisation 4) Strategic managing 5) Entrepreneurial managing</td>
<td>1) Internationalisation manager as an equal actor inside the organisation management 2) Team work 3) Creation of trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rectors as Actors</strong></td>
<td>1) Preparing the framework for activities 2) Creating enthusiasm</td>
<td>1) Vision setting 2) Development of society</td>
<td>1) Preparing the framework for activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internationalisation Managers as Actors</strong></td>
<td>1) Hands: No decision making, belonging to administration 2) Experts: developing services, applying EU regulations, networking, travelling</td>
<td>1) Realising visions: commitment, hard work, use of power, analysing environment, setting objectives and defining strategies, developing 2) Enthusiasm creators 3) Image marketing</td>
<td>1) Informal and formal interaction 2) Information collecting, transforming, communicating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What entitles/justifies the discourse?</strong></td>
<td>Tradition of superior national and supranational authorities</td>
<td>Private management applied to public organisations</td>
<td>The HEI as an equal, multicultural work place for students and staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What types of consequences have this discourse got?</strong></td>
<td>Regulations of the EU and other sources of funding followed rigorously to obtain funding</td>
<td>Outward networking</td>
<td>Internal organisation and process development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What contributes to reaching the goals of the discourse?</strong></td>
<td>Money, Bureaucracy, IT</td>
<td>Personal relations</td>
<td>Restructurating management processes Internal attitude and faith into the discourse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Discourses on Managing HEI internationalisation © Minna Söderqvist

Even though strategic planning is criticised for bureaucratising activities that tend to become rigid, some scholars support it. For example, Davies (1995) and Rudzki (1995) have also favoured a robust framework in which to develop international activities at HEIs. According to Bonn and Christodoulou (1996), formalised systems have their place, and middle management needs to be included and to have full responsibility in the strategy-making process. Also, a high degree of flexibility was said to be needed to facilitate adaptation to the rapidly-changing environments.

Bonn & Christodoulou (1996) further discuss the concept of strategic management. They say it reflects the economic, technological, and social changes of society. Strategic management was a budget exercise in the 1960s, planning-based in 1970s, and the 1980s saw a phase in which all the resources were orchestrated to create competitive advantage. This included a planning framework that cut across operational boundaries, a flexible and creative planning process, and a corporate value system reinforcing management commitment. The 1990s were characterised by a search for new paradigms.

The strategic holistic thinking of managing of HEI internationalisation was
expressed as follows in chapter two:

"Based on an analysis of its external and internal environment it is desired in a public higher-education institution to actively and systematically manage the change process from a national HEI into an international HEI leading to including an international dimension in all the parts of holistic strategic and operative management, namely information, planning, organising, implementing and evaluating; financing being an important element in all of them, in order to enhance the quality of the desired outcomes of internationalisation at the higher-education institution in question. These desired outcomes can be grouped under teaching and research. Mobility, networking and management are the main tools for achieving them. Operative management works best if the HEI internationalisation change process from a national HEI to an international HEI is divided into several projects; project management serves as the theoretical basis for the actions taken.

Figure 8: Söderqvist’s Integrated Understanding of HEI Internationalisation and Its Management (Adapted from Söderqvist 2001b) ©Minna Söderqvist 2002

The proposed model for managing internationalisation is in congruence with the assumptions behind the “Visionary managing” discourse, which is a private management (Boyne 2002) based discourse, and thus shares the holistic management assumptions. The “Participatory managing” also shares those assumptions, but emphasises more the participation of all the actors of a particular organisation, whereas “Visionary managing” is more of a top-down approach.

“Norm managing” within the tradition of top-down management, of obeying superior authorities, is contradictory to the ideas of the proposed model. The proposed model is based on independent reflection on the environment influencing a particular actor, whereas “Norm managing” is supposed to be the same for all the actors.

To sum up, the second phase of study (chapters 3-4) has contributed clearly to the diversity of understanding of the managing of internationalisation in HEIs. Instead of just one way of understanding the managing based on the first phase (chapter 2), three ways were identified and described.
5.1.2 Evaluation of the Quality of the Research

Objectivist Research Design

The present study consists of two phases; the first part was done according to a mainstream positivist way of study, even though it was a qualitative in nature, and the second phase according to a social constructionist understanding of research. The first part discussed the concept of internationalisation of higher-education institutions to create a framework for managing HEI internationalisation. This framework was presented in the form of a proposal for a definition of internationalisation, its illustration through four figures, an integrated understanding of internationalisation and its management based on the holistic management view. This summary was then split into eight propositions, the first of which suggests that the recent development of internationalisation evolves through five stages, and the other seven concern the different aspects of holistic management thinking. The framework was evaluated by using it to do a content analysis of the European Policy Statements of all the Finnish higher-education institutions existing in the years 1996 and 2000, when all the institutions had to first write one and then revise it. It was not a test of the framework as hypotheses are tested traditionally; the aim was instead to achieve a more thorough understanding of internationalisation and its planning by adding the study of the empirical material to the understanding based on scholarly work.

Denzin & Lincoln (1994) name four criteria for positivist studies: internal validity, the degree to which findings correctly map the phenomenon in question, external validity, the degree to which findings can be generalised to other settings similar to the one in which the study occurred, reliability, the extent to which findings can be replicated or reproduced by another inquirer, and objectivity, the extent to which findings are free from bias.

The three contributions described above - the HEI internationalisation framework based on a concept analysis, the managerial framework of internationalisation and the information on EPSs on the Finnish national level – were highly appreciated in many interviews (see appendix 2), requested conference
presentations (forthcoming EAIE 11.9.2002, KEVER 8.5.2002, CIMO 11.9.2001), and informal discussions with internationalisation managers, rectors and national authorities after the publication of the interim report. Some even reported that they use parts of the B-series report (Söderqvist 2001c) as a manual in their daily work. Also, dozens of people, both scholars and practitioners, have contacted me from around the world and asked for a copy of my work. This suggests that the phenomenon has been correctly mapped. It also supports my view that the work has been essential according to the criteria of truth presented by Tynjälä (2000) and discussed in chapter three. Henceforth, I argue that the study was also internally valid and that it effectively mapped the phenomenon in question. Of course, it has to be remembered that since this study is one of the first ones done in the field, its newness alone arouses interest. Also, as there are so few tools, all tools are helpful.

The external validity of the managerial framework built on the HEI internationalisation framework is more difficult to assess. I argue that the frameworks and the content analysis are valid at least concerning the European HEI internationalisation and its managing since the external environment of the phenomenon is quite similar in all the European Union countries based on the strong influence and governance of the European Union. However, in the Anglo-Saxon countries, commercialisation strongly influences internationalisation development. Also, I argue that holistic management thinking can be applied to any issue, so that part of the study is externally valid.

The assessment of reliability and objectivity are based on the researcher’s work. Is it possible to claim that someone else would produce the same result as mine based on any set of similar data, either theoretical or empirical? A shift in my own thinking towards social constructionist assumptions makes it difficult for me to answer this question in the way the positivists would expect. However, the study could be said to be reliable because the process is possible for others to replicate since I have reported how I did the analysis in detail.

To ensure objectivity, I have made several rounds of reading in the content analysis. I did my best to be a distanced and neutral observer and tried to report my findings thoroughly. Also, I explained my background to make the claimed objectivity
visible to others. I explained the data analysis process in detail to help others to assess how I have done my analysis.

Participation in the opening up of a new scholarly research field in international business, namely the managing of European internationalisation in the 1990s in the revised higher education field is also an important contribution. Internationalisation of firms has been studied since the late 1960s, but internationalisation of higher education and its managing is rarely studied at the doctoral level (Parsons 2001, Söderqvist 2001b,c, Arpan 2001). An extension of the international business field to progress beyond the firm and its activities as other business domains have progressed has been sought for at least 10 years (Toyne & Nigh 1998 & Toyne 1989). A major new question is arising from the empirical developments of the world, as has been asked for (e.g. Buckley 2002). An area in which international business can contribute to the development of other fields of science is proposed. Especially, findings from the internationalisation of the firm, international human resources management, comparative management, and cultural studies could serve the needs of the new field as higher education is becoming an industry. Commercialisation and globalisation of education is an important phenomenon especially in Anglo-Saxon countries and it is also spreading to other countries through GATS and OECD.

Subjectivist Research Design

In the beginning, it was understood that internationalisation and its managing have different meanings for actors in different levels. Mass-HEI internationalisation was so rapid during the 1990s that HEIs were practising internationalisation simultaneously with the development of educational policy expressed in the policy documents. There was virtually no time gap between policy development and policy implementation. Hence, it became evident that social reality was constructed in a dynamic interplay between policy texts and internationalisation managers. To analyse the meaning-making and to interpret data that fell through the cracks of the analysis in order to identify the dominant discourses on internationalisation and its managing, a shift towards a more interpretative research approach was needed. Thus, the second phase of study was
conducted according to the social constructionist assumptions of study.

The first contribution of the second phase of study is the discussion of why social constructionist research would be beneficial for international business researchers. Truth and reality are manifold and situation, time, and place specific in social constructionist thinking, whereas in positivist and post-positivist thinking generally applicable knowledge is sought. It is argued that the versatility of truth serves more the needs of post-modern society than a one truth-based view. Hence, this study has contributed to the opening up of a new path for research. An analysis of the essence of mainstream research tradition in comparison with the basic assumptions of social constructionist thinking contributes to this discussion, as social constructionist science making is still rare in international business. It is argued that with new types of questions, new knowledge would be gained. Or, as (Toyne 1989) put it, “variation in social processes also extends to knowledge generation, thus producing different ways of developing questions, theories and methods”. What we see, at least to a certain extent, is what we expect to see (Alajoutsijärvi et al 2001, Richardson in Denzin & Lincoln 2000). Discourse analysis is especially fruitful when a deep understanding of a less known social phenomenon is sought. Starting with very different research designs contributes to a wider understanding of a particular phenomenon. International business research has sought its own identity throughout its existence. This study helps to find a new tone in this discussion.

As interpretative study is very demanding, some criteria to improve the quality and empirical validity were sought. Three principles that Moisander (2001) put forward (discussed in chapter 3.4) were found helpful. First, a correspondence of the basic assumptions on which the study is based is needed. This is done in chapters three and 4.1. Second, an analysis on the situational facts influencing the interpretations is needed. This is done in chapter 4.4, according to the idea in Jokinen et al. (1999) that one way to solve the relation between contextuality and cultural continuity is to eliminate them from the analysis and come back to the theoretical and empirical context after the analysis. Third, analytic integrity is a central goal. In order to demonstrate it, chapters 3.2, 4.2 and 4.3 were very detailed, and several scholars, both constructionists and positivists, have commented the text to ensure its readability and logic. However, as
discourse analysis is still a theoretical framework, more work on its development would be helpful for further studies.

Denzin & Lincoln (2000) proposed several evaluation criteria (see also 3.3.5) for social constructionist research in general, even though they understand the point of Scheurich (1997), Schwandt (1997) and Smith (1993) in saying farewell to criteorology and evaluate all studies from their own context and not with any generalisable criteria. **Authentic validity** as authentic, trustworthy, rigorous and valid inquiry is the first of Denzin & Lincoln´s proposed criteria. The analysis process is reported thoroughly, in order to let readers evaluate the authentic validity. Many authentic data extracts were provided, and even though some of them were translated from Finnish to English for the purposes of the report, the analysis was made using the extracts in the original language of the interviews. The identity of the respondents was not disclosed as they wished to be anonymous. The validity and trustworthy of analysis are seen in the exact reporting. **Ontological and educative authenticities** raise the level of awareness of participants and their surroundings. The work has been sent to the participants, i.e. the interviewees, and will be presented in conferences and seminars such as EAIE and CIMO where the participants and their colleagues participate. Also the “International Relations Managers” section of the European Association of International Education has also already expressed interest in publishing the results in the EAIE´s series of Occasional Papers distributed to all several thousand members of the EAIE.

**Crystalline validity** refers to changing crystals. Crystals reflect externalities and refract within themselves. What we see depends on our angle. I made my angle explicit in chapter 4.4. The voices of the interviewees are heard through the data extracts. **Catalytic and tactical validity** seek to interrupt, disrupt and transform, to catalyse change. The managerial and educational policy implications made suggestions for change. Chapter 3 proposed a change in research. Chapter 4 proposed changes in managing of HEI internationalisation. **Ethical validity** means that the way we know is tied up with what we know and our relationship with our research participants. One way to show appreciation of participants was to disguise their personalities and the HEI specific information as they wished. Also, I have had them as well as the public in mind, especially when writing the interim report and the discussion on managerial questions.
The issue of control is embedded in voice, reflexivity, and issues of post-modern textual representation. The voices of the respondents are heard when many data extracts are provided. However, as the objective is the shared meanings in this study, not all the voices could be reported. Reflexivity is the issue of this chapter and all the way through the second part of the report I have tried to “report how I have created myself in the field” (Denzin & Lincoln 2000 p.183), i.e. the research decisions I have made and why. I admit that there is a lot more to learn about how to report on reflexivity. As I have chosen quite a conventional mode of reporting on my study, the big questions of postmodern textual representations did not require any attention. However, I have chosen to report in first person, according to Suoranta’s idea (1996) of putting the studying and writing self forward.

The second contribution of the second phase of the study is new knowledge of the phenomenon of “HEI internationalisation and its managing” presented through the three identified discourses on HEI internationalisation and the three identified discourses on its managing. They are detailed outlines of the reality in the meanings identified in social practices through language (Jokinen et al. 1999). As there are no self-evident meanings, and the meanings organise the life and identity of societies (Lehtonen 1996), it is important to know the meanings, i.e. the discourses. The discussion of discourses helps to reflect upon their consequences; knowledge is a societal product and a societal change producer at the same time (Berger & Luckman 1966/1994). Conscious decisions can be based on awareness. New horizons can be opened in order to find solutions to existing problems.

5.1.3 Discussion of the Application of Two Paradigms in One Study

This chapter presents some post reflections on the blending together of two different paradigms. Lincoln and Guba (2000) argue that at the paradigmatic, or philosophical level, commensurability between paradigms, meaning that elements from one paradigm are blended to another one, so that one is engaging in research that represents the best of both worldviews, may be possible. According to them, commensurability is an issue
only when researchers want to pick and choose among the axioms of positivist and interpretivist models, because the axioms are contradictory and mutually exclusive. Fortunately, they do, however, admit that researchers have the right to either “get smarter” or just change their minds. Accordingly, I argue that the understanding of HEI internationalisation and its managing is more versatile based on two different types of knowledge producing than it would be based on only either positivist or social constructionist thinking. When the assumptions differ, attention is paid to different issues and the end result based on two approaches is therefore more versatile than that based on only one empirical data or a theoretical approach.

Neilimo & Näsi (1980) share the same type of thinking. They state that even though a dissertation without doubt represents science and a dissertation is an example of careful research, most of the dissertations do not follow just one paradigm. Instead in most of them, there seem to be one or several parts deviating from some of scientific choices made in the particular study. They have also found studies with backgrounds belonging to several paradigms. Wright & Ricks (1994) share the above-mentioned view of combination and even argue: “Research methodologies have grown richer and more complex [in IB research] combining nomothetic … and ideographic … approaches... Both approaches can yield useful contributions, but they are most powerful in combination.” For studying culture Lenartowicz and Roth (1999) argue that multiple methods are required for a rigorous assessment of culture. Hence, I argue that my research is valid research.

According to Suoranta (1996), scientific scholars should reflect their practices, but not engage in self-analysis. I agree with Moisander (2001), who has effectively expressed the problem as follows: "I am as researcher, partly a product of the dominant discourse. For years, I have tried to adhere and to reiterate the implicit norms and standards, the fundamental beliefs and principles that guide theorizing and empirical research in our field. I have more or less implicitly adopted the predominant "regimes of truth” and the configuration of assumptions, categories, logics, claims and modes of articulation, and the coherent interpretative frameworks and discursive practices for representing or constructing knowledge about my phenomena provided by the dominant discourse. I am a product of the normalization process and disciplinary mechanisms of
dominant discourses.” Thus, it is clear that it is difficult to try to produce knowledge according to research tradition other than the dominant one. In the beginning, one does not even realise that there are other ways of doing research. And then, a lot of courage, conviction and knowledge are needed to be able to justify the change to another paradigm, to follow different ideas of what science is, what aims it has, how theory is formed, and what views and norms exist concerning scientific thinking. This study is only a beginning and next time I shall know better how to conduct research in the social constructionist way.

5.2 Managerial and Educational Policy Implications

5.2.1 Managerial Implications

Many areas that need development in the managing of HEI internationalisation were found. This is understandable as the context of the phenomenon includes many important changes:

- From governance tradition, part of the “Norm managing” discourse in this study, to more private-type managing, “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing” discourses
- From national educational environment to international educational environment in only about ten years – at the operative managing level, including arranging of mobility and curriculum development
- From universities as the only providers to tertiary education to dual, binary and other solutions of tertiary education
- From higher education as public service to commercialisation of higher education

Strategy development at the institutional level is of the utmost importance in this type of radically changing circumstances. It was found (Söderqvist 2001b,c) that in the majority of Finnish HEIs, the European Policy Statement is equivalent to the internationalisation
strategy. Hence, it still needs to be understood that there are different levels of strategic planning (i.e. European strategy vs. international strategy). A change from authority-demanded strategy to one’s own strategies for different purposes based on an evaluation of one’s own strengths and weaknesses, of opportunities and threats to one’s own HEI’s environment is needed.

Another example showing the need for further education and training in managerial issues comes from the organisational element of strategic management. It needs to be understood that handling international relations or mobility is not equal to internationalising the whole institution. Internationalisation needs to be taken into consideration at all organisational levels and functions of the HEI. Somebody needs to lead and manage the process. It is the task of top management to create the framework for the strategy development and implication, and this framework requires continuous development. However, according to the emerging middle management literature (see e.g. Floyd 2000, Floyd & Woolridge 1999) strategic management cannot be left in the hands of top management alone; middle managers also need to be active actors. They need to have power, not only titles or duties.

According to the results of this study most of the HEIs are approaching the “institutionalisation of internationalisation” stage. In that stage, the development of operative routines, documents and practices (Cohen & Levinthal 1990 in Autio et al. 2000) is of the utmost importance to enhance organisational learning and pave the way for the effective and efficient management and leadership of HEI internationalisation. It means that further education and training as well as experienced managers and recognition of their managerial position are needed in order to develop creative and innovative managing, and even to recognize the need for change management at both the middle management level (Anand 1996) and amongst the top management, who are used to traditional norm managing. It would strengthen the management, increase understanding of its different levels, and facilitate the use of existing tools of strategic and operative management to management of networks and alliances.

The emerging discourse of “Visionary managing” supports this thinking. The proposed management model (ch.2) can be used to structurate the managing practices and to help take into consideration all the different elements of the managerial work, as
in the current institutionalisation stage (Söderqvist 2001b,c) the managerial type of management is important (Middlehurst 1992, Czarniawska-Joerges & Wolff 1991). Based on the analysis of good practices to be disseminated, it can be argued that especially the information system, organising, and evaluation elements of the proposed management model need further development in HEIs. Few elements of tools were found to be disseminated under these categories. All the actors, not only the middle management but also the top management and the authorities of higher education, must learn before they are efficient and professional in the “Visionary managing” and “Participatory managing” that is required instead of the more traditional “Norm managing”. Much further education and training in managerial skills is needed because the backgrounds of the actors do not represent managerial education or professional experience of managerial duties. Existing tools, such as project management or some tools of change management, cannot be used if they are not known. Visions cannot be realised without knowing the meaning of vision management, strategy management, and operative management. However, attitude changes from “Norm managers” to “Visionary managers” with some creative leadership functions and entrepreneurial spirit can be most difficult.

Also, “Participatory managing” requires knowledge of restructuring management processes that are not supported by the backgrounds of the middle managers. In addition to the further education related to restructuring of the management processes, management consultants specialised in the problems of higher education are needed.

The biggest managerial problem in the “Norm managing” discourse is the lack of resources. There is not enough personnel to perform all the required duties. Action from top management is required. They also need to understand that the payback periods are long; this means that it takes time before investment in people yields results. The lack of resources requires urgent decisions from the top management of the HEIs.

5.2.2 Educational Policy Implications

The call for development of managerial and leadership knowledge in the middle and top management of the HEIs expressed above requires action on the part of education
policy authorities. We are still living in the reality of public services governed by authorities, even though development in the Anglo-Saxon world has a powerful impact on development in other countries, even when opposed by the continental emphasis on cooperation instead of competition. First, as two levels of authorities, national and supranational exist in practice, they should apply the same type of thinking. There should not be discrepancy between the advice given to HEIs by national level authorities and that given by the EU, as is now the case with for example European Policy Statements, in which the general managerial culture diverges from that concerning internationalisation issues. The EU promotes "Norm managing", even though there is a trend towards more private type management at HEIs. Second, the EU authorities should give clearer instructions for the planning of internationalisation in EPSs. One plan cannot serve both as a strategic and an operative plan if there is a strict page limit, as the instructions now indicate.

Some creation of structure to meet the national educational needs of middle management and of top management concerning management and leadership competence development is essential. Both further education and training for the existing personnel and the means to engage experienced management personnel to help to meet the current needs in the managing of internationalisation in HEIs are essential in the rapidly changing environment. Training on institutional change (ed. Trowler 2001) and departmental leadership (Knight & Trowler 2001) is needed not only for middle managers of internationalisation, but more widely in the organisation due to the existence of independent units in the HEIs.

Prudence and careful reflection on the assumptions of a different type of managing are needed to develop managerial tools in today’s circumstances. Private-sector management tools such as result-based management can be used, but they need to be adapted to the special characteristics of HEIs: governance tradition, collegiality, expertise, the role of students. (see ch. 4.4). For example, as Räsänen (1998) and Thys-Clément & Wilkin (1998) have pointed out, the autonomous units should play the central role in adopting new tools and new strategies should rely on existing knowledge, not on a top-down principle. Or, as Bayenet et al. (2000) have argued, the classic strategic model assumes that the organisation has an explicitly defined mission and that its
environment is systematically monitored and analysed as a basis for this mission. This is rarely the case. Also, it needs to be kept in mind that universities and polytechnics have some distinct features influencing their managing and thus also their managing of internationalisation.

The authorities face a great challenge in preparing for the HEI internationalisation in a world where higher education is becoming increasingly commercial. The Anglo-Saxon HEIs are conquering the world together with private tertiary education providers. Higher education is becoming another sector of business. This cannot be ignored, even though the trend is opposed by many of the actors. National visions and a European vision are needed so that HEIs can guide their activities accordingly. The discussion on the discourses on HEI internationalisation has brought up the need to reflect more on the basic assumptions of current internationalisation in the light of major changes in the environment. The institutions and both national and supranational authorities have to define their positions and decide on their visions of internationalisation as commercialisation of higher education knocks on the door. It is not enough to define a particular institution’s internationalisation aims, even though in many cases there is also an urgent need for this. Quasimarkets are increasingly real markets, and there must be a counter-vision if commercialisation is to be opposed.

With respect to research, educational authorities should ensure that a variety of approaches are possible. In today’s rapidly changing, multidimensional world, pluralistic, situation-based truth may serve the needs of society better than practices aiming at finding one generally applicable solution and understanding of reality. As money is an efficient consultant, the educational authorities should also think of practices that lead to newer methods in addition to the use of more traditional methods.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

This study suggests that internationalisation of higher-education institutions and its management is a current, relevant, and quite unstudied research topic, both theoretically and managerially, in international business and more generally in
management science and international education. Hence, there are many interesting directions to pursue, especially with as managing is of most interest to business scholars. Both mainstream and social constructionist research designs can be used. Since social constructionist research designs are used less, it is more reliable to acquire new knowledge by using them than by relying on the more common research designs. It would be interesting, for instance, to do the same type of study in about five years and identify the discourses at that time and compare how they have developed and changed. Also, it would be interesting to concentrate on studying how the discourses are constructed now that they are defined. It would be interesting to compare the conclusions of that study with this one and to find out how the approach affects the conclusions.

Numerous scholars call for application of strategic management, in the context of higher-education institutions (e.g. Barry et al. 2001, Bayenet et al. 2000, Coaldrake 2000, Demiche 2000, eds. Mälkiä & Vakkuri 1998, Stearn & Borna 1998, Thys-Clément & Wilkin 1998, Davies 1995, Rudzki 1995, Rekilä 1994, Middlehurst 1992). However, as HEIs tend to be either professional bureaucracies or organised anarchies (see e.g. Middlehurst 1992) that do not support the assumptions of strategic management according to e.g. Bayenet et al. (2000) and eds. Lasonen & Stenström (1995), it would be interesting to work out what other approaches to management might suit their needs. The basic differences between private and public management, for instance the cultural differences between the administration and business–style management, offer an insightful context for studying just one dimension of the issue, managing of HEI internationalisation. Also, it would be interesting to base a study of a big population on the propositions given in chapter 2 concerning the holistic management of HEI internationalisation.

An interesting approach would be to study the HEI as a network enterprise, with core players using incentives and arbitration to manage a network of fully fledged entities (see also Askling & Kristensen 2000, Bayenet et al. 2000) and to determine in this context what tools would be suitable for the managing of internationalisation of higher-education institutions as public organisations. This study shows that there are networks and people discussing internationalisation and managing issues, and that
these discussions influence their daily work, i.e. contribute to the construction of the reality of managing of internationalisation.

Third, as commercialisation of higher education is increasing (see discussion in ch. 4.4), and there are a lot of unclear visions of it in the public sector, it would be interesting to study managing of internationalisation of higher-education institutions based on service management models and theories. For example Löwendahl & Revang (1999, 1994), Löwendahl (1997, 1993a,b, 1992), Ojanen, Katri (1999) and Ojanen Jukka (1999) have studied strategic service managing in its several dimensions and Majkgård (1998) has studied the internationalisation process of service firms. The concepts and thinking developed by these scholars would offer new insights into the discussion of commercialisation and globalisation of higher-education products.

Moreover, the study of commercialisation and globalisation as such would offer new understanding to public sector policy makers. Studies on the process of internationalisation would provide tools for studying the internationalisation process of services. The rapid development of e-learning (ex. Stallings 2001, 2000) is another dimension influencing the context of the commercialisation of higher education. Only after some political decisions are made at the phenomenal level, can the managing of commercialisation take advantage of the management tools developed by management scholars. As was seen above, the dominant discourse of internationalisation in these two countries is heavily connected to the European Union. A vision of future internationalisation taking into consideration evolutions other than those of the European Union is lacking. In this context, studies on alliances and mergers between the different HEIs all around the world would also provide new insights into the HEI internationalisation and its managing.

Another related aspect to the commercialisation of higher education is the knowledge-intensiveness of the HEIs as organisations. What consequences does it have for the managing of internationalisation in these institutions? For example, in the operative management of internationalisation there is a lot of tacit knowledge (Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995) related to the dominating “Basic process to be financed by internationalisation” discourse and it was found that there is substantial turnover in the personnel responsible for managing the internationalisation. How does the organisation
support the transfer of tacit knowledge from individuals to group and organisational levels? Organisational learning calls first for individual learning, but is only incorporated into organisational learning when shared and assimilated into organisational routines, documents and practices (Cohen et Levinthal 1990 in Autio et al. 2000). How does this organisational learning regarding to managing of HEI internationalisation take place?

An interesting approach to the managing of HEIs would also be to study it from the gender tradition (e.g. Deem 2000, 1996, Taalas & Virolainen 1995). Women leading women results in changes in the power structure (Bartunek et al 2000). As most of the internationalisation managers of HEIs are women, and they are not even called internationalisation managers, but Heads of International Relations, or Coordinators of Internationalisation, I argue that this power aspect also exists in the managing of HEI internationalisation. The existing ways to understand the role of “international coordinator” or “head of international relations” restrict professional behaviour. As discourses organise the life of societies (Lehtonen 1996), it would be insightful to study how gender interplays with managing at HEIs in order to be able to consider the impact on managing of HEI internationalisation. New solutions to some managing problems would certainly be found.

The fifth interesting aspect of managing that came up in the analysis was the absence of change management. One of the consequences of not understanding HEI internationalisation as a change process is that HEI internationalisation tends to remain separate from other activities of the HEIs and middle managers tend to become “lonely apostles of HEI internationalisation”. Any change, to be really understood, has to be viewed holistically and contextually as well as retrospectively (Mintzberg & Westley 1992), although the motivation for the change must first be found (Hill & Jones 1998). As HEI internationalisation can be understood as “a change from a national educational institution to an international educational institution” (Söderqvist 2001b,c), it would be challenging and significant to study a case where HEI internationalisation is integrated into basic processes of HEIs. Also, one could speculate whether the reason for not having a strategic change process would be for instance the above-mentioned fewness of male managers in this field, or the battle between private and public management in public not-for-profit organisations?
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## APPENDIX 1: TRANSCRIBED INTERVIEWS

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<td>Clopper de Patricia</td>
<td>Belgium Co-ordinator E.U. Educational Programmes</td>
<td>University of Antwerpen</td>
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<td>University of Joensuu</td>
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### APPENDIX 2: OTHER INTERVIEWS

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<td>Councillor for Education (now: Director)</td>
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<td>Blomberg Tuula</td>
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<td>Delplace Stefan</td>
<td>Hogeschool Gent</td>
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<td>International Relations Officer</td>
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<td>Fontell Lauri</td>
<td>AT-Kiinteistät</td>
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<td>Harlo Raimo</td>
<td>Suomen Liikemiesen kauppaopisto</td>
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<td>Haukilahti Kati</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
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<td>Ilkonen Kaarina</td>
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<td>Kahri Ilona</td>
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<td>Lahtinen Kaisa</td>
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<td>Laine Marjut</td>
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<td>Willman Arto</td>
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APPENDIX 3 – A MODEL OF TRANSCRIBED TEXT IN FINNISH AND IN ENGLISH

A. In Finnish:
NN: Mut et ehkä näissä kahdessa viikossa niin on epätyypillisen paljon sitä että on poissa toimistolta (joo joo..)
M: No sit mul on tää seuraava kysymys, kun että keitää tapaat?
NN: Mä tapaan tietysti oman osaston väkeä, oman yksikön väkeä, ää mä tapaan yliopiston muitten osastojen, siis hallinnollisten osastojen väkeä, yliopiston tiedekuntien kv-sihteereitä ihan erityisesti, ää sit meil on semmoisia laitosyhydyshenkilöitä, mä tapaan ulkomaalaisia vieraita, mä tapaan ulkomaalaisia tuttuja, mä tapaan yliopiston johtoa, .. joskus.. ei niin kovi n paljon, mutta joskus myös tämmöisiä niinkun ulkopuolisia viiteryhmiä miksi niitä sanoisi, CIMOn edustajia, ää ministeriöstä joskus joskus ihmisiä, ja .. julkisen sanan edustajia, opiskelijoita,.. suomalaisia ja ulkomaalaisia,.. hirveen hirveen monta niinku erilaista ryhmää (joo)

B. In English
M: haha all right.
H: So then we see for a few minutes and then we give him a file with all the projects (yes) we have in that country (yes) with all the contact persons (yes yes). So that’s why it is so good that when you see somebody that you can offer something from our cooperation we have from the files we have. (yes). Öö.. I can’t remember anything else (haha yes. And then) It is strange but you cannot remember. (But the work is so hectic, I found the same thing since I had to report exactly two weeks what I did and it was really really difficult to) to write down, what it is. Yes yes I know, together with my colleague A, I asked her because I had to read all the teaching staff mobility from last year and I had to send them a report on Friday last week, but we finished Thursday afternoon. (yes ok).
APPENDIX 4

Interview questions in Finnish

1. Mikä on roolisi?
2. Mistä kaikki alkoi?
3. Mikä on kaiken tarkoitus?
4. Mitä on tehty ja miksi?
5. Miten kaikki on tehty? Millaisia sopimuksia on? Millaisia toimintamuotoja on? Miten on rahoitettu?
6. Milloin on tehty?
7. Onko jostain haettu mallia?
8. Onko jotain haluttu välttää?
9. Ketkä ovat avainhenkilöt?
10. Mihin pitäisi pyrkiä tulevaisuudessa?

A. Mitä teet?
B. Millainen on tavallinen arkipäivä/arkiviikkosi?
C. Keitä tapaat?
D. Mikä on toimenkuvasi?
E. Mistä pidät? Mistä et pidä?
F. Mikä on helppoa? Mikä on vikeaa?
G. Mitkä ovat saavutuksesi? Miksi?
H. Vielä tärkeää vrt. edellinen kerta/viime vuosi, olennaisimmat muutokset, tapahtumat, sopimuukset, toiminnat, organisaatio, rahoitus
I. Tulevaisuuden tavoitteet


**Interview Questions in English**

1. What is your role?
2. Wherefrom did everything start?
3. What is the meaning of internationalisation?
4. What has been done and why?
5. How have things been done? What type of contracts do you have? What type of activities do you have? How have you financed these?
6. When have things been done?
7. Have you searched for a model from somewhere?
8. Have you tried to avoid something?
9. Who are the key persons?
10. What should be aimed at in the future?

A. What do you do?
B. How is your normal working day/working week?
C. Who do you meet?
D. What is your job description?
E. What do you like/dislike?
F. What is easy/What is difficult?
G. What are your achievements? Why?
H. During the past year or so what important, essential changes have happened in relation to the events, contracts, activities, organisation, financing, etc.?
I. Who are the key persons?
J. What do you aim at in the future?
APPENDIX 5: NARRATIVE ELEMENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL QUESTIONS FROM ALL THE HEIS STUDIED

A: The internatioanalisation manager is the secretary of the council of international cooperation. All the student services are under the student service unit, whether they are international or not. There is one person in that unit with whom I cooperate a lot. I belong to the international affairs unit. I have a half time secretary who takes care of Socrates. There is also a research officer who takes care also of international cooperation and another person who concentrates on research funding. There is also a book keeper specialised to the EU funding. I am the only one whose superior is the rector. My unit takes care of contracts, development, and funding. The student services unit helps students to go abroad, advises them, organises orientations, trains. We cooperate very closely. Since the head of the student services unit asked me to do so, I supervise their workers daily. Our main rector is responsible for international affairs. There are persons in the units who take care of advising and communication besides their other jobs. The heads of units have appointed these people.

B: We have two teams: the one for student services with three people and the other one for teacher services with another three people. Then we have one project worker in an administrative project. We aim to help the Eastern European countries to develop the administration of international affairs. Then we have one person to take care of special tasks. We might have temporary workers for some months for example for a seminar. We have at least one student in work placement, and some other students work in welcoming the incoming students. There are some people in administration, we have a lawyer, in the research unit some persons as well. We are eight altogether in the sub-unit of which I
am responsible and 25 persons altogether in this unit. We have secretaries of internationalisation and contact persons in the elsewhere in the organisation as well. The contact persons function besides their own duties, and mainly advise students. Some take care of teaching of courses in English. The secretaries work fulltime for education, they coordinate teaching in foreign languages, collect information on it for different publications, advise to students, approve foreign studies. The vice rector responsible for international affairs is the head of the committee of international affairs, but not directly my superior. This committee meets once in two months to deal with strategic affairs.

**C:** At the central level, we have a coordinator, a planner, a secretary and in the student service side one person responsible for incoming students, both for mobility and incoming degree students. We have a rector who does a lot of work with international activities. The task of the coordinator is to coordinate the information from inside and outside of the organisation and try to find those who could benefit from it. The secretary, who should have another title and salary, takes care of all the funding and Socrates mobility. The planner takes care of work placements and of mobility outside Europe, of contracts and of the international studies minor and coordinates teaching in English. At the unit level, the systems differ. There is a full time person in four units and in the other ones, the persons have it as an extra duty.

**D:** We have 11 persons in the central office at the moment: the head, three program coordinators, one financing person, one secretary, etc. The work is organised according to the programs, mobility and projects. We also have a lot of PR work. We don’t handle international research is not taken care by us, but an organisation of 16 persons does it.

**E:** There is going to be a merger, and the organisation is under reconsidering. There are ten people all together now in the earlier central offices of the different parts of the organisation. There is no direct boss. The central organisation handles at least the student and teacher
mobility, meaning logistics, contracts, applications, agreements. There is one coordinator for this internationalisation cluster, even though s/he does not have the corresponding title. The organisation has grown a lot since its start about 30 years ago.

F: The title of coordinator of international affairs was changed to manager of internationalisation when we reorganised. The central administration handles international affairs a few times a year. The salary paid to international coordinators varies a lot in different degree programmes. Hence, the activities vary a lot as well. The units are very independent. The manager of international affairs has a managerial position. The tasks include innovation of projects, project management, applications, statistics, reports, guides, brochures and internal marketing. There is a fulltime secretary to help the manager. A student representative participates in the meetings of the international coordinators. The manager travels around all the units and participates in dozens of different committees in order to be able to be responsible of the quality of international affairs.

G: There is the head of international relations and a secretary in the central unit for international affairs. In addition to that, all the units have an international coordinator. Their tasks and salaries vary considerably, from 2 hours a week to 1.5 days a week. There are a lot of mobility and work placement activities but only a couple of projects. The big decisions are always made by the top management.

H: There is a center of international affairs. Its core is the network of teams. There are international coordinators and teachers in them. There is a person responsible of international affairs in every unit. In some of them, there is even a separate committee for international affairs. In the big committee, at the central level, there is also a student representative. In addition to all these people, there are mentors, teachers, tutors, students to help the incoming and outgoing students. The director of the international unit is responsible for the international activities and
supported by the rector. The profile of the activities of the international unit has been illustrated as have the job descriptions of all the people not long ago. The top management meets once a year to discuss international activities. In addition, there is the board of the international unit, its staff meetings, teams meet, the different teachers and students have different meetings and then there is a lot of communication. There is also a lot of regional cooperation with different organisation, education authorities and colleagues of other HEIs. The director is responsible for directing the centre and all the international activities of the HEI.

I: There is a central office for international affairs with two persons full-time employees. There is the Head of International Relations, coordinating the international affairs and then another person at the administrative level, doing follow-up. In every unit, there is a coordinator. In some, even two. The internationalisation tasks vary between 25-100% of these persons’ workload. It always depends on the appreciation of the head of the department. Because even if there is a strategy at the central level, it is not always true that the head of the unit feels the same. There is a coordination meeting 3-4 times a year with the central office and the coordinators. In addition, there are thematic meetings depending on the project, on the problems of each unit. Also, internationalisation should be a fixed item at the monthly meetings of the unit boards. For instance, the learning agreements are discussed in those meetings. What is funny is that the coordinator does not always attend this meeting even though s/he is responsible for implementation of the signed agreements, of their follow-up, for the integration of the incoming students and teachers, proposing projects, selecting outgoing students and for writing projects as well as for giving information to the departmental boards.

At the central level, the head of international relations reports to the rector. These two meet each other twice a week. The heads of units meet the head of international relations at least once a year, evaluating the past year and informing about current year’s projects. From the very
beginning, the creation of this institution, they have strategic planning for five years. And the head of international relations does a follow-up every year as the basis for actions during the following year.

**J:** There is a small office. There is a management assistant that works half time with the head of international relations. Then there is a person in all the units. There is also a person who works full time for just one unit, but shares the office with the head of international relations, for financial reasons as he is paid by the HEI and not by the unit. In two other units, there is a half-time person who teaches the other half-time. In every unit, there is also a steering committee representing for example different subjects. In the fourth unit, the work is shared between three persons.

Then there is a consultation committee, formed by these persons working on HEI internationalisation. This committee meets 2-3 times a year. But, they also have lots of informal meetings. In addition, there are very regular meetings, about once a month, with the unit groups to get the feedback from the teaching staff. Also the head of unit should attend these meetings. International work placements are not run by the international office. Students organise it themselves. Also, the head of int. rel. goes every week to all the four departments to talk to the teaching staff, students etc. and also meets his boss. The budget is, however, discussed with the financial director. The head also has very frequent contact with the regional authorities.
APPENDIX 6: BUDGET AND FINANCE TALK FROM ALL THE HEIS STUDIED

A: But the person responsible for money is the head of the unit. Erasmus is financed by three different organs: the EU gives a little, 2/3 comes from the central administration, and the rest either from the unit or from the student/teacher (!). It is very nice to surprise people, to be able to tell them how many opportunities they have to develop in their profession or enrich their studies. The budget was cut by 17,000 euros. Actually, I do not know the budget of international student services but the budget for me and my half-time assistant is about 94,000 euros. Then we have a separate fund that can provide scholarships, about 100,000 euros. But I think that it would be very important that internationalisation would again be one criterion in the budget negotiations. The heads of units took a clear stand that internationalisation was no longer important when it was decided that it is not a criterion any longer. It would be very important to get financial support from companies, to be able to fund incoming students from the developing countries. We get about 505,000 – 670,000 from the EU programmes yearly. And from other funds, several tens of thousands of euros.

B: Our budget is about 1,700,000 euros without salaries. The whole budget of the HEI is about 67 million euros but that includes salaries and rents. There are areas that need urgently more money, like teacher mobility. If we have to increase teacher mobility by 20% it means hundreds of people. If we need 10% more financing it means 170,000 euros. It is completely different from some other HEIs, where 10% means 1,700 euros. The funding for the international activities is substantial: I don’t mean only the allowance coming from the state but our own money, our own funding, the EU money, the other international
C: I do not know where I would see our budget. We get financial support from outside, through these programmes and networks. And the units also get funding directly from the companies.

D: We have one person responsible for all the finances; so he does all the accounting for all the projects, working together with the program coordinators. We have money to finance our operations from the city, from the region and from the European Union.

E: We have several budgets, a budget for international affairs, a budget for Socrates, for teaching mobility, for projects, for all kinds of things.

F: The allowance from the Ministry is the only one coming to the central unit; all the rest goes directly to the units. We have changed the criteria for distributing the funding. In the beginning, 5-6 years ago, the funding was distributed only according to the number of students. But now, there is 10% for the central administration of international activities and the remaining 90% is divided according to how many students there are, how many projects the unit has, and how well the unit has been able to do what it planned to do. The Socrates allowance is paid through the central office to the students. We have never been able to pay all that the EU allows us to pay. The budget is about 1 – 1,4 million euros yearly. It is not one budget, but divided into several categories. I have combined all the different parts, to get one budget for myself. The ministry provides about 150 000 euros, the Sokrates allowance is about 60 000 euros, Leonardo 30 000 euros and the rest 185 000 euros, salaries about 335 000 euros. We never have had too many teachers, we have been able to support all those who have desired to leave.

G: Our own funding for the EU programmes comes from the allowance from the Ministry, which is about 150 000 euros a year. The student allowance from Erasmus is about 60 000 a year. Students pay about 100 euros when they attend in project courses and they get youth hostel level accommodation and travel tickets from the HEI. The head of international
relations does the international budget for one degree and for the whole HEI. There is a project for every item in the budget and they are followed up strictly. The secretary takes care of the bookkeeping.

H: We have received a bonus for performance on four occasions. The budget is about 840,000 euros. The money has a great impact on the activities, and in the future even more. I always ask the opinion of the rector and of the financial director concerning major decisions.

I: We have a fixed sum from the Ministry. I am afraid that we are going more and more towards the American system, where we have to get external funding and sell our services. It cannot be through the EU projects, as we do not earn anything with them. I have separate money for student activities and I have a separate budget for the units, more or less 75,000 euros. We are looking for sponsors as we don’t receive any extra money from the government, only the Socrates, Tempus or the other programmes provide some money.

J: Budgeting is also my responsibility. Two persons work for the HEI and one just for one unit. The HEI can decide without asking anybody for costs of 1000 euros. 85% of the whole HEI’s total budget goes to the salaries of the staff. The Socrates Grant, the organisational grant is about 25,000 euros per year. The Erasmus grants for the students are about 20% more. The money is very centralised; this means that the head of international relations has to allocate it through a consultative body. A concrete example of staff exchange is that 40% comes from the Socrates-Erasmus and the HEI pays for 60% of the costs. The head has some extra money to be used for training and conferences.
## APPENDIX 7: MOBILITY AND BUDGET FIGURES FROM SOCRATES REPORTS FOR THE ACADEMIC YEAR 2000/2001

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mobility of students</th>
<th>Teachers and staff</th>
<th>Socrates budget euros</th>
<th>Total international budget of Institutional Contract euros</th>
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