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COMPREHENDING THE INTERNATIONAL INITIATIVES OF UNIVERSITIES:
A Taxonomy of Modes of Engagement and Institutional Logics

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ABSTRACT

The paper examines the behavior of universities at the level of the individual institution to create a taxonomy of actions and logics used to initiate international activities, engagements, and academic programs. The taxonomy is organized utilizing the concepts of *activity clusters*, *modes of engagement*, and *institutional logics*. Its purpose is to provide a framework for future research as well as a tool for scholars and practitioners to better analyze and understand what has become a rush by many universities to become more engaged globally. After a brief discussion of the importance of contextual variables such as academic discipline, academic program level, and the prestige hierarchy, the specific characteristics of the university as a social organization are considered. A central assumption is that the most meaningful and successful change in the university occurs when the decentralized nature of the organization and the significant formal and informal authority of faculty and academic staff is recognized and incorporated into decision processes in real and meaningful ways. The taxonomy of actions and logics is conceptualized as a list of *modes of engagement* that can be organized into seven *clusters of activity*. *Clusters* include individual faculty initiatives; the management of institutional demography; mobility initiatives; curricular and pedagogical change; transnational institutional engagements; network building; and campus culture, ethos, and leadership. Nine *institutional logics* are described and proposed as possible explanatory variables as to how universities interpret their global environment and justify strategies, policies, and actions they undertake. International and global realities have become a central strategic concern for many universities. The framework offered in this article is intended to help support empirical research on strategies, actions and logics at the institutional level and an on-going research project by the authors.

The purpose of this paper is to describe and categorize a range of actions and logics that are associated with efforts to respond to globalization and to develop the international dimensions of universities. The following outlines a taxonomy¹ of institutional actions that provides a framework for future research and for analysis of what has become a rush by many universities to become more engaged globally. Despite the significant increase in the number and type of international activities—from branch campuses, to MOOCs, and aggressive international student recruitment—many efforts appear to be launched without a clear idea of best practices or how specific activities might be productive and meaningful for a particular institution.

Establishing a taxonomy helps to clarify what forms of engagement are currently being practiced, and supports a larger project based at the Center for Studies in Higher Education at the University of California, Berkeley. This project will utilize case studies to determine the reasons and methods universities have chosen to become more globally active and to decipher patterns to help assess success or failure. This article discusses a number of contextual and historical themes that frame a subsequent outline of “clusters” of international activity by universities, and various “modes” of engagement within each cluster. A description of common institutional logics that underpin international initiatives is also included.

THE IMPORTANCE OF CONTEXT

Three salient contextual variables help guide, inform, and condition the taxonomy of international engagement outlined in this article:

- The Academic Discipline
- The Level of Academic Study (e.g. 1st/undergraduate degree versus post-graduate degree)
- Institutional Prestige Hierarchy

Almost irrespective of the problem or issue under consideration, there is significant variability in the effects or outcomes when we consider the results in the particular context of individual disciplines or fields. The scholarly work, research methods, and organizational culture of the physics department are quite distinct from what is found in the economics department, the law school or the department of classics (Becher 1989).

Level of study, course, or program also conditions how different problems are addressed. For example, study abroad and various mobility and exchange initiatives take on very different forms, durations, and pedagogies in an undergraduate/first-degree engineering program when compared with the same level of program in a foreign language or psychology department. Graduate students and faculty often have entirely different approaches to mobility issues because of greater individualization of instruction and research imperatives.

A final contextual variable worthy of attention is the prestige hierarchy. Not all colleges and universities are created equal and, like most social institutions, they compete with each other to achieve a high status or social value in society. More prestigious institutions, large or small, public or private, have certain advantages when it comes to advancing their mission and objectives. This appears to be true for international endeavors as well where some of the most active and successful institutions are prestigious and highly visible on global scale.

The emergence of mass higher education systems in many countries has, however, significantly increased the number and variety of colleges and universities in most countries and created more opportunities to develop successful and high quality institutions. There are now many more opportunities and markets in which to seek recognition and prestige. The relatively recent, but highly visible, presence of national and international university ranking schemes testifies to the interest in finding vehicles to evaluate the quality and relative prestige of different institutions (though the reliability and validity of many of the rankings is limited and often criticized).²

When considering the following taxonomy of modes and logics, it is useful to remember that the prestige of the institution affects the extent to which different modes of action or logics and rationales will appear feasible or attractive. Like discipline or academic level, the prestige quotient is simply another factor that conditions the way individual institutions can and do engage with their larger environment—locally, nationally and beyond national borders.

HISTORICAL PATTERNS AND CONTEMPORARY TENSIONS

We have taken a distinctly sociological perspective that views the university as a social organization with distinct histories, structures, values, norms, traditions, and symbols embedded in the culture and that condition organizational behavior over time. The research and writings of Burton Clark continues to shed light on what it is about the university that makes it distinct and exceptional in many respects. One of the key “truths” that Clark continually stressed in his work is that universities are inherently more decentralized and “bottom heavy” than other organizations such as business firms and most government bureaucracies (Clark 1983). Significant authority, both formal and informal, rests with individual faculty members and with departments, schools, and colleges. Institutional change is, to a large extent, dependent on the capacity of leadership to muster support from the ranks of faculty who are, in the end, the final arbiters of how teaching and learning occur and are the source of scholarship and scientific research, the two primordial functions of universities in society.

More recent research and publications by Georg Krucken also suggest that historically embedded patterns of organization and governance resist fundamental change and often marginally adapt themselves to evolving conditions of the larger environment and international trends and norms. Krucken shows, for example, how professors in Germany have largely retained their authority over academic policies in spite of the emergence of a larger administrative class and hierarchy (Krucken 2011, 2013 forthcoming).

John Aubrey Douglass has considered recent changes in research university organization that appear to take on forms of university devolution with increased fragmentation of the structure and the values that have historically held the university community together (Douglass 2012). Trends toward treating various schools, centers, and departments as profit centers with greater managerial autonomy or privatization options (often linked to neo-liberal and market-oriented management philosophies)

suggest that changes in university organization and governance will make it increasingly difficult for university leaders to shape institution-wide strategies and policies that depend upon a robust set of shared values, beliefs and institutional loyalty. International strategies and initiatives become even more challenging should these trends prove to be persistent over time.

While there may have been some significant changes driven by technology, political demands, and the nature of teaching and research that have made inroads into the all-encompassing authority of faculty, it is difficult to imagine significant institutional change in universities that does not come with the advice and consent of individual faculty members. Calls for a more entrepreneurial and economically relevant university and increasing tendencies toward adopting management practices and decision criteria from business are too significant and numerous to ignore. Nonetheless, efforts to embark on projects of substantial change often fail when they are implemented in a top-down and centralized decision structure.

In the end, most meaningful and successful change in the university occurs when the decentralized nature of the organization and the significant formal and informal authority of faculty is recognized and incorporated into the decision process in real and meaningful ways.

Previous efforts to describe and categorize different international activities, programs and logics in higher education systems have advanced our understanding of institutional behavior and the growth of internationalization efforts and global engagement over time. The work of Jane Knight is especially noteworthy in this regard and is frequently cited in the literature on international higher education (Knight 1994, 2004, 2008b, Altbach and Knight 2011). Other scholars with significant contributions in this area include Urlich Teichler (1991, 1996, 2004, 2009), Hans de Wit (2002, 2011), Philip Altbach (2007a, 2011a, 2011b), Simon Marginson (2007a, 2011b), and Marjijk van der Wende (2007).

This essay and its presentation of clusters of activities, modes of engagement and institutional logics focuses wholly on the perspective of the individual institution and offers an alternative set of concepts and categories to describe and analyze institutional behavior and change. The purpose is to build on previous efforts and contribute a meaningful and relevant approach to thinking about issues and problems faced by university leaders as they make strategic choices about which international and global policies, programs, and relationships they pursue.

A. CLUSTERS AND MODES OF ENGAGEMENT

Cluster 1: Individual Faculty Initiatives

The foundation or core of institutional activity remains the teaching and research work of faculty. Historically, universities or faculties in Europe were international by virtue of the travel of scholars, clerics, and students between feudal realms and states to what have been called centers of learning by sociologist Joseph Ben-David (1977). The relative geographic proximity of the early European universities facilitated the creation of links between scholars and the existence of the Roman Church and its network of monasteries, churches, and learned societies also enabled the creation of trans-European networks of the scholarly communities of the time.

Today, individual faculty initiative remains a principal mode of international engagement and often constitutes the beginnings of what eventually becomes an institutionalized activity or program. The nature of scholarly work encourages relations between academics, especially in the same discipline, beyond local and national boundaries. This appears to be facilitated by globalization and the emergence of many transnational associations and networks driven by disciplinary communities (Djelic and Quack 2010).

Clusters and Modes of Engagement

Cluster 1 – Individual Faculty Initiatives

- Research Collaboration
- Teaching and Curriculum Development
- Academic Program Leadership
- Sanctioning Authority

Cluster 2 – Managing Institutional Demography

- International Student Recruitment
- Recruitment of Foreign Academic and Administrative Staff
- Visiting Scholars and Lecturers
- Short Courses, Conferences and Visiting Delegations
- Summer Sessions, Extension Programs and Language Acquisition Programs

Cluster 3 – Mobility Initiatives

- Exchange and Mobility Programs
- Study Abroad Programs, Internships, Service Learning, Research Projects and Practicums

Cluster 4 – Curricular and Pedagogical Change

- Incremental Curricular Change
- Foreign Language and Culture
- Cross-Cultural Communication and Inter-Cultural Competence
- New Pedagogies and Learning Technologies
- Extra-Curricular and Student Initiated Activities

Cluster 5 – Transnational Engagements

- Collaboration and Partnerships with Foreign Institutions
- Dual, Double and Joint Degrees
- Multi-site Joint Degrees
- Articulation Agreements, Twinning, Franchising
- Research Intensive Partnerships
- Strategic Alliances
- Branch Campuses, Satellite Offices and Gateways

Cluster 6 – Network Building

- Academic and Scholarly Networks
- Consortia
- Alumni Networks

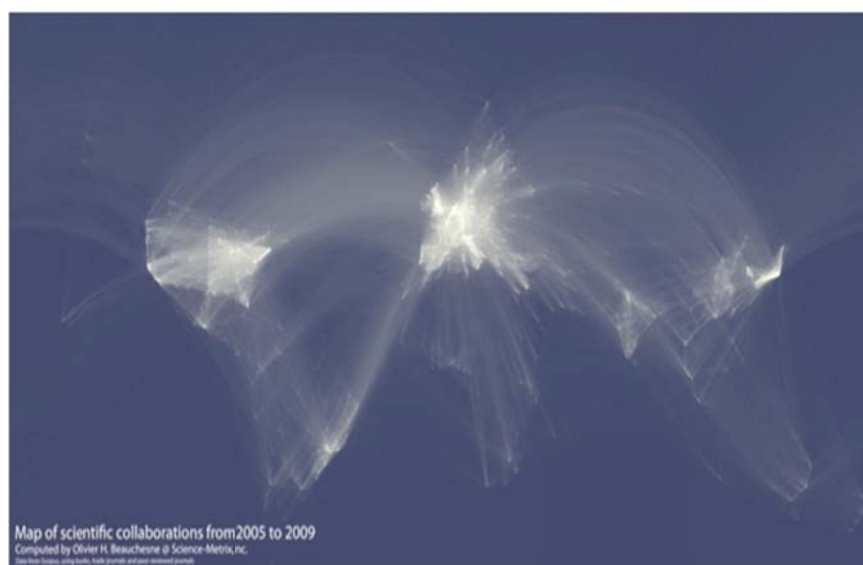
Cluster 7 – Campus Culture, Ethos, and Symbolic Action

- An International Ethos: Changing Campus Culture
- Engaged Leadership

1a. Research collaboration. Many professors and researchers develop relationships with counterparts abroad who share research interests. These relationships may be temporary or intermittent, but often are sustained over time. In some disciplines such as anthropology, archeology, and art history (as well as epidemiology, marine biology, and earth sciences), the nature of the discipline requires data and sources and, ultimately, interaction with individuals and institutions outside the home country. Increasingly, most disciplines and interdisciplinary research units address problems and issues that are international, if not global, in scope.

Examples of this phenomenon range from collaboration on obtaining multinational data or sources or joint authorship of a scholarly article by two colleagues in different countries to major research projects involving multiple scholars and doctoral students funded by foundations or governments in more than one country.³ Many individual initiatives go unnoticed by the larger institution while others are very visible and obtain institutional resources to support the activity. What appear to be increased numbers of international scholarly meetings and conferences undoubtedly encourages faculty to broaden their network of peers.

Below is an image produced by Oliver H. Beauchesne of Science-Metrix, Inc. that attempts to map the patterns of scientific collaboration globally in the period 2005-2009 using data from Scopus reporting collaborative books, trade journals, and peer-reviewed journal articles. Europe at the center appears to be the most active region with North America, East Asia, and South America showing significant activity as well.



1b. Teaching and curriculum development. Faculty members use their international links to inform their teaching. Whether it simply involves the inclusion of more international references and content or the use of videoconferences or on-line collaboration with faculty and students abroad, individual faculty actions are fundamental to the creation of an international dimension in the institution. The roots of many study abroad, exchange, or other mobility activities are often the result of a faculty member's relationships with a colleague or institution abroad. More recently, as faculty are increasingly of foreign origins, institutions rely on individual faculty connections with their home country to facilitate institutional initiatives. This appears to be especially the case in countries like China where language and cultural issues are more challenging to overcome.

1c. Academic program leadership. Individual faculty can and do provide leadership in the development of study abroad programs, double and joint degrees, and the creation of various forms of partnership and collaboration with institutions and individuals abroad. As department chairs, deans, or simply entrepreneurial faculty members, they can and do initiate and manage many of the academic initiatives that engage the global context and international nature of knowledge and learning.

1d. Sanctioning authority. Finally, in many institutions, the faculty has the authority to approve or sanction teaching and research initiatives at the institutional level. It is hard to imagine a successful project abroad without significant support of individual faculty members as well as the larger faculty decision-making body or academic senate. While top administrators and officers of the university can and do provide leadership and initiate many international initiatives, the most successful projects always demand strong faculty support and involvement.

Cluster 2: Managing Institutional Demography

Foreign students and faculty have been a long-standing manifestation of university openness to the world and recognition that the search for talent, knowledge, and professional preparation must be open to all irrespective of national origins. The presence of international students and faculty of foreign origins at leading universities appears to have been common for a long time in the US as well as in Europe. The numbers may have been small in earlier times, but they were undoubtedly one of the most visible aspects of an international dimension to the university.

Today, the global market of mobile international students is growing rapidly and universities recognize that increasing the number of foreign students and faculty can be an important mechanism to achieve multiple goals related to teaching and learning, research, and international network development while contributing to the financial bottom line. There appear to be several different modes of engagement related to university demography.

2a. International student recruitment. With a global market of over 4 million students seeking foreign educational experience and qualifications, there is ample opportunity for universities to recruit international students (OECD 2012). Many institutions utilize foreign student enrollment as key part of a strategy to become more international and to compete with peer institutions at home and abroad. The data on international student flows and the global market suggest that there are significant differences in institutional capacity to recruit international students. Mature university systems in advanced countries and the more prestigious research universities with international reputations are clearly advantaged in terms of attracting international students. As English has emerged as the primary international language, this increased the advantages of international activity enjoyed by English-speaking countries.

The five leading national destinations for international students are the US, the UK, Germany, France and Australia. Together, these five countries recruit over 50% of all international students. Other nations that have increased success recruiting foreign students include Canada, New Zealand, Japan, China, Spain, S. Korea, Taiwan, Malaysia and South Africa.

Below is a world map showing current 2012 patterns of flows of international students.



Another consideration related to international student recruitment is level of study. In the US, the majority of international students have historically been at the graduate level whereas in Australia, for example, most foreign students come for vocational training and first university degrees. Whatever the complexities and constraints of the international student market, recruitment of students from other countries remains one of the most common and significant modes of engagement for universities.

Other factors that affect the ability to attract international students are prestige and international visibility, cost and fee structures, and availability of scholarships. Visa and employment regulations that encourage and allow foreign graduates to stay for employment and eventual citizenship have become another key factor affecting international student choices. Operational issues such as marketing strategies, communications capacities and the availability of language, cultural and other kinds of support services are also important. Finally, geographic location and local cultural factors can also affect the ability of particular institutions to attract foreign students to degree programs (Choudaha 2011).

2b. Recruitment of foreign academic and administrative staff. The national and cultural origins of faculty can be a significant variable in the creation of campus culture, teaching pedagogies, and even scholarly activities at a college or university.

In the last century, universities in the United States started to recruit faculty from Europe—especially Germany. As a nation of immigrants whose origins were mostly European, American institutions were well positioned to invite qualified individuals from across the Atlantic to join their faculties. The German “Humboldtian” universities were considered the best in the world in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, especially in the sciences. Leading American universities began to look at the German research universities as potential models for creating teaching and research activities of greater intellectual rigor that integrated science in a more fundamental way into the academic mission. Johns Hopkins University and the University of Chicago were both created in the late 19th century and strongly influenced by the Humboldtian ideal of uniting teaching and research and the German success in the scientific disciplines.

Today, in the context of a global economy and the rise of the university as a key element in economic development and technological innovation, recruiting faculty of diverse national origins is increasingly common. Again, American institutions continue to lead the way (due, in part, to the significant number of foreign students who come to US universities for doctoral education and enter the US academic employment market), but many European and Asian universities are also actively recruiting faculty from abroad.

How does having faculty from abroad enhance international engagement at the university? Aside from the obvious benefits of language and cultural knowledge for teaching and research, foreign faculty have relationships in their home countries that can prove beneficial in establishing relationships with individuals and institutions there. Moreover, they are often well traveled and quite cosmopolitan in outlook and experience making them good models for students and peers seeking to learn how to function across cultural boundaries. Finally, faculty members with foreign origins contribute to the cultural diversity of the campus community and the creation of an ethos of international engagement.

2c. Visiting scholars and lecturers. Among the most flexible and prolific instruments of increased foreign scholar presence on campus are the traditional visiting scholar and lecturer programs. The roving scholar tradition of medieval times has persisted and grown as the search for knowledge and truth has become more global in scale and travel and communications have become easier. Often referred to as “Visiting Scholar” or “Visiting Lecturer” status, these initiatives provide opportunities for faculty, researchers, post-doctoral researchers, and doctoral candidates to spend periods of time in residence at the university. Length of stay is variable. Typically, all that is required is an invitation from an academic unit and faculty member. Administrative fees are minimal and if visitors are able to teach a course or module, they can often help defray some of the costs for travel and living expenses. They also usually have access to services such as the library and computers.

Visiting scholar programs have expanded considerably over time and now represent a major component of the research complex at many leading universities. Some visitors are doing collaborative research with local faculty and are highly integrated into projects. Others have looser connections and more individualized research agendas. In any case, they often become a significant subgroup in the campus community and participate in instructional, research, and cultural activities. A visitor can also serve as an ambassador of their home university or institute and eventually assist in the creation of more formal links with their institution (Black and Stephan 2010).

2d. Short courses, conferences and visiting delegations. Another means to increase the presence of foreign scholars and students is to develop short-term activities such as certificate programs, training seminars, academic and professional conferences, and visits by delegations from abroad. While intermittent in nature, these activities constitute another way to network and engage with peers from abroad.

2e. Summer sessions, adult “extension” learning programs, and language acquisition programs. Regular academic rules, requirements and calendars for degree programs often impede efforts to organize activities, exchanges, and non-degree programs with foreign institutions and individuals. Academic programming during “out of session” periods such as summer- and winter-term courses can provide more flexible and adaptable formats to integrate international students and faculty. Experimentation is more feasible and facilities are more available than during the regular academic year.

Adult education, lifelong learning, or what are often called “extension” programs in the US (a parallel program structure that is physically on or near campus) function as additional flexible means to integrate international students. In many cases, there are possibilities for concurrent enrollment in degree-program courses that avoid administrative problems related to short-term enrollments and non-degree status. Some institutions use these formats to create “bridge programs” that provide a means for international students to experience the challenges of different pedagogies and linguistic or cultural patterns without being

formally admitted to a degree program. Some of these students are eventually encouraged to apply for admission to degree programs.

Language programs in the local language for international students can also serve as a vehicle to increase the international student presence on campus. They also can serve as a “bridge program” for international students that need to increase their language competency in order to compete for admission to degree programs.

Cluster 3: Mobility Initiatives

3a. Exchange and mobility programs. Periods of study, research, teaching, or service learning abroad for individuals have become more common for both students and faculty seeking an international learning component to their work. Exchange and mobility grants or awards are typically integrated into the degree programs of students or are added on as an additional academic experience at the end of their studies. They usually are limited to one year or less in duration, although doctoral students doing field research may spend more extended periods abroad.

Government initiatives like the Fulbright Program in the US, the Erasmus programs in Europe, and the DAAD fellowships in Germany have long supported the mobility of students and scholars. These programs typically grant scholarships or fellowships to individual students and faculty members for a period of study in another country with a goal of increasing international understanding and knowledge of foreign languages and cultures among teachers and university graduates. Institutions benefit by having an external source of support to fund outgoing and incoming students and faculty. With the possible exception of the Erasmus programs in Europe, which have supported relatively large numbers of university students across a broad range of disciplines, most of these government initiatives are targeted to the most talented students and sometimes to a limited set of fields or disciplines.

Large national mobility programs that send native students abroad for degree studies have been initiated by some countries to overcome perceived lack of capacity or quality in their own higher education systems. The programs may also be motivated by a desire to have students learn foreign languages and benefit from an intercultural learning experience. Iran, China, Taiwan, Nigeria, South Korea, and Venezuela have, in the past, sponsored large numbers of their students to study in Europe or the US. More recently, governments in Saudi Arabia and Brazil have launched major mobility programs for students to study abroad.

Increasingly, individual institutions have entered in agreements with foreign institutions (Memoranda of Agreement or “MOUs”) to exchange faculty and students. Sometimes these agreements are broad and include all disciplines. Often they are focused on a single or small set of fields of particular interest. Exchange and mobility agreements are usually the first step in a process of establishing relations with a foreign institution and provide a means to experiment without putting many institutional resources at stake.

The key ingredient is the willingness to waive or minimize financial and administrative costs on a reciprocal basis for individual students or faculty. Keeping some kind of balance or equity in costs and benefits is challenging at times and is often spread over a multi-year time frame to provide some flexibility. Often what makes the exchange feasible is fee waivers on both sides. Differentials in cost structures and currency values can also impede these initiatives.

It is an often-commented-upon adage that exchange agreements are collected by university presidents as evidence that the institution is reaching out internationally while, in reality, most of them remain un-acted upon and dormant. Still, efforts at increased student and faculty mobility make meaningful additions to learning for individuals and often lead to more intensive and broader actions by the institution.

3b. Study abroad programs, internships, service learning, research projects, and professional practicums. Study Abroad or Education Abroad are American terms to describe undergraduate programs that enable groups of US students to study in another country for periods ranging from two weeks to a full academic year. Often these programs are organized by the American institution or a consortia of institutions and have a curriculum and program that is, in whole or in part, separate from a host country university or educational system. This limits the degree of integration with local students, but is intended to insure the integrity of the program and the validation of academic credit toward the degree for undergraduate students.

Today, study abroad has grown to be a more common option in undergraduate curricula at most US colleges and universities. Although the number of students participating in these programs remains small relative to the larger student population, there has been significant growth in the number of students participating in the last ten years. Some colleges and universities are beginning to utilize targets for increasing the percentage of undergraduates who have an international experience prior to graduation. This often requires some curricular reform and greater faculty involvement in creating opportunities for learning abroad. The range of options has grown beyond the traditional study abroad program to include faculty-led study-tours and

courses, internships, faculty-directed research projects, service learning, and direct enrolment into a foreign university for a term or year. The intensity of immersion and length of time abroad varies considerably as does the quality of the experience. Creating new methods for gaining experience abroad becomes more crucial as larger numbers of students request this experience and more institutions are requiring it.

Outside the US, and especially in Europe, there has been growth in institutional efforts to send students abroad as part of their degree curriculum. In France, for example, many business and engineering programs at the "Grandes Ecoles" require periods of study or internship abroad. Most European universities encourage students to spend a period abroad, but it is not typically organized on a group or program basis, as is the case in the US.

Cluster 4: Curricular and Pedagogical Change

Teaching, the transmission of knowledge and culture, and professional preparation constitutes one of the core missions of the university. It is not surprising therefore that globalization, the accumulation of knowledge, the emergence of new disciplines, and multi- or interdisciplinary fields and the increased interdependence of nations economically, politically, and socially requires universities to regularly redefine and change the curriculum, subject matter, and teaching methods to adapt to the evolving nature of the world.

4a. Incremental curricular change at multiple levels. Some curricular change occurs naturally by the continual growth of knowledge through research and the subsequent adjustments that individual faculty make in the content of their courses. Other changes are the result of institutional efforts at several levels: department/faculty, college/school, institution wide and, in some cases, nationally and regionally. Whatever the venue and context, increased attention is given to the international and global dimensions of knowledge and life. Efforts to "internationalize" the curriculum are common, but there is little consensus about what this means. Some institutions seek to integrate an international dimension to all courses and programs, leaving much discretion to faculty to define what this means. In other institutions, the strategy may be more directed to the creation of new courses or the addition of specific required courses that are believed to have content critical to learning subject matter and acquiring skills essential for a "global citizen" (e.g., international relations, geography of various areas, foreign language and cultural studies, anthropology, comparative business/law/sociology/religions, intercultural communications etc.).

4b. Foreign language and culture. Foreign language acquisition continues to be a critical element for the study of nations, cultures, and in simply gaining access to the knowledge and experience of people and societies with whom we do not share a language. Debates about the predominance of English as the international language of choice aside, there is nothing more central to understanding and living in another culture than language. Different regions, countries, and institutions vary in the degree to which they emphasize foreign language acquisition. It is clear that the English-speaking countries are laggards in this regard and thus have an innate weakness in learning about other cultures and cross-cultural communications.

4c. Cross-cultural communication and inter-cultural competence. In some institutions, the acquisition of skills in cross-cultural communication is encouraged not only by obtaining experience abroad, but also by explicit training programs or workshops that have been developed for this purpose. A relatively new field of cross-cultural or inter-cultural communication has emerged drawing on the disciplines of psychology, linguistics, and anthropology. It has generated a variety of theories and techniques that have been integrated into training programs designed to assist students and faculty to adapting to and communicating effectively in cross-cultural contexts (e.g., Coupland 2010).

Another relatively new area of interest related to cross-cultural communication is the emergence of the concept of inter-cultural or international competence (Deardorff 2009). Some colleges and universities are experimenting with different definitions of the competencies required to be effective as an individual or professional outside one's own culture. Some assessment tests have been developed that are sometimes used to measure whether or not individuals have acquired an appropriate set of competencies as part of their degree program. While still experimental in nature, these activities attest to the desire to define the knowledge and skill set that is required to be an educated and effective person in a more internationally engaged society faced with the challenges of globalization and increased cultural heterogeneity at home.

4d. Inventing a new pedagogy and using new learning technologies. The pedagogy of learning in an international context is being invented in real time. Driven by new learning and communications technologies, there is much experimentation with distance learning that allows for a greater integration of foreign faculty and students into courses. A simple introduction of a videoconference to share lectures or to explore different views and approaches to a range of issues and problems is relatively commonplace. More complex interactions involving a shared activity or project or cross-national groupings over a period of time are more challenging for faculty to organize. It is clear that distance-learning technologies are excellent enablers of more

international interaction in the learning process. What is less clear is how to recognize the additional time required of faculty and staff to facilitate this kind of technology-mediated approach.

4e. Extra-curricular and student initiated activities. From residence facilities dedicated to a foreign language and cultural learning to annual events celebrating world cultures to student clubs with international themes, there are many potential vehicles to integrate internationally oriented learning opportunities into student life outside the classroom. Student-organized study-tours and foreign internship placements are quite common. International student associations such as IAESTE and AIESEC are examples of student-managed efforts to gain international experience (often with the support of some faculty and staff). International Centers on campus often provide services to international students and to students interested in study abroad. Often they have an active cultural life designed to bring together local students and international students in a social context.

Cluster 5: Transnational Engagements

Most significant activities and engagements abroad involve some degree of collaboration or partnership with other universities or governments in the host country or countries. From simple exchanges of students and faculty to occasional seminars to joint degrees and co-branding of executive education, universities are increasingly seeking to build strategic partnerships to achieve international objectives.

5a. Collaboration and partnerships with foreign institutions. More sophisticated forms of curricular and pedagogical change involve collaboration with foreign faculty and institutions. This introduces a degree of complexity that requires higher levels of commitment and expertise, but engages the institution directly in an international context. Challenges to instructional collaboration across national boundaries include differences in educational philosophy, pedagogies, communication styles, and classroom protocols.

5b. Dual, double, and joint degrees. Through the efforts of faculty and departments, many institutions now offer students the possibility to obtain a degree qualification at both their home institution and a partner university abroad. This typically involves some coordination of calendars and some agreement to waive some coursework that is common to both programs. In some cases, foreign language competency is also required of students in order to take courses at the partner institution. Business studies, area studies, social science and humanities fields are the most common focus of double and joint degrees.

Joint degrees are more challenging. They require the development of a common curriculum taught by faculty from the partner institutions. Academic authorities at each institution usually must review and sanction the degree program, which requires more time and effort and commitment for both sides.

5c. Multi-site joint degrees. In Europe and increasingly in other areas, a group of three, four, or more institutions may offer a degree program with a sequential curriculum that is taught at multiple sites in different countries. The institutions agree on which part of the curriculum each will teach and students travel from site to site to for each part of the degree program. Most often organized at the Masters degree level, these programs provide an opportunity to study in several countries and the degree is usually jointly granted by participating institutions.

5d. Articulation agreements, twinning, and franchising. Primarily in Asia, institutions in Australia, the UK, and the US have developed numerous types of programs that target countries with high demand for first-degree or undergraduate-level education. Twinning programs both seek to closely link the curricula and teaching at an Australian, British, or American institution with a university in a developing country. The degree offered may bear the sanction of both institutions, but is designed for local students to obtain the Anglo-American-Australian degree. Some faculty from the lead institution may teach at the partner institution.

Franchising arrangements most often have commercial and revenue objectives of the lead partner. In theory, the Anglo-American-Australian University provides the curriculum, supervision of quality, and sanctions the degree. The local university delivers the instruction. This arrangement has been criticized as a purely commercial endeavor open to the abuse of standards and low-quality instruction.

Articulation agreements between universities are a vehicle for students to begin degree programs at their home university and transfer to a foreign, usually European, American, Canadian, or Australian university to complete the advanced stages of their degree.

5e. Research-intensive partnerships. Reflecting the high value placed on research and the creation of new knowledge, research-intensive universities often seek to establish partnerships abroad that advance key areas of research and scholarship. As might be expected given the decentralized and faculty-driven nature of the research enterprise, most of these partnerships are initiated

by faculty members and researchers who have developed relationships with foreign colleagues based on shared research interests and previous collaborations. Less often, research collaborations are orchestrated by university leadership in response to opportunities presented by foreign universities, governments, or research institutes. In these cases, the faculty remains central to the project and is typically involved in negotiations from the early stages of development.

Research partnerships in the biological sciences, mathematical and physical sciences, engineering, and health sciences are often the largest in scale and the most visible partnerships. Adequate external funding from government, foundations, and international agencies appears to facilitate partnerships in these subject areas. International research initiatives in the social sciences, humanities, and professional fields such as law, business, and education seem less visible but are no less numerous. Perhaps this is because they typically involve fewer faculty members, attract less interest and funding from governments, and can be controversial because of cultural, political, and methodological differences.

Motivations for research partnerships are multiple and vary considerably depending on the discipline, field of study, and prestige status of the partners. An analysis of global scientific collaboration produced by the Royal Society in the UK listed the following rationales viewed from a national policy perspective:

- Seeking excellence (leading scientists and scholars are part of a global network of individuals in numerous countries)
- The benefits of joint-authorship
- Capacity building through collaboration (aiding developing countries to participate in and contribute to scientific discovery)
- The geopolitical potential of scientific collaboration (meaning the benefits of building relationships and having communications with countries that are of strategic geopolitical value for national foreign policy concerns, e.g. Soviet Union during the cold war, Iran and other Middle East countries today) (The Royal Society 2011)

From an institutional perspective, other motivations that have been observed include:

- Obtaining financial resources (some partnerships are encouraged by attractive financing arrangements provided by national governments, industry, or international agencies)
- International visibility and branding
- Potential to recruit students and faculty
- To establish relations with a foreign university with which broader and deeper relations are desired in the future (The Royal Society Ibid)

Some examples of research partnerships include:

- Yale University, Peking-Yale Joint Center for Plant Molecular Genetics and Agro-biotechnology
- Delft University of Technology - Beijing Research Centre, Research in LED lighting
- Duke University, Medical research in Singapore
- Cambridge in India
- Technical University of Munich in Singapore (engineering)
- University College London in Qatar (Classics)
- Large-scale, multi-national, multi-university research projects in fields such as astronomy, physics, and epidemiology/public health

5f. Strategic alliances. Alliances can be thought of as partnerships that evolve into more strategic and intensive collaborations across a numerous activities or functions. Shared faculty, student mobility, shared alumni bases, joint courses and degrees, joint research, and a common branding or marketing strategy are common elements of a strategic alliance.

There are few examples of successful strategic alliances. This is probably due to the challenges of developing partnerships where the benefits of greater collaboration or integration outweigh the costs or risks of potential problems. Concerns about a weakening of institutional identity, legal issues such as intellectual property rights, financial regulations, liability problems and governance systems, alumni relations issues, faculty and staff compensation and benefits issues, etc. must be resolved. Differences in institutional traditions and culture are often the most difficult to overcome. For all of the allusions to the "global university" and emergence of a global market for higher education, universities are still firmly embedded in nation states, national cultures, and institutional traditions that retain significant influence over how and under what circumstances they can change and engage in relationships with institutions and nations outside their home base.

There are a few examples of successful partnerships that have grown in intensity and breadth and have sustained themselves over time sufficiently to be considered alliances. These alliances, however, are limited to one major field or to a set of mostly natural sciences and engineering disciplines:

- **INSEAD-Wharton Alliance**

Launched in 2001, the Alliance between the Wharton Business School at the University of Pennsylvania and INSEAD Business School in France and Singapore combines the resources of two world leaders in management education to deliver top-quality company-specific and open-enrolment programs to executives across four dedicated campuses: Inseam's in Fontainebleau (France), and Singapore and Wharton's US campuses in Philadelphia and San Francisco.

Renewed for a further four years in 2008, the Alliance is an opportunity for MBA and PhD students to study across three continents. It also brings together the large and active alumni communities of both schools. The INSEAD-Wharton Centre for Global Research & Education fosters deep collaborative relationships across the two schools and encourages exchange of faculty and doctoral students.⁴

- **Singapore-MIT Alliance (Agreement between MIT and the government of Singapore)**

MIT and its faculty have been engaged with Singapore for decades. The first large-scale institutional collaboration, the Singapore-MIT Alliance, was launched in 1997. Since then MIT and Singapore have engaged in on-going collaborations in research, education and innovation. The relationship has yielded hundreds of joint research publications, scores of joint research collaborations and curricular and research innovation at MIT and in Singapore. The following outlines a number of the joint projects that have come out of this alliance:

- Singapore-MIT Alliance. Founded in 1998, the Singapore-MIT Alliance is an innovative engineering and life science educational and research collaboration among three leading research universities in the world: the National University of Singapore (NUS), the Nanyang Technological University (NTU), and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT).
- Singapore-MIT GAMBIT Game Lab. The Singapore-MIT GAMBIT Game Lab, is a collaboration between the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the government of Singapore, was created to explore new directions for the development of games as a medium. GAMBIT sets itself apart by emphasizing the creation of video game prototypes to demonstrate our research as a complement to traditional academic publishing.
- Singapore-MIT Alliance for Research and Technology (SMART) Centre. The Singapore-MIT Alliance for Research and Technology (SMART) Centre is a major new research enterprise established by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in partnership with the National Research Foundation of Singapore (NRF). The SMART Centre serves as an intellectual hub for research interactions between MIT and Singapore at the frontiers of science and technology.
- Singapore University of Technology and Design Partnership. On January 25, 2010, MIT signed a formal agreement to help launch Singapore's new publicly funded university, Singapore University of Technology and Design (SUTD). MIT faculty will help develop new curricula and conduct major joint research projects, as well as assist with early deployment, mentoring, and career development programs. MIT President Susan Hockfield said of the collaboration, "It will give MIT new opportunities to push the boundaries of design research. MIT is fully committed to helping SUTD achieve its distinctive vision."⁵

5g. Branch campuses, satellite offices and "gateways." Another mode of engagement observed in the last ten years is the establishment of satellite operations abroad that often do not involve a close partnership with a local university.

In what have come to be called "branch campuses," universities deliver degree programs in another country where they establish instructional facilities, employ faculty, provide student services and housing, and recruit students for that site or campus (Lane and Kinser 2011). These projects are quite variable in size, degree level, and selectivity in admissions.

Surveys of branch campus activity indicate a growth in the number of branch campuses over time with a 2012 estimate showing around 200 such initiatives (OBHE 2012). Branch campuses are not distributed across a wide range of countries, but are concentrated in the Middle East and Asia and frequently in government-initiated higher education zones or hubs in places such as Singapore, the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Malaysia, South Korea, and China. Limited local provision of higher education combined with a variety of government incentives to attract Western universities to these countries probably explain why they are

concentrated in this manner. One survey reported that US institutions established 80 branch campuses (almost half of the total) with Australia having 13, the UK 18, France 12 and India 8 (C-Bert 2012).

There are many challenges to launching and sustaining an academic degree program or campus abroad (Edelstein and Douglass 2012). There have been a significant number of high profile failures due to problems such as insufficient student demand, the high cost of operations, or the difficulty of finding faculty willing to live abroad for significant periods of time. Concerns over academic freedom, limited freedom of expression, and cultural or religious differences regarding access for women and minority populations have also been problematic. Philip Altbach has written about these issues and believes that maintaining academic quality at the foreign site is a chief concern due to the scarcity of regular home-based faculty abroad and the inability to provide the same quality of education and students (2010).

Another approach to increased university activity and engagements abroad is to establish an office or center that serves as a base of operations for faculty and students doing research, for institutional relations with local universities, for study abroad programming and alumni outreach activities. The facility might also support some short courses, executive education programs, and other non-degree educational programming. In addition, the office or center can initiate marketing or public relations efforts to raise the visibility of the university in local markets for international student recruitment.

Some universities such as Ohio State University have established these offices or "gateways" in multiple strategic locations, such as China, Europe, Singapore, Hong Kong, South America, India, and the Middle East. Often costly to establish, satellite operations appear to be undertaken mostly by US-based private or large public research universities with adequate resources and local alumni who can assist with some logistical and administrative matters. Universities in other countries where national governments, university consortia, and publically supported education and cultural services have created satellite offices abroad, can often utilize these facilities for similar purposes. DAAD in Germany, the British Council in the UK and AEI IDP in Australia are examples of national organizations that can assist their universities in establishing relations abroad.

Cluster 6: Network Building

Building international and global networks is a major mechanism for individuals and universities to build relationships, gain access to information and resources and increase their engagement with individuals and institutions across the world. International networks exist at multiple levels of the university and across numerous domains of interest.

6a. Academic and scholarly networks. Faculty members and researchers have their own disciplinary associations, scholarly societies, and specialty groups that are increasingly international in membership and scope. Conferences, seminars, and meetings serve as key venues to communicate and publish academic work as well as develop and maintain networks and relationships that are crucial to success in one's field. These networks can also benefit the larger institution when efforts to engage with other institutions require personal contacts and access to the right individuals to explore institutional ties.

6b. Consortia. Increasingly, universities have created international consortia of institutions as a vehicle for building relationships with universities abroad, gaining access to information and markets, and helping to define their status or prestige level on a global scale. Each consortium has different requirements, ranging from a minimal commitment of funds or other resources to more intensive and focused on some set of objectives. The size of consortia varies considerably and the organizing themes and objectives also cover a broad range of unifying principles. Some are global in scope while others are regional in geographic focus. Some are united by common origins or religious affiliation such as the Catholic University consortia. Other consortia define themselves by their missions, such as research, teaching, or level of studies (undergraduate or post-graduate).

A common objective is to affiliate with other universities that share a similar level of prestige or status and with whom a common agenda can be established. Some consortia are more proactive in encouraging common projects and activities while others are limited to an annual meeting or forum where networking is the main objective. Examples of some well-known consortia of research universities include Universitas 21, The International Alliance of Research Universities, World Wide Universities Network, and the Global Liberal Arts Alliance. Regional Consortia are more numerous. For example, in Europe, consortia include The Maastricht Group, the League of European Research Universities, the Network of Universities of the Capitals of Europe, and COIMBRA. In Asia, consortia include the Association of Pacific Rim Universities, the ASEAN University Network and the Association of East Asian Research Universities. For a more complete list of consortia, an entry by moderator Christopher Olds in the blog Global HigherEd is a good source.⁶

Consortia appear to be complex and complicated to govern and benefits to members uncertain (Olds 2012, Beerkins and van der Wende 2007).

6c. Alumni networks. Increasingly, institutions are recognizing the value of building and sustaining strong relationships with international alumni who can be helpful in facilitating relationships with universities, governments, and businesses in their home countries. The creation of local alumni chapters in key countries and cities has the potential of aiding in the recruitment of students and faculty, gaining access to useful strategic information and contacts, and fund raising (Dobson 2011).

Cluster 7: Campus Culture, Ethos and Symbolic Actions

7a. An international ethos: changing campus culture. Institutional change is not limited to alterations of explicit policies, organizational structures, the curriculum, demography, or even geographic location. It also manifests itself in the less visible and more implicit characteristics of institutional culture, value systems, and institutional identity. Somehow in the daily conversations of faculty, students and staff, in classroom discussions, in research center activities, and in laboratory experiments, the reference points and contexts of learning become more international and focused on emerging global connections and networks. The boundaries of reflection and study move from the national to the transnational and global. The news and realities outside a country or region take on greater importance and significance. Relationships with individuals and institutions from other cultures and national origins become more salient and valued.

A helpful concept in framing the change in institutional culture is ethos. According to the Oxford Online Dictionary, ethos is: “the characteristic spirit of a culture, era, or community as manifested in its attitudes and aspirations”⁷ Colleges and universities, like many organizations and communities, have an ethos. This ethos reflects values, beliefs, traditions and ultimately behaviors that are distinctive and different than other similar institutions. The identity of the institution is closely tied to its ethos and any form of institutional change is logically reflected in the ethos.

Examples of activities that can create an international ethos include: the establishment of an international center or “international house” on campus that is a focal point for international student services, lectures, student activities, and cultural events; the existence of centers or institutes of research and teaching focused on transnational or global issues; the organization of campus-wide events, lectures, art exhibits, and cultural learning opportunities; the facilitation of opportunities to study or do research abroad; the utilization of alumni and faculty to bring to campus high-profile international leaders, scientists, and scholars from abroad; and the establishment of opportunities and incentives for the learning and practice of foreign languages, such as summer institutes and living arrangements that encourage the use of a foreign language.

7b. Engagement of university leaders. Conversations with senior administrators and faculty regarding institutional priorities and strategic issues will also provide a window into the local ethos. Presidents, Rectors, and Vice Chancellors play a significant role in helping create a campus culture and ethos of transnational and global knowledge, engagement, and relationships. Mission statements, the membership of governing boards, and advisory groups send a strong signal of the significance and relative priority of integrating an international dimension to university life. Meeting and travel agendas of leaders reflect something about the value attached to building relationships abroad and creating opportunities for engagement. Speeches, informal remarks, websites, and online media are opportunities for leaders to communicate with faculty, students, alumni, and communities abroad about the significance of transnational relationships and issues at the university.

Some leaders appoint a high level, visible individual to help lead and develop international initiatives. There are faculty and professionals with specialized knowledge and networks that can construct a campus infrastructure of databases, administrative and legal resources, and networking tools to support faculty, administrators and students in the creation and management of projects and programs.

In the end, an ethos is difficult to define or describe. Nonetheless, one can sense or feel whether or not international engagement is present.

B. INSTITUTIONAL LOGICS

Why do universities embark on new projects and activities that engage the institution outside of its national boundaries? What motivates individuals and their institutions to include transnational relations among their core strategic interests and concerns when considering the future path for success? Why are more foreign students and faculty recruited and why are curricula and research agendas more international and global in scope? These trends undoubtedly have multiple and complex causes. An exploration of possible logics and rationales may contribute to

INSTITUTIONAL LOGICS

- Pedagogical and Curricular
- Research, Data Access
- Network Development
- Competitive
- Market Access and Regional Integration
- Institution Building, Tech-Transfer, Development
- Revenue and Resources
- Social Responsibility
- National Security

an improved understanding of the forces stimulating institutional change.

1. Pedagogical and Curricular Logics

International activities that involve student learning and experience in collaboration with foreign partners commonly have curricular or pedagogical rationales. This is clearly true with dual, double, or joint degree programs, for example. They can also apply to efforts in individual courses or seminars to integrate peers in other countries through various learning technologies or through punctual meetings or events.

Creating more opportunities for learning in international contexts is, as noted above, a process of innovation that entails creating new pedagogical approaches in real time. This is what makes it interesting, but also costly in terms of faculty and staff time.

Mobility and exchange programs, as well as group study abroad, are perhaps the most common expressions of pedagogical and curricular logics that include international experience as a key element of learning. Some colleges and universities have set goals for increasing the number of students participating in mobility programs to recognize the pedagogical value of international experience in their curriculum. Cost, however, is a limiting factor as it is often more expensive to go abroad than to remain at home for study.

For advanced post-graduate students, the pedagogical issue is different and more individualized. Faculty member collaboration must be central to placements or projects of post-graduate students at a partner institution abroad. Issues of mentorship and research activity become crucial to integrating foreign experiences into the academic program.

2. Research, Data Access and Expertise Logics

As noted earlier, as research and discovery of new knowledge is a primary function of the university, there can be no boundaries or limits to where the scholar or scientist may find the natural, physical, human, social, or cultural phenomenon that they study. Certain disciplines, fields, and areas of study are especially dependent on collecting data, specimens, samples, and have direct access to natural and social/cultural sources to successfully pursue their research or inquiry. Epidemiology, anthropology, foreign language and culture, astronomy, biosciences, and environmental sciences are examples of disciplines requiring access to sources and data beyond national boundaries. It is increasingly difficult to identify any area of study that does not in some way require international if not global relationships and connections.

Establishment of relations between individual scholars and scientists in other countries has been a reality both informally and formally for generations. As institutions adopt more pro-active and formal policies and initiatives to establish connections abroad, the logic of research needs, data access, and research collaboration are often rationales for these initiatives. It is a compelling logic because it supports a fundamental mission of the university and is often led by faculty members and departments.

3. Network Development Logics

In many respects, the telecommunications and Internet revolution resulted from a logic of the power of networks. The notion that networks of many kinds, social, professional, institutional, and electronic can overcome geographic, cultural, time zone, and national boundaries underpins much of what constitutes the phenomenon of globalization. It is not surprising that institutions draw upon a network logic as a rationale for more international initiatives.

As noted above, in the discussion of network building and regional integration, institutional efforts to establish relations with universities abroad are often based on the logic of constructing a global network of partners that will somehow increase the probability that faculty, students, and alumni will have access to individuals and institutions in nations and regions that they may not otherwise obtain.

European universities have perhaps the most developed and sophisticated network structures and processes as a result of their geographic proximity and push for greater regional integration. Institutions in other nations and regions are increasingly active in network building because it has become such a fundamental element of organizational and professional life everywhere. This makes the network logic very flexible and adaptable to many contexts, objectives, and strategies. If there is no other logic or rationale for engagement across national borders, the assumed necessity of networking is often sufficient.

4. Competitive logics

Universities and other higher education institutions compete with each other in many ways. Competition for students, faculty, funding and the Holy Grail of prestige pervades institutional actions of all sorts. International initiatives necessarily include

competitive logics as well. Competitive logics underpin international activities that seek to gain access to new sources of students and faculty or offer alternative revenue sources. Universities always seek to have partnerships or agreements with foreign institutions that they believe have at least the same level of prestige or recognition as them. If a partnership can be developed with an institution of higher prestige, that is even better.

Marketing and branding logics are motivated by competition. Perhaps more prevalent in the US because the culture is permeated by philosophies and beliefs rooted in the supposed superiority of free market capitalism, universities have increasingly sophisticated communications, marketing, and public relations units that work to put every university initiative or action in the most positive light possible. The signing of an exchange agreement or collaboration with a foreign institution is always an opportunity to call a press conference and highlight the university's international focus and global connection. Little matter whether or not the agreement in question involves core activities and significant resources or simply the possibility of student or faculty exchange. In an increasingly globalized world, it is important to build an image or brand that somehow demonstrates relevance of teaching and learning and connections to international and global realities.

The race to become a "World Class University" has become commonplace as institutions, ministries, and whole governments decide that research excellence and Nobel prizes are the currency of success in the new information- and knowledge-based society. Major investments, motivated by economic competitiveness, are made in research, doctoral training, and the recruitment of talent from abroad (Altbach and Salmi 2011b).

5. Market Access and Regional Integration Logics

Recently, the Dean of Yale School of Management announced a new international strategy to create a network of partner business schools in countries with rapid economic growth and new business investments. These relationships, it is hoped, will provide opportunities for students and faculty to engage with their international counterparts to create professional networks that provide learning and research experiences as well as potential business opportunities in the future (Korn 2012).

The global economy is increasingly linked to emergent economies such as Brazil, Russia, India, and China (sometimes referred to as the "BRICs" in the US). It is not surprising that numerous universities in Europe and North America appear to have targeted these countries as high-priority locations for the development of relationships, activities, and programs. The logic seems to be that these countries will increasingly be influential in world affairs and, thus, establishing relations with local institutions and professional peers will create long-term benefits for attracting students and faculty as well as pursuing research agendas and fund raising opportunities.

In Europe, the Bologna reforms, and other initiatives that encourage greater integration of educational and research systems, stimulated the creation of numerous partnerships, alliances, consortia, and networks of universities between and among European institutions. Bologna's creation of common degree structures and common academic credit and records systems go a long way towards the creation of a region-wide education space that can contribute to the construction of the regional economy as well as political and social networks that cross national boundaries. Recent efforts to develop common quality, accreditation, qualification and professional licensing standards are also linked to a desire for further integration of national systems and the creation of greater mobility in labor markets. The logic of regional and transnational integration coming out of Bologna appears to underpin many of the international projects and initiatives of European universities across a broad range of countries.

Recent European Union investments and policies in support of the Erasmus Mundus Program recognize that relationships with nations in other world regions (especially those that are emerging as key potential trade partners in Asia, Latin America, and Africa) remain important as well. The complex global economy requires the parallel construction of regional and global networks and European institutions thus have multiple logics that can justify greater international engagements.

One can also observe regional and market access logics in other areas of the world. The Southeast Asian region has numerous regional cooperation regimes and associations that encourage varying degrees of collaboration and integration. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) created in 1967 has encouraged regional cooperation in the economic and political spheres, but has also encouraged a range of initiatives in the social and educational sectors. The ASEAN University Network (AUN) functions as a vehicle for inter-university collaboration and regional higher education integration. In addition to regular meetings of rectors of member universities, AUN has activities related to credit transfer regimes, quality assurance processes, and academic programs in Southeast Asian Studies. It also serves as coordinating body for mobility agreements and scholarships with countries and regions outside Southeast Asia (e.g., the Erasmus Mundus Program of the European Union and a Chinese government scholarship program).⁸

East Asia has significant student mobility in the region driven by geographic and cultural proximity. Increasingly, large numbers of students from Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan are attending universities in China and vice versa.

Australian universities are among the most active in recruiting international students from Asia and in establishing partnerships and satellite operations in the region. A regional and market access logic appears to underpin many Australian initiatives in the Asian Pacific region.

6. Institution Building, Technology Transfer, Development

A significant number of international projects at universities are related to efforts at helping less economically developed nations create or improve programs and practices and enable institutions to contribute to economic and social development in their countries. Government agencies responsible for foreign assistance and some philanthropic foundations contract with universities to undertake "capacity building," joint research, and training activities in places like Africa, Latin America, and South and Southeast Asia. Agriculture, health, and education sectors are often the focus of such projects. Institutions can utilize these institution-building and technology-transfer projects as vehicles for building partnerships and opportunities for teaching and research activity abroad. The issue of who benefits more from these endeavors remains an open question because host country institutions have historically suffered from "brain drain" and a lack of sufficient resources to sustain activities over time (Altbach 1971, 2012a).

7. Revenue/Resource Driven Logics

As the demand for higher education, advanced research capacity, and elite university status increases globally, the relative scarcity of student places, talented researchers and scholars, and prestigious institutions increases the monetary and financial value of whatever services that leading universities are able to offer or provide. At least this is perspective of economists and businesspeople. It is also a view held by many governments and national policymakers.

Increasingly, it appears that universities are adopting logics for international/global projects that are pecuniary in nature. Obtaining new sources of revenue has become a major motivation for seeking international relationships and the recruitment of students and faculty from abroad. The rapidly growing market of international students during the past decade combined with decreasing government funding for higher education in numerous countries has led to aggressive policies of international recruitment by institutions in Australia, the UK, and New Zealand. Continued growth in demand for places in universities and colleges from abroad is leading more and more institutions to launch efforts to increase the number of foreign students who typically pay higher fees than their local counterparts. Canada, China, New Zealand, Japan, France, Spain, the Netherlands, and South Africa have succeeded in attracting rapidly increasing numbers of foreign students, often with strong support from government agencies.

Fee-paying degree students are not the only opportunity for sources of revenue from abroad. Institutions in the US and Europe recognized for their research achievements and capacity have increasingly negotiated agreements with national governments in Southeast Asia and the Middle East to fund major scientific research projects and to assist in the creation of local research capacity by assisting in the development of new research-oriented universities or advanced research centers. Some prestigious institutions have agreed to create degree programs based in a host country in return for what appear to be significant investments or donations to university endowments.⁹

It should not be assumed that the generation of revenue is the sole motivation for these endeavors. Even those projects that have large financial inducements are also justified as being useful vehicles for international exchanges of students and faculty, contributing to curricular or pedagogical improvement or the creation of research opportunities. Financial incentives are, nonetheless, common rationales for the growing number of colleges and universities, many with diminishing or constrained funding.

8. Social Responsibility Logics

Some international activity at institutions of higher education is motivated by students and faculty who want to assist individuals and communities in poor countries by volunteering time, labor, and knowledge. These activities may or may not be part of the formal curriculum and are often funded by outside organizations such as NGOs, foundations, and individual donors.

Students volunteer time, labor, and expertise to individuals and communities by providing services such as improving water quality or constructing or maintaining schools, hospitals, and housing units. Some universities in the US have faculty and students engaged with "social entrepreneurship" activities. The idea is to use some basic business and organizational techniques and an entrepreneurial or new business philosophy to assist NGOs and community-based social or health-service organizations to become more effective and efficient and able to generate revenue to support their activities.¹⁰

The *Talloires Network* is an example of an international network of universities with a shared interest in “civic or community engagement.”¹¹ It sponsors conferences, a newsletter, and information sharing on different program models that provide opportunities for students to become involved in communities locally, nationally, and internationally.

9. National Security Logics

In the US, some universities receive research funds and post-graduate student fellowships from the government to support the study of languages and societies that are viewed as important to national security. Most often these are “not commonly taught” languages and countries located in regions where there is the potential for conflict.

Some government funding for research with international partners in areas such as computer science and engineering are also justified on national security grounds. Although some institutions and individuals may not support the idea of a university assisting the government on issues related to national security, these funds have sometimes been used to support the broader international engagement of the institution.¹²

National security logics do not appear to be very common outside the US, though one might argue that there is some correlation between the size of national security budgets and the likelihood that some state funding of international initiatives is linked to security logics. In countries such as China, Israel, India, Brazil, United Kingdom, France, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Malaysia, and Indonesia with sizable defense budgets, one might suspect that national security logics are part of the rationale for investing in research and projects focused on global and international issues and relations.

C. CONCLUSION

As international engagement has become more central to the life and success of the university, we must expand our knowledge on the range and variety of these engagements, how and why institutions make the choices they do, and determine the patterns of success and failure. While universities have long been active internationally, many recent initiatives are relatively untried and extremely entrepreneurial. As discussed here, internationalization intersects with many strategic and core issues faced by higher education institutions everywhere.

This paper developed a framework for reflection upon an analysis of institutional behavior. As noted, it is focused on the individual institution. Using the concepts of *cluster of activity*, *mode of engagement*, and *institutional logic*, we attempted to provide a useful analytical tool for describing the range of actions and behaviors related to international initiatives undertaken by universities and other higher education institutions. Hopefully, it will stimulate debate and discussion about how we can better observe, describe, and analyze the institutional behavior of universities in ways that are meaningful for scholars as well as practitioners.

It is important to look at the broader literature on higher education as well as the social sciences and the humanities for inspiration on how to conceptualize our research and to recognize that international and global realities have become a core strategic concern of the university. Rather than being a social movement that exists at the margins of the institution, international engagement, transnational systems, and global perspectives are now seen as crucial to institutional survival and future success. Connecting our research on the international dimension to broader institutional issues and a less narrowly defined scholarly domain will make it more relevant, intellectually rich, and insightful.

In the final analysis, the international initiatives of higher education institutions are best understood as part of a larger process of institutional change driven by multiple pressures and tensions to adapt to the changing economic, political, and social conditions affecting them. Much of the research on internationalization and comparative education analyzes regional and national policies and problems. Analysis at the institutional level is less common and perhaps more challenging given problems related to access to data and issues of confidentiality. Nonetheless, it is at the institutional level that we can obtain some of the most powerful insights into the organizational impacts, governance issues, and effects on teaching and research inherent in the growth of these activities.

ENDNOTES

¹ Originally taxonomy referred only to the classifying of organisms (now sometimes known as alpha taxonomy) or a particular classification of organisms. It is also used to refer a classification of things or concepts, as well as to the principles underlying such a classification. The American Heritage Dictionary online defines Taxonomy as follows: 1. The classification and naming of organisms in an ordered system that is intended to indicate natural relationships, especially evolutionary relationships. 2. The science, laws, or principles of classification. 3. An ordered arrangement of groups or categories: a taxonomy of literary genres.

² See, for example, Altbach and Salmi 2011.

³ One of the authors attended a conference sponsored by the National Science Foundation at the University of Minnesota that addressed the issue transnational research practices. Many of the presenters were from fields such as public health, medicine and the physical and biological sciences whose research depended upon access to data, facilities and research subjects in other countries. Rather elaborate protocols and institutional relationships were reported to be central to the success of research in these fields.

⁴ See http://about.insead.edu/partnerships/wharton_alliance.cfm

⁵ See <http://global.mit.edu/index.php/initiatives/singapore/projects/>

⁶ See <http://globalhighered.wordpress.com/2012/05/17/international-consortia-of-universities/>

⁷ See <http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/ethos?view=uk>

⁸ See <http://www.aun-sec.org/>

⁹ Although institutions attempt to keep detailed information about agreements with foreign governments and agencies confidential, there is sufficient information, often obtained from individual faculty and administrators involved with the negotiations, that strongly suggests sizeable financial donations are included as necessary precursors to launching a project or program. One of the authors has spoken with faculty members at two leading US universities with major engagements abroad who have reported that financial inducements were a critical element in eventual agreements to undertake international initiatives.

¹⁰ See Skoll Foundation <http://www.skollfoundation.org/>

¹¹ See <http://talloiresnetwork.tufts.edu/>

¹² The National Security Education Program (NSEP) in the US is one example of this phenomenon.

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