University of South Dakota

USD RED

2023

Toward a Typology of Internationalization Strategy: The Intersection of External Environments with Universities' Structures and Cultures

Eric D. Leise
University of South Dakota

TOWARD A TYPOLOGY OF INTERNATIONALIZATION STRATEGY: THE INTERSECTION OF EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS WITH UNIVERSITIES' STRUCTURES AND CULTURES

By

Eric D. Leise

B.A., University of California, Los Angeles, 2005
M.A., Georgetown University, 2008

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education
_____

Division of Educational Leadership

Educational Administration Program Adult and Higher Education
In the Graduate School
The University of South Dakota
December 2023

The members of the Committee appointed to examine
the thesis/dissertation of Eric Leise find it
satisfactory and recommend that is be accepted.

Dr. Mejai Bola Mike Avoseh, Chairperson

i

ABSTRACT

   This study explored the influence institutional cultures and structures have on a university's internationalization strategy. It also accounted for the roles external forces, such as government policies and geopolitics, play in shaping internationalization strategies. The comparative case study between the United States, England, and Sweden were situated within the contextual framework of comprehensive internationalization developed by the American Council on Education (ACE) and German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD). Applying neoinstitutionalist theory of isomorphism, the case study revealed three typologies of internationalization strategies: idealist, realist, and pragmatist. The study's findings provide scholars and practitioners with new tools and insights to right-size an institution's internationalization strategy based on internal structures and cultures, as well as its external environment.

Dissertation Advisor

DocuSigned by:

Mejai Bola Mike Avoseh

C2A395A44C93465

Dr. Mejai Bola Mike Avoseh

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1

Introduction

This study aimed to understand the factors that shape how an institution defines its internationalization strategy by considering the interplay between institutional cultures and structures and external influences. These influences are complex and ever-changing, reflective of the shifts in the field of international education since 2000. The events of 9/11 in 2001, which brought world travel to an abrupt, albeit temporary halt, altered the landscape of cultural and academic exchange at universities across the United States. Reflecting what has been described as institutional responses to forces of an ever-increasing interconnected world (Knight, 2004; Leask & de Gayardon, 2021), internationalization in the United States during the 2000s saw institutions undergoing processes of professionalizing international education operations to limit their liability exposure when students, faculty, staff, and community members traveled under their direction (American Council on Education [ACE], 2012; Green et al., 2008). As the pain of 9/11 diminished later in the 2000s, a renewed focus on the importance of educating a globally minded citizenry able to speak foreign languages and understand different cultures emerged (United States Senate, 2008). At the same time, the number of international students studying in the United States grew from some 600,000 to more than 800,000, a percentage increase roughly equivalent to the growth that took place over the two previous decades combined (Institute for International Education [IIE], 2020). Scholars noted similar upward trends in student mobility in all corners of the world over the same period (Brandenburg et al., 2020). This expansion ebbed during the Great Recession beginning in 2008.

The urgency for higher education institutions (HEIs) to engage globally remained a centerpiece of many universities' strategic plans and missions but the economic downturn exerted pressure on HEIs' bottom lines as public funding decreased, forcing institutions to source

new revenue (ACE, 2012). The Obama administration supported efforts to increase numbers of international students studying in the United States, while at the same time the administration offered significant grant funding for universities to expand their capacity to deliver opportunities for more students from the United States to undertake studies abroad. IIE's Generation Study Abroad initiative grew from such government initiatives, as did focus on efforts to open access and diversify the demographics of students who were afforded opportunities to take part in high impact practices, including study abroad (Kuh, 2008). While the Great Recession posed significant challenges to HEIs in the United States and across the world, the recession also ushered in an era of sustained growth in internationalization activities the world over (ACE, 2021; Brandenburg et al., 2020; Helms et al., 2017; Hudzik, 2011).

The interim years of growth gave way to the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, which laid bare the realities of the interconnected, globalized world, especially in the higher education sector (Leask & Gayardon, 2021; de Wit, 2021). The field of international education confronted multiple crises during the pandemic as shuttered national borders prohibited the movement of people around the world. Staff were laid off in droves, students were stranded around the globe, classrooms were closed or went virtual, and national visa regimes ceased operations with little certainty if or when a *new normal* would emerge, and if it did, what the *new normal* would mean for international education (Craciun et al., 2022; Fischer, 2020; MacGregor, 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic occurred against the backdrop of increasing awareness in the field of international education, in which global travel played a central role, about its contributing role in climate change, raising questions about the future appeal of transnational mobility (Redden, 2019). Just as the COVID-19 pandemic raised fundamental questions about the very existence of

international education, so too has climate change. After nearly two decades of sustained growth, to say international education was facing an uncertain future was an understatement.

One might contend that the dual threat of the COVID-19 pandemic and global climate change would alter in fundamental ways not just the internationalization of higher education, but of the entire premise of global economic, political, social, and cultural interconnectivity. Will we retreat to our local communities and reify national boundaries as defenses against the prospect of future pandemics, forced migration due to a changing climate, exposure to global economic upheaval, and social unrest or even war? The experience of the Russian invasion of Ukraine put all these questions into play as the world's societies struggled to define a *new normal* following the pandemic. Whatever *new normal* emerges, the endeavor of internationalizing higher education would necessarily be affected.

Purpose of the Study

This dissertation added to the literature on the internationalization of higher education by explaining the impact a university's structural and cultural environment has on development and characteristics of universities' internationalization agendas. It also considered the role external influences, such as government policies, normative best practices, and geopolitics, had on universities' approaches to internationalization. Using comparative case studies, this dissertation illuminated the role different national social, political, and economic contexts had in determining a university's approach to internationalization. Together, the study offered a systems-level approach to understanding the shape and contours internationalization agendas take in different environments, providing a framework for future scholars and practitioners seeking to describe and more fully understand the trajectory of the internationalization of higher education.

An additional contribution of this dissertation was the application of the American Council of Education (ACE) *Model of Comprehensive Internationalization* and the German Academic Exchange Service's (DAAD) emergent framework on *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* (IHES) as analytical frameworks to assess, understand, or evaluate universities' internationalization efforts. With the exception of a recent study by Mace and Pearl (2021), which sought to validate ACE's rubric on comprehensive internationalization, few studies explicitly employed either of ACE's or DAAD's models in an analysis of universities' internationalization strategies.

Research Questions

Discovering explanations about how and why higher education internationalization strategies emerged and assumed the characteristics they did required that we understand the factors affecting how institutions set out to internationalize. Doing so through a comparative lens adds further tenacity to these explanations as it allows for me to introduce contextual variables across different regional geopolitical and economic arenas, national political environments, and localized realities. To capture these differences, this study addressed the following questions through comparative case studies:

1. What model(s) of internationalization emerge in a university's internationalization strategy, and why?

2. How do organizational structures and cultures inform an institution's internationalization strategy?

3. How does a university perceive and address challenges and opportunities within an internationalization strategy?

Significance of the Study

This study aimed to explore individual institutions' experiences with internationalization to extrapolate new insights into both convergence and divergence in efforts to internationalize higher education. The observations obtained through the comparative case studies were explained through neoinstitutionalist theories that captured effects of global and local impacts on a university's efforts at internationalization. Additionally, analyzing the study's data using the established ACE's *Model of Comprehensive Internationalization* alongside DAAD's *IHES* approach provided practitioners evidence-based tools when (re)developing an internationalization strategy. The culmination of the study's findings and analysis also provided the foundation for future comparative research on how different political, economic, and social contexts and institutional structures and cultures can be accounted for a given university's internationalization strategy.

Definitions of Terms

The study's central concepts are internationalization, structures, and cultures. These terms do not lend themselves to easy definitions, agreed upon by all. Despite the complexity of defining these terms, overarching understandings emerged in the literature. Internationalization, internationalization strategy, and internationalization agendas, which are used interchangeably in this dissertation, are defined according to Hudzik's (2011) conceptualization of comprehensive internationalization, which has been employed broadly in the literature. Hudzik (2011) defined internationalization as:

> A commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise.

It is essential that is be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty,

students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not

just a desirable possibility. (p. 10)

This definition of internationalization was useful for this study because it incorporates notions of

institutional structures and cultures. Institutional structures compromised leadership and

governance, as well as "rules, roles, policies and procedures that channel resources and human

talents into activities that support campus goals" (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 47). Cultures

included ethos and values, which comprise an institution's symbolic artifacts like myths, rituals,

and ceremonies (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). The symbolic nature of culture served to make and

convey meaning, as well as to influence associations and meanings through invoking emotion

(Bolman & Gallos, 2011). A result of this emotional association, institutional cultures also lead

to a sense of belonging, demarcating in and out groups.

Limitations

Exploratory, comparative case studies are descriptive and not always generalizable.

However, as Yin (2018) explained, case studies, like physical experiments, were useful for

generalizing theoretical propositions as opposed to an entire population (i.e., universities). This

points to the fact any single study on a phenomenon is not generalizable by itself. Through the

advancement of theoretical proposition case studies, just as any other research, become

generalizable to the phenomenon under consideration as scholarship on the phenomenon

continues.

An additional limitation of this study was the number and types of higher education

institutions and variations across countries. This study included universities in the United States,

England, and Sweden, each of which has its own higher education ecosystem. Hence, this limits

the ability to generalize any single case to the population of universities in each country or across countries. The comparative approach, however, allowed for triangulation of the data with neoinstitutionalist theory and the ACE and DAAD frameworks, which created the foundation on which future studies can build and advance our understanding of both the convergence and divergence of internationalization strategies in different contexts.

Organization of the Study

The study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one introduced the study's purpose, questions, significance, definition of terms, and limitations. Chapter two situated the internationalization of higher education through a literature review, which applied a neoinstitutional theoretical framework to the broader context of the international higher education landscape. Chapter three presented the study's methodology, analytical tools, and data collection process. Chapter four presented the study's findings and analysis. Lastly, chapter five presented an abridged version of chapters one through five to present a draft journal article intended for publication.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Scholarship on the internationalization of higher education tended toward prescriptive instead of descriptive forays into understanding internationalization efforts. Because of the focus on prescriptions and outcomes, the literature casted internationalization as a process and a response to broader economic, social, and political forces as opposed to being a matter of transformational institutional change (Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012; Leask & de Gayardon, 2021). The prescriptive, process orientation of the research also often left out explicit theoretical frameworks to guide the work. Instead, there is a reliance on analytical models, measurements, and tools. This was not surprising given the scholarship's underlying preoccupation on the myths or taken-for-granted systems of beliefs about how practitioners and scholars saw the world expressed in the various prescriptions about internationalizing higher education (Brandenburg et al., 2020).

The purpose of this study was to explore the factors determining why and how an institution developed a particular internationalization strategy or agenda. To accomplish this, it took a systems-level or neoinstitutionalist theoretical approach, which accounted for multiple levels and types of factors. The literature review first introduces the defining framework of neoinstitutionalism. It then applies this framework to the modern context of higher education through exploring processes of stratification, marketization, and massification. I apply the specific instance of internationalization of higher education within each of these areas. The literature review concludes with a discussion about where this study's analytical models fit within the scholarship.

Institutionalism

The Modern Context of Higher Education

Higher education's role in shaping national economies, cultures, and sociopolitical landscapes should make it unsurprising that the evolution of higher education tracked changes in global social, economic, and political dynamics (Al-Haija & Mahamid, 2021; Devlin, 1999; Eggins et al., 2021; Schuller, 1995; Van der Wende, 2001). Within the scholarship on the changing context of higher education one identified three distinct eras of higher education: the liberal arts tradition established by the *Yale Report of 1828* (Herbst, 2004), the post-war, reconstruction era from the 1950s through the 1980s (Wagner, 1995), and the neoliberal, post-Cold War era (Al-Haija & Mahamid, 2021; De Wit & Altbach, 2021; Devlin, 1999; Eggins et al., 2021; Hansmann, 1999). This study's focus on the internationalization of higher education considered the context that emerged in the 1980s and continued through the present time (early 2020s). The study also recognized the challenges and opportunities confronting HEIs today, in the 2020s, were not the same as even a decade ago not least because of rapid technological innovation, the COVID-19 pandemic, and re-emergence of nationalist politics (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Eggins et al., 2021). Still, the shifting landscapes to which HEIs are forced to respond and adapt remain anchored within the neoliberal era that emerged in the 1980s, which acted as a coercive force of both homogenization and differentiation.

Several common threads emerged in the scholarship dating back to the mid-1990s, characterizing the broader adaptations HEIs have made or are making since the dawn of the neoliberal era. These included stratification, marketization, and massification (Devlin, 1999; Eggins et al., 2021; Hansmann, 1999). Each of these contextual components not only intersect one another, but they also cross into the internationalization of higher education because each

component links back to global socioeconomic and political shifts that emerged in the post-Cold War, neoliberal era. Each also can be examined through the lens of mimetic, coercive, and normative shifts in the higher education landscape over time.

Stratification

Scholarship in the 1990s observed a trend toward the stratification of both students and institutions across the world (Devlin, 1999; Hansmann, 1999; Schuller, 1995). As a concept, stratification explained the role higher education played in sorting people in society, as well as processes to categorize, or rank, universities and demarcate entry barriers into the higher education sector (Schuller, 1995). The emergence of neoliberal economic policies in the 1980s challenged how scholars understood the role of higher education because it rearranged post-secondary education from a public to a private good (Al-Haija & Mahamid, 2021; Eggins et al., 2021; Holst, 2006; Schied, 2006). Devlin (1999) observed assumptions of stratification were based on the idea that "students learn better in the company of stronger students than with weaker ones," which drives admissions policies and institutional selectivity (p. 4). This view of students as peers in the learning process provided justification for sorting them into their peer groups through the university admissions process (Devlin, 1999; Goethals et al., 1999). Since that observation, university admissions and selection processes evolved from test- or standards-based to a more holistic approach in attempts to affect and improve access (Bastedo, 2021). The evolution of admissions as a sorting mechanism reflected a normative shift in how universities evaluated applications for admissions (Bastedo, 2021). The reasoning behind this shift is explored further in the discussion of the *marketization* of higher education.

Recent scholarship understood the phenomenon of student stratification as a reflection of the higher education sector being differentiated by elite versus non-elite and research versus

polytechnic or applied universities (Eggins et al., 2021; de Wit & Altbach, 2021). In

institutionalist terms, this process of stratification is explained, on the one hand, through mimetic

homogenization where universities are stratified based upon classification or rank. On the other

hand, it is also a normative process where universities of the same classification share a set of

values and understandings based on where they fit into the higher education ecosystem. Eggins

et al., (2021) asserted this growing differentiation within global higher education systems "means

stratification of the academic profession, student body, graduate degrees and value placed on

research" (p. 10). The *adjuctification* of faculty highlights the shifting value HEIs place on

research and the profession, exemplified by the growing number of contingent instead of tenured

or tenure-track faculty as a "response to the need for universities to attain high academic

rankings to better compete for contracts and students," while minimizing their bottom lines as

governments reduced funding for higher education (Stromquist, 2021, p. 22). The complex,

interrelated processes of stratification within the student body and faculty and amongst

universities illustrate the contravening effects of coercive shifts in the policy environment with

the advent of neoliberalism, mimetic convergence around rearranged classifications of

universities, and normative heterogeneity in how universities responded to these new

institutional self-understandings.

Competing processes of stratification also explained the rapid growth of student mobility

across national borders, as well as shifting attitudes toward the idea of internationalizing higher

education (Eggins et al., 2021; de Wit & Altbach, 2021). The role of university rankings takes on

special importance within the internationalization of higher education. For example, ranking

regimes like QS (now part of UK-based *Times Higher Education*) identified the *haves* and *have-*

nots among HEIs with overall favor going to those in the Global North, or those developed

economies most of which existed in the northern hemisphere, versus the Global South, or developing economies primarily found in the southern hemisphere (Al-Haija & Magamid, 2021; Jones et al., 2021). These ranking systems considered institutional level factors such as total grant dollars raised, admissions selectivity, and research activity and impact, which in effect embedded competition for fiscal and human resources within missions of HEIs around the world as they sought to raise their prestige through global rankings (Al-Haija & Magamid, 2021; Stromquist, 2021). From the perspective of the internationalization of higher education, competition for resources among HEIs in the Global North and Global South stratifies and differentiates institutions according to global market forces. In this scenario, HEIs in the Global North continue to dominate, while those in the Global South struggle to compete, creating mimetic and normative pressures for the Global South to converge with HEIs of the Global North's *modus operandi*. The mimetic and normative pressure to converge further extends neoliberalism's coercive isomorphic effects between and amongst universities in the Global North and South.

One example of this convergence is the rise of Malaysia as a study destination. Through the government's *Malaysia Education* project, Malaysian universities recruited students from around the world to dual-degree or 2+2 schemes, which provided the opportunity to earn a degree by splitting time studying at a Malaysian institution then transferring to complete a degree elsewhere, usually in the United States, Europe, or Oceana (Robertson, 2008). After the Malay government updated their national education policy in the mid-2000s to encourage dual-degree programs and partnerships with the goal of attracting top students from around the world, the numbers of students flowing into the country increased multiple folds in just a few years (Robertson, 2008). This effort, which by all accounts realized much success in the last decade,

attributed the increase in the number of students studying in Malaysia to the country's branding

efforts under the moniker *Malaysia Education*, recognizing, "Branding has emerged as an

important strategy for governments seeking to strategically develop their higher education

markets" (Robertson, 2008, para. 6). Further, the success of such efforts required "finding a

combination of distinctive elements that enable the country or region to position themselves in

relation to the competition" (Robertson, 2008, para. 7).

On the one hand, this example demonstrates the importance of the higher education

sector to a national economy's ability to compete on a global stage. On the other hand, it

illustrates how neoliberal market forces required HEIs the world over to adopt market strategies

to become competitive in attracting fiscal and human resources from beyond their own national

boundaries. Those able to compete in the global higher education marketplace, like Malaysia,

benefited through increased global recognition and visibility, enabling them to garner more

resources. Malaysia exemplifies the intersection of stratification amongst HEIs in the Global

North and South with global forces of higher education marketization, which together create a

competitive environment where HEIs experience mimetic and normative pressure to converge.

The effect is increasing marketization of higher education around the world.

Marketization

Just as the dawn of neoliberalism changed the way higher education stratified society and

vice versa, it also fundamentally altered the monetary landscape of how universities functioned

(Al-Haija & Mahamid, 2021; Eggins et al., 2021; Teixeira, 2021). Teixeira (2021) explained this

change in terms of pressures on HEIs to be more efficient and accountable in an environment of

resource scarcity and increased competition. While not neoliberal in name, the drive toward

efficiency, outcomes, accountability, and more private (e.g., corporate partnerships) or

competitive public funding mechanisms (e.g., grants) reflected many of the same trends witnessed over the last several decades in both the public and private sectors (Teixeira, 2021). Teixeira (2021) summarized this change as the corporatization of higher education, which culminated in the proliferation of performance-based funding models reflective of a market-based approach to ensuring quality and accountability.

Despite the convergence around performance-based funding, the global funding landscape remains heterogenous, indicative of a particular HEI's funding model resulting from mimetic and normative forces. In the United States, where higher education was funded and overseen at the state, not federal level, the heterogeneity in specific funding model across types of institutions was vast (Teixeira, 2021). This contrasts with countries where higher education is funded through the national government, as in most of continental Europe, or where there is comprehensive national policy, as in India. In such cases, the coercive force of national policies and platforms drives greater homogeneity in HEI funding models.

The global, comparative perspective revealed a great amount of heterogeneity in higher education funding, which reflected the rapid growth of higher education systems around the world since the end of the last century (Eggins et al., 2021; Teixeira, 2021). While this growth opened access and altered processes of stratification, it also supported a more competitive environment within the higher education sector (Al-Haija & Magamid, 2021; de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Devins, 1999; Schuller, 1995; Stromquist, 2021). University ranking regimes are a case in a point. Stromquist (2021) discussed HEIs' drive toward higher rankings "to better compete with other institutions" (p. 22), while Al-Haija and Magamid (2021) demonstrated how the rankings company, QS, supported neoliberal goals of "employing and privatizing universities to serve economic competition and technological developments" (p. 20). These observations pointed to

the intersection between stratification and marketization within the HEI sector, whereby higher ranked HEIs garnered more resources than lower ranked ones (Stromquist, 2021). The forces of marketization created a cycle of stratification based on a market-based funding model amongst the *haves* and *have-nots*. The result was, on the one hand, a homogenization of HEIs around a market-based approach to education through normative and mimetic forces of global competition. On the other hand, across countries and local contexts a great amount of heterogeneity persisted in terms of a specific HEIs funding model because of varying coercive national landscapes.

The environment of increased competition for fewer resources forced HEIs to look for external sources of financial support (Al-Haija & Magamid, 2021; Eggins et al., 2021; Stromquist, 2021; Teixeira, 2021; van der Wende, 2001). Perhaps, it was no coincidence that focus on attracting full fee-paying students from abroad (international students) took on greater importance throughout the 1990s into the 2000s and beyond, especially in Europe and the United States (ACE, 2012; de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Green et al., 2008; Helms et al., 2017; Siaya & Hayward, 2003). The emergence of normative pressures to recruit international students to cushion the bottom line led governments in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Australia to improve student visa conditions by attaching work permissions to visas, pathways to residency or citizenship, and better benefits for the student's accompanying family. National efforts to change student visa regimes to be more competitive exemplified a supranational coercive force in response to a normative shift aimed at better positioning a country's HEIs to compete for international student talent.

That the United States emerged from these changes as the winner was evidenced by decades-long increases of the number of international students studying at American HEIs (IIE,

2020). However, this is not only attributable to outcompeting based on student visa regulations. The external factors influencing the internationalization of higher education in the United States reinforced many of the same marketization phenomena seen across the global HEI sector. These external actors supported the cause of internationalization within the United States by gathering and disseminating data, supporting targeted grant opportunities, and consulting with HEIs on their internationalization strategies, among other activities. The five-year survey of higher education internationalization in the United States conducted by ACE celebrates the achievements of American HEIs in terms of funding and committing resources toward the endeavor. IIE's annual *Open Doors* reports spotlights, among other data, international student enrollment numbers at HEIs in the United States. Similarly, the preeminent professional association for international education, NAFSA, touted the economic contributions international students made to the national economy, which reached into multiple billions of dollars annually (Fischer & Aslanian, 2021). These examples provide further explanation as to how HEIs have converged through external normative and mimetic influences in their reliance on a market-based approach to internationalization as a means of generating revenue.

Massification

Expanding access to higher education to serve changing market demands led to the proliferation of new universities, regional convergence, and market-based tactics to educate an increasing global population (Eggins et al., 2021; de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Teixeira, 2021; van der Wende, 2001). Several studies on the expansion of higher education around the world noted the growth of the American market from around 3,000 to more than 4,000 accredited HEIs since the 1990s, while similar expansions were observed in countries throughout the developed and developing world (Teixeira, 2021). Several scholars also explained the expansion of the higher

education sector in terms of growing populations in the Global South (i.e., the need to educate a growing youth population), as well as increased attention on recruiting students to support enrollment and revenue growth in the Global North (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Teixeira, 2021).

The aforementioned studies reveal the intersection of stratification, marketization and massification in higher education. One might describe this as: rankings (stratification) drive enrollment (marketization), which provides the revenue to allocate more resources into expansion (massification). Still, features of massification varied by regions of the world (Teixeira, 2021). In the United States, massification is witnessed through normative variables such as national efforts to push access through competition. HEIs in the United States responded to this pressure by investing in the student experience with new residence halls and wellness facilities, conversion to Division I athletics, and state-of-the art classrooms (Thelin, 2017). In Europe, massification revealed itself through the Bologna Process, which created a European-wide higher education system, but which remained controlled by the nation states (Brandenburg et al., 2020; Teixeira, 2021). The ERASMUS program, which grew out of the Bologna process, deconstructed national boundaries to mobility allowing for an ever-greater number of students to study outside their home countries (Brandenburg et al., 2020; Teixeira, 2021). In more recent years, countries of East Asia, especially China, invested billions to stand-up new HEIs, advance research and development, and attract students from other countries in the region (Fischer & Aslanian, 2021). All examples point to the intersection of increased competition within or across national borders with the need to expand enrollment and generate new sources of revenue, reflecting similar trends of normative and mimetic convergence witnessed in the United States.

Placing HEIs within the global context of competition explains the rapid increase in international student enrollments in the United State since the 1990s. While the growth was seen

in other English-speaking regions of the world, the United States had a long tradition of attracting students from abroad (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Fischer & Alsanian, 2021; Knight, 2004). Whereas in the decades prior to the 1990s, foreign students sought education in the United States as a research sojourn of sorts, in more recent decades, they came to the United States due to lack of opportunity to access education at home and to enjoy the benefits of earning American degrees (de Witt, 2002; Fischer & Alsanian, 2021). The growing demand by students outside the United Stated for an American higher education emerged as one anecdote to decreasing public funding for HEIs in the 2000s, especially after the 2008 Great Recession, because of the additional revenue these students brought (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Teixeira, 2021). The confluence of demand and supply during the 2000s and into the 2010s ensured the United States remained the number one destination for international students.

Not all universities responded or benefited the same, however. American universities with high visibility and global rankings were particularly appealing in China—the top supplier of international students to the United States through the late 2010s, and they thus benefited the greatest by increased enrollment (Fischer & Alsanian, 2021). These universities concentrated in the coastal states and were amongst the most recognizable universities within the central United States (IIE, 2020). According to data presented in IIE *Open Doors*' annual reports, middle and lower tier universities saw increased enrollment across their ranking levels, but the density of this effect was quite dissimilar based on individual rankings (IIE, 2020). ACE's project in mapping internationalization found similar patterns of response to the international student market. Top research institutions dedicated far greater resources in absolute terms toward efforts of internationalization and international recruitment than lower tiered universities (ACE, 2012; Helms et al., 2017). Still, more well-known research institutions tended not to have single offices

committed to international programs or commit as high a percentage of resources toward recruitment of international students as compared to lower-tiered HEIs (ACE, 2012; Helms et al., 2017). One can interpret this data in terms of competition for students. The more recognizable the institution is, the less they need to invest in recruitment because they are a known entity. The opposite is true of the lesser known HEIs.

The above examples illustrate the confluence of stratification (rankings), marketization (revenue), and massification (enrollment/access) within processes of internationalizing HEIs. They also highlight persistent heterogeneity amongst and across HEIs' internationalization agendas and strategies based on different sets of norms and internal and external forces by type, rank, or level of an institution. The heterogeneity across HEIs in the United States as viewed through internationalization strategies is also unsurprising given the lack of a coercive external environment given there is not a single, national policy on higher education.

More recent events in the United Kingdom following *Brexit* highlight the complexity of higher education's massification and the ever-growing importance of student global mobility to national higher education sectors. Following *Brexit*, the United Kingdom found itself outside the ERASMUS program, which, for decades, supplied the island nation with students from continental Europe. The attractiveness of the United Kingdom as an English-speaking destination and one without required fees for those studying through the ERASMUS mechanism meant British HEIs enjoyed a steady, robust enrollment of international students (Corbett, 2021). Students from abroad did not have to pay fees, but they brought significant economic benefit through the transfer of funds from the ERASMUS program to the local HEIs and to the local communities through expenditures on living costs. Beyond economic benefits, the ERASMUS scheme contributed to a European-wide standardization of credit and professional qualification

recognition, creating a supranational system of higher education across Europe and the United Kingdom (de Wit, 2002; Guibert & Rayon, 2021). The same massification efforts applied to universities' research activities through the European Horizon project, which provided significant funding to multinational research collaborations (Corbett, 2021). Immediately post-*Brexit*, the United Kingdom intended to continue participation in the Horizon project, but as of 2022, it was no longer a participant. The benefits to the United Kingdom through the massification instruments afforded to it by its membership in the European Union (EU) was recognized as a benefit to British society, economy, and politics, which were key reasons then prime minister, Boris Johnson, vowed the country would not lose access to either the ERASMUS or the Horizon projects.

The response to the United Kingdom's exit from the ERASMUS program was the formation of the *Turing Scheme*, which shifted away from the multilateral approach of the ERASMUS program toward a bilateral agenda of creating institution-to-institution agreements on student mobility more akin to the approach in the United States. The aim of the *Touring Scheme* was to encourage British HEIs to form new bilateral partnerships as a basis for continued outward student mobility by providing generous funding to students and the institutions supporting them. However, this one-way funding model stood in stark contrast to the ERASMUS model, which through its integrative approach funded students and institutions for mobility in all directions. Because of this inward focus on British students studying abroad, observers noted the *Turing Scheme* risked backward progress on issues of justice and social equity in affording the benefits of an international education to all students (Guibert & Rayon, 2021). It also removed the reciprocity within the ERASMUS program leaving the question open to how incoming, international students to the United Kingdom would fund their tuition fees and cost of living,

which were comparatively high as compared to other Anglophone and continental European countries (Guibert & Rayon, 2021). Finally, British HEIs were now tasked with rebuilding their international partnerships to support the goals of the *Turing Scheme* without specific mechanisms with which to accomplish this. One might imagine European universities would be reluctant to re-engage their counterparts in the United Kingdom after the *Brexit* divorce, forcing British HEIs to search elsewhere.

The success and endurance of the ERASMUS program demonstrates the positive side of massification of higher education. The success was brought about through a coercive, supranational effort to integrate systems of HEIs across the EU. As the program matured, participating HEIs and their national educational systems established normative homogeneity through the common credit system known as European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), standardization of four-year bachelor's and two-years master's degree programs, and mutual recognition of professional qualifications. The emergent *Turing Scheme* demonstrated the other side of massification when a country, in this case the United Kingdom, endeavors to go it alone. While integration and commonalities are likely to remain in place between segments of the British and European higher education systems, the noted concerns with justice, equity, and access are likely to emerge as constraints on the extent the United Kingdom can continue to massify or expand its HEI system to meet greater global demand for higher education. The irony is the United Kingdom exited the homogenized, integrated ERASMUS program due to the political backlash against the coercive policy environment within the EU. In doing so, however, it left its higher education sector to its own devices to re-establish new sets of coercive, normative, and mimetic instruments to reintegrate and reposition itself within the global higher education landscape.

Models of Internationalization: Local Convergence, Global Divergence

Early literature on the internationalization of higher education revealed there was no one way to approach internationalization at the institutional- or university-level. The predominant conversation, particularly in the Global North, for the last decade was grounded within the idea of comprehensive internationalization, a concept which varied by national context. Prescient of this trend was Vaira's (2004) study introducing the concept of organizational allomorphism as an analytical framework to account for both macro- and micro-level responses to forces of globalization on higher education. Vaira (2004) revealed convergence on a local level might be met with global divergence based upon a mix of internal and external forces, as demonstrated in the examples of Malaysia and the United Kingdom explored above. As such, the challenge for future research was to consider analyses that see the organizational changes spurred on by globalization as having multiple outcomes whereby universities respond to a "certain institutionalized template to model and structure their action" leading to homogeneity on a local level and heterogeneity on a global scale. (Vaira, 2004, p. 495).

Much like templates, analytical models and rubrics describing comprehensive internationalization appeared in the research through the 2000s as primarily a sequential or developmental process and evolved into more complex, interrelated phenomenon without clear sequences (ACE, 2012; Childress, 2009; Hudzik, 2011; Knight 1994, 2004; Mace & Pearl, 2021). As complex the landscape of analytical models and rubrics are, comprehensive internationalization remained a focus of much scholarship in the last decade. While earlier scholarship viewed the internationalization of higher education as reactive processes to broader forces of globalization, Hudzik (2011) reframed such definitions by introducing comprehensive internationalization as being part of institutional culture through,

a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative

perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education.

It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise.

It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty,

students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not

just a desirable possibility. (p. 10)

Framing comprehensive internationalization as part of the fabric of an institution placed

internationalization at the center of an institution's mission, changing "the institution from

mainly a local, regional, or national asset to a global one with significant bidirectional and

multiple cross-border exchange" (Hudzik, 2011, p. 10). The imperative for HEIs to approach

internationalization comprehensively moves it from niche activities to the center of the

institution's mission, expanding on earlier concepts that viewed internationalization as a

response to forces of globalization, instead reframing it as proactive and dynamic.

ACE's Model of Comprehensive Internationalization

The combination of Vaira's (2004) template approach with the redefinition of

internationalization into comprehensive internationalization according to Hudzik (2011) became

apparent in ACE's *Model of Comprehensive Internationalization* unveiled in 2011 and the more

recent approach of *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* put forth in 2021 by

DAAD. The ACE model was well established, especially in the United States, as a normative

framework for comprehensive internationalization. DAAD's *Internationalization of Higher*

Education for Society represents a more recent development advancing mimetic change in the

field by building upon concepts of Internationalization at Home (IaH) and Internationalization of

the Curriculum (IoC) more common in continental Europe.

The ACE *Model of Comprehensive Internationalization* grew out of Hudzik's (2011) call for internationalization to become central to an institution's mission. Even though the ACE model continued to define comprehensive internationalization as a process, it proposed it be comprehensive and transformative by advancing "a strategic, coordinated process that seeks to align and integrate international policies, programs and initiatives" (Mace & Pearl, 2021, p. 3). Much like Hudzik's (2011) view of comprehensive internationalization, ACE's emphasis on the integrative approach suggests the process itself leads to or necessitates institutional culture change.

The importance of an HEI's structures and cultures was highlighted in studies evaluating efforts at achieving comprehensive internationalization. Considering structural components, Siaya and Hayward (2003) recognized that "administrative offices and allocation of staff time are evidence of institutional commitment to internationalization" (p. 33), while Childress (2009) observed that an institution's financial commitment to internationalization impacted the extent to which it could be implemented. Childress (2009) also found the existence of an internationalization plan at the organizational level (e.g., within the university's mission statement) was essential to implementing and monitoring internationalization, pointing to the importance of symbolic commitments. Other studies suggested that partnerships and collaborations, understanding the meaning of internationalization among students, faculty and staff, the role faculty played in international efforts, and programming played important roles in advancing internationalization at a given HEI (e.g., ACE, 2012; Childress 2009; Knight 2004). These studies suggest both organizational structures and cultures play a role in developing and carrying out internationalization strategies.

Pointing to the importance of comprehensive internationalization's transformative, comprehensive nature, ACE's model consisted of six pillars to guide and gauge a university's internationalization effort (Mace & Pearl, 2021). The six pillars of ACE's model were articulated institutional commitment; administrative staffing and structure; curricular, co-curricular and learning outcomes; faculty policies and practices; student mobility; and collaborations and partnerships. As Mace and Pearl (2021) noted the model lacked a *tracking measure* that allowed one to assess where in the process of comprehensive internationalization a given institution found itself in relation to each of the pillars. Reminiscent of Knight's (1994) *internationalization cycle*, Mace and Pearl (2021) validated the ACE model by adding a three-variable temporal scale defined as emerging (L1), capacity building (L2), and sustained international (L3), again suggesting the process-orientation of the model. While Mace and Pearl (2021) did provide a specific definition of each stage, their study along with those by Knight (1994, 2004) demonstrated the utility of using a *tracking measure* by which to evaluate an HEI's internationalization efforts within each of the six pillars. Despite the prescriptive nature of ACE's model, the six pillars provide a useful roadmap by which to define and measure higher education internationalization efforts. Each of the six pillars is discussed in detail below.

Articulated Institutional Commitment. This existed when an HEI incorporated comprehensive internationalization into its university-wide mission statement or developed an internationalization plan (ACE, 2012). The commitment was deepened when an HEI assessed and allocated resources toward its internationalization mission, plan, or strategy (ACE, 2012; Helms et al., 2017). According to ACE, a trend since 2001 existed toward greater inclusion of internationalization in mission statements, specific internationalization plans, and assessment of such efforts (ACE, 2012; Helms et al., 2017).

Administrative Structure and Staffing. The second pillar focused on the types of offices and staffing within those offices, which were responsible for "the coordination and consistent implementation of internationalization programs and initiatives throughout campus" (ACE, 2012, p. 9). This conceptual component also highlighted the importance of reporting structures, noting the relevance of an internationalization leader who either sat within the senior administration or reported to a senior administrator (ACE, 2012). Similar to the first pillar, ACE (2017) found an increasing number of institutions where a *senior international officer* or a single office oversaw and coordinated its comprehensive internationalization initiatives (Helms et al., 2017).

Curriculum, Co-Curriculum and Learning Outcomes. This pillar referred to foreign language and general education requirements, availability, and requirements for students to undertake international experiences on campus or abroad, and assessment of learning outcomes (ACE, 2012). More generally, this may be referred to as internationalizing the university's curriculum. While foreign language requirements declined since the 2000s, the frequency of requirements for undergraduate students to take courses with a global or comparative focus accelerated (ACE, 2012; Green et al., 2008; Helms et al., 2017). Helms et al. (2017), noted in 2016/2017 foreign language requirements increased for the first time since 2003 when ACE published the first *Mapping Internationalization* report.

Faculty Policies and Practices. The role faculty played in an HEI's internationalization strategy was well documented (ACE, 2012; Childress 2009; Green et al., 2008; Helms et al., 2017; Mace & Pearl 2021; Siaya & Howard 2003). This pillar provided an analytical lens through which to view the role faculty play by focusing on an institution's hiring practices, tenure and promotion policies, funding, and other support for engaging the internationalization

strategy, and other campus recognitions (e.g., through teaching awards) (ACE, 2012). Development within this pillar has remained mixed and complex due to the lack of investment in faculty resources to support their engagement in internationalization strategies, though progress was made in awards and recognitions and workshop or other development opportunities (ACE, 2012; Helms et al., 2017).

Student Mobility. The fifth pillar comprises the suite of programs and commitment of resources to outbound student mobility programs, often known as *study* or *education abroad*, and to recruiting and retaining inbound students, commonly referred to as *international students*. Looking at more than just numbers of inbound and outbound students, this pillar considered an HEI's types of programs and delivery formats, commitment of resources (scholarships) to inbound and outbound students, support service structures, and modes of recruitment, among others (ACE, 2012). Since 2003, ACE observed an increasing number of HEIs dedicating human and fiscal resources toward the recruitment of international students, as well as recognizing the importance of outbound student mobility in institutional strategic plans and mission statements (ACE, 2012; Helms et al., 2017).

Collaboration and Partnerships. The final pillar considered the role of an HEI's global footprint, often made up of relationships with other HEIs abroad through joint or dual degrees, student and faculty exchanges, branch or offshore campuses, faculty research collaborations and other such cross-border linkages (ACE, 2012). Like the fourth pillar, the landscape of HEI foreign collaboration and partnerships was mixed, though Helms et al. (2017), observed a general trend toward increased attention and importance on this area of internationalization since the mid-2000s.

DAAD's Internationalization of Higher Education for Society

More recent forays into conceptualizing internationalization of higher education extend the purpose of these efforts beyond the response and process paradigm of ACE's definition of comprehensive internationalization. In conjunction with DAAD, Brandenburg et al. (2020), put forth *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* to recast internationalization as more than a reactive response to internal and external influences by introducing the *third mission* of community engagement.

In many respects, *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* fits within ACE's sixth pillar on partnerships through its focus on the *third mission* of community engagement, which recognizes the interconnectedness between institutional activities and the local and global communities in which they act. The *third mission* shifted focus from internal to external benefits of collaboration and partnership with the purpose of resolving inequities that arose due to the internal drive for institutions to accrue benefit to themselves at the expense of others (Jones et al., 2021; Leask & Gayardon, 2021). Resolving this tension, *International of Higher Education for Society* is expressed as being *for* society not *of* society. Pointing out that Hudzik's (2011) earlier work called for the need to internationalize in comprehensive terms, transforming the fabric of an institution, Jones et al. (2021) questioned whether internationalization agendas achieved those outcomes by pointing out "in reality social responsibility is rarely the primary driver for the international activities of universities" (p. 334). To reconsider the internationalization agenda writ large, *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* called upon HEIs to "intentionally and purposefully seek to provide benefits to the wider community" and use their "international resources to strengthen social inclusion processes locally, offering mutual benefits and learning for all stakeholders" (Brandenburg et al., 2020, p. 28). This was accomplished when HEIs "involve the wider community at home or abroad" to

bring together the global and local by expanding the internationalization agenda to include all areas in which an HEI is active (e.g., research, teaching/learning, etc.) (Brandenburg et al., 2020, p. 28). Within DAAD's concept, HEIs no longer pursue internationalization for sake of profit and prestige, but rather to accrue benefits by making positive impacts on communities near and far. *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* also recognizes the need for convergence around emergent themes and trends in internationalizing higher education.

The duality of local-global and questions of who benefits from internationalization is not new to the scholarship. DAAD's *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* built upon earlier concepts of internationalization at home (IaH) and internationalization of the curriculum (IoC) by extending these efforts into university collaboration and partnership that advanced education as a common good (Brandeburger et al., 2020). IaH and IoC are necessarily part of DAAD's concept because they serve as a backdrop to explain how universities engage their communities. Together, concepts of IaH and IoC recast in terms of engaging the community, or the *third mission*, form the basis for emergent good practices of *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society*.

Internationalization at Home (IaH). The concept of IaH emerged in a 1990s European context that sought to extend the benefits of international student mobility programs to students who were *non-mobile*. Recognizing the need for all students to benefit from studying in multicultural context and developing intercultural skills, IaH emerged as the vehicle "to bring to students the benefits of international and intercultural aspects of university education and research, without the need for physical movement" (Alexiadou et al., 2021, p. 445). In simple terms, IaH sought to internationalize the local campus environment through three foci: *diversity as a resource*, *internationalized curriculum*, and *culturally sensitive pedagogy* (Alexiadou et al.,

2021). *Diversity as a resource* recognized the benefits of university students being exposed to and enriched by interactions with people of different cultural backgrounds, which "are embedded in the social contexts of classrooms, relations between students and staff, university events, formal and informal encounters, as well as curricula contents and approaches" (Alexiadou et al., 2021, p. 446). The *internationalized curriculum* "involves knowledge about international issues, nations, and cultures" and "the promotion of democratic and ethical life and inclusive societies" (Alexiadou et al., 2021, p. 446). Like IoC, discussed in the following section, the *internationalized curriculum* within IaH seeks to bring the global into the local. Related to both *internationalized curriculum* and *diversity as a resource*, a *culturally sensitive pedagogy* promoted intercultural learning in which "the otherness of students is a source of learning" (Alexiadou et al., 2021, p. 447). These principles of IaH played an important role in *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* because it was "an all-encompassing concept, one with the potential to drive "comprehensive internationalisation" beyond the boundaries of our campuses" (Brandenburg et al., 2020, p. 21). Further, both IaH and IoC informed good practices within *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* because they were "dependent on increasing numbers of students and staff interacting with increasing numbers of community members so that all develop their understanding of the relationships between the local and the global, the international and the intercultural" (Brandenburg et al., 2020, p. 17). In this way, IaH comprises the domestic dimension of the internationalization agenda.

Internationalization of the Curriculum (IoC). A component of the internationalization agenda, IoC coexists with IaH in its effort to extend the benefits of internationalization to all students regardless of whether they are studying at home or abroad. IoC's specific goals were to

"provide an internationalized learning experience for *all* students" and "enhance the quality of higher education" through a curricular focus on "intercultural and global awareness; empathy; critical and systems thinking; enhancing ethical, culturally sensitive, and inclusive behavior; and values regarding the long-term well-being of humans" (Gregersen-Hermans, 2021, p. 462). Drawing on IaH's concept of the *internationalized curriculum*, IoC achieved these goals by incorporating all members of the university community in the learning process through experiential and student-centered pedagogies (Gregersen-Hermans, 2021). In this respect, IoC was reminiscent of Paulo Freire's (2018) *liberated education* in its transformative approach to learning for the betterment of society. More recent scholarship on IoC also called for the need to consider the internationalized curriculum be "underpinned by an increasing awareness of the global interconnectedness of societies" (Gregersen-Hermans, 2021, p. 465), thus linking to the *third mission* within *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* of extending the internationalization agenda beyond the borders of the university campus.

The *Third Mission*: Models of Social Justice, Economic Development, and Public Good. Brandenburg et al. (2020) contended *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* could account for social justice, economic development, and public good exclusively or simultaneously, and thus they were not mutually exclusive within the approach. Described as the goals of *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society*, these models of community engagement bring definition to the desired outcomes of a new internationalization agenda. Community engagement based on social justice is characterized by its concern with social disadvantage and the opportunities to address these disadvantages (inequities) through community empowerment. Service-learning and community-based research were cited as examples of community engagement based on a social justice model (Brandenburg et al., 2020).

31

The economic development model sought to extend growth through technological innovation and transfer through policies that support and encourage entrepreneurialism (Brandenburg et al., 2020). Knowledge transfer in support of local and global economic development is the goal of this model. The public good paradigm was far reaching and more ranging than the social justice and economic development models as it endeavored to make "the world better, contributing to community development and revitalisation activities, with policies that encourage the deployment of knowledge in (local) application contexts" (Brandenburg et al., 2020, p. 43). The public good model of community engagement relates to IoC's concern with bettering society as both share goals developing global citizens, fighting oppression, and supporting democracy.

Internationalization of Higher Education for Society shifted focus to the impact of internationalization on communities, instead of institutions, and opened the space for considering internationalization agendas in terms of social engagement (Brandenburg et al., 2020; Leask & de Gayardon, 2021). This *third mission* of internationalization encompassed "a comprehensive inclusive vision of internationalization that systematically and strategically extends its benefits into local and distant communities" (Leask & Gayardon, 2021, p. 325). An internationalization agenda based upon these principles led universities to "intentionally and purposefully seek to provide benefits to the wider community" using their "international resources to strengthen social inclusion processes locally, offering mutual benefits and learning for all stakeholders" (Brandenburg et al., 2020, p. 28). This was accomplished when HEIs brought together the global and local by expanding the internationalization agenda to include all areas in which an HEI was active (e.g., research, teaching/learning, etc.) (Brandenburg et al., 2020). Within *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society*, HEIs no longer pursue internationalization for sake of profit and prestige, but rather to accrue benefits of internationalization by making

32

positive impacts on communities near and far. The effect is a post-neoliberal approach to internationalizing higher education.

Compared to the ACE's definition of comprehensive internationalization, *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* is less concerned about individual institutions because internationalization's impacts are conceived in terms of their effect on participating communities. This study understands *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* as a set of institutional characteristics and activities described by Brandenburg et al. (2020) as,

> the bridge between the concept of internationalisation in higher education and university social responsibility or university social engagement. Internationalisation activities as well as general social outreach activities have the goal of augmenting higher education competences and improving society, and internationalisation can be an accelerator for this. HEIs need a more systematic approach though, that leverages existing and new internationalisation activities to tackle local and global social issue . . . through social engagement. (p. 20).

As described here, *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* serves more as a normative framework than as a concrete definition or model of internationalization. It is aspirational in this regard, and when compared against ACE's concept of comprehensive internationalization, the former serves as an approach to internationalization whereas the latter offers a model. Both, however, act as normative and mimetic forces in determining the trajectory and end goals of internationalizing higher education.

While differences abound, the approach embodied within *International of Higher Education for Society* modernizes ACE's model of comprehensive internationalization. The

former provides criteria and rubrics, which brings definition and clarity in mapping internationalization activities, whereas the latter provides more of a philosophical approach. Both are grounded within institutionalist theory, but *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* has not been developed into a model to the extent ACE's comprehensive internationalization has been. Additionally, the comparative nature of this study benefits from incorporating an American-centric view of internationalization through ACE's comprehensive internationalization model with a European (German) centered perspective represented in *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society*. Pairing the ACE model with the DAAD approach also recognizes the local-global, convergence-divergence conundrum in the literature to better understand differences in the internationalization of higher education across geographic contexts.

Chapter 3
Methodology

This dissertation examined forces determining the trajectory of higher education internationalization agendas. Discovering explanations about higher education's internationalization required an understanding of the influences affecting how institutions set out to internationalize. Doing so through a comparative case study furthered these explanations because it allowed for the introduction of contextual forces across varied regional geopolitical and economic arenas, national political environments, and localized realities. To capture these influences, this study answered the following questions:

1. What model(s) of internationalization emerge in a university's internationalization strategy, and why?

2. How do organizational structures and cultures inform an institution's internationalization strategy?

3. How does a university perceive and address challenges and opportunities within an internationalization strategy?

Research Design Overview

The research design was an explanatory comparative case study. Given the study's *what* question, an explanatory approach was best suited to discovering answers to the questions where the goal is to develop hypotheses and raise questions or develop tools for future research (Yin, 2018). While Yin (2018) explained not all *what* questions would be best suited for case study enquiry, the explanatory comparative case study herein was best suited to this study because it supporeds exploring answers to the study's secondary *how* and *why* questions. These questions expanded on the *what* question by explaining the development or evolution of processes over time as a phenomenon in and itself.

Participant Recruitment

Recruitment Process. I identified the universities to include in the case study through a combination of professional networks and limiting criteria. The study's goal was to obtain 15–20 interviews, which comported with case study sampling methodology where 15 was considered a minimum sample size and 20 was believed to produce little new data (Mason, 2010). Using this sampling standard for qualitative research, I aimed to conduct case studies at three universities where I could obtain a minimum of five interviews in each location, including both administrators and faculty where possible. Because the study's goal was to identify local and national level forces as part of explanations about why and how a particular university's internationalization strategy took the shape it did, I needed to vary the context and setting of each university. At the same time, I did not want each participating university in the case study to be so contrasted with one another that making conclusions about the role played by both internal

and external influences became difficult to generalize. I employed this reasoning and limiting criteria to center the case studies within developed economies and Western democracies (i.e., the Global North), namely in the United States, England, and Sweden.

In the United States, I sought a university outside of the R1 Carnegie Classification system because these institutions tend to have large, de-centralized international programs (i.e., dispersed offices across a campus with no single structure or centralized strategy), enroll a significant proportion of total international students studying in the United States, and send large numbers of student abroad. Based on these quantitative measures, such institutions were not representative of most universities in the United States. A next level criterion was ensuring I could gain access to the university. I applied similar criteria in England, where I avoided institutions in the Russell Group, akin to R1 universities in the United States. Additionally, I relied on professional networks to establish access, which in this case represented institutions where linkages existed between the institution where I was employed and those in England. I applied the same criteria to enlist identify the participating university in Sweden.

Participant Selection. To secure interviewees at each university, I identified staff within each universities' international programs unit where there was an existent relationship. In the United States, I relied on a professional colleague who worked within the international program to establish participation. In England and Sweden, I used current contacts between the institution where I worked and the institutions abroad. Once participation was secured, I relied on snowball sampling to identify additional participants from each institution based on references and recommendations of the primary contact I established at each institution. I used the snowball sampling approach to obtain interviews from both administrators and faculty at each institution.

Study Participants

Researcher Description. I am a White male raised in the United States (Global North) who

worked in international education at several universities in the United States for over a decade.

My work within the field under study meant I brought with me certain assumptions, experiences,

and knowledge about the field of higher education internationalization, including areas specific

to education abroad, international student and scholar services, international student recruitment

and admissions, curriculum development and integration, and second-language learning

programs (i.e., ESL programs). I also participated in exchange programs at both the secondary

and post-secondary levels and hold certain values about the need for cultural exchange and

international education to advance cross-cultural awareness, understanding, and cooperation.

My background meant I approached this research as an insider within the professional field of

international education. I controlled for biases and subjectivity that could arise in such

circumstances in several ways with the goal of maintaining distance between myself and the

research subjects, becoming a partial insider (Greene, 2014). First, I selected case studies outside

my current institution and across different countries. While I might have shared values and

assumptions related to international education with my participants, I was not a total insider

because of variation by institution type and national cultures and values. Second, by taking a

relativist perspective in approaching the design of the study, I controlled for different

perspectives and experiences of the participants by using semi-structured interview questions and

adjusting my language and jargon according to local contexts (Finefter-Rosenbluh, 2017;

Greene, 2014). For example, in the United States the title of vice president was equivalent to vice

rector in England and a head of an office or unit in Sweden, but I did not make assumptions

about titles, ranks, or hierarchal relationships in any context. Additionally, as part of the reflexive

approach, I adopted aspects of perspective taking (Finefter-Rosenbluh, 2017), which included

raising my consciousness about my relationship to the research participants, the environment, and the topics of discussion and taking an outsider-insider approach in the case studies I conducted in England and Sweden. I did this by maintaining a reflexive journal in which I took daily accounts of my experience in relation to my participants to ensure I remained as objective as possible throughout and across each case study.

The participants who took part in the case study worked within similar areas of higher education. They might or might not have held the same values and assumptions I did as the researcher. Scholars noted those working in the field of international higher education shared common bonds around "progressive values such as cosmopolitanism, multiculturalism, diversity, and social justice" (Jones et al., p. 331). In the same way I brought an insider, relativist perspective to my own positionality in approaching this study, I did the same for the participants. For the case study in the United States, there was an existent professional relationship between me and the initial contact person, who was also included as one interviewee; however, I did not have previous relationships with any of the other participants at the same university. I did not have prior, direct connection with the people or universities in either England or Sweden, though the institution where I worked did have established relationships with the institutions. The formal relationships between the university where I worked and those in England and Sweden presumed a certain affinity between the institutions, which likely also meant there was some level of pre-existing alignment of values as they relate to internationalization.

Case Study Description. Selecting universities in the United States, England, and Sweden was intended to allow the study to contrast national, and in Sweden's case supranational-European, contexts. The selection of these countries also built upon earlier comparative analyses (e.g., de Witt, 2002) and recognized studies on higher education could not "be conducted now without an

acknowledgement of the extent to which governance at the state [national] level impacts on the ways in which institutions govern themselves" (Shattock & Horvath, 2020, p. 11). Hence, each case study was situated within the national context in which the university operated.

While all three countries were developed, Western democracies, each expressed this differently. For example, the United States, the United Kingdom (inclusive of England), and Sweden contributed 3.2%, 3.4%, and 4.0%, respectively, of annual gross domestic product (GDP) to fund post-secondary education on a per capita basis (OECD, 2019). While these figures demonstrated the variability in public spending on post-secondary education, all three countries were above the 3.0% mean in the OECD data, placing them on the higher end of public support for post-secondary education amongst developed countries. Differences could be seen beyond just economic factors, however.

The United States. Higher education was governed at the state level for public institutions and the institutional level for private institutions, creating a fragmented landscape (de Witt, 2002). With more than 4,000 institutions of higher education, this was a generalized statement highlighting the lack of a nationalized system in the United States. While there was no national system of higher education in the United States, there were efforts to advance the cause of international education at the federal level. For example, in 2021, the Departments of Education, Commerce, and State published a Joint Statement on International Education. This unified effort was a first-ever commitment to a joint agency strategy on international higher education. Based on principles aimed to support enrollment of international students, participation in studies abroad by students in the United States, and engaging faculty in collaborative research efforts, the Joint Statement recognized the importance of the United States' role in advancing international education as part of national security, promoting global

leadership, and impacting perceptions of the United States from abroad (United States

Departments of State and Education, n.d.).

Given the recent decline in international student enrollment in the United States, the

release of the Joint Statement was perhaps no surprise. The number of international students was

914,095 in 2020/2021, which was the first time this number dipped below the one million mark

since 2014/2015 and was the lowest since 2013/2014 (IIE, 2020). The decline was partially due

to effects of the COVID-pandemic, shifting attitudes about the value of higher education, and

deteriorating perceptions of the United States as a safe, welcoming place for non-US students to

study (Fischer & Aslanian, 2021). Still, there was a significant amount of divergence in the

higher education landscape in the United States. For example, a full 30% of total international

students in the country study in California, New York, or Texas (IIE, 2020), demonstrating the

concentration of international students in coastal and larger states.

Taking these factors into account, this study sought to include a university that occupied

a middle-of-the-pack profile. Located in the north central part of the United States in an exurban

environment, at time of this study, Upper Midwest University (UMU) enrolled some 14,000 total

students, a great majority at the undergraduate level, in more than 130 undergraduate and 80

graduate programs, including engineering, allied health fields, business, and education. There

were some 1,300 international students enrolled in UMU, of which more than 60% were

undergraduates. As of 2022, UMU was classified as an R2, masters-level university (large

program) in the Carnegie classification system.

UMU's Global Education program consisted of the international center for international

student and scholar services, an office of global engagement housing education abroad programs,

and an English language training program. Each of the area directors reported to a dean of global

education, referred to as the senior international officer (SIO), who reported to the provost and vice president of academic affairs. There were approximately 15 full-time equivalent staff, across all units related to the international program, with a majority in the area of international student and scholar services. UMU sent far fewer students on outbound education abroad programs, and the majority of these programs were considered short-term (i.e., less than four weeks) programs abroad led by UMU faculty members.

England. Higher education governance in the United Kingdom (UK), which included England, was both nationalized and fragmented. Shattock and Horvath (2020) demonstrated a process of an emergent top-down governance model of higher education since 1992 when control over universities devolved to the individual nations of England, Wales, and Scotland (Northern Ireland always acted independent of the central British government). If devolution brought with it "cultural and educational differences between England, Wales and Scotland, which encouraged significant divergencies from a uniform national higher education system," these disparities created space and need for more governmental interventions, particularly in relation to higher education funding and governance structures (Shattock & Horvath, 2020, p. 5). This was evidenced by the introduction of the first tuition fee for university students in the English and Welsh sectors in 2000, but which was not introduced in Scotland. The introduction of mandatory tuition fees for home students created the basis of a market for higher education, prompting institutions to compete for students both within and across countries within the UK and beyond (Shattock & Horvath, 2020). One could liken the fragmentation of higher education across the countries of England, Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales to that of the individual states controlling their public institutions in the United States. Unlike in the United States,

however, the higher education sector across the UK remained of great national interest and

contestation.

The fragmentation in the British system of higher education was one reason for the public

skepticism of the UK signing on to the European Union's (EU) Bologna Process in 1999

(Shattock & Horvath, 2020). Ultimately, the UK not only agreed to be part of the Bologna

Process, but it also emerged as one of the greatest beneficiaries of the free movement of students

throughout the EU and common higher education market because of its appeal to continental

European students looking to study in an Anglophone country (Shattock & Horvath, 2020). The

same Euro-skepticism witnessed in the 1990s as the UK negotiated its place within the EU,

returned in the late 2010s when the UK exited the EU, dubbed Brexit. For higher education,

Brexit ended with British universities being ousted from the common European system

developed under the Bologna Process, cutting them off from the flow of students into the country

under the Erasmus and related mobility schemes. To replace this, the British government,

indicative of the role the British government continued to play in governing the higher education

system, introduced the *Turing Scheme*, which aimed to encourage British universities to recast

their internationalization agendas in terms of bilateral agreements instead of the multilateral,

integrated approach under the Bologna Process and Erasmus program. By the dawn of the 2020s,

the future of internationalizing higher education in the UK found itself at a crossroads as

universities reshape their internationalization agendas post-*Brexit*.

The participating university in the case study, British University (BU), found itself in this

crossroad. A large university in an urban setting, but not part of the highly ranked Russell Group

of universities, BU was a relative newcomer to internationalization, having commenced

formalized efforts in the early 2010s. At the time of the study, BU enrolled more than 40,000

students in total, of which several thousand were from outside the UK. Leading into the pandemic, BU had a goal of sending 5% of its students away for an experience abroad, which represented a significant absolute number of students. In the post-*Brexit* era and following the pandemic, during the timeframe in which this study took place, BU was in the process of rediscovering its internationalization opportunities.

Sweden. The Swedish higher education system was a nationalized system, which underwent devolution of administrative responsibility from the central government to individual institutions through the late 2000s. This period of reform contained several important shifts in the Swedish higher education sector, including diminishing the distinction between technical universities and university colleges, and adopting important aspects of the Bologna Process, including development of bachelors, masters, and PhD programs according to European standards (Geschwind & Broström, 2022). Whereas previous iterations of the Swedish higher education system prioritized the technical universities in terms of resources and funding, the post-2000s reform era saw what Geschwind and Broström (2022) described as vertical differentiation instead of the previous horizontal organization. In the previous horizontally differentiated system, Sweden's HEIs did not compete for resources with one another. Rather, funding and governance models at the national level treated technical universities and university colleges independently. The emergence of vertical differentiation amongst Swedish HEIs was amplified by the Bologna Process because of the introduction of performance-based funding schemes at the national level, which no longer prioritized the technical university of the past (Geschwind & Broström, 2022). This marked the beginning of competition for resources amongst all HEIs in Sweden giving rise to the vertical differentiation amongst universities. The result of these reforms was, as Geschwind and Broström (2022) argued, the establishment of

global hegemonic category of *world-class universities* in Sweden based upon performance, competition for research funding, rankings, and new revenues.

This shift toward a stratified and marketized higher education system in Sweden was perhaps best represented for the purpose of this study in the Higher Education Act's *ordinance on application fees and tuitions fees at higher education institutions*, established in 2010. The ordinance specifies who pays which fees and at what rate such that: 1) an application fee of 900 Swedish Krona (approximately 80 US dollars) would be paid only by those who are not Swedish citizens or permanent residents, or a citizen or permanent resident of any qualified third-country, which encompassed all EU member states and Switzerland, 2) a Swedish HEI *shall* charge a tuition fee to any student not fitting the above criteria, and 3) should the tuition fee not be paid in accordance with the ordinance, the student *shall* be expelled (Swedish Council for Higher Education, n.d.). The definition of who paid the application and tuition fees codified the international student as originating from outside Sweden, the EU, and Switzerland, effectively achieving a tuition fee law for international students. It is worth noting that following *Brexit* in the UK, the Ministry of Education in Sweden updated the ordinance to grandfather British students studying in Sweden as of 2021 into the previous ordinance. British students initiating their studies in Sweden post-2021 would be considered international students, subject to the application and tuition fees. The effect of this ordinance was likely small since compared to the UK or United States, Sweden did not host many international students. However, it created a market for international students that did not exist prior to the ordinance's establishment in 2010.

Swedish University (SU) emerged as a quintessential example of this new landscape of higher education in Sweden. SU was approximately two hours from a major city and is a young institution compared to others in Sweden. A private university, SU became a university only in

the 1990s when it first began granting doctoral degrees. This aligned with the Swedish

government reforms to higher education. Compared to the major universities in Sweden, SU was

lesser known and enrolled some 12,000 students, of which over 2,000 are from abroad, including

from within the EU. SU sent a significant number of students abroad in the context of Sweden,

but like other universities in Sweden, SU students tended to prefer going abroad through the

EU's Erasmus exchange program.

Data Collection

The study's qualitative approach in exploring and explaining internationalization of

higher education in the different contexts of the United States, UK, and Sweden required

obtaining data from participants using semi-structured interviews.

Interview Questions. The interview questions are in Appendix A. I developed the

questions for the purpose of semi-structured interviews and used ACE's *Model of*

Comprehensive Internationalization to guide discussion around the model's six pillars: (a)

articulated institutional commitment; (b) administrative staffing and structure; (c) curriculum,

co-curriculum and learning outcomes; (d) faculty practices and policies; (e) student mobility; and

(f) collaboration and partnerships. Additionally, I included elements of the German Academic

Exchange Service's (DAAD) *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society* (IHES)

approach, which embeds ideas of internationalization of the curriculum (IoC),

internationalization at home (IaH), and social responsibility. I also included more general,

descriptive questions to capture background, history, and other institutional-level idiosyncrasies.

While the questions served as a big-picture map to conducting each case study interview, I

treated them more as prompts to guide open-ended conversations with each interviewee or group

45

of interviewees. This approach supported an induction method of enquiry where the data emerged through the process of interaction and dialogue within the interview setting.

Interviews. While I conducted the interviews in-person, not virtually, I employed Zoom to record and caption every interview. I used these recordings to employ transcript services through Otter.ai. This not only made transcription more accurate, but it also allowed me to observe body language, pauses, and other queues of the interviewees. Accounting for these individual-level nuances was in line with the relativist and reflexive methodology I employed in the case studies.

Analysis

The study's analysis consisted of a three-part case study, which served to compare and contrast the affect different level factors have on a university's internationalization strategy. I approached the analysis of the comparative case studies through a two-step inductive and deductive process of reasoning, which was well suited to the explanatory methodology I used in this study (Yin, 2018). As part of the study's explanatory nature, I used inductive reasoning in the analysis by treating each case independently to arrive at emergent themes, which were then generalized across all three studies, moving the analysis from the specific to the general. To arrive at deeper explanations in answering the study's *why* and *how* questions, I used a deductive approach by employing a neoinstitutionalist theoretical framework, which introduced concepts of mimetic, normative, and coercive isomorphism, as well as explanations for homogeneity or heterogeneity in universities' internationalization strategies.

To induce the emergent themes based on the interview data, I coded the transcripts of each interview using an analog approach in which I grouped participants' responses to each question. Next, I used a color-coding system to compare and contrast the responses to each

question. This allowed me to begin identifying emergent themes within and across the responses. Then, I grouped the responses to the questions according to each question's relationship to institutional structure, institutional culture, and external factors as reflected in the study's research questions. Using the same color-coding system, I identified both recurrent and new themes. I compared the themes in each of the groupings (i.e., the discrete question versus the question groupings) to arrive at a set of themes that emerged from the interview data. The inductive analysis was then followed by inductive reasoning in which I analyzed the identified themes within the study's neoinstitutional framework. I also used the ACE model and DAAD's approach to further guide the interpretation of emergent themes.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis and Discussion

This dissertation sought to better understand how and why an institution's internationalization strategy took the shape it did. The study's guiding questions, which were explored through a three-part, comparative case study, were:

1. What model(s) of internationalization emerge in a university's internationalization strategy, and why?

2. How do organizational structures and cultures inform an institution's internationalization strategy?

3. How does a university perceive and address challenges and opportunities within an internationalization strategy?

This chapter presents the data gathered through the case study. I approached the entirety of this chapter using thick description, and specifically concepts of *thick interpretation* and *thick*

meaning (Geertz, 1973; Ponterotto, 2006). These concepts allowed me to focus on the participants' process of making meaning of their institution's internationalization strategy by centering the analysis on the participants' responses to the interview questions. This foregrounded human agency and relationships in the analysis as opposed to favoring mission and vision statements, written strategic plans, and key performance indicators. Further, approaching the analysis through *thick interpretation* and *thick meaning* allowed me to relate the study's themes to the contextual frameworks of internationalization, namely the American Council on Education's (ACE) *Model of Comprehensive Internationalization* and the German Academic Exchange Service's (DAAD) *Internationalization of Higher Education for Society*, while also situating it within the study's neoinstitutionalism theoretical framework.

The data revealed five emergent themes including: (a) leadership; (b) resources; (c) academics/curriculum; (d) mobility; and (e) partnerships. The keywords associated with each theme I used to code the data are included in Table 4.1. In the following section, I contextualize and discuss each of the themes as they emerged in each case study. Through the process of contextualizing each theme, I identified three typologies of internationalization strategy within institutions of higher education: (a) pragmatic; (b) realistic; and (c) idealistic. In this chapter's concluding discussion, I defined each typology through a comparative analysis of the case study. This culminated in the study's finding that an institution's internationalization strategy was explained through structural and cultural contexts, as well as forces external to the institution related to governmental policies, geopolitics, governmental and non-governmental actors, and funding schemes.

Table 4.1

Themes and Keywords

Themes	Leadership	Resources	Academics/ Curriculum	Mobility	Partnership
Keywords	Inclusive	Budget/Funding	Courses	Incoming students	Universities
	Knowledge(able)	Revenue	Faculty	Outgoing students	Government
	Experience	Staff	Interest	Fee-paying students	Country(ies)
	Decision-making	Human Resources (HR)	Work-load/time	International students	Exchange(s)
	Top-down	Salary(ies)	Virtual (e.g., COIL)	Exchange(s)	Agreements
	Bottom-up (Grassroots)	Time	English	Short-term	Virtual (e.g., meetings)
	Passion(ate)	Tuition/Fees	Ranking	Semester	Consortium
	Board	Scholarship(s)	Lectures	(Academic) Year	System
	President/Chancellor/ Rector	Recruitment	Licensure	Visa(s)	Departments/ Offices
	Goals	Enrollment	Committee	Ranking	Transnational Education/TNE
	Support(ive)	Growth	Community (faculty, students, etc.)	Accessible	
	Transparency			Recruitment	

Themes in Context: Upper Midwest University

Upper Midwest University (UMU) was located in an ex-urban town and was considered a comprehensive, regional public institution. UMU enrolled more than 1,000 international students out of a total population of about 14,000 students. At the time of the case study, UMU was developing a new internationalization strategy. The negotiation of the new internationalization strategy and reflection on the institution's related accomplishments appeared throughout the discussions I had with the institution's staff at the leadership and managerial level, made up of a dean and directors or assistant directors across the three areas of international activity: international student services, education abroad, and English-language programs.

Leadership

Reflecting on changes to the internationalization strategy at UMU, the director of international student services, Mary Beth, related these changes to the stability of leadership at the institution: "I don't think [the former dean] had an easy job, because there's a lot of turnover in that position prior." She went on to add, "So, I think when the new dean came in, they had the opportunity to be visionary." Monica, who served as the dean overseeing internationalization, echoed the importance of UMU's leadership structure in advancing the internationalization strategy. When reflecting on the creation of the dean position in 2013, Monica noted: "That was huge, because this person would report directly to the provost. So that's when global education also became one of the strategic goals for the university." This explanation further evidenced the connection between leadership structures and the importance and placement of an internationalization strategy within the broader institution.

Leadership gaps emerged as another factor in UMU's internationalization strategy. Mary Beth explained the responsibilities for international student recruitment and admissions were spread between the international student services office and the university's admissions office:

The associate director of admission is responsible for international student admission, and I think it's 5% of his job description. And our applications went up like 300% since the pandemic so they did not have the staffing to do it.

This lack of leadership in international student recruitment and admissions led to a leadership structure where responsibilities were dispersed. While Mary Beth did not see this as problematic, the pattern of leadership gaps was repeated within the English language program, where leadership was dependent on a faculty member who had contractual leaves of absences. Michelle, who worked in the English language program, described this as: "I serve as the director during summer months when faculty have vacations. So, I really have to be aware of all the aspects, because I often have to be in the director's role."

Both Mary Beth and Michelle adapted to filling the gaps as part of their normal job expectations, creating an all-hands-on-deck attitude amongst the staff. Monica reinforced this culture of adaptability in explaining the dean's impact on the institution's tuition model for international students: "The dean could make judgment calls about nimble, innovative pieces that we knew if we had the ability to do that would benefit the university."

These examples supported the conclusion that the leadership structure and culture at UMU relied on stability through anchoring leadership of international activities in the university administration. This stability allowed leadership and staff to approach internationalization with adaptability and flexibility as needs changed over time. That the example of lacking leadership in international student recruitment and admissions arose after a significant increase in applications in the post-COVID years indicated the needs for leadership shift over time because of external forces. Coercive isomorphic influences, such as a pandemic, posed challenges to institutional leadership structures and cultures, which gave rise to a culture of adaptation.

Resources

The theme of resources emerged at UMU within the context of fiscal and human resources, including staffing, tuition revenues, scholarships, and budget allocations. Martha, who was a staff member in the education abroad office, summed up the connection between staffing and revenue generation as: "Our office is not a revenue generating office. We don't collect money from students for study abroad fees, [which] means our salaries are paid from the university." Comparing this situation to the international student services office, Martha further explained: "Like bringing in students automatically means you're gonna *[sic]* have a revenue generating office," adding that education abroad was "kind of the oddball because we send students away, I send money outside the university." Martha's explanation identified a dichotomy between international activities which generated income and those which did not. The outcome of this, as Martha concluded, was the education abroad office was a "very lean office for two people."

This dichotomy between revenue and non-revenue generating activities explained the centrality of international student recruitment to UMU's internationalization strategy. Monica, the dean, summed this up in describing UMU's international student enrollment: "So, we are as big as it has been, but we are going to be much bigger. We want to be 1,500 or 18% [of the total enrollment], whatever comes first." Monica added further: "[The provost] will always say, well, international students are very important to us. And they are open about it so that way we can push very hard because everyone knows it's a non-negotiable."

International student enrollment was at the center of UMU's internationalization strategy because of the tuition revenue it generated. Participants viewed this as a net positive for broader internationalization goals at the university because it provides support elsewhere, as Martha

described: "I mean, from a university's financial aspect of it, international students bring in a lot of revenue, they also cover a lot of . . . also jobs wise."

While the growth of international student enrollment was a net positive, it posed other challenges regarding staffing and salaries. Several participants attributed this to the state's unionized workforce. When explaining the difficulty of attracting and retaining qualified staff, Mary Beth explained how she felt UMU's pay was not competitive in a meeting with the provost: "I told him you're seeing the starting pay for my assistant directors like $50,000, and he was like, what? He was shocked." Extending this thought, Mary Beth observed further: "If we want to grow as fast as and as much as we do, we have to have people here to support those students if we're going to get to 2000 [international students]."

Still, Martha viewed UMU's response to the barriers of attracting and retaining staff as a positive indication of its commitment to internationalization because UMU did not get:

> . . . so bogged down with all of the red tape and bureaucratic politics that come with higher education, and the constant need of, hey, but do we have enough money for this or where other funding is coming from, and all the red tape with the unions and that stuff.

Despite the constraints of the unionized workforce, the external policies for the state's public institutions enabled UMU's success in increasing its international student enrollment. UMU's scholarship scheme for international students meant, as Monica described it, international students "paid only 20% more than our in-state [students]." This funding model benefitted UMU's internationalization efforts, because, as Monica detailed, the international division: "Would capture part of the international student tuition. 10%. And right now, we have up to 20%, up to a million dollars a year. Meaning that is discretionary to the dean." In my

questioning of Monica about this model, she confirmed that UMU was the only institution in the state to have both this scholarship and funding scheme in place.

Like the discussion around leadership, resources at UMU presented both opportunities and challenges. On the one hand, the external landscape prohibited UMU from attracting and retaining the staff needed to grow and adjust as the university advanced its internationalization strategy. On the other hand, the internal structure of leadership navigated these barriers by using the state's policy apparatus to meet the desired goals of increasing international enrollment. The external, coercive forces that posed barriers to UMU's internationalization strategy were overcome by internal, normative adaptations.

Academics/Curriculum

The theme of academics emerged at UMU as outcomes of the internationalization strategy. There was little conversation about a strategy related to internationalization of the curriculum or changing roles and policies related to faculty, both areas which appeared in ACE and DAAD's models of comprehensive internationalization. Monica did, however, highlight the intersection of the curriculum and internationalization as UMU having: "Dozens and dozens of courses and programs and certificates that have global in their description and in their goals." She attributed this to the university's general education curriculum that included a specific goal for global experiences.

Still, there was no connection between academics and the curriculum in the institution's broader internationalization strategy. Instead, the strategy focused on engaging faculty in short-term education abroad programs where they took a group of UMU students abroad in what they called faculty-led programs. Monica characterized this as: "We're bringing in more faculty, and again, growing faculty leaders. We call them friends of global education, so we have this

peaceful army of people who all are doing the work." Despite the success of engaging faculty in education abroad activities, none of the participants presented direct evidence of how these activities impacted changes in the curriculum or academic culture of the institution.

Whereas faculty seemed willing to engage with the education abroad activities, Monica described them as being more skeptical about the effects of a growing international student population: "There's a lot still a lot of need to educate faculty and staff about the unique challenges that second-language learners and students from other cultures face." The concept of serving students and meeting their needs in the classroom arose throughout our conversations. Participants provided evidence supporting the idea that matters of academic and the curriculum were not central to the internationalization strategy, as Mary Beth noted: "And so I think they [the faculty] are recognizing that it's important. I don't know if it was necessarily strategically proactive." Mary Beth added about international students in the classroom: "they're faculty that just prefer not to have them in the classroom, but they're probably as many who love them. I feel supported on campus, and I just avoid those that aren't!"

From a strategic perspective, UMU appeared to de-emphasize the institution's academic and curricular matters. Instead, UMU sought to effect change in the curriculum through internal normative pressures that incentivized faculty to take part in education abroad programs or that championed those whose dispositions made them more apt to support international students.

Mobility

Mobility at UMU was centered on outgoing study abroad students, while incoming international students were seen primarily as revenue-generating. Several participants cited the growth in international enrollment and the centrality of this within the institution's approach to internationalization.

Monica explained: "And the university has had global growth in its strategic plan the whole time. And so, it means definitely international student enrollment growth." Michelle, from the English-language program, described the situation similarly: "International student population is growing and growing and growing and especially after the pandemic."

In talking about the English-language program and where they sourced students, Michelle highlighted the importance of non-degree seeking, exchange students from abroad: "A lot of our students [in the English-language program] are exchange students . . . [from] Japan, which a lot of students don't like because they want diversity in their classroom and we have like, 30+ Japanese students." In this instance, the enrollment numbers caused concern within the English program because of the lack of diversity in the classroom, as well as with the lack of students matriculating into the university's degree programs. Nevertheless, because the English program relied on revenue to pay staff salaries and deliver the curriculum, Michelle viewed enrollment in the English program as a success.

On the education abroad side, the discussion focused on addressing issues of access and affordability. Monica explained this as: "It means giving our students exposure and experiences with international experiences, whether it is study abroad or National Student Exchange," which was a domestic consortium of universities that exchange students amongst themselves. Still, this appeared to be a secondary concern in the discourse around internationalization. Martha, from the education abroad office, explained: "When people think about internationalization, they are no longer just thinking of bringing international students here. Now, we're also focusing on the fact that, hey, study abroad is a part of this." Martha committed to increasing participation in education by broadening access. One strategy Martha used to achieve this goal was highlighting the opportunities afforded to students through the National Student Exchange program. The

effect of this effort by Martha's assessment was: "An increase in numbers, we're seeing an increase of majors, we're seeing an increase of student diversity in programs."

It was notable that the reliance on National Student Exchange was the answer to expanding access to experiences that fall under the education abroad umbrella, even though these experiences were not taking place abroad, per se. This highlighted the importance and centrality of student mobility, regardless of the destination, within UMU's internationalization strategy. The discussion of UMU's internationalization strategy indicated mobility was an area subject to internal, normative forces of institutional culture. The need to change the culture was especially true in the case of education abroad and broadening access to opportunities for *local* students, as Martha described it, to have an international or cross-cultural experience. Finally, it is important to note participants paid little to no attention to the external landscape in their discussions with me about mobility. This suggested the external factors had little impact on how UMU conceived its internationalization strategy as it related to mobility.

Partnerships

Partnerships might take the form of internal cross-unit relationships, system or state-level collaborations, bi- or multi-lateral institutional partnerships, or governmental and non-governmental linkages. At UMU, partnerships were cast primarily in terms of internal relationships, though there was some discussion about exchange or bi-lateral institutional partnerships.

Monica provided an example of partnerships on campus being important to the goal of comprehensive internationalization:

So global education is the player in everything. And, again, we don't do it separately . . .

if we do food pantry, we have the DEI there, we have the student affairs, and then we

have global education always as a partner.

Martha echoed the same sentiment of partnerships across campus being endemic to achieving the

goals of internationalization, and specifically expanding participation in education abroad

programs:

I have to, you know, create partnerships all over campus. And the office has to run in a

way that it's gonna *[sic]* be a positive experience for people to come and take part in

these experiences, both faculty and students, to have them grow.

In terms of the power of these relationships in helping achieve the strategic goal of expanding

participation in education abroad, Martha noted: "But I think we're given the space now to make

some of those changes and to create some of those relationships and our office is at the point

where like, 'Hey, we play well with others.'"

Mary Beth, from the international student services unit, echoed similar sentiments to

Martha and Monica. In describing the importance of the university's international advisory

council, which was made up of students, staff, and faculty, Mary Beth explained: "So, it's for

awareness . . . to have more people across campus understand what we're doing and what some

of our needs are." The internal focus for Mary Beth extended beyond the advisory council: "We

have really good working relationships with student health services, university advising, the

counseling center."

Internal partnerships emerged in these discussions to enable the institution's

internationalization strategy but were not cast as a specific goal. Partnerships served as a

mechanism to create normative changes to the institution's culture that supported the growth of international student enrollment and expanded participation in education abroad.

The English language program was an area where discussions around partnerships took an external focus. When explaining possible challenges for the internationalization strategy and the English-language program, Michelle explained: "And altogether the trend worldwide is that children start studying English earlier in life, because of the internet, movies, YouTube, they watch a lot of things in English." While this trend might exert downward pressure on the program's enrollments and, as a result, revenue, UMU's partnerships in Japan appeared to ameliorate the concern, as Michelle noted: "Japan is one of those countries where most students need a study abroad experience to graduate from their Japanese university. Like it's a mandatory requirement. So, their government and the universities support their students financially."

In contrast to the internal partnership discussions, Michelle placed the future success of the English language program within broader global trends, demonstrating that the external landscape proved critical to its success. The program's future was subject to the whims of coercive, external policies of foreign governments and technological advancement. Still, UMU did not have a ready strategic response to the external risks facing its English-language program.

Themes in Context: British University

British University (BU) was an urban university located in England. Participants characterized BU's history as a humble one, which saw the university enrolling students from the immediate region, focusing on teaching over research, and unconcerned with internationalization. As of 2023, BU enrolled more than 40,000 students and over 2,000 international students, making it one of the largest universities in the United Kingdom (UK). At the time of the study, BU was undergoing implementation of a new internationalization strategy

that was situated as supporting the university's primary strategies of research and education.

Having interviewed staff within leadership and managerial roles, it became clear that BU was a

university on a campaign to raise its global rankings and identity in direct competition with what

Nina, the director of international programs, described as "the noisy neighbor down the road" – a

highly ranked, globally reputable institution.

Leadership

Internationalization leadership permeated the administrative and faculty structures at BU,

which was composed of a pro-vice chancellor for international (similar to an assistant/associate

provost), a director of international programs, college-level faculty heads of internationalization,

departmental leads on internationalization, and staff supporting three functional international

activity areas of partnerships, incoming international students, and outgoing study abroad

students. Leadership at BU was, on the one hand, centralized in terms of administration and, on

the other hand, devolved throughout the faculty.

The advent of this structure emerged around 2013–2014 and paved the way for BU to

foray out of its history of being regionally focused to engaging internationally. As one faculty

head of international, Nona, explained:

> My understanding is that the university has a history of an identity that is very much
>
> about serving this area of England. And therefore, in the past, hadn't been as focused on
>
> international student recruitment as some of its other competitor institutions.

Another faculty head of international, Nigel, confirmed this: "I became the international lead . . .

probably about 10 years ago. It was really when the university started to get its sort of

international strategy together a bit more." During this same period the university hired the first

pro-vice chancellor, international (PVCI) and subsequently a director of international programs.

Several interviewees attributed the successes of internationalization at BU to this leadership

structure as Nora, the head of student (outbound) mobility, noted in her reflection: "I think

through the structures that we have, particularly in faculty . . . I think that the internationalization

strategy that it's there is well understood."

Participants also credited this structure with BU's new internationalization strategy being

cast as an enabling strategy to the university's two main foci on research and education. The

director of international programs, Nina, explained it as follows:

> The university [has] the two core strategies, research and education, and a whole bunch
>
> of enabling strategies of which internationalization is one. We [international] used to be
>
> up there, as well. But because we've kind of become a little bit more ingrained it's not a
>
> devaluing of the strategy.

Participants described the evolution of the leadership structure as BU's attempt to catch up its

internationalization efforts to other universities. As Nora put it: "I think we're late to the game

really, you know, this is something that people were talking about 10 years ago."

BU's leadership structure emerged as a response to the external mimetic isomorphic

forces of other universities engaging in international activities. Despite this reactive foray into

internationalization, BU experienced a significant increase in its international student population,

which posed both opportunities and challenges in terms of resources and academics/curricula.

Resources

Conversations about resources at BU focused on the economic benefit accrued to the

university from international student tuition revenue. Participants were unabashed about this fact

and contextualized the other strategic areas of outbound student mobility, transnational

educational ventures, and partnerships as direct beneficiaries of the increased revenue. For

example, Neil, a mid-level manager for BU's transnational education and partnerships, described

the importance of international student revenue for the university: "They've lost a million

pounds in inflation alone. I think the stat was. So, you need to recover that from elsewhere and

an international student fee income is huge."

The faculty lead within business and law, Nancy, echoed this sentiment in explaining the

centrality of international student enrollment:

> From a financial strategy to be able to cope with what's happening in the UK, in terms of
>
> keeping fees at a certain level and not allowing us to increase them . . . So, it helps us
>
> maintain our balance sheet.

Nora, the head of mobility, extended the benefits of the success of international student

recruitment to broader internationalization efforts: "The biggest successes is the increase in

international students on campus and stepping up within the international office, and in the

structures within the faculties, as well." Nora's colleague, Naomi, who worked in international

student recruitment expanded on this: "When we started, the recruitment side of the international

office was quite small. We went from being like kind of [less than five] people to I think, seven

of us, eight of us, including the head [of international], as well." The outcome of increased

international student enrollment was a more robust international administrative operations, as

well as more deeply engaged faculty.

These successes notwithstanding, the head of international, Nina, mentioned BU's

administrative systems as being a hinderance to serving an increasing number of international

applicants:

What we need to offer to international applicants is an exceptional customer service.

We've been rocked by implementation of a new system. And if that had gone smoother,

we would have met our target a couple of years ago.

BU's experience with the "phenomenal growth" in international student enrollment, as Nina

described it, brought opportunities afforded through the increased tuition revenue to the

institution. However, it also invited challenges to how the institution adapted to the growth.

Nora, head of mobility, summed up this tension as a matter of fact that: "Universities are kind of

like big, massive oil tankers that move slowly."

BU was not unlike other universities when it came to difficulty adapting to change. Neil's

and Nancy's observations about the external pressures of inflation and the government's control

over how much tuition BU may charge further situate BU within a broader coercive and mimetic

environment within the UK, which propelled universities to enter and compete in the

international space. If everyone else is doing it, why not BU?

Academics/Curriculum

BU's faculty and curriculum were central to the internationalization strategy. Whereas

the first iteration of the strategy introduced new structures to BU, the latest strategy focused on

raising BU's global rankings and improving the student experience through internationalizing the

curriculum, familiar in both the ACE and DAAD models of comprehensive internationalization.

One of the faculty heads of international, Nona, situated the importance of

internationalizing the curriculum as a matter of the student experience: "The big change from the

previous international strategy is the project around the internationalization of the student

experience." She went on to add:

That has encouraged the change in strategic direction from achieving 5% of students having a physical mobility experience, to instead thinking about the other 95% of the students and broadening that up into a much wider strategic goal of 100% of students having an internationalized education.

BU sought to internationalize the curriculum through collaborative online international learning, or COIL. COIL proved difficult to upstart, however, because it required a significant amount of workload. Natasha, a departmental lead, noted: "And workload is a huge barrier. So that's a kickback that I get from colleagues about things like COIL, when they'll say, but that's going to increase my workload significantly." Nancy supported this assertion: "COIL is what I would call brilliant, but it takes a lot of work. And talking to any academics, they will tell you that they are overworked." Responding to this barrier, Nancy instead focused on embedding international perspectives across the business and law college's curriculum:

The faculty itself has looked at every single program to determine whether the content is attractive to international students to bring them in, but also whether the content is internationalized enough to provide all students with an understanding of internationalization at the same time as decolonizing the actual content.

Within Nancy's college, internationalization efforts extended beyond the curriculum to creating partnerships to develop BU's international research profile with the goal of raising its rankings: "It is incredibly difficult to get a high-quality good partner, if you don't have that if you're not ranked highly on the QS rankings, or you don't have triple accreditation, very difficult to land, high-quality partnerships." Here, Nancy highlighted the intersection of internal factors, namely the college's triple accreditation, with the external ones of ranking systems and accreditation bodies as influencers in that college's approach to internationalization.

The faculty heads of international I interviewed agreed the importance of grounding BU's internationalization strategy within the faculty and curriculum. This was due to external coercive forces such as rankings and accreditations. It was also due to internal normative needs to educate students prepared to enter a globalized workforce and society. Even though international student enrollment was the driver of the strategy at BU, academics and the curriculum were important cornerstones because of the reality of today's world, which, as participants described, demanded students have globalized perspectives and the university's responsibility in delivering that. Nancy summed it up as: "You're not really a university without being international anymore."

Mobility

Inbound and outbound student mobility characterized the general approach to internationalization at BU. In developing the latest iteration of its internationalization strategy, BU realized the inherent risks to this approach not least because of external influencers such as the COVID pandemic, Brexit (UK exit from the EU), and the UK government's visa policies. The head of international, Nina, put it this way:

> And one of the biggest changes, and this is about the internationalization of the university rather than just about income . . . is where before we had exchanges, mobility as a key part of the internationalization strategy, now it's a bit more holistic.

Nora, the head of mobility, further explained how COVID interrupted BU's efforts in sending students abroad:

> We can't have this conversation without talking about COVID and the impact of government pauses where higher education in many countries stood still . . . so that makes moving people difficult, so the target of 5% of students abroad was put on hold.

The same sentiment about the external environment was echoed by Nigel, faculty head of international for natural sciences, who evaluated it as follows:

> We are no longer under the Erasmus exchange program, where students could travel to any country in Europe . . . and the [UK] government has replaced it with the Turing program which is much less flexible and much less generous. I think that the potential for students to get international experience has actually reduced.

Finally, Naomi, from international recruitment, noted the barriers to incoming, international students being able to arrive to BU due to COVID closures at embassies and resultant visa delays: "With COVID. You know, we've had a lot of problems with students getting visas, being able to get here on time."

The theme of mobility emerged as an area wrought with risks and uncertainty because of external forces. These created the need for BU to adapt and re-think its approach to internationalization, allowing BU the opportunity to make normative changes in how it thought about internationalization. Moving from a mobility-focused strategy to a more holistic one, as Nina described it, meant broadening the strategy to include curricular and co-curricular activities.

Partnerships

Partnerships were where BU's new strategy for internationalization, which Nina described as holistic, became apparent. Noting the risks to a mobility-centered internationalization strategy, several participants described BU's engagement with local leaders, the establishment of an institute in China, and branding and delivering BU's curriculum abroad (referred to a transnational education, or TNE) as strategic efforts to diversify its internationalization activities.

Describing BU's engagement with local leaders, Nina explained: "And so, the greater city authorities have an internationalization strategy. And they involve the universities in these conversations. So, they interviewed me, they consulted with me on what we should be thinking about for our student body." This consultation with city leaders led BU to exploring setting up an institute in China based on an existent sister-city partnership. Neil, who worked in the partnership unit, described the importance of establishing the institute in China as BU having: "Strategies to develop more transnational education partnerships and have a target to the 2000s [for enrollment]. The joint institute [in China] will deliver on that."

Building on BU's activity in China and its strategic goal to expand its transnational education activity, Neil noted a new degree-granting venture BU established in Egypt: "I would say the TNE partnerships, which is the anchor of the partnership, so where we deliver our awards overseas and that be the anchor, that can then feed into everything else that we want to achieve." From Neil's perspective, these TNE activities not only anchored BU's approach to partnership but also enabled the wider internationalization strategy.

The faculty lead from natural science, Nigel, brought forth his own example of offshoring BU's education by delivering BU curriculum in Tanzania to students from all over the world. This endeavor served an additional purpose of capacity building as Nigel described: "They haven't had any previous experience of teaching at the master's level. So, we're providing a bit of a sort of expertise on how you run a master's level course."

It is important to note that participants mentioned some concerns with BU's engagement with foreign governments and institutions. Nigel explained the concern as:

I just wonder whether that, as the university if we should be dealing with various

countries. You know, we're happy to deal with China, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, places like

that. I've never ever seen anything within any of our international meetings about there

being an assessment of whether we should be working with certain countries.

Nigel closed his statement that "it seems money is more important to them." The match between

BU's internal culture and the external landscape of opportunity presented difficult ethical

questions. The ethical questions aside, the normative propensity and coercive imperative to

continue engaging its international strategy to drive revenue was at the heart of BU's

internationalization strategy.

Themes in Context: Swedish University

Swedish University (SU) was located about two hours from a major city. It was a young

university, granting PhDs only since the 1990s. Prior, SU was considered a university college,

like a teaching institution in the United States. It enrolled around 12,000 students of which about

2,000 were international, including those from within the EU. SU was updating its

internationalization strategy at the time of the study. The participants in the study, which

included everyone from the president's advisor for internationalization to administrative

managers and faculty leads within the colleges, characterized SU as a leader of

internationalization in Sweden. Emblematic of SU's campus culture, all participants conducted

their interviews in and spoke English either as a first or second language, the campus signage

was all in English, and the university website is published in both English and Swedish.

Leadership

Participants from SU characterized the university's leadership culture as integral to the

development of the internationalization strategy. Sophia, who worked in the international office

and managed programs for the health and welfare school, explained the intersection of leadership

culture with the process of creating the latest internationalization strategy: "You know, in

Sweden, everything is super inclusive, or it seems to be inclusive. So, it was one person [the president's advisor] in charge of that, and then she made a super job, meeting all departments and getting input." Sophia linked the strategy directly to the university's top internationalization officer, while also noting the performance of inclusivity used to create the international strategy. This extended the understanding of leadership as being not just about the culture, but also the structure of leadership.

The link between structure and culture became more evident when I interviewed Stefan, a colleague of Sophia's in the International Office and who managed programs for communication and education. Stefan described the process of creating the strategy as follows: "It's from the down, the grassroots up, how they do these strategies . . . And not the top down." This bottom-up, inclusive leadership structure did not lead to consensus among the participants about what SU's international strategy was. Some described it as unclear or still in development, while others characterized it as a statement without specific goals. The president's advisor and lead on internationalization, Sara, echoed this sentiment in describing the strategy: "So it's achieving excellence while we're working across borders to become an international university." In describing further what this meant, Sara added: "This is our working plan . . . but it hasn't sort of actualized yet . . . I think our strategy could be much clearer." Sophia supported this assertion in her description of the strategy as "a symbolic statement," while her faculty colleague in the school of health welfare, Sabrina, explained:

> . . . for many years, it has been like, not a clear link from the top all the way down. That's what we have experienced. We have like the strategies, but the strategies are there somewhere, you know, and then we work very locally on this in this school.

Noting the university's organization around the four schools, what participants all referred to as *companies*, Sabrina, further highlighted SU's internationalization strategy being dependent on the schools:

> . . . we have like a vacuum in a way because we have this strategy for upcoming years, work plan for the school, where we have these goals, and we are working with them. But it all come *[sic]* back to each department needs to put in the hours to make it possible.

> The result of SU's leadership structure and culture, which was grounded in the central administration of activities within the international office and supported and advanced through the individual schools or *companies*, led to an international strategy that provided vision for the university, but left open interpretation of what that vision looked like in action. This represented an internal, normative process of changing institutional culture and structure around internationalization, an observation which became more evident when participants discussed resources.

Resources

Participants cast resources as reflections of SU's culture and structure. Sabrina, the faculty member from health and welfare, linked the challenge of supporting her school's strategic focus and ability to gain administrative support of that effort: "But since we're working with internationalization of curriculum and internationalization at home, we would like to have a support person at international office." Sabrina explained that they did not get this support because: "We would like to have support for our processes here and when we go to international office, no, they can only help us with mobilities."

Explaining the disconnect between the schools and the central international office, the program manager for internationalization within the engineering school, Sadie, opined about

staffing: "So, we do have it [incoming international students] on another scale, but because it's

not bringing in money, cash, because it's exchange, you don't see it." By not seeing it, Sadie

clarified later that much of the work around internationalization occurred because of people's

passions and willingness to work extra hours outside of their assigned workload:

> It's the same with internationalization, it creates a frustration for people to get to a certain
>
> place, positions, where you actually have time to work with internationalization
>
> strategically, and not just do it in your extra time, because you think it's fun.

In reporting disconnects between staffing levels and structures, participants also cited

challenges with fiscal resources. Here, the external environment of both the Swedish and EU

governments played central roles, even when SU enjoyed success in generating revenue from

international student tuition and fees.

Participants all agreed that SU benefitted from these fees not least because, as Sara, who

led internationalization, explained: "Because we're a university, we need money and

international students that's our way of getting money that is from outside of Europe." The

reference to Europe was in context of those international students who came to SU as non-fee-

paying exchange students funded by the EU's Erasmus program, and those coming as fee-paying

from outside the EU. Seth, the manager for international recruitment, also commented on the

EU/non-EU dynamic in terms of SU's English-language training program: "[It's] even for some

EU students, but they don't pay tuition fees, but they paid boarding fees. So, we attract a few EU

every year, but it's mainly for the fee-paying."

Other participants connected SU's focus on recruiting fee-paying international students to

the Swedish government introducing such fees in its laws governing higher education in 2012.

At the same time, the EU continued bolstering funds through the Erasmus exchange program, as

well as for funding research. Garnering these funds became increasingly competitive and cumbersome. Sara described an important objective for SU beyond its internationalization strategy was to become part of the European University Initiative (EUI) because:

> We see this push from the EU is so strong . . . that lots of the funding that universities get for research seems to get filtered through EUI. So, there'll be a huge advantage for EUIs to access funding.

However, Sara added the caveat: "We also see it [joining EUI] as costly and taking lots of time."

Stefan, the manager for international activities in the communication and education school, shared a similar sentiment about the EU as it related to resources:

> Mobility Online, it's a mighty system we're working on for the collaboration on all the exchange . . . we have colleagues working like almost 50% only for this, even though we don't really get any funding for, not from EU, not from the school here.

Stefan noted the EU mandated all universities participating in Erasmus to adopt this system. So, while SU benefited from the student mobility funded through Erasmus, there were intrinsic costs borne by the university to participate.

The conversation around resources highlighted the central role external governmental laws and policies played in SU's internationalization strategy. On the one hand, the coercive forces to abide by laws and policies drained the institution's fiscal and human resources. These same laws and policies, on the other hand, provided SU the opportunity to garner additional resources if they conformed to the coercive forces by making the normative changes within the institution. These same forces explained the fragmented landscape of internationalization within SU's academics and curriculum.

Academics/Curriculum

Much of the difference in what internationalization looked like across the university's

four schools or *companies* depended on whether programs were offered in English and the types

of programs offered by the school.

Seth, the international recruitment manager, explained why the business school enjoyed

enrolling the highest number of fee-paying international students at SU as follows: "Because of

our international business school . . . almost everything is taught in English at the business

school." Seth extended this with a comparison: "Whereas at the school of engineering, we have

two bachelor programs taught in English and there it's not as international." Sadie, the

international programs manager in engineering, built upon Seth's observations: "And then the

school of education and communication, maybe they're the ones that haven't come as far along

when it comes to internationalization as some of the other schools." Stefan, who managed

programs in that school, provided insight into how the school has defined its strategic focus

where: "They have also been focusing on making sure all programs have English courses."

Stefan later added: "I know they had requested my colleague, Sophia, to come and have an

information meeting about internationalization at home, and what she's been doing when it

comes to the school of health and welfare, with internationalization at home."

This mimetic behavior of the schools adopting others' tactics appeared to be part of the

university's culture within the structure of the schools as independent *companies*. In describing

her view of internationalization activities at SU, the faculty lead for international from health and

welfare, Sabrina, described it as: "So some focus on ritual change . . . we all are actually looking

through their curriculum to internationalization, make them more internationalized." But how

each school approached this work depended on the types of students served, as noted by Sabrina:

[Student mobility] also has to do with the teaching and the type of programs we have

because we are education, health professionals, social service professionals. We cannot,

it's not that easy. We have one semester that they can go abroad.

Despite the divergent tactics within each school's internationalization strategy, through

mimetic isomorphism, the schools all shared a focus on internationalizing their curricula. I noted

the centrality of internationalization at home and internationalization of the curriculum within

SU's internationalization strategy since both featured prominently in DAAD's model. This

indicated SU was responding to external mimetic forces.

Mobility

Mobility anchored SU's internationalization activities, even though many participants

discussed how mobility was not the end goal of internationalization. As the head of international,

Sara, confirmed: "We want mobility, so that's not going to change. We want students in and out

and staff in and out . . . mobility's always going to be there." Sophia from the international office

also clarified: "In the international office mobility is the core activity."

However, many participants reported changes in student preferences as driving changes

in SU's approach to mobility. Sophia, who also oversaw all exchange agreements, explained:

"Like previous years they wanted to go as far as possible . . . it was always Australia and New

Zealand, US and now, it's more like, oh, I can go to Germany." According to participants,

students desired being closer to home after the COVID pandemic, accessing Erasmus funds, and

being more climate-friendly (not having to travel by plane).

The focus on mobility extended to the School of Engineering, which Sadie described:

They [the school] have the normal exchange here where students go for a normal

exchange semester, but then they also have this international campus exchange where

students go to a partner university, study half time and are doing an internship part time.

Seth, the head of international recruitment, also placed inbound, international student mobility

within the culture of mobility at SU: "Part of the internationalization strategy is focused on

international recruitment, and to have a diverse group of students study here at the university."

Adding to this, Seth reflected on where SU started with this effort in 2011/2012 and situated SU

within the context of the EU:

So we were at the forefront, and we actually still are, in terms of numbers of fee-paying

students and the number of EU students, and if you look at it from like, how big is our

university, then we're probably at the top.

Sadie confirmed the same: "We have definitely the highest percent of all the Swedish

universities. So it has paid off, at least up until now."

Compared to other areas of internationalization at SU, such as internationalization at

home, mobility remained not only central to the strategy, but a point of pride. It was an area

where SU enjoyed much success and solidified its reputation within Sweden and beyond. That

several participants drew comparisons between SU's and other universities' performance on

mobility suggests normative isomorphism around mobility and universities' internationalization

strategies, much of which linked back to EU funding and support for these programs through

Erasmus.

Partnership

SU's focus on partnerships served to garner resources, raise its reputation, and support its

mobility goals through bilateral exchange agreements. SU's partnership activity approached

what the DAAD model of internationalization called the *third mission*, which focused on internationalization to advance the social good.

In terms of garnering resources, Sara's explanation of the imperative for SU to join the EU's EUI movement was paramount because: "Our take on it is, it's likely to end up as A teams and B teams in terms of universities. So we see it as very important to try and get in [to the EUI]." Sara noted additional benefits of its bid to join EUI included: "And the funding for research will be one of them. And the rumor is that there's 600 million euros that have been put aside for the EUIs for research funding."

In attempting to become part of the EUI initiative, Sara characterized it as universities having to chase the EU because of how fast it moved and complex it was. But the Swedish government was also pushing universities to join the chase, because, as Sara put it: "There's a lot of money that Sweden is paying to the EU. At the moment Sweden's not taking out in terms of sort of research funding and other funding sources." Sara believed this push to gain more access to EU funds by Swedish universities were: "Signals from the [Swedish] government . . . that the funding from Swedish organizations will be decreasing because the funding at the EU level will increase." This interplay between the Swedish government and the EU subjected SU to coercive external forces to align its internationalization strategy with EU priorities, lest it risked losing funding from both national and supranational levels of government.

Partnerships also enabled SU to support its mobility strategy and in doing so raise its reputation. Sadie explained that the focus on internationalization originating back to the early 2010s was: "To make us stand out a little bit, to have our own, like uniqueness. And, it's paid off because I mean, we are known in Sweden as being one of the best." Clarifying this intersection

of partnerships, mobility, and reputation, Sophia offered this explanation for why SU saw its

partnerships activities and joining EUI as so important:

> What I have also seen in many years, is sometimes you do things only because other
>
> university *[sic]* that doing this, so you don't want to come behind. So, you do things like
>
> this . . . EUI.

This sense of not being behind and staying ahead underscored SU's approach to partnerships. At

SU, partnerships were driven by mimetic pressures to become the most international university

in Sweden, as well as by coercive forces of the EU's funding schemes, exemplified by EUI.

Case Study Comparison and Discussion: Typologies of Internationalization Strategies

The case studies of UMU, BU, and SU revealed important points of convergence and

divergence in how each university defined and executed its internationalization strategy. It is

remarkable that each university found itself in a period of re-envisioning its strategy. I did not

intend for this to be the case going into the case study as this was not an inclusion criterion for

the sample selection. It is also notable that each university situated the beginning of its

internationalization efforts to the early 2010s, when each created their first administrative

leadership structure for internationalization. Finally, throughout the conversations, while no one

pointed to the COVID pandemic as the reason for renewing their internationalization strategy, all

universities found the opportunity during the pandemic to pause and re-think their approach. The

literal pause COVID forced upon universities' international activities allowed for a metaphorical

pause among the universities to re-think their strategies.

These three main takeaways suggest mimetic and normative undercurrents of

universities' internationalization strategies. While each university expressed and defined one's

internationalization strategy in unique ways, the core activities remained similar. These

activities, namely international mobility, internationalized curricula, and partnerships were embedded in both the ACE and DAAD models of internationalization. Leadership structures also exhibited a trend toward centralization, albeit with nuances, and reflected pillar two of administrative structure in the ACE model. Finally, each university acknowledged the centrality of driving revenue through fee-paying, international students to their strategies. While revenue generation was not a specific tactic or goal named within either the ACE or DAAD model, scholars and practitioners alike widely recognized the revenue generating capability of internationalization as being of central importance to the institution (de Wit, 2020; Lee, 2021; Teixeira, 2021). Together, these forces created convergence in how universities defined internationalization.

Still, differences in internationalization strategies emerged when comparing the institutions. At UMU, we saw a university focused on achieving specific goals related to international student enrollment and outbound study abroad, but there was little mention of concerted activities related to internationalization of the curriculum or creating international experiences for all students on campus. Also, the leadership was highly centralized and disconnected from the faculty. BU's strategy also focused on driving international student enrollment, but this goal incentivized the faculty to take interest in internationalizing the academic experience for all students. The leadership structure was also dependent on faculty involvement and was thus more devolved than what we saw at UMU. SU's hub-and-spoke leadership structure, where there was centralized administrative support for each individual school's internationalization agendas, represented the least centralized of the three. And while SU focused on international student recruitment, it was muted in comparison to UMU and BU in part because of the funding the university received from the Swedish and EU governments.

I contend the explanation about the convergence and divergence of the universities'
internationalization strategies is found within the institutional structure and culture and the
external landscape. The former represents mimetic and normative convergence, whereas the
latter captures much of the coercive divergence. Whereas in the US, UMU made little mention of
the external environment in determining its internationalization strategy, BU was very aware of
its dependency on the government's policies related to student visas, as well as geopolitics in
places like China. SU was keenly tied to the priorities of the EU in charting its priorities for
internationalization and was highly dependent on both the Swedish and EU governments'
policies and funding for higher education.

The result of this varied landscape is an emergent three-part typology of
internationalization strategies. UMU emerged in this study as being more *idealistic* in its
internationalization strategy in that the university seemed to downplay or ignore the barriers that
might stand in its way, including government policies and geopolitics. Instead, they exhibited a
high level of adaptability, allowing them to stay focused on the goal with little distraction. This
was, in part, because UMU was subjected to little coercive isomorphic forces.

BU exemplified a *realist* internationalization strategy that took account of the external
landscape, including competition, government policies, and geopolitics, and matched that to its
internal structure and culture. This gave way to a more deeply embedded form of
internationalization across the institution, especially in the faculty, that extended focus beyond
international recruitment and revenue generation. This was the case even when those remained
cored to the strategy.

At SU, there was a *pragmatic* internationalization strategy. This strategy realized the
benefit of generating revenue through international student fees, but which did not rely on it.

Instead, SU augmented their strategy to align with other funding resources coming from the EU and to a lesser extent the Swedish government and focused on other supporting activities such as internationalization at home.

Extending the typologies to the isomorphic effects evidenced through the case study, one can contend an *idealistic* internationalization strategy emerges in an environment of low levels of coercive and high levels of normative forces. A *realist* approach occurs where there are medium levels of coercive and high levels of mimetic forces. A university adopts a *pragmatist* stance where there are high levels of coercive, mimetic, and normative pressures.

Conclusion and Future Research

This study presented answers to questions about why and how internationalization strategies emerge in different contexts and identified the roles institutional structures and cultures play. I found that structures and cultures related to normative and mimetic forces explain why institutions converge around the core activities of a given internationalization strategy. These same forces also explain some of the differences across the institutions, but external coercive forces related to government policies and geopolitics explain much of the divergence. The result of the study was an emergent typology of internationalization strategies as being *idealist*, *realist*, and *pragmatist* in nature. None of the case studies represented a pure example of these typologies, but rather offered introductory research and exploration into whether such a typology is a viable explanation for convergence and divergence around internationalization strategies.

Future research opportunities abound from this study. First, the emergent typology can be tested in other case studies to see if it is able to answer the same questions in different contexts. A validation study might seek to replicate this same study in the same or similar countries and contexts. A comparison study might comprise a case study in the Global South to contrast with this one, which occurred in the Global North. Such a study could serve to expand on the

typology identified in this study by introducing new forces of convergence or divergence. Future research could also introduce new methodologies, such as community-based methods, to involve practitioners developing or managing internationalization strategies as part of the study itself. This would add further nuance to the typologies, which could assist in proving or disproving its explanatory power. As internationalization continues to evolve additional opportunities to test this study's findings will emerge that one cannot predict today just as the COVID pandemic and emergent geopolitical uncertainties are reshaping the contours of current internationalization strategies.

Chapter 5

Draft Journal Article

Introduction

This study sought to understand the forces that shape how an institution defines its internationalization strategy by considering the interplay between institutional cultures and structures and external influences. Following years of increasing inward and outward student mobility throughout much of the world, the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 laid bare the realities of the interconnected, globalized world, especially in the higher education sector (Leask & Gayardon, 2021; de Wit, 2021). The field of international education confronted multiple crises during the pandemic as shuttered national borders prohibited the movement of people around the world. Staff were laid off in droves, students were stranded around the globe, classrooms were closed or went virtual, and national visa regimes ceased operations with little certainty if or when a *new normal* would emerge, and if it did, what the *new normal* would mean for the future of international education and global student mobility (Craciun et al., 2022; Fischer, 2020; MacGregor, 2021). After nearly two decades of sustained growth, to say international education today is facing an uncertain future is an understatement.

This study reflected on how higher education institutions (HEIs) responded to shifting global landscapes as viewed through internationalization strategies. It employed a comparative case study of universities' internationalization strategies in the United States, England, and Sweden to identify the role different national social, political, and economic contexts have in determining a university's approach to internationalization. The result is an emergent typology of *idealist*, *realist*, and *pragmatist* strategies, which allows researchers and practitioners to gauge the trajectory of higher education internationalization more fully.

Models of Internationalization: Local Convergence, Global Divergence

Scholarship on the internationalization of higher education tended toward prescriptive instead of descriptive forays into understanding internationalization efforts. Because of the focus on prescriptions and outcomes, the literature traditionally cast internationalization as a process and a response to broader economic, social, and political forces as opposed to being a matter of transformational institutional change (Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012; Leask & de Gayardon, 2021). This study's exploration of the forces determining why and how an institution developed a particular internationalization strategy took a systems-level or neoinstitutionalist theoretical approach, which accounted for multiple levels and types of influences.

Neoinstitutionalism and Internationalization

Grounded in early, foundational work by Max Weber (1958) on the bureaucratization of the professions, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) advanced our understanding of isomorphism, or convergence, by explaining how bureaucratization became about more than efficiency because "structural change in organizations seems less and less driven by competition or by the need for efficiency" (p. 147). Recognizing linear, rational homogenization did not occur in modern organizations, neoinstitutional theory allowed for empirical study into why and how homogenization of organizational structures and cultures emerged (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) three dimensions of coercive, mimetic, and normative convergence introduced new mechanisms by which to explain and predict organizational homogenization or isomorphism.

The concepts of coercive, mimetic, and normative convergence complicated earlier views of homogeneity emerging from a binary process (the organization either does or does not). In simplest terms, coercive isomorphism occurs under conditions where policies and laws force organizational compliance, which dictates over time that organizations begin to look and act the

same. Mimetic isomorphism refers to processes of homogenization arising out of emergent

practices within a field driven by trend setters. Since the 1980s, the internationalization of higher

education exemplified this type of convergence (Brandenburg et al., 2020). Normative

isomorphism, which explains convergence around shared sets of norms and values, is like

mimetic in that it is non-binding. It is also like coercive isomorphism because the reification of

norms over time forces conformity.

While the three types of convergence might be viewed as path-dependent, the original

conceptualization did not see each as mutually exclusive or dependent on one another. They

could occur in a synchronous, asynchronous, or scattered pattern (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

As analytical lenses, the three concepts opened the way for researchers to apply traditional

institutionalist theories in more dynamic ways, explaining both convergence and divergence

amongst organizations. This tension between convergence and divergence is illustrated by taking

a closer look at the context of scholarship on higher education internationalization.

Comprehensive Internationalization

Early literature on the internationalization of higher education revealed there was no one

way to approach internationalization at the institutional level. The predominant conversation,

particularly in the developed, Anglophone world for the last decade was grounded within the

idea of comprehensive internationalization. Prescient of this trend was Vaira's (2004) study

introducing the concept of organizational allomorphism as an analytical framework to account

for both macro- and micro-level responses to forces of globalization on higher education. Vaira

(2004) revealed convergence on a local level might be met with global divergence based upon a

mix of internal and external forces. The convergence-divergence duality pointed to multiple

outcomes of internationalization strategies and models, which Vaira (2004) characterized as internationalization templates.

Much like templates, analytical models and rubrics describing internationalization appeared in the research throughout the 2000s as a sequential or developmental process. These earlier studies pointed to the importance of an HEI's structures and cultures in internationalization strategies. Considering structural components, Siaya and Hayward (2003) recognized that "administrative offices and allocation of staff time are evidence of institutional commitment to internationalization" (p. 33), while Childress (2009) observed that an institution's financial commitment to internationalization impacted the extent to which it could be implemented. Childress (2009) also found the existence of an internationalization plan embedded within the university's mission was essential to implementing and monitoring internationalization, pointing to the importance of symbolic commitments to institutional cultural change. Other studies suggested that partnerships and collaborations, understanding the meaning of internationalization among students, faculty and staff, the role faculty played in international efforts, and programming played important roles in advancing internationalization at a given HEI (American Council on Education [ACE], 2012; Childress 2009; Knight 2004).

These studies gave rise to Hudzik's (2011) concept of comprehensive internationalization, which became the centerpiece of the ACE *Model of Comprehensive Internationalization* developed in 2012. Comprehensive internationalization emerged as a mimetic, trend-setting influence that recast universities' endeavors to become players on the global stage as a transformational process changing "the institution from mainly a local, regional, or national asset to a global one with significant bidirectional and multiple cross-border exchange" (Hudzik, 2011, p. 10). The redefinition of internationalization into a comprehensive,

transformational process moved it from a niche activity to the center of the institutional mission and reframed it as proactive and dynamic.

Methodology

An explanatory approach was best suited to discovering answers to the study's *what*, *how*, and *why* questions (Yin, 2018). The questions sought to explain what model(s) of internationalization emerge in a university's internationalization strategy and why, how do organizational structures and cultures inform an institution's internationalization strategy, and how does a university perceive and address challenges and opportunities within an internationalization strategy? In exploring these questions, I assumed a reflexive posture in my interactions with the participants and in my data analysis. This allowed me to control to the extent possible for my position as an *insider* as someone who practices professionally within the field of international education. It also allowed me to negotiate the *insider-outsider* role I assumed as an American vis-à-vis my participants in the United Kingdom (UK) and Sweden.

I identified the universities to include in the case studies through limiting criteria. Since the study's goal was to identify factors at local and national levels, I needed to vary the context and setting of each university. At the same time, I did not want each case study to be so contrasted with one another that making conclusions about the role played by both internal and external factors became difficult to generalize. I employed this reasoning and limiting criteria to center the case studies within developed economies and Western democracies (i.e., the Global North), namely in the United States, England, and Sweden. The contrast between these countries rests with different national governing structures related to higher education, where in the United States higher education was governed at the state level, the UK exemplified a devolved, national system of governance, and Sweden represented a nationalized system within the supranational European Union (EU) governing structure.

In the United States, I sought a university outside of the R1 Carnegie Classification system because these institutions tend to have large, de-centralized international programs (i.e., dispersed offices across a campus with no single structure or centralized strategy), enroll a significant proportion of total international students studying in the United States, and send large numbers of student abroad. Based on these quantitative measures, such institutions were not representative of most universities in the United States. The next level criterion was ensuring I could gain access to the university. I applied similar criteria in England, where I avoided institutions in the Russell Group, akin to R1 universities in the United States. Additionally, I relied on professional networks to establish access, which in this case represented institutions where linkages existed between my current institution and those in England. I applied the same criteria and logic in the case of Sweden.

I sought to obtain 15–20 interview, which comports with case study sampling methodology where 15 participant interviews was considered a minimum sample size and 20 was believed to produce little new data (Mason, 2010). To secure interviewees at each university, I identified staff within each university's international program where there was an existent relationship. Once participation was secured, I relied on snowball sampling to identify additional participants from each institution.

Using data obtained through semi-structured interviews, I arrived at five themes through inductive coding. The themes included: (a) leadership; (b) resources; (c) academics/curriculum; (d) mobility; and (e) partnerships. The keywords associated with each theme I used to code the data are included in Table 4.1. Through the process of contextualizing each theme, I identified three typologies of internationalization strategy within institutions of higher education: (a) pragmatic; (b) realistic; and (c) idealistic. This culminated in the study's finding that an

institution's internationalization strategy was explained through structural and cultural contexts,

as well as forces external to the institution related to governmental policies, geopolitics,

governmental and non-governmental actors, and funding schemes.

Table 5.1

Themes and Keywords

Themes	Leadership	Resources	Academics/ Curriculum	Mobility	Partnership
Keywords	Inclusive	Budget/Funding	Courses	Incoming students	Universities
	Knowledge(able)	Revenue	Faculty	Outgoing students	Government
	Experience	Staff	Interest	Fee-paying students	Country(ies)
	Decision-making	Human Resources (HR)	Work-load/time	International students	Exchange(s)
	Top-down	Salary(ies)	Virtual (e.g., COIL)	Exchange(s)	Agreements
	Bottom-up (Grassroots)	Time	English	Short-term	Virtual (e.g., meetings)
	Passion(ate)	Tuition/Fees	Ranking	Semester	Consortium
	Board President/Chancellor/ Rector	Scholarship(s)	Lectures	(Academic) Year	System
		Recruitment	Licensure	Visa(s)	Departments/ Offices
	Goals	Enrollment	Committee	Ranking	Transnational Education/TNE
	Support(ive)	Growth	Community (faculty, students, etc.)	Accessible	
	Transparency			Recruitment	

Case Study Participants

Upper Midwest University (UMU)

UMU was located in an ex-urban town in the United States and was considered a

comprehensive, regional public institution. UMU enrolled more than 1,000 international students

out of a total population of about 12,000 students. At the time of the case study, UMU was

developing a new internationalization strategy. The negotiation of the new internationalization

strategy and reflection on the institution's related accomplishments appeared throughout the

discussions I had with the institution's staff at the leadership and managerial level, made up of a

dean and directors or assistant directors across the three areas of international activity:

international student services, education abroad, and English-language programs.

British University (BU)

BU was an urban university located in England. Participants characterized BU's history

as a humble one, which saw the university enrolling students from the immediate region,

focusing on teaching over research, and unconcerned with internationalization. As of 2023, BU

enrolled more than 40,000 students and over 2,000 international students, making it one of the

largest universities in the UK. At the time of the study, BU was undergoing implementation of a

new internationalization strategy that was situated as a supporting the university's primary

strategies of research and education. Having interviewed staff within leadership and managerial

roles, it became clear that BU was a university on a campaign to raise its global rankings and

identity in direct competition with what Nina, the director of international programs, described as

"the noisy neighbor down the road" – a highly ranked, globally reputable institution.

Swedish University (SU)

SU was located about two hours from a major city. It was a young university, granting

PhDs only since the 1990s. Prior, SU was considered a university college, like a teaching

institution in the United States. It enrolled around 10,000 students of which about 2,000 were

international, including those from within the EU. SU was updating its internationalization

strategy at the time of the study. The participants in the study, which included everyone from the

president's advisor for internationalization to administrative managers and faculty leads within

the colleges, characterized SU as a leader of internationalization in Sweden. Emblematic of SU's

campus culture, all participants conducted their interviews in and spoke English either as a first

or second language, the campus signage was all in English, and the university website is published in both English and Swedish.

<div align="center">**Data Analysis: Themes in Context**</div>

Leadership

The leadership structure and culture at UMU relied on stability through anchoring leadership of international activities in the university administration. Mary Beth, the director of international student services, opined about the leadership: "I don't think [the former dean] had an easy job, because there's a lot of turnover in that position prior." She went on to add, "So, I think when the new dean came in, they had the opportunity to be visionary." Monica, who served as the dean overseeing internationalization, echoed the importance of UMU's leadership structure in advancing the internationalization strategy. When reflecting on the creation of the dean position in 2013, Monica noted: "That was huge, because this person would report directly to the provost. So that's when global education also became one of the strategic goals for the university."

This stability allowed leadership and staff to approach internationalization with adaptability and flexibility as needs changed over time. Mary Beth explained the responsibilities for international student recruitment and admissions were spread between the international student services office and the university's admissions office:

> The associate director of admission is responsible for international student admission, and I think it's 5% of his job description. And our applications went up like 300% since the pandemic so they did not have the staffing to do it.

The lack of leadership in international student recruitment and admissions led to a leadership structure where responsibilities were dispersed. While Mary Beth did not see this as problematic, the pattern of leadership gaps was repeated within the English language program, where

leadership was dependent on a faculty member who had contractual leaves of absences. Michelle, who worked in the English language program, described this as: "I serve as the director during summer months when faculty have vacations. So, I really have to be aware of all the aspects, because I often have to be in the director's role." Both Mary Beth and Michelle adapted to filling the gaps as part of their normal job expectations, creating an all-hands-on-deck attitude amongst the staff.

that the example of lacking leadership in international student recruitment and admissions arose after a significant increase in applications in the post-COVID years indicated the needs for leadership shift over time because of external forces. Coercive isomorphic influences, such as a pandemic, posed challenges to institutional leadership structures and cultures, which gave rise to a culture of adaptation at UMU.

Comparing the adaptive and stable leadership structure at UMU, leadership at BU was, on the one hand, centralized in terms of administration and, on the other hand, devolved throughout the faculty. The advent of this structure emerged around 2013–2014 and paved the way for BU to foray out of its history of being regionally focused to engaging internationally. As one faculty head of international, Nona, explained:

> My understanding is that the university has a history of an identity that is very much about serving this area of England. And therefore, in the past, hadn't been as focused on international student recruitment as some of its other competitor institutions.

Another faculty head of international, Nigel, confirmed this: "I became the international lead . . . probably about 10 years ago. It was really when the university started to get its sort of international strategy together a bit more."

During this same period the university hired the first pro-vice chancellor, international (PVCI) and subsequently a director of international programs. Several interviewees attributed the successes of internationalization at BU to this leadership structure as Nora, the head of student (outbound) mobility, noted in her reflection: "I think through the structures that we have, particularly in faculty . . . I think that the internationalization strategy that it's there is well understood." Nora did, however, contextualize BU within the external landscape of higher education in the UK: "I think we're late to the game really, you know, this is something that people were talking about 10 years ago." This highlights BU's leadership structure emerged as a response to the external mimetic isomorphic forces of other universities engaging in international activities.

SU's leadership structure and culture, which was grounded in the central administration of activities within the international office and supported and advanced through the individual schools, led to an international strategy that provided vision for the university, but left open interpretation of what that vision looked like in action. Sophia, who worked in the international office and managed programs for the health and welfare school, explained the intersection of leadership culture with the process of creating the latest internationalization strategy: "You know, in Sweden, everything is super inclusive, or it seems to be inclusive. So, it was one person [the president's advisor] in charge of that, and then she made a super job, meeting all departments and getting input." Sophia linked the strategy directly to the university's top internationalization officer, while also noting the performance of inclusivity used to create the international strategy. The link between structure and culture became more evident when I interviewed Stefan, a colleague of Sophia's in the international office and who managed

programs for communication and education. He described the process as follows: "It's from the down, the grassroots up, how they do these strategies . . . And not the top down."

This bottom-up, inclusive leadership structure did not lead to consensus among the participants about what SU's international strategy was. Some described it as unclear or still in development, while others characterized it as a statement without specific goals. The president's advisor and lead on internationalization, Sara, echoed this sentiment in describing the strategy: "So it's achieving excellence while we're working across borders to become an international university." In describing further what this meant, Sara added: "This is our working plan . . . but it hasn't sort of actualized yet . . . I think our strategy could be much clearer." Sophia supported this assertion in her description of the strategy as "a symbolic statement," while her faculty colleague in the school of health welfare, Sabrina, explained:

> . . . for many years, it has been like, not a clear link from the top all the way down. That's what we have experienced. We have like the strategies, but the strategies are there somewhere, you know, and then we work very locally on this in this school.

The hub-and-spoke leadership structure at SU created a sense of inclusivity and bottom-up governance. The more open structure and culture, as compared to UMU and BU, represented an internal, normative process of changing institutional culture and structure around internationalization. Figure 5.1 summarizes the theme of leadership across the three case studies.

Figure 5.1

Leadership
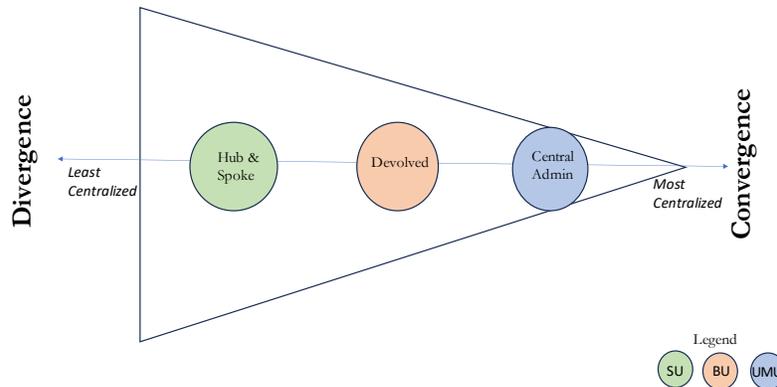
Resources

Resources at UMU, expressed through tuition revenue and staffing, presented both opportunities and challenges. On the one hand, the external landscape prohibited UMU from attracting and retaining the staff needed to grow and adjust as the university advanced its internationalization strategy. On the other hand, the internal structure of leadership navigated these barriers by using the state's policy apparatus to meet the desired goals of increasing international enrollment. The external, coercive forces that posed barriers to UMU's internationalization strategy were overcome by internal, normative adaptations.

Martha, who was a staff member in the education abroad office, summed up the revenue picture at UMU as: "Like bringing in students automatically means you're gonna *[sic]* have a revenue generating office," adding that education abroad is "kind of the oddball because we send students away, I send money outside the university." Martha's explanation identified a dichotomy between international activities which generated income and those which did not.

This dichotomy between revenue and non-revenue generating activities explained the centrality of international student recruitment to UMU's internationalization strategy. Monica,

the dean, summed this up in describing UMU's international student enrollment: "So, we are as big as it has been, but we are going to be much bigger. We want to be 1,500 or 18% [of the total enrollment], whatever comes first." Monica added further: "[The provost] will always say, well, international students are very important to us. And they are open about it so that way we can push very hard because everyone knows it's a non-negotiable."

While the growth of international student enrollment was a net positive, it posed other challenges regarding staffing and salaries. Several participants attributed this to the state's unionized workforce. When explaining the difficulty of attracting and retaining qualified staff, Mary Beth explained how she felt UMU's pay is not competitive in a meeting with the provost: "I told him you're seeing the starting pay for my assistant directors like $50,000, and he was like, what? He was shocked." Extending this thought, Martha viewed UMU's response to the external constraints as generally positive because UMU did not get "bogged down with . . . all of the red with the unions and that stuff."

Conversations about resources at BU focused on the economic benefit accrued to the university from international student tuition revenue. Neil, a mid-level manager for BU's transnational education and partnerships, described the importance of international student revenue for the university: "They've lost a million pounds in inflation alone. So, you need to recover that from elsewhere and an international student fee income is huge." The faculty lead within business and law, Nancy, echoed this sentiment in explaining the centrality of international student enrollment to BU's bottom line: "From a financial strategy to be able to cope with what's happening in the UK, in terms of keeping fees at a certain level and not allowing us to increase them." Viewed from the perspective of revenue from international student tuition, participants viewed BU's internationalization strategy as a success. As Nora, the

head of mobility, explained: "The biggest successes in the increase in international students on campus and stepping up within the international office, and in the structures within the faculties, as well."

These successes notwithstanding, the head of international, Nina, mentioned BU's administrative systems as being a hinderance to serving an increasing number of international applicants: "What we need to offer to international applicants is an exceptional customer service. We've been rocked by implementation of a new system. And if that had gone smoother, we would have met our target a couple of years ago." BU's experience with the "phenomenal growth" in international student enrollment, as Nina described it, brought opportunities afforded through the increased tuition revenue to the institution. However, it also invited challenges to how the institution adapted to the growth. Nora, head of mobility, summed up this tension as a matter of fact that: "Universities are kind of like big, massive oil tankers that move slowly."

BU is not unlike other universities when it comes to difficulty adapting to change. Neil's and Nancy's observations about the external pressures of inflation and the government's control over how much tuition BU may charge further situate BU within a broader coercive and mimetic environment within the UK, which propelled universities to enter and compete in the international space. If everyone else was doing it, why not BU?

At SU, participants cast resources as reflections of the university's culture and structure. Sabrina, the faculty member from health and welfare, linked the challenge of supporting her school's strategic focus and ability to gain administrative support of that effort: "But since we're working with internationalization of curriculum and internationalization at home, we would like to have a support person at international office." Sabrina explained that they did not get this

support because: "We would like to have support for our processes here and when we go to international office, no, they can only help us with mobilities."

In reporting disconnects between staffing levels and structures, participants also cited challenges with fiscal resources. Here, the external environment of both the Swedish and EU governments played central roles, as did revenue generated from fee-paying international students. Sara, who led internationalization at SU, explained: "Because we're a university, we need money and international students that's our way of getting money that is from outside of Europe." The reference to Europe was in context of those international students who came to SU as non-fee-paying exchange students funded by the EU's Erasmus program, and those coming as fee-paying from outside the EU.

The EU was central to conversations about resources, beyond the fee versus non-fee-paying dichotomy. Sara explained the importance SU placed on becoming part of the European University Initiative (EUI) because:

> We see this push from the EU is so strong . . . that lots of the funding that universities get for research seems to get filtered through EUI. So, there'll be a huge advantage for EUIs to access funding.

However, Sara added the caveat: "We also see it [joining EUI] as costly and taking lots of time."

Stefan, the manager for international activities in the communication and education school, shared a similar sentiment about the EU as it related to resources:

> Mobility Online, it's a mighty system we're working on for the collaboration on all the exchange . . . we have colleagues working like almost 50% only for this, even though we don't really get any funding for, not from EU, not from the school here.

Stefan noted the EU mandated all universities participating in Erasmus to adopt this system. So, while SU benefited from the student mobility funded through Erasmus, there were intrinsic costs borne by the university to participate.

The conversation around resources at SU highlighted the central role external governmental laws and policies played in SU's internationalization strategy. The coercive forces to abide by laws and policies drained the institution's fiscal and human resources. These same laws and policies, however, provided SU the opportunity to garner additional resources (see Figure 5.2) if they conformed to the coercive forces by making the normative changes within the institution.

Figure 5.2

Resources
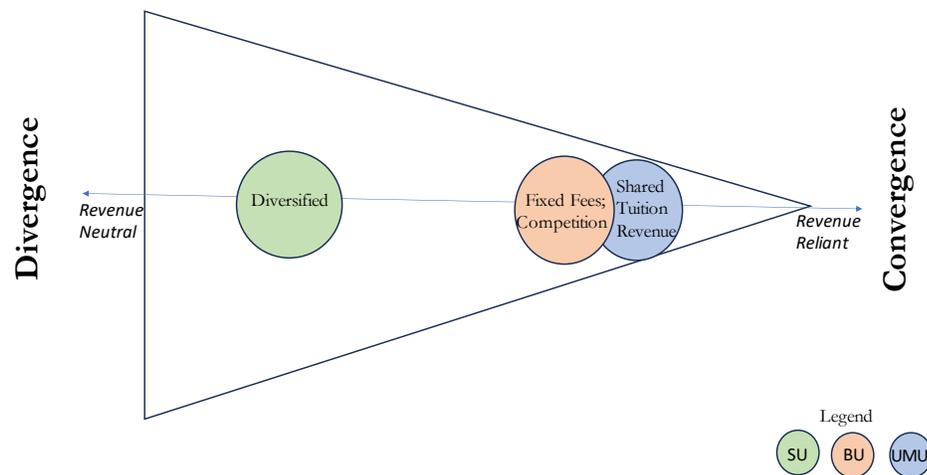
Academics/Curriculum

UMU de-emphasized the institution's academic and curricular matters within discussions about its internationalization strategy. Instead, UMU sought to effect change in the curriculum through internal normative pressures that incentivized faculty to take part in education abroad programs or that championed those whose dispositions made them more apt to support

international students. Monica did, however, highlight the intersection of the curriculum and internationalization as UMU having: "Dozens and dozens of courses and programs and certificates that have global in their description and in their goals." She attributed this to the university's general education curriculum that included a specific goal for global experiences.

Still, there was no connection between academics and the curriculum in the institution's broader internationalization strategy. Instead, the strategy focused on engaging faculty in short-term education abroad programs where they took a group of UMU students abroad in what they called faculty-led programs. Monica characterized this as: "We're bringing in more faculty, and again, growing faculty leaders. We call them friends of global education, so we have this peaceful army of people who all are doing the work." Whereas faculty seemed willing to engage with the education abroad activities, Monica described them as being more skeptical about the effects of a growing international student population: "There's a lot still a lot of need to educate faculty and staff about the unique challenges that second-language learners and students from other cultures face."

The concept of serving students and meeting their needs in the classroom arose throughout our conversations. Participants provided evidence supporting the idea that matters of academic and the curriculum were not central to the internationalization strategy, as Mary Beth noted: "And so I think they [the faculty] are recognizing that it's important. I don't know if it was necessarily strategically proactive." Mary Beth added about international students in the classroom: "they're faculty that just prefer not to have them in the classroom, but they're probably as many who love them. I feel supported on campus, and I just avoid those that aren't!"

At BU, the faculty heads of international I interviewed agreed the importance of grounding the internationalization strategy within the faculty and curriculum. This was due to

external coercive forces such as rankings and accreditations. It was also due to internal normative needs to educate students prepared to enter a globalized workforce and society. Even though international student enrollment was the driver of the strategy at BU, academics and the curriculum were important cornerstones because of the reality of today's world, which, as participants described, demanded students have globalized perspectives and the university's responsibility in delivering that. Nancy, a faculty lead in business and law, summed it up as: "You're not really a university without being international anymore."

Nona, the faculty lead for humanities and social sciences, situated the importance of internationalizing the curriculum as a matter of the student experience: "That has encouraged the change in strategic direction from achieving 5% of students having a physical mobility experience, to instead thinking about the other 95% of the students." One way BU endeavored to do this was through collaborative online learning, or COIL, but not without difficulty, as Nancy emphasized: "COIL is what I would call brilliant, but it takes a lot of work. And talking to any academics, they will tell you that they are overworked." Nancy's alternative to internationalizing the curriculum through COIL included creating partnerships to develop BU's international research profile with the goal of raising its rankings: "It is incredibly difficult to get a high-quality good partner, if you don't have that if you're not ranked highly on the QS rankings, or you don't have triple accreditation, very difficult to land, high-quality partnerships." Here, Nancy highlighted the intersection of internal factors, namely the college's triple accreditation, with the external ones of ranking systems and accreditation bodies as influencers in that college's approach to internationalization.

Similar trends emerged in discussions about academics and the curriculum at SU. However, unlike the cases in United States and England, much of the difference in what

internationalization looked like across the university's four schools depended on whether programs were offered in English and the types of programs offered by the school. Seth, the international recruitment manager, explained why the business school enjoyed enrolling the highest number of fee-paying international students at SU as follows: "Because of our international business school . . . almost everything is taught in English at the business school." Sadie, the international programs manager in engineering, built upon Seth's observations: "And then the school of education and communication, maybe they're the ones that haven't come as far along when it comes to internationalization as some of the other schools."

Further illuminating this mimetic behavior between the schools, Stefan, who managed programs in the school of education and communication, explained how the school defined its strategic focus: "They have also been focusing on making sure all programs have English courses." Stefan later added: "I know they had requested my colleague, Sophia, to come and have an information meeting about internationalization at home, and what she's been doing when it comes to the school of health and welfare, with internationalization at home." Despite each school being an independent entity within the university, through mimetic isomorphism, the schools all shared a focus on internationalizing their curricula. I noted the centrality of internationalization at home and internationalization of the curriculum within SU's internationalization strategy since both featured prominently in DAAD's model. This indicated SU was also acting on external mimetic forces, as evidenced in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3

Academics/Curriculum
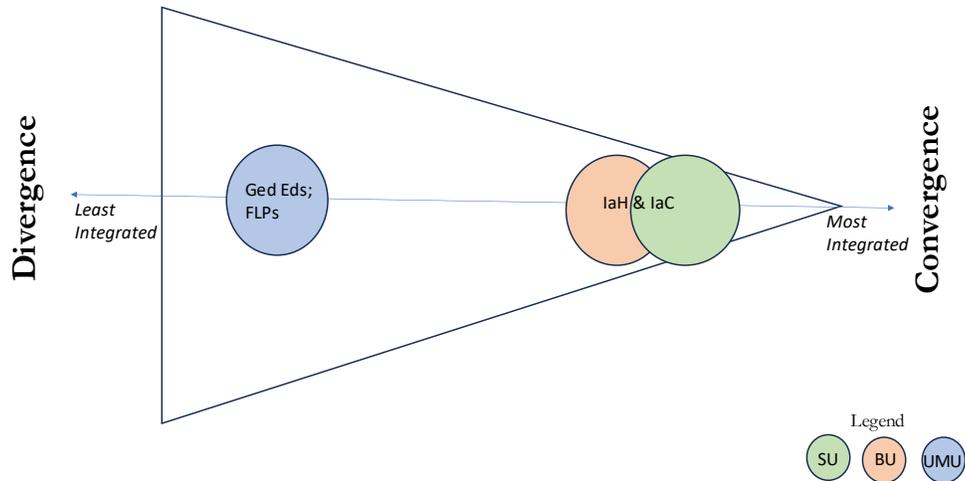
Mobility

The discussion of UMU's internationalization strategy indicated mobility was an area subject to internal, normative forces of institutional culture. The need to change the culture was especially true in the case of education abroad and broadening access to opportunities for *local* students, as Martha described it, to have an international or cross-cultural experience. Participants paid little to no attention to the external landscape in their discussions with me about mobility. This suggested the external factors have had little impact on how UMU conceived its internationalization strategy as it related to mobility.

In summarizing the main foci of UMU's internationalization strategy, Monica, the dean, explained: "And the university has had global growth in its strategic plan the whole time. And so, it means definitely international student enrollment growth." Michelle, from the English-language program, described the situation similarly: "International student population is growing and growing and growing and especially after the pandemic."

On the education abroad side, the discussion focused on addressing issues of access and affordability. Monica explained this as: "It means giving our students exposure and experiences with international experiences, whether it is study abroad or National Student Exchange," which was a domestic consortium of universities that exchange students amongst themselves. Still, this appeared to be a secondary concern in the discourse around internationalization. Martha, from the education abroad office, explained: "When people think about internationalization, they are no longer just thinking of bringing international students here. Now, we're also focusing on the fact that, hey, study abroad is a part of this." Martha committed to increasing participation in education by broadening access. One strategy Martha used to achieve this goal was highlighting the opportunities afforded to students through the National Student Exchange program. The effect of this effort by Martha's assessment was: "An increase in numbers, we're seeing an increase of majors, we're seeing an increase of student diversity in programs."

The theme of mobility emerged at BU as an area wrought with risks and uncertainty because of external forces, particularly COVID and *Brexit*. These forces created the need for BU to adapt and re-think its approach to internationalization, allowing BU the opportunity to make normative changes in how it thought about internationalization. Nina, the head of international, called this a more "holistic" approach to internationalization as opposed to one centered only on "income."

Nora, the head of mobility, explained how COVID interrupted BU's efforts in sending students abroad:

> We can't have this conversation without talking about COVID and the impact of government pauses where higher education in many countries stood still . . . so that makes moving people difficult, so the target of 5% of students abroad was put on hold.

The same sentiment about the external environment was echoed by Nigel, faculty head of international for natural sciences, who evaluated it as follows:

> We are no longer under the Erasmus exchange program, where students could travel to any country in Europe . . . and the [UK] government has replaced it with the Turing program which is much less flexible and much less generous. I think that the potential for students to get international experience has actually reduced.

> Finally, Naomi, from international recruitment, noted the barriers to incoming, international students being able to arrive to BU due to COVID closures at embassies and resultant visa delays: "With COVID. You know, we've had a lot of problems with students getting visas, being able to get here on time."

At SU, mobility remained both central to the strategy and a point of pride. That several participants drew comparisons between SU's and other universities' performance on mobility suggests normative isomorphism around mobility and universities' internationalization strategies, much of which linked back to EU funding and support for these programs through Erasmus.

In talking about the centrality of mobility to the strategy, Sara, the head of international, confirmed: "We want mobility, so that's not going to change. We want students in and out and staff in and out . . . mobility's always going to be there." Sophia from the international office also clarified: "In the international office mobility is the core activity."

Like BU, however, participants recognized the need to rethink mobility within the strategy. Participants reported changes in student preferences as driving changes in SU's approach to mobility. Sophia, who also oversaw all exchange agreements, explained: "Like previous years they wanted to go as far as possible . . . it was always Australia and New Zealand,

US and now, it's more like, oh, I can go to Germany." Now, according to Sophia, students desired being closer to home after the COVID pandemic, accessing Erasmus funds, and being more climate-friendly (not having to travel by plane).

Because SU was engaged in the Erasmus exchange program, emphasis was also placed on inbound student mobility. Seth, the head of international recruitment, placed inbound mobility within the culture at SU: "Part of the internationalization strategy is focused on international recruitment, and to have a diverse group of students study here at the university." Adding to this, Seth reflected on where SU started with this effort in 2011/2012 and situated SU within the context of the EU:

> So we were at the forefront, and we actually still are, in terms of numbers of fee-paying students and the number of EU students, and if you look at it from like, how big is our university, then we're probably at the top.

Across all three case studies, mobility emerged as an area where normative isomorphism appeared central to each institution's internationalization activities, while coercive forces appeared only in the cases of England and Sweden. Figure 5.4 summarizes the theme of mobility across the case studies.

Figure 5.4

Mobility
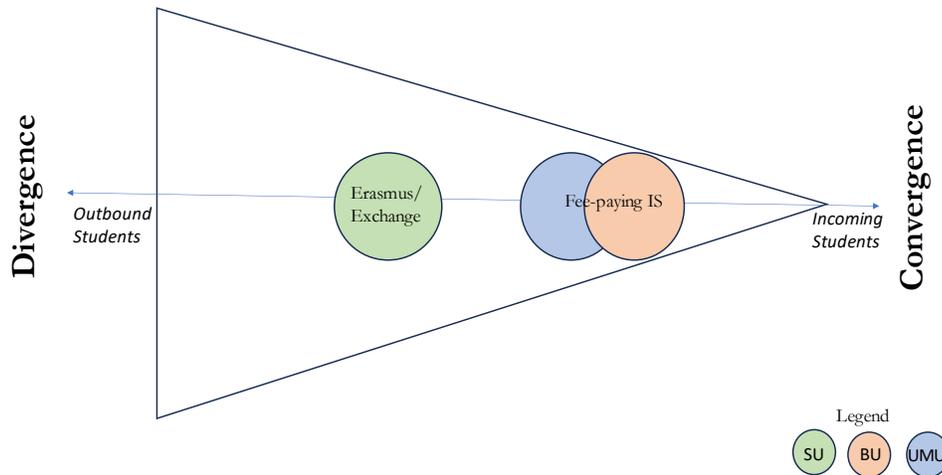
Partnerships

At UMU, participants cast partnerships in terms of internal relationships, though there was some discussion about exchange or bi-lateral institutional partnerships. In the former case, partnerships arose as representations of normative culture within the institution. The bi-lateral institutional partnerships, by contrast, exposed areas of risk due to coercive, external policies of foreign governments and technological advancement.

Monica, the dean, provided an example of partnerships on campus being important to the goal of comprehensive internationalization:

> So global education is the player in everything. And, again, we don't do it separately . . .
> if we do food pantry, we have the DEI there, we have the student affairs, and then we
> have global education always as a partner.

In terms of the power of campus relationships in helping achieve the strategic goal of expanding participation in education abroad, Martha noted: "But I think we're given the space now to make some of those changes and to create some of those relationships and our office is at the point

where like, 'Hey, we play well with others.'" Mary Beth, from the international student services

unit, echoed similar sentiments to Martha and Monica, as follows: "We have really good

working relationships with student health services, university advising, the counseling center."

These internal partnerships served as a mechanism to create normative changes to the

institution's culture that supported the goals of UMU's internationalization strategy.

      The English language program was an area where discussions around partnerships took

an external focus. When explaining possible challenges for the internationalization strategy and

the English-language program, Michelle explained: "And altogether the trend worldwide is that

children start studying English earlier in life, because of the internet, movies, YouTube, they

watch a lot of things in English." While this trend might exert downward pressure on the

program's enrollments and, as a result, revenue, UMU's partnerships in Japan appeared to

ameliorate the concern, as Michelle noted: "Japan is one of those countries where most students

need a study abroad experience to graduate from their Japanese university. Like it's a mandatory

requirement. So, their government and the universities support their students financially." In

contrast to the internal partnership discussions, Michelle placed the future success of the English

language program within broader global trends, demonstrating that the external landscape proved

critical to its success.

      Noting the risks to a mobility-centered internationalization strategy, several participants

described BU's partnerships in terms of its engagement with local leaders, the establishment of

an institute in China, and branding and delivering BU's curriculum abroad (referred to a

transnational education, or TNE) as strategic efforts to diversify its internationalization activities.

Still, the normative propensity and coercive imperative to continue engaging its international

strategy to drive revenue was at the heart of BU's internationalization strategy.

Describing BU's engagement with local leaders, Nina explained: "And so, the greater city authorities have an internationalization strategy. And they involve the universities in these conversations. So, they interviewed me, they consulted with me on what we should be thinking about for our student body." This consultation with city leaders led BU to exploring setting up an institute in China based on an existent sister-city partnership. Neil, who worked in the partnership unit, described the importance of establishing the institute in China as BU having: "Strategies to develop more transnational education partnerships and have a target to the 2000s [for enrollment]. The joint institute [in China] will deliver on that.

Building on BU's activity in China and its strategic goal to expand its transnational education (TNE) activity, Neil noted a new degree-granting, revenue-generating venture BU established in Egypt: "I would say the TNE partnerships, which is the anchor of the partnership, so where we deliver our awards overseas and that be the anchor, that can then feed into everything else that we want to achieve." From Neil's perspective, these TNE activities not only anchored BU's approach to partnership but also enabled the wider internationalization strategy.

The faculty lead from natural science, Nigel, brought forth his own example of offshoring BU's education by delivering BU curriculum in Tanzania to students from all over the world. This endeavor served an additional purpose of capacity building as Nigel described: "They haven't had any previous experience of teaching at the master's level. So, we're providing a bit of a sort of expertise on how you run a master's level course." Nigel closed his comments with an aside about BU's engagement in countries like "China, Saudia Arabia, Qatar, places like that" in which, in his experience, little conversation or assessment occurs around "whether we should be working with certain countries." He closed with "it seems money is more important to them," punctuating the coercive imperative to engage partnerships as a means of driving revenue.

At SU, partnerships were driven by mimetic pressures to become the most international university in Sweden, as well as by coercive forces of the EU's funding schemes, exemplified by EUI. Sara, the head of international, described the imperative for SU to join the EUI movement as paramount because: "Our take on it is, it's likely to end up as A teams and B teams in terms of universities. So we see it as very important to try and get in."

In attempting to become part of the EUI initiative, Sara characterized it as universities having to chase the EU because of how fast it moved and complex it was. But the Swedish government was also pushing universities to join the chase, because, as Sara put it: "There's a lot of money that Sweden is paying to the EU. At the moment Sweden's not taking out in terms of sort of research funding and other funding sources." Sara believed this push to gain more access to EU funds by Swedish universities were: "Signals from the [Swedish] government . . . that the funding from Swedish organizations will be decreasing because the funding at the EU level will increase." This interplay between the Swedish government and the EU subjected SU to coercive external forces to align its internationalization strategy with EU priorities, lest it risked losing funding from both national and supranational levels of government.

Partnerships also enabled SU to support its mobility strategy and in doing so raise its reputation. Sadie explained that the focus on internationalization originating back to the early 2010s was: "To make us stand out a little bit, to have our own, like uniqueness. And, it's paid off because I mean, we are known in Sweden as being one of the best." Clarifying this intersection of partnerships, mobility, and reputation, Sophia offered this explanation for why SU saw its partnerships activities and joining EUI as so important:
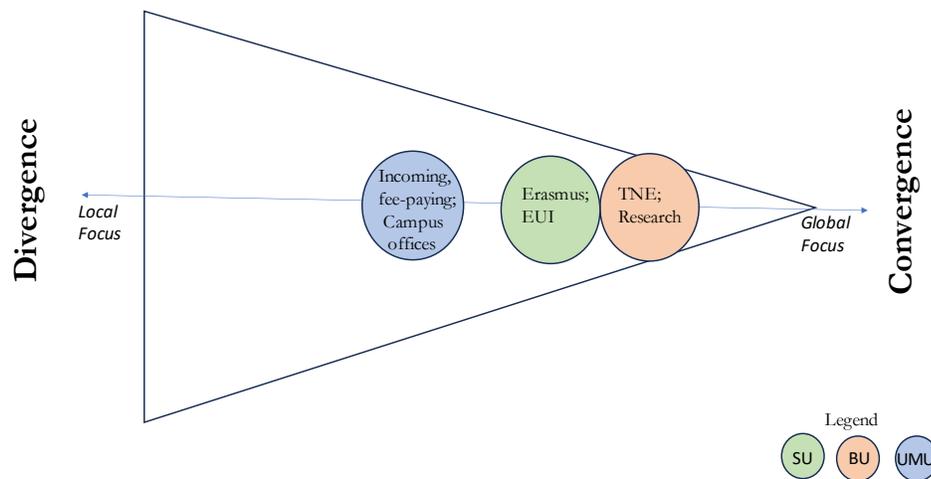
What I have also seen in many years, is sometimes you do things only because other

university *[sic]* that doing this, so you don't want to come behind. So, you do things like

this . . . European University Initiative [EUI].

This sense of not being behind and staying ahead underscored SU's approach to partnerships (see

Figure 5.5.).

Figure 5.5

Partnerships

Discussion

The case studies of UMU, BU, and SU revealed important points of convergence and

divergence in how each university defined and executed its internationalization strategy. It is

remarkable that each university found itself in a period of re-envisioning its strategy. I did not

intend for this to be the case going into the case study as this was not an inclusion criterion for

the sample selection. It is also notable that each university situated the beginning of its

internationalization efforts to the early 2010s, when each created their first administrative

leadership structure for internationalization. Finally, throughout the conversations, while no one

pointed to the COVID pandemic as the reason for renewing their internationalization strategy, all

universities found the opportunity during the pandemic to pause and re-think their approach. The literal pause COVID forced upon universities' international activities allowed for a metaphorical pause among the universities to re-think their strategies. These three takeaways suggest mimetic and normative undercurrents of universities' internationalization strategies.

Still, differences in internationalization strategies emerged when comparing the institutions. At UMU, we saw a university very much focused on achieving specific goals related to international student enrollment and outbound study abroad, but there was little mention of concerted activities related to internationalization of the curriculum or creating international experiences for all students on campus. Also, the leadership was highly centralized and disconnected from the faculty. BU's strategy also focused on driving international student enrollment, but this goal incentivized the faculty to take interest in internationalizing the academic experience for all students. The leadership structure was also dependent on faculty involvement and was thus more devolved than what we saw at UMU. SU's hub-and-spoke leadership structure, where there was centralized administrative support for each individual school's internationalization agendas, represented the least centralized of the three. And while SU focused on international student recruitment, it was muted in comparison to UMU and BU in part because of the funding the university received from the Swedish and EU governments.

I contend the explanation about the convergence and divergence of the universities' internationalization strategy lie within the institutional structure and culture and the external landscape. The former represents mimetic and normative convergence, whereas the latter captures much of the coercive divergence. Whereas in the US, UMU made little mention of the external environment in determining its internationalization strategy, BU was very aware of its dependency on the government's policies related to student visas, as well as geopolitics in places

like China. SU was keenly tied to the priorities of the EU in charting its priorities for internationalization and was highly dependent on both the Swedish and EU governments' policies and funding for higher education.

The result of this varied landscape is an emergent three-part typology of internationalization strategies. UMU emerged in this study as being more *idealistic* in its internationalization strategy in that the university seemed to downplay or ignore the barriers that might stand in its way, including government policies and geopolitics. Instead, they exhibited a high level of adaptability, allowing them to stay focused on the goal with little distraction. This was, in part, because UMU was subjected to little coercive isomorphic forces.

BU exemplified a *realist* internationalization strategy that took account of the external landscape, including competition, government policies, and geopolitics, and matched that to its internal structure and culture. This gave way to a more deeply embedded form of internationalization across the institution, especially in the faculty, that extended focus beyond international recruitment and revenue generation. This was the case even when those remained cored to the strategy.

At SU, there was a *pragmatic* internationalization strategy. This strategy realized the benefit of generating revenue through international student fees, but which did not rely on it. Instead, SU augmented their strategy to align with other funding resources coming from the EU and to a lesser extent the Swedish government and focused on other supporting activities such as internationalization at home.

Extending the typologies to the isomorphic effects evidenced through the case study, one can contend an *idealistic* internationalization strategy emerges in an environment of low levels of coercive and high levels of normative forces. A *realist* approach occurs where there are medium

levels of coercive and high levels of mimetic forces. A university adopts a *pragmatist* stance where there are high levels of coercive, mimetic, and normative pressures. Figure 5.6 summarizes each of the institution's type of internationalization strategy according to coercive, mimetic, and normative isomorphism.

Figure 5.6

Emergent Typology of Internationalization Strategy
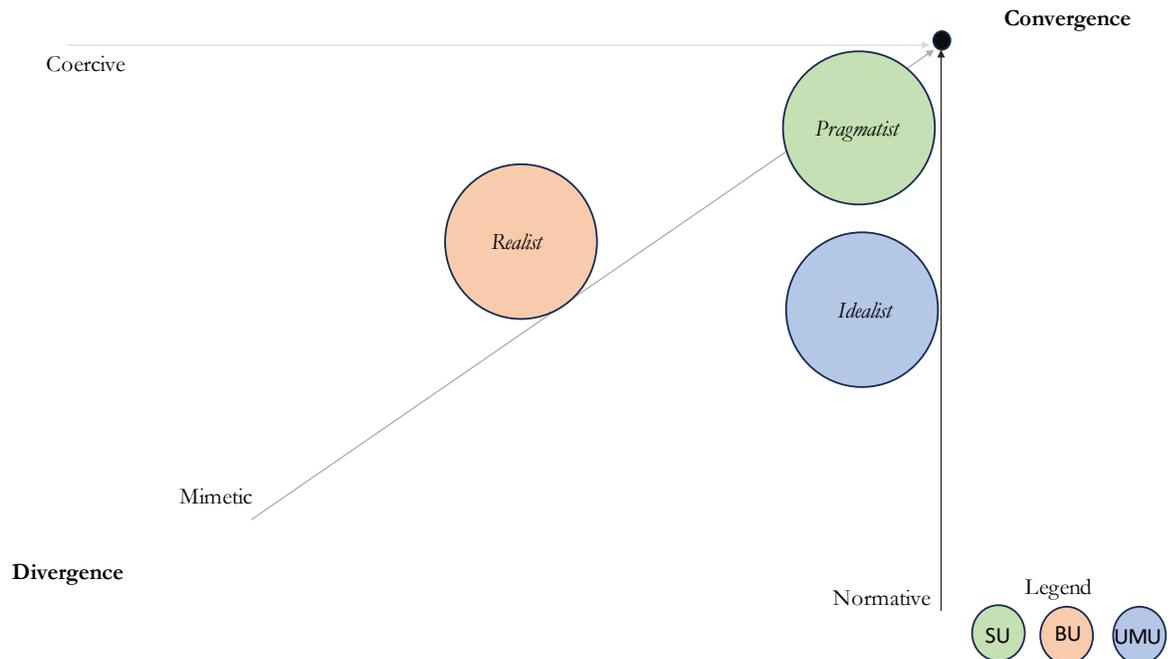
Conclusion and Future Research

This study presented answers to questions about why and how internationalization strategies emerged in different contexts and identified the roles institutional structures and cultures played. I found that structures and cultures related to normative and mimetic forces explain why institutions converge around the core activities of a given internationalization strategy. These same forces also explain some of the differences across the institutions, but external coercive forces related to government policies and geopolitics explain much of the divergence. The result of the study was an emergent typology of internationalization strategies as

being *idealist*, *realist*, and *pragmatist* in nature. None of the case studies represented a pure example of these typologies, but rather offered introductory research and exploration into whether such a typology is a viable explanation for convergence and divergence around internationalization strategies.

Future research opportunities abound from this study. First, the emergent typology can be tested in other case studies to see if it is able to answer the same questions in different contexts. A validation study might seek to replicate this same study in the same or similar countries and contexts. A comparison study might comprise a case study in the Global South to contrast with this one, which occurred in the Global North. Such a study could serve to expand on the typology identified in this study by introducing new forces of convergence or divergence. Future research could also introduce new methodologies, such as community-based methods, to involve practitioners developing or managing internationalization strategies as part of the study itself. This would add further nuance to the typologies, which could assist in proving or disproving its explanatory power. As internationalization continues to evolve additional opportunities to test this study's findings will emerge that one cannot predict today just as the COVID pandemic and emergent geopolitical uncertainties are reshaping the contours of current internationalization strategies.

References

Alexiadou, N., Kefala, Z., & Rönnberg, L. (2021). Preparing education students for an international future? Connecting students' experience to institutional context. *Journal of Studies in International Education 25*(4), 44–460. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315321998498

Al-Haija, Y.A. & Mahamid, H. (2021). Trends in higher education under neoliberalism: Between traditional education and the culture of globalization. *Educational Research Reviews 16*(2), 16–26. https://doi.org/10.5897/ERR2020.4101

American Council on Education (2012). *Mapping internationalization on US campuses: 2012 edition.* https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Mapping-Internationalizationon-US-Campuses-2012-full.pdf

Bastedo, M. (2021). Holistic Admissions as a Global Phenomenon. In H. Eggins, A. Smolentseva, & H. De Wit (Eds.). *Higher education in the next decade: Global challenges, future prospects* (pp. 91–114). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004462717

Bolman, L. G. & Gallos, J. V. (2011). Reframing academic leadership. Jossey-Bass.

Brandenburg, U., de Wit, H., Jones, E., Leask, B., & Drobner, A. (2020). *Internationalisation in higher education for society (IHES). Concept, current research and examples of good practice* [DAAD Studies]. German Academic Exchange Service.

Bruckmann, S. & Carvalho, T. (2018). Understanding change in higher education: An archetypal approach. *Higher Education 76*(1), 629–647. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-018-0229-2

Carvalho, T. & Santiago, R. (2010). Still academics after all . . .. *Higher Education Policy 23*(3), 397–411. https://doi.org/10.1057/hep.2010.17

Childress, L.K. (2009). Internationalization Plans for Higher Education Institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education 13*(3), 289–309. https://doi-org.excelsior.sdstate.edu/10.1177/1028315308329804

Clark, B. (1998). *Creating Entrepreneurial University. Organizational Pathways of Transformation*. Pergamon Press.

Corbett, A. (2021). Brexit is done: What next for UK higher education? *International Higher Education 106*, 21–22. https://doi.org/10.36197/IHE.2021.106.10

Craciun, D., Huang, F., & de Wit, H. (2022, May 21). *The state of higher education internationalisation after COVID*. University World News. https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20220516172709867

de Wit, H. (2002). *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of America and Europe: A historical, comparative, and conceptual analysis*. Information Age Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2003.0065

de Wit, H. (2021). Internationalization in Higher Education: Global trends and recommendations for it future. In H. Eggins, A. Smolentseva, & H. De Wit (Eds.). *Higher education in the next decade: Global challenges, future prospects* (pp. 303–325). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004462717

Deardorff, D. K. & van Gaalen, A. (2012). Outcomes assessment in the internationalization of higher education. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.). *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 167–189). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452218397

Devlin, M.E. (Ed.). (1999). Fast Forward. In M.E. Devlin (Ed). *Futures forum 1999: Exploring the future of higher education (fall 1998)* (pp. 3–7). National Association of Colleges and University Business Officers. Retrieved from ERIC database.

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W.W. (1983). The Iron Cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review 48*(2), 147–160. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095101

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W.W. (1991). Introduction. In P. J. DiMaggio & W.W. Powell (Eds.) *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 1–38). The University of Chicago Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.32181-X

Eggins, H., Smolentseva, A., & De Wit, H. (2021). Challenges and prospects for higher education. In H. Eggins, A. Smolentseva, & H. De Wit (Eds.). *Higher education in the next decade: Global challenges, future prospects* (pp. 9–20). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004462717

Finefter-Rosenbluh, I. (2017). Incorporating perspective taking in reflexivity: A method to enhance insider qualitative researcher processes. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods 16*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406917703539

Fischer, K. (2020, November 16). *COVID-19 caused international enrollments to plummet this fall. They were already dropping.* Chronicle of Higher Education. https://www.chronicle.com/article/covid-19-caused-international-enrollments-to-plummet-this-fall-they-were-already-dropping

Fischer, K. & Aslanian, S. (2021, August 2). *Fading beacon: The U.S. may never regain its dominance as a destination for international students. Here's why that matters*. The Chronicle of Higher Education. https://www.chronicle.com/article/fading-beacon

Freire, P. (2018). Pedagogy of the oppressed. Bloomsbury Academic.

Fumasoli, T. & Huisman, J. (2013). Strategic agency and system diversity: Considering

    institutional positioning in higher education. *Minerva 51*(2), 155–169.

    https://doi.org/10.1007/s11024-013-92-y

Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays*. Basic Books.

Geschwind, L. & Broström, A. (2022). To be or not be a technical university: Organisational

    categories as reference points in higher education. *Higher Education 84*(1), 121–139.

    https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-021-00757-w

Goethals, G., Winston, G., & Zimmerman, D. (1999). Students educating students: The role of

    peer effects in higher education. In M.E. Devlin (Ed). *Futures forum 1999: Exploring the*

    future of higher education (fall 1998) (pp. 11–13). National Association of Colleges and

    University Business Officers. Retrieved from ERIC database.

Green, M.F., Luu, D., Burris, B. (2008). *Mapping internationalization on U.S. campuses: 2008*

    edition. American Council on Education. https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Mapping-

    FullReport-2008.pdf

Greene, M. J. (2014). On the inside looking in: Methodological insights and challenges in

    conducting qualitative insider research. *The Qualitative Report 19*(29), 1–13.

    https://doi.org/ 10.46743/2160-3715/2014.1106

Greenwood, R. & Hinings, C.R. (1993). Understanding strategic change: The contribution of

    archetypes. *Academic of Management Journal 36*(5), 1052–1081.

    https://doi.org/10.2307/256645

Greenwood, R., Raynard, M., Kodeih, F., Micelotta, E.R., Lounsbury, M. (2011). Institutional
complexity and organizational responses. *The Academy of Management Annals 5*(1),
317–371. https://doi.org/10.5465/19416520.2011.590299

Gregersen-Hansman, J. (2021). Toward a curriculum for the future: Synthesizing education for
sustainable development and internationalization of the curriculum. *Journal of Studies in
International Education 25*(4), 461–481. https://doi.org/10.1177/10283153211031033

Guibert, J. & Rayon, A. (2021). UK's Turing Scheme: The challenges ahead. *International
Higher Education 106*, 23–24 . https://doi.org/10.36197/IHE.2021.106.11

Gumport, P.J. (2000). Academic restructuring: Organization change institutional imperatives.
Higher Education 39(1), 67–91. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1003859026301

Hansmann, H. (1999). Higher Education as an associative good. In M.E. Devlin (Ed). *Futures
forum 1999: Exploring the future of higher education (fall 1998)* (pp. 8–10). National
Association of Colleges and University Business Officers. Retrieved from ERIC
database.

Helms, R.M., Brajkovic, L., & Struthers, B. (2017). *Mapping internationalization on U.S.
campuses: 2017 edition*. American Council on Education.
https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Mapping-Internationalization-2017.pdf

Holst, J. D. (2006). Globalization and the future of critical adult education. In S. B. Merriam, B.
C. Courtenay, & R. M. Cervero (Eds.), *Global issues and adult education: Perspectives
from om America, South Africa, and the United States* (pp. 41–52). Jossey-Bass.
https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2007.0032

Hudzik, J. K. (2011). *Comprehensive Internationalization: From concept to action*. NAFSA:
Association of International Educators.

https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.294.4363&rep=rep1&type=pd

f

Institute for International Education. (2020). *Open Doors* [data set]. https://opendoorsdata.org/

Jones, E., Leask, B., Brandenburg, U., & de Wit, H. (2021). Global social responsibility and the

internationalisation of higher education for society. *Journal of Studies in International

Education 25*(4), 330–347. https://doi.org/10.1177/10283153211031679

Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints*. Ottawa, Ontario: Canadian

Bureau for International Education Research. Retrieved from ERIC database.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches and rationales. *Journal

of Studies in International Education 8*(1), 5–31. https://doi-

org.excelsior.sdstate.edu/10.1177/1028315303260832

Kuh, G. (2018). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and

why they matter*. American Associate of Colleges & Universities.

https://www.aacu.org/publication/high-impact-educational-practices-what-they-are-who-

has-access-to-them-and-why-they-matter

Leask, B. & de Gayardon, A. (2021). Reimagining internationalization for society. *Journal of

Studies in International Education 25*(4), 323–329.

https://doi.org/10.1177/10283153211033667

Lee, J. J. (Ed.). (2021). *U.S. power in international higher education*. Rutgers University Press.

https://dio.org/10.2307/ctv1n6pvs6

MacGregor, K. (2021, September 17). *Study finds 40,000 tertiary jobs lost during pandemic*.

University World News.

https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20210917061003607

Mace, M.K. & Pearl, D. (2021). Rubric development and validation for assessing comprehensive

    internationalization in higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*

    25(1), 51–65. https://doi-org.excelsior.sdstate.edu/10.1177/1028315319865790

Mason, M. (2010). Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews [63

    paragraphs]. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research 11*(3), Art. 8.

Meyer, J.W. (1977). The effects of education as an institution. *American Journal of Sociology*

    83(1), 55–77. https://doi.org/10.1086/226506

Meyer, J.W. (2010). World society, institutional theories, and the actor. *Annual Review of*

    Sociology 26, 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.012809.102506

Nisar, M.A. (2015). Higher education governance and performance based funding as an ecology

    of games. *Higher Education 69*(2), 289–302. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9775-4

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2019). *Public spending on*

    education [data set]. https://data.oecd.org/eduresource/public-spending-on-education.htm

Powell, W.W. & Bromley, P. (2010). New institutionalism in the analysis of complex

    organizations. In J.D. Wright (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of the Social &*

    Behavioral Sciences (2nd Ed., Vol. 16) (pp. 764–769). Elsevier.

    https://doi.org/10.1016/c2010-1-67141-6

Redden, E. (2019, December 19). *International education in an era of climate change*.

    Insidehighered. https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2019/12/19/international-

    educators-begin-confront-climate-crisis

Robertson, S. (2008, March 6). 'Malaysia Education': strategic branding leads to growth in

    international student numbers 2006-8?. *GlobalHigherEd*.

    https://globalhighered.wordpress.com/page/27/?app-download=ios

Schuller, T. (1995). Introduction: The changing university? A sketchmap with code. In T. Shuller (Ed.). *The changing university?* (pp. 1–14). SRHE and Open University Press.

Shattock, M. & Horvath, A. (2020). *The governance of British higher education: The impact of governmental, financial and market pressures*. Bloomsbury.

Shied, F. M. (2006). In the belly of the beast: Globalization and adult education in the United States. In S. B. Merriam, B. C. Courtenay, & R. M. Cervero (Eds.), *Global issues and adult education: Perspectives from Latin America, South Africa, and the United States* (pp. 53–63). Jossey-Bass. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2007.0032

Siaya, L. & Hayward, F.M. (2003). *Mapping internationalization on U.S. campuses*. American Council on Education. https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Mapping-Full-Report-2003.pdf

Siegel, D.J. (2006). Organizational response to the demand and expectation of diversity. *Higher Education 52*(3), 465–486. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-006-0001-x

Stromquist, N.P. (2021). A faculty in crisis: External and internal challenges to the academic profession. In H. Eggins, A. Smolentseva, & H. De Wit (Eds.). *Higher education in the next decade: Global challenges, future prospects* (pp. 21–40). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004462717

Swedish Council for Higher Education. (n.d.). *Ordinance on application fees and tuition fees at higher education institutions (2010:543)*. https://www.uhr.se/en/start/laws-and-regulations/Laws-and-regulations/Ordinance-on-application-fees-and-tuition-fees-at-higher-education-institutions/

Teixeira, P. (2021). Global funding trends in higher education: The challenges of competition, selectivity, and differentiation. In H. Eggins, A. Smolentseva, & H. de Wit (Eds.). *Higher*

education in the next decade: Global challenges, future prospects (pp. 245–270). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004462717

Thelin, J. R. (2017). *American higher education: Issues and institutions*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315713649

United States Departments of State and Education (n.d.). Reengaging the world to make the United States stronger at home: A renewed U.S. commitment to international education. https://educationusa.state.gov/sites/default/files/intl_ed_joint_statement.pdf

United States Senate. (2008). *Senator Paul Simon Study Abroad Foundation Act*. https://www.congress.gov/110/crpt/srpt272/CRPT-110srpt272.pdf

Vaira, M. (2004). Globalization and higher education organizational change: A framework for analysis. *Higher Education 48*(4), 483–510. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:HIGH.0000046711.31908.e5

Van der Wende, M.C. (2001). Internationalization policies: About new trends and contrasting paradigms. *Higher Education Policy 14*(3), 249–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0952-8733(01)00018-6

Weber, M. (1958). *The Protestant ethic and spirit of capitalism*. Scribner.

Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research design and methods (6th Ed.)*. Sage Publishing.