

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNIVERSITY INTERNATIONALIZATION AND UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY

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Abbreviations

EUA – European University Association

GATS – The General Agreement on Trade and Services

HE – Higher education

HEIs – Higher education institutions

IB – International business

ITC – Information and communications technology

MNE – Multinational enterprise

MOE – Ministry of Education

OLI – Ownership, location, internalization

RBV – Resource-based view

WTO – World Trade Organization

Abstract

This thesis explores a gap of knowledge found at the intersection of university internationalization and university autonomy. It is argued that the process and sustainability of university internationalization are influenced by the state of university autonomy at the source and host countries. The conducted literature review on the topic helped conceptualize the notions ‘university internationalization’ and ‘university autonomy’ and identify their major dimensions. The main components of university internationalization employed in the thesis are its pattern and capacity. University autonomy is presented as consisting of four dimensions: organizational, financial, staffing, and academic. The intersection between the concepts is first outlined on the theoretical level. University autonomy is identified with internationalization capacity.

To develop the understanding of the outlined theoretical intersection, a systematic review of the selected five publication titles is conducted, aiming to identify empirical studies that work with the issues of university internationalization and university autonomy. The conducted review resulted in 35 research papers, 16 of which were in the domain of university internationalization and 19 – developing the issues related to university autonomy.

The thesis is employing internationalization theories, modes of foreign entry and the notion of institutional distance to analyze the collected data. First, the internationalization process peculiar to universities is discussed in detail. It is followed by synthesizing data to explain the influence of the level of university autonomy on the university internationalization pattern. The last part of the discussion is intending to analyze the possible outcomes of differences in the levels of autonomy in the source and target countries. Mismatch in the levels of autonomy is viewed through the lens of institutional distance.

The final outcome of the project is the development of theoretical understanding of university internationalization and the role of autonomy in this process. The pattern of university internationalization, which includes entry modes, objects of internationalization and chosen target markets is defined by university internationalization capacity (level of autonomy in the source country) and influenced by the target country’s institutional autonomy. The study is limited to discussing the university internationalization from developed countries to developing states.

1 Introduction

This master thesis aims to explore the relationship between university internationalization and university autonomy. University internationalization and the development of university autonomy are the processes taking place in contemporary universities worldwide. The sustainability and the process of university internationalization seem to be interconnected with the level of university autonomy. Thus, an attempt will be made to conceptualize the relationship between university internationalization and university autonomy and develop a theoretical understanding of how these two concepts can be combined. The main question that is guiding the research is:

What is the role of university autonomy in the process of university internationalization?

Conventional internationalization wisdom suggests that organizations should adapt and comply with local, target country rules, regulations, norms and values (Edwards & Edwards, 2001). Therefore, entering a new market, universities, like any other company, have to adapt to the local environment. University autonomy is supposed to facilitate the adaptation due to its enhancing the responsiveness to surroundings. But the task to internationalize can be complicated by strict state regulations and the lack of a university's decision-making authority. Besides, there is a wide range of challenges at the new location. What happens if there is a mismatch between the level of university autonomy at the home country and the level of autonomy at the new market? Does it mean that, say, entering a country with explicit state control, a Western autonomous university will have to step down on academic autonomy and follow the directions of the research outlined by the government and compromising its autonomy to decide on these issues? Will cultural differences taboo the research on particular topics? Or will it mean that a greater degree of financing research in particular scientific fields will change the directions, initially chosen by the university at its home campus? Thus, it is important to uncover how the level of autonomy, both at home and at the receiving country, affects the internationalization process and sustainability of university internationalization.

Higher education (HE) has always had an international dimension (Knight, 2005; Maringe & Foskett, 2010). However, the scope, volume and complexity of international activities of universities dramatically expanded over the past two decades. The demand for international education is forecast to increase from 1.8 million international students in 2000 to 7.2 million in 2025 (Bohm et al., 2002). The approach to higher education has also changed. The General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) defines higher education as a tradable commodity

and calls it the subject to international business processes (WTO, 1999). Universities today behave like international service firms and along with supporting traditional student exchange programs, franchise their activities, create collaborative ventures and set up branch campuses abroad. The commercial establishment of facilities abroad by international providers is classified as Mode 3 “commercial presence” of service trade by GATS (WTO, 1999). The importance of university internationalization and its scale are great. In 2004, Mode 3 accounted for 50% of the total world trade in services (Naidoo, 2009). However, starting university offshore activities is risky and there are many examples of failures. For instance, in the 1980s and 1990s, 26 out of 30 American branches in Japan failed.¹ Among recent examples, University of New South Wales (UNSW) which was one of the first initiatives within Singapore’s Global Schoolhouse project deceased only after two months of operation (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). New York University and Yale University also experienced failures in their branch campus establishment (Altbach, 2011). Numerous stakeholders are interested in the success of foreign activities performed by universities and try to find the “ingredients” of the sustainable university internationalization.

At the same time, education has an important role in the national development and is the key determinant of the progress towards the knowledge society. In such a way, universities are embedded in the net of complicated relationships with the state. Today more and more higher education institutions worldwide are no longer directly regulated by the state. The European Commission and most of the European states have accepted the importance of university autonomy (EUA, 2007). Already more than two decades ago Frackmann (1990) proposed that: “Institutional autonomy seems to be a precondition for an institution of higher education to be able to compete for money, students, reputation...” (p. 197). In the *Trends IV: European Universities Implementing Bologna* report, it is stated that “Institutions need more functional autonomy as a fundamental condition for successful reform and accept that this implies strengthening governance structures, institutional leadership and internal management” (Tauch & Reichert, 2005, p. 5).

University internationalization in this master thesis is understood as “the process of increasing involvement in international operations which requires adapting the firm’s [university’s] strategy, resources, structure and organization to international environments” (Edwards and Edwards, 2001, p.76). Two main components of internationalization are its pattern and

¹ <http://chronicle.com/article/Thinking-About-a-Branch-Cam/64741/>

capacity (Petersen & Welch, 2003; Welch & Luostarinen, 1993). The internationalization pattern answers the ‘what’ (product/service) ‘how’ (mode of operation) and ‘where’ (target market) questions of internationalization (Welch & Luostarinen, 1993). These three dimensions concentrate on the components of the actual foreign activities. Internationalization capacity defines the ability of the organization to successfully handle foreign activities. It encompasses three main dimensions: personnel, finance, and organizational structure (ibid.).

Bleiklie (2007) describes institutional (university) autonomy as: “the extent to which the institutions are free to make choices regarding their daily management of teaching and research as well as to formulate strategies for their future development” (p. 397). It is believed that university autonomy allows universities to be more flexible in their response to the environment (cf. Sporn, 2001) and “encourage autonomy and creativity in the academic field” (Mora, 2001, p.102). According to a new framework adapted by EUA (2007), university autonomy includes four major components: organizational, financial, staffing and academic. Organizational autonomy is associated with the way the university is governed, its main focus is university leadership, decision making and accountability. Financial autonomy covers the funding matters, and the ability of the university to independently allocate financial resources. Staffing autonomy is the freedom to recruit staff and set the terms of employment. Academic autonomy deals with the academic profile of the university, the structure and content of study programs and student admissions.

Both, university internationalization and university autonomy are on the institutional agenda in many countries, however, the research on university internationalization (cf. Altbach & Knight, 2007; Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Horta 2009; King, 2010; Knight & Morshidi, 2011; Maringe, 2009; Maringe & Foskett, 2010) and research on university autonomy (cf. Christensen, 2011; Dobbins et al., 2011; Enders et al., 2013; Mora, 2001; Salmi, 2007) run in parallel without developing the intersection (see Shams & Huisman, 2012; Yokoyama, 2011 for exception).

In order to fulfill the aim of the study, a systematic review of the empirical papers written on the topic will be conducted. Four sub-questions will guide the research process:

1. How can the empirical research of the issues related to university internationalization and university autonomy be detected using systematic review methodology?

2. What are the main strategies of university internationalization and how are they undertaken?
3. How do the dimensions of university autonomy influence the process of university internationalization?
4. How do the differences in the university autonomy in the source and host countries influence the process and sustainability of university internationalization?

The thesis will start with reviewing the literature on university internationalization and autonomy in order to get a deeper understanding of these two phenomena and to be able to construct effective search strings that include their most important dimensions. The search will be followed by the thorough reading of the selected papers, tabulating data and summarizing the key elements in the findings chapter. The analysis will aim to synthesize evidence from the reviewed papers and conceptualize the relationship between university autonomy and university internationalization.

2 Theory

The aim of this chapter is two-fold. First, it aims at developing theoretical understanding of the process of university internationalization. Second, it conceptualizes the phenomenon of university autonomy. The theoretical chapter prepares the grounds for systematic review on the topic and makes the initial attempt to develop the intersection between university internationalization and university autonomy.

2.1 Starting point: Concept intersection in literature

The relation between the concepts of university internationalization and university autonomy is not explicitly theorized and the evidence is scarce. The initial search on the topic identified that there is a small number of research papers working in the area of intersection between these two phenomena. A search in the ProQuest database yielded only two research papers that were employing both concepts, university internationalization and institutional autonomy, and made steps towards the discussion of the relation between them.

The conceptual paper written by Shams and Huisman (2012) notes down the changes in the institutional autonomy issues in the branch campus settings and the pitfalls of operating offshore. The article aims to develop a framework of the key managerial complexities of running offshore branch campuses. University autonomy is not explicitly theorized in the paper, but its components are integral to the three categories of managerial challenges which universities come across when setting up branch campuses: curriculum and staffing, cultural-societal distance and regulatory distance. They mention such issues of university autonomy as academic autonomy, professional autonomy, staffing autonomy and autonomy to change curriculum.

Shams and Huisman focus on the similarities between universities setting up branch campuses and multinational enterprises setting up foreign subsidiaries. They develop a conceptual framework that incorporates OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980; 1988) and contextualizes it for universities. The framework demonstrates the way a university's ownership advantages (e.g., a strong research and teaching profile, prestigious brand names, international experience) and local-specific advantages (low saturation of higher educational market, the ability to offer cheaper educational services) influence the university's decision to internationalize (to reap the benefits of the branch campus in comparison to licensing or joint venturing).

An empirical paper written by Yokoyama (2011) aims to identify different interpretations of autonomy and accountability of the US universities' home and overseas branch campuses. The author uses the perspective on autonomy, according to which it is understood in terms of its regulatory mechanism. The form of regulation differs according to the types of policy instrument used. Yokoyama finds that the meanings of autonomy and accountability differ between the US universities' home and overseas branch campuses. The difference in meanings of autonomy and accountability and their greater complexity at the foreign location are explained by the shift in the state's regulatory mechanism, different implication of the quality assurance practices and the involvement of new regulatory bodies—authorities in host countries.

The results of the initial search confirmed the existence of the gap of knowledge placed at the intersection between university internationalization and university autonomy and gave the grounds for this research to proceed with the scrutiny of the concepts of university internationalization and university autonomy separately. First, university internationalization and university autonomy will go through the process of theoretical conceptualization. Second, a systematic review of the empirical studies in these two domains will be conducted. The final part of the research will be represented as an attempt to synthesize the evidence and construct the relationship between the two phenomena.

2.2 University internationalization

This section of the master thesis intends to conceptualize the phenomenon of university internationalization. It will demonstrate the current state of development of university internationalization and highlight its importance and the driving factors for growth. Further, the meanings of the concept 'university internationalization' will be explored and conceptualized from the international business perspective. The main focus of this section is the structure of the concept 'university internationalization' and its major dimensions. The entry modes used by universities in their international operations will be outlined in more detail to elaborate on the outlined structure. Some theories of internationalization that explain the choice of entry modes will also be discussed, in particular, Dunning's OLI-paradigm. Finally, difficulties related to doing business abroad will be presented through the notion of institutional distance.

2.2.1 Importance of internationalization in higher education and its driving forces

Adopted in 1995 by the World Trade Organization (WTO), the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) clearly defines education as a service that should be regulated by trade rules (WTO, 1999). HE was defined in this agreement as “an international service industry to be regulated through the marketplace and through international trade agreements” (Bassett, 2006, p. 4). Thus, HE is a tradable commodity and is subject to international business processes.

The demand for international education is forecast to increase from 1.8 million international students in 2000 to 7.2 million in 2025 (Bohm et al., 2002). There is no reliable forecast on the proportion of the demand for HE met by student mobility, but it is getting clear that the growth of the movement of programs and providers/institutions across national borders will be exponential (Knight, 2006).

The international education is driven by a number of forces, both, on the demand and on the providers' side. On the demand side there are: changing demographics, the increased number of secondary school graduates, opportunity for engaging in lifelong learning, development of the knowledge society (Knight, 2006). On the other hand, there are many changes on the providers' side: delivering education across national borders in order to meet the demand in other countries, opportunity of virtual learning due to the development of technology, development of alternative forms of delivering education such as branch campuses, franchise arrangements and so on (Maringe & Foskett, 2010). In this changeable environment the concept of university internationalization requires particular attention.

Maringe and Gibbs (2009) found that HE institutions that are characterized by high levels of internationalization tend to have the following attributes:

- To have highly diversified income generating sources
- To have high annual income turnover
- To contribute more actively to local and regional economic development
- To have diversified employment profiles
- To attract more foreign staff and students

These positive characteristics encourage universities around the world to become a part of the internationalization movement and use considerable resources accomplishing their goals.

2.2.2 Defining university internationalization: key terms and concepts

Although many leading universities have been engaged in internationalization and had it as part of mission statements since their foundation, internationalization has significantly emerged on their strategic agenda mostly over the last decade, and has risen rapidly over the last five-six years (Weber & Duderstad, 2008). The growing interest in the development of international dimension in the delivery of HE has led to a terminological abundance that needs to be taken into consideration.

Working with the concept of internationalization in the sphere of HE, one should first address the difference between the broad definition of internationalization of HE and the more specific definition of university internationalization. Internationalization of HE (Knight, 2004; de Wit, 1993) is viewed as a combination of national and institutional strategies or activities designed to incorporate the international dimension into domestic HE. The definition formulated by Knight (2003) is: “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education” (p.2). It is the most widely accepted and cited one (cf. Naidoo, 2009; Qiang, 2003; Stromquist, 2007; Tayar & Jack, 2012). This definition is positioned on a rather abstract level of HE system in general and does not discuss the *process* of university internationalization.

Edwards and Edwards (2001) formulated the definition of university internationalization on the basis of an international business (IB) view on internationalization as: “*the process of increasing involvement in international operations which requires adapting the firm’s [university’s] strategy, resources, structure and organization to international environments*” (p. 76). This definition is on the institutional level, it views the university as an international enterprise. However, it does not identify education-specific features. To outline the main issues related to university internationalization a number of other definitions focused on various aspects of this process can be cited. Fielden (2008) talks about university internationalization as “...flows of staff and students in both directions, strategic alliances, joint programs with external institutions” (p.32). Teichler (2004) defines university internationalization as a growing “...focus on development of partnerships to reduce risk, increase competitiveness, enhance image and broaden the knowledge base for research, enterprise and education” (p.7). Goddard (2006) relates university internationalization to the development of managerial strategies and entrepreneurial element. In HE: “...internationalization is crucial for universities to retain competitiveness through university

business models which underpin the entrepreneurial culture...universities as entirely business entities” (p.37).

This thesis is focused on business perspective on university internationalization and, following Edwards and Edwards (2001) and other abovementioned authors, interprets it as increasing involvement of HE institutions in the foreign educational markets through enhancing earnings from foreign students and diversification of the levels of involvement in those markets.

2.2.3 Dimensions of internationalization

Welch and Luostarinen (1993) and Petersen and Welch (2003) identify two main components of internationalization: its *pattern* and *capacity*. A firm’s internationalization pattern embraces the variety of activities performed outside the home country. A firm’s internationalization capacity refers to “a company’s prerequisites for involving itself successfully in (further) international activities and the motivation of the company’s decision makers to operate internationally” (Petersen & Welch, 2003, p.10).

According to Welch and Luostarinen (1993) the internationalization pattern answers ‘what’, ‘how’ and ‘where’ questions of internationalization and consists of three major elements: sales objects (products or services), foreign operation methods and target markets. In case of universities, the object of sale is education service, which can be delivered in the same form as in the country of origin or undergo the changes of the concept to fit better the new environment. Operation methods are associated with the type of foreign entry and operation of a company (university) and will be discussed later in this section. The target markets the university is entering can vary from more familiar locations, the closest markets in terms of psychic distance to more distant and challenging in cultural, political, economic and other terms. Taking into consideration the globalization background of the contemporary life, the patterns of internationalization are changing, gaining greater pace.

Internationalization capacity falls into three main dimensions: personnel, finance and organizational structure. These dimensions concentrate on the components of actual foreign market activity and make the foundation for the further steps forward in the overall process of university internationalization. The three elements are involved in the formation of the internationalization strategy of the company/university. The success of internationalization in many cases depends on the kind of people participating in the process of internationalization.

The personal experiences, education and language training are potential positive contributions to the process of internationalization. Besides, in a multi-layered organization like a university, the level of awareness of the corporate goals by the personnel is also of great importance. In terms of finance, it is important to note that international operations are often costly and place increasing demand for the funds to support these operations. The internationalization budget can be a strong indicator of the degree of internationalization. It is also important for the organization to be able to independently allocate these funds. The organizational structure of the university should be responsive to the administrative and organizational demands arising in the process of internationalization. At times, the organizational mechanism needs to be altered in order to fulfill the internationalization objectives more efficiently.

The internationalization framework examining the abovementioned dimensions gives a substantial overview of the way companies internationalize. It can be fruitfully applied to the university environment and it makes the concept of university internationalization more comprehensive. Further on, some elements of this framework will be discussed in more detail, in particular, the major strategies of internationalization.

2.2.4 Outward university internationalization: major strategies

The forms of involvement adopted by universities in their foreign activities can be interpreted in a way identical to the business entry modes. Root (1994) defines international entry mode as “an institutional arrangement that makes possible the entry of a company’s products, technology, human skills, management, or other resources into a foreign country” (p.5). Entry modes and, consequently, modes of operation can be classified in different ways. From an economist’s perspective, a company enters the country in one of only two ways. First, the products or services can be exported to the foreign country from a production base in the source country. Second, the production can be moved to another country, where the direct interaction with users is performed and the local resources are used.

From a management/operation perspective, these two major forms of entry break down into several entry modes (ibid.). The most common market entry modes are exporting, licensing/franchising, joint ventures and setting up a wholly owned subsidiary (cf. Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1992; Root, 1994). These modes involve some degree of resource commitment and making mistakes choosing the wrong mode of entry can turn into big losses and a failure.

There is no agreement in literature on the set of entry modes that universities employ in their foreign activities (cf. Healey, 2008; Van Damme, 2001). Edwards and Edwards (2001) and Naidoo (2009) re-interpret the classical entry modes and identify several major forms of involvement universities adapt.

Exporting involves transporting of the final product made in the exporter's country to a foreign market. Exporting is applicable to physical products. Higher education being a "soft" service (Erramilli & Rao, 1993), where production and consumption cannot be separated, Edwards and Edwards (2001) and Naidoo (2009) apply the term educational service export to student and staff mobility. So, HE is exported when students attend foreign universities or when they enroll for distance learning; and when academics travel with lectures or spend some periods teaching abroad.

A university *franchises* its operations when an education provider from Country A gives another institution from a Host Country B a contract for delivering franchisor's courses and educational programs in Country B or third countries. Franchising agreements are usually for-profit arrangements and are fully performed outside source country.

A university can enter various forms of partnerships or *strategic alliances*. Several education-specific types can be identified among them. *Twinning degrees* is a type of arrangement when an education provider at a Source Country A cooperates with an institution in Host Country B allowing students to transfer their credits and study at the institution from the source country. This can be on a non-commercial basis and be a mean for reaching other corporate goals.

A similar way of interaction between universities in source and host countries is *program articulations*. In articulation agreements, students accomplish part of their education at their home country, obtaining the source country qualifications and further move to the source country to finish their degree. This way of sharing responsibilities between source and host countries' institutions can lead to joint or double degrees.

International consortium is a form of transnational partnership between the universities, it is a network of HE institutions which are working on creation of an interactive environment and common regulations (Beerkens & Derwende, 2007). The motives for creation of inter-organizational consortia are usually embedded in resource-based view (RBV) (Das & Teng, 2000). Universities (as well as other public institutions) are attracted to inter-institutional cooperation in order to be able to perform the activities that they cannot do individually,

usually because of a lack of assets. Besides, education consortia provide favorable environment for cross-border mobility of programs and assure common standards of accountability and quality assurance for the members of the unity. The prominent examples of inter-organizational consortia are: European Consortium of Innovative Universities (ECIU): a collaboration between 10 universities in Western Europe; ASEAN University Network: a consortium of 17 universities from the ten ASEAN member countries.

The *establishment of international branch campus* has accounted for most of the growth in transnational higher education (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). Branch campuses are seen as a kind of revenue-generating activity of entrepreneurial universities. An international branch campus is usually defined as “an educational faculty owned, at least in part, by a foreign institution, which operates under the name of foreign institution, where students receive face-to-face instruction to achieve a qualification bearing the name of the foreign institution” (ibid., p. 628). Creation of branch campuses is associated with *joint venturing and greenfield investments*. A subsidiary/satellite campus is established at a host country to deliver its own educational programs. Branch campuses can be created either as wholly owned subsidiaries or through forming joint venture partnerships with institutions and companies in a host country. In case of merger/acquisition, a foreign provider is purchasing a part of or a whole local higher educational institution in a host country.

Setting up a branch campus differs from a usual product strategy. The higher education ‘industry’ is specific as the replication of its service in terms of curriculum, teaching staff delivering the curriculum, resources and equipment, physical assets in different countries is very challenging. To be able to function efficiently, the universities entering new country need to achieve both external and internal legitimacy (Scott, 2008). For a successful accomplishment of internationalization process, a special attention should be paid to national regulations and a variety of policy issues and implications of the source and host countries. It is of particular importance if the receiving countries have the required policies to be able to effectively manage registration and accreditation of foreign education programs and providers, create a necessary learning environment and deal with the financial issues, such as taxes, foreign/local ownership, profit sharing and so on.

A *Regional education hub* is the most recent development in cross-border HE context. It is not a university entry mode, but a specific type of environment for international university activities. However, it needs to be mentioned in respect to entry strategies used by

universities. An Education hub reveals a cluster of highly concentrated cross-border activities in HE domain, mainly multiple foundations of branch campuses of highly rated universities, sponsored by the importing country (Knight, 2011). In the case of education hubs, the environmental issues (local legislation, policies, position of the state etc.) play an important role in the sustainable development of the hub. Becoming a hub requires national level planned effort. Today there is a number of countries who claim to be regional hubs and are trying to position themselves as a centre of education and research activities, among them the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Qatar, Bahrain, and three hubs in Southeast Asia—Singapore, Hong Kong, and Malaysia.

Using the parameters outlined in 2.2.3 and 2.2.4, the process of university internationalization can be summarized in a figure (see Figure 1).

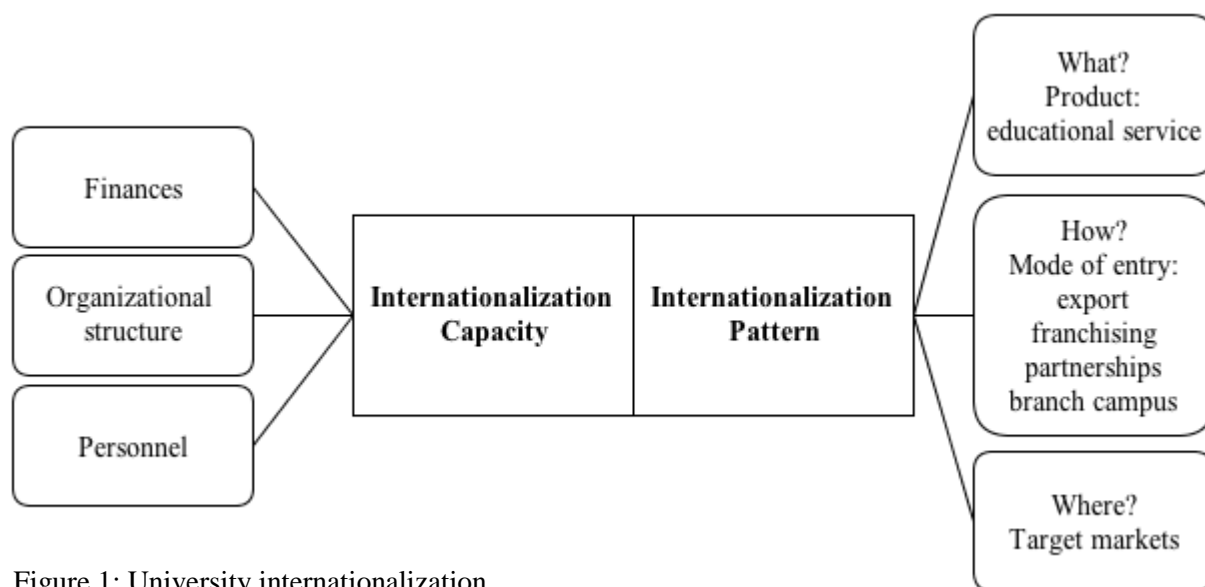


Figure 1: University internationalization

2.2.5 Theories of internationalization and modes of market entry

The choice of foreign market entry strategy is a crucial decision for a company. Several theories have been developed to explain the firm's choice of market entry mode.

Research in the domain of business internationalization conducted in Scandinavian countries during the 1970s proposed an evolutionary process model of incremental development of foreign commitment (Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977, 2009). This sequential approach to internationalization is well-known as “Uppsala internationalization model” (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977). This approach suggests a step-by-step entry to the foreign market starting with exporting, then moving into establishment of

sales subsidiary and then, finally, establishment of offshore production. This model was highly applicable for its time, but during the 1980s and 1990s many firms accelerated their entry to the foreign markets which meant a departure from the incremental process model.

Two major theories emerged from the researching the “new” behavior of the firms: a so-called eclectic paradigm (Dunning, 1980, 1988) and transaction cost theory. These theories suggest that a business can make a decision to enter a foreign market using a variety of entry strategies depending on its resources and capabilities (Anderson & Weitz, 1986; Gatignon & Anderson, 1988; Dunning, 1988).

Dunning (1980, 1988) developed a framework that explains the choice of a market entry strategy through a set of advantages: ownership (O), location (L) and internalization (I). This is why the eclectic paradigm is often called OLI-paradigm. An organization possessing a set of ownership advantages that consist of firm-specific assets becomes capable of internationalization. Location advantages mean that there are particular resources accessible at a foreign location that a company needs. This is often a key motive for starting foreign operations. Internalization advantages are about reducing transaction costs by avoiding external paths of moving ownership advantages to the host country through franchising or licensing.

In the sphere of HE, universities that have strong academic profiles, prestigious brand names, high positions in the world rankings and a history of successful operation abroad have a potential advantage to start delivering their services at the foreign locations (Edwards & Edwards, 2001). However, the existence of location-specific advantages is also of crucial importance. The ability to offer their educational services in highly profitable markets like Singapore and Malaysia encourages universities to establish branch campuses at those locations. Internalization makes branch campus a more beneficial strategy than franchising or joint venturing: it should help avoid tensions that partnership models often have (McBurnie & Zигuras, 2007). Nevertheless, forming strategic alliances with the local partners can be highly beneficial in the case of university internationalization.

Driven by OLI advantages, well-reputed universities try to enter attractive foreign markets. Making the right choice of mode of entry (franchising programs, entering a partnership with a local institution, setting up a branch campus etc.) have positive impacts on the success of

internationalization. But still, entering a foreign market, a university needs to overcome a number of obstacles.

2.2.6 Costs of doing business abroad: Institutional distance

Hymer (1976) was the first to theorize *costs of doing business abroad (CDBA)* that foreign firms experienced entering new markets. He noticed that

[N]ational firms are likely to have advantages over foreigners...National firms have the general advantage of better information about their country: its economy, its language, its law, and its politics. To a foreigner, the cost of acquiring this information may be considerable (Hymer, 1976, p. 35).

Developing the costs of doing business abroad further, the scholars argue that companies face a liability of foreignness in host countries (Zaheer, 1995; Kostova & Zaheer, 1999). Zaheer defined liability of foreignness as “the costs of doing business abroad that result in a competitive disadvantage for an MNE [multinational enterprise] sub-unit ...broadly defined as all additional costs a firm operating in a market overseas incurs that a local firm would not incur” (1995, p. 342-3).

The core of liability of foreignness is so-called institutional distance. Institutional distance reflects the differences between the institutional environments of two countries (Kostova, 1999). It is based on the three pillars of institutional environment defined by Scott (1995): the regulative, normative, and cognitive pillars. The *regulative pillar* refers to the formal rules and state regulations in the country (North, 1990), the *normative pillar* is about the means that are considered legitimate to pursue goals (Scott, 1995). The *cognitive pillar* reflects the beliefs and values of a society (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Normative and cognitive aspects can be grouped together as these two aspects of institutions are quite similar to one another. Following Gaur and Lu (2007) institutional distance in this thesis is seen as a combination of *regulative* and *normative distances*. The combination of regulative and normative distances represents the differences in institutional environments between the home and host countries.

The effects of the institutional distance can be summarized as follows: the low institutional distance is associated with easier entry to a new market and considerably low costs of functioning abroad due to the minimal requirements for learning. However, as soon as the institutional distance between the source and the host country increases, the costs increase (Eden & Miller, 2004). In highly uncertain environments firms may experience disfavor from

the host country governments and pressure from the local groups of producers, various organizations and trade unions (Delios & Henisz, 2003).

There are strategies to mitigate costs caused by institutional distance. Ownership strategy was identified as useful by Gaur and Lu (2007). Ownership is often seen as a critical control mechanism. Therefore, a higher level of ownership in foreign subsidiaries provides the new entrant with a greater degree of control over its operations and provides some protection against the opportunistic behavior of partners in new environments. With more control, the company can quicker react to changes in an unfamiliar environment and tackle problems.

2.2.7 Summarizing the concept of university internationalization

The university internationalization concept is part of a wider notion of internationalization of HE. It is focusing on the institutional aspects and can be briefly defined as the process of movement of programs and providers of education across borders to deliver educational services through various modes of entry. The process of university internationalization can be viewed from the IB perspective that reveals the structure of the phenomenon and outlines its major dimensions: internationalization capacity and pattern. HE literature develops university entry strategies that slightly differ from the conventional entry modes developed in business studies, but the mechanisms are still similar, which allows drawing direct associations and simplifies understanding. The most challenging and the most rewarding entry strategy is branch campus establishment, which is analogous to a greenfield investment or in some cases a joint venture. Making the right choice of entry mode has a positive impact on the internationalization sustainability. OLI-paradigm is considered a suitable framework to explain the choice of entry strategy by an institution. Driven by OLI advantages, the well-reputed universities aim to enter attractive foreign markets. Institutional distance is an important factor to take into consideration when planning an internationalization strategy.

2.3 University autonomy

Section 2.3 is intending to conceptualize the notion of university autonomy. It starts with demonstrating the importance of the concept; it clarifies the definition of university autonomy and identifies the terms that are to be taken into consideration alongside the central concept. There will also be presented two major classifications of types of university autonomy and the correlation between them shown. The four dimensions of university autonomy will be considered in more detail.

2.3.1 The importance of university autonomy

The European Commission and most of the European states have accepted the importance of university autonomy. The council of European Union (2007) confirms that new frameworks should be created for universities, characterized by improved autonomy and accountability and emphasizes that there is a relation between university autonomy and its ability to respond to the society's needs. The key role of university autonomy is also underpinned in the European Commission's Green Paper "The European Research Area: New perspectives" (April 2007).

Nowadays, higher education systems are becoming more complex, monitoring and managing this sector is tuning into a more specialized task. Consequently, the old model of absolute control from the central ministry of education (MOE) is becoming unsustainable and is being gradually replaced by other models (Fielden, 2008). This change in governance has got a name of a shift from "State Control" to "Self regulation" (Askling et al., 1999). Neave and Van Vught (1994) visualized this tendency and developed a continuum at one end of which there is the "state control model", a rigid structure with the centralized governmental control of universities, and at the other end there is the "state supervising model" which only monitors and regulates them. The transition between the two ends is accomplished through the autonomy reforms that are enacted by the state.

These reforms are triggered by realization that contemporary complex academic communities cannot be effectively managed by remote government employees and solving the problems and making necessary changes should be left to the institutions themselves. Granting autonomy means that the state recognizes the special needs of universities in terms of their management. Therefore, the key principle behind most of the autonomy reforms is that "institutions should, as far as possible, be free to manage their own affairs" (Fielden, 2008, p.2).

And still, autonomy is a concept which is understood differently across the world. It is caused not only by varying legal frameworks but also by the cultural and historical settings the educational systems were developing in (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). This becomes a considerable challenge for comparing degrees of autonomy in different countries and judging about its consequences.

2.3.2 Defining university autonomy: key terms and concepts

University autonomy is commonly seen as the degree of freedom the university has to steer itself. The growing awareness on the policy level and the changes happening in the society are echoed by the growing volume of research available on the topic. As a result, a wide range of definitions of the concept autonomy appeared (cf. Brock, 1997; Clark, 1998; Estermann & Nokkala, 2009; Gornitzka & Maassen, 2000; Salmi, 2007). Being a complex unity, university can be autonomous on different levels, so one can distinguish between the autonomy of individual academics, the autonomy of academic professions working in the same field (Musselin, 2005) and the autonomy of the university as an institution.

Bleiklie (2007) describes institutional autonomy as: “the extent to which the institutions are free to make choices regarding their daily management of teaching and research as well as to formulate strategies for their future development” (p. 397). This definition can be supplemented by Estermann and Nokkala’s (2009) definition which refers to university (institutional) autonomy as the “constantly changing relations between the state and higher education institutions and the degree of control exerted by the state, depending on the national context and circumstances”(p.6).

Conceptualizing the notion of university autonomy, the terms “governance” and “self-regulation” should also be taken into consideration as they are often used in the same context and are at times used interchangeably with the central term. The term “governance” is used to describe “all those structures, processes and activities that are involved in the planning and direction of the institutions and people working in tertiary education” (Fielden, 2008, p.2). It is a generic term describing the form of governmental control/supervision of the higher education institutions.

In spite of the broad use of the word self-regulation, it is rather unspecified. But, relating self-regulation to university autonomy, it can be defined as “the capacity of a university to act within an available “space of action” granted by the state” (Askling et al., 1999, p.176). Self-regulation emphasizes “the self-regulatory capacities of higher education institutions within a regulatory framework provided by government. It is a combination of (less) governmental control and (more) institutional autonomy.”(Berdahl, 1990, p. 169).

Keeping in mind the institutional focus of the thesis, the definitions of autonomy given by Bleiklie (2007) and Estermann and Nokkala (2009) are chosen for further development of the

concept. The terms institutional autonomy, self-regulation and governance complement the definition of university autonomy. They are used at the same contextual settings and are interrelated.

2.3.3 Transformation of the idea of university autonomy

The term autonomy has remained the same within decades, but its meaning underwent transformation. One can speak of ideological shift or transformation at the turn of the 21st century when autonomy started to refer mostly to the capacity of universities to operate on markets rather than to academic freedom of scholars (Piironen, 2013). In legal terms there are no international regulations obliging governments to support university autonomy (Karran, 2009). In Magna Charta of European Universities (1998)² and policy statement Academic Freedom, University Autonomy and Social Responsibility by the International Association of Universities (1998)³ institutional autonomy is presented as a an important factor needed for fulfillment of academic freedoms but not as a survival strategy in the market of knowledge production.

The issue of university autonomy was placed on the European Union's agenda only after the launch of Lisbon Strategy (2000) which called higher education and research the vital part of enhancing European competitiveness in the globalizing world economy. Increased university autonomy became the main requisite for improving competitiveness:

“A majority of universities feel that their national regulations do not currently allow them to undertake the changes necessary for their future. In an open, competitive and moving environment, autonomy is a precondition for universities to be able to respond to society's changing needs and to take full account for those responses” (European Commission, 2005, 3.2.2.).

2.3.4 Classifications of university autonomy

To draw a more detailed picture of the concept of university autonomy, two different views on university autonomy will be demonstrated. Two classifications, adapted by Berdahl (1990) and EUA's Lisbon declaration (2007) are to be discussed.

Berdahl is focusing on two types of autonomy – procedural and substantive. “Substantive autonomy is the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine its own goals and programs – if you will, the what of academe” (Berdahl 1990, p172). Substantive

² www.magna-charta.org/library/userfiles/file/mc_english.pdf

³ Articles 1 and 12; www.iau-aiu.net/sites/all/files/Academic_Freedom_Policy_Statement.pdf

autonomy is associated with purely academic issues, it is “the heart of academe” (ibid. p.173) and in order for the university to achieve its goals, it should not be violated in any ways. This type of autonomy is associated with the “purpose”, the role of higher education in the society (Askling et al., 1999).

“Procedural autonomy is the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine the means by which its goals and programs will be pursued – the how of academe” (ibid, p.172). This component of autonomy is related to the authority and includes the overall strategy of development, controls over purchasing, personnel, and aspects of resource allocation.

EUA’s Lisbon declaration (2007) identifies four main dimensions of university autonomy:

- *Organizational autonomy* is closely associated with institutional governance, in particular, the university leadership, decision making processes and accountability.
- *Financial autonomy* deals with acquiring and allocating funding, the ownership of the building and equipment, the ability to change tuition fees and salaries, to borrow and raise money.
- *Staffing autonomy* is defined by freedom to recruit staff and settle the terms of employment.
- *Academic autonomy* is the capacity to define the academic profile, start new study programs, develop their structure and content, assure the quality of education, and control student admissions.

Following Verhoest et al. (2004), there are two sides of university autonomy: autonomy at the level of the universities’ decision making competences and the absence of constraints on the use of these competences. While the development of internal academic and administrative structures is mostly under a university’s control, governance structures and leadership are often highly dependent on the national legislation (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009).

Drawing parallels between these two classifications, substantive autonomy is analogous to academic autonomy. Procedural autonomy comprises the other three types: organizational, financial and staffing autonomy. The ability to draw parallels between two classifications demonstrates a considerably unified understanding of the components of the concept university autonomy by different scholars. It has been decided in this research to further

proceed with a more recent classification and focus on four dimensions of university autonomy separately.

2.3.4 Organizational autonomy

Within the framework of organizational autonomy, the focus is on the university's ability to establish structures and governing bodies of its own and to choose the type of leadership appropriate for a particular institution (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). As has been mentioned earlier, governance structures and leadership are often strongly controlled by national legislative frameworks, that is why this type of autonomy is very country or region specific and should be considered for every particular case.

Organizational autonomy takes the corporate view on university autonomy and is including three major components: managerial, policy and governance (Enders et al., 2013). The managerial component identifies the decision-making freedom of the university's governing bodies in terms of allocation of financial and other resources, solving staffing issues and management of production factors, such as logistics, housing, and organization. Policy autonomy displays the extent to which a university can take independent decisions about the services it delivers, the groups of population it targets, the location for conducting its operations and other strategic developments. Governance autonomy is related to the extent to which the universities develop their internal academic and administrative structures and processes.

This type of autonomy is usually expressed in creation of university governing bodies and the realization of executive leadership. The governing body can be called differently, but usually it is council, board or senate. University leadership is usually represented by several key staff, such as the rector or president, the vice-rector (president), the head of administration and the faculty deans. In this domain, there are three primary issues: selection of the rector, qualification of the rector and his/her relation to the governing bodies.

Nowadays rectors still come from the academic environment and are full or associate professors at the university. But due to the changing environment in the field, in some cases the qualifications of a rector are more and more approximating the ones of a chief executive officer (CEO) of a company. For example, in a number of countries such as Austria, Finland, Denmark or Lithuania (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009), the rector is expected to demonstrate not only academic, but also managerial skills.

To sum up, organizational autonomy is a country specific phenomenon as in is partially shaped by national legislation. The extension of governing structures and participation of various stake-holders contribute to a greater autonomy of HE institutions. The changing qualifications of the governors and the shift towards a CEO-type leader in certain counties change the image of a university making it more entrepreneurial in character and enhancing the capabilities of the institution.

2.3.5 Financial autonomy

In general terms, financial autonomy concerns the universities' dependency on governmental funding and alternative sources of income (Enders et al., 2013; Kontamaki & Lyytinen, 2004). To extend the notion, two major aspects of financial autonomy can be identified: the procedural framework of public funding and the universities' financial capacity (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). The former falls into a number of aspects:

- The extent to which universities can accumulate financial resources and keep profits
- Ownership of the building universities occupy
- The ability to set tuition fees
- The ability to borrow money from different sources
- The ability to make financial investments (ibid.).

In other words, the degree of financial capacity shows how close a university is getting to the state of an independent business enterprise.

There are numerous links between financial autonomy and other dimensions of university autonomy; it cannot be considered in isolation. For example, the ability of the university to decide on tuition fees can influence the student admission levels, state regulations on salaries are related to staffing dimension of autonomy, the capacity of using the financial resources freely impacts the strategic development of the institution.

2.3.6 Academic autonomy

The term academic autonomy has been widely addressed in literature (cf. Berdahl, 1990, Henkel 2005, 2007). In some cases it is used synonymously to the concept of university autonomy in general (Tapper & Salter, 1995) which can cause confusion. For this reason, in this master thesis academic dimension of autonomy is used in the meaning of the universities' ability to determine their own institutional strategy in terms of the "what of academe" (Berdahl 1990, p172). This includes independence in determining the directions of academic

development of the institution and avoiding interference in questions of the content of academic programs and methods of teaching and research.

Following Estermann and Nokkala (2009), the components of academic autonomy are:

- The ability of the university to define its institutional strategy – its general mission in terms teaching orientation and research and perform the activities to achieve their mission
- The ability to decide on its academic profile and build the research in the directions supported by the university's governing bodies
- The ability to develop the content for degree programs
- The ability to be free in terms of student admission processes.

Academic autonomy is influenced by regional developments like the Bologna process reforms in Europe and “Bologna-type” developments in the Asia-Pacific region (ASEAN University Network - AUN, 2010), Latin America (Ibero-American knowledge area), and Africa (the Réseau pour l'Excellence de l'Enseignement Supérieur en Afrique de l'Ouest (REESAO)) (Huisman et al., 2012). These arrangements do not only assist quality assurance of educational programs but also discuss collaboration issues and enter the territory of the academic content of the programs. The context of these regional processes is crucial for understanding the academic dimension of university autonomy.

2.3.7 Staffing autonomy

Staffing autonomy focuses on the capacity of the universities to recruit their own staff and set the terms of employment (cf. de Boer et al., 2010). The ability of universities to recruit their own staff relates both to academic and financial issues. Staffing autonomy includes managing overall salary costs and setting individual salary levels, as well as being flexible when recruiting staff. The staff in a fully autonomous university is directly employed and paid by this university, not the government. At the same time, performing the recruitment procedures, universities partially form their academic profiles. Therefore, this type of autonomy occupies an intermediary position between financial and academic autonomy and should be looked at in relation to them (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009).

There is a challenge rising in relation to staffing autonomy, as in addition to various regulations for the different staff categories at the university, there are different legal

regulations for public and private labor law both within the same country and in the settings of cross-border activities. For this reason, developing this dimension of university autonomy becomes problematic. But there are three dimensions that allow estimating the state of staffing autonomy across the globe:

- The recruitment procedures for appointment
- The status of university employees
- The salary levels.

These three dimensions summarize the staffing dimension of autonomy and outline the areas of focus that are emerging when working in this dimension.

2.3.8 Academic freedom

There is one more notion that can be referred to university autonomy, but should not be mixed up with its four outlined dimensions. It is academic freedom. Academic freedom means the freedom of the professor to teach and do research without external control in his or her area of expertise, and it also implies the freedom of the student to learn (Altbach, 2001, p.206).

University autonomy and academic freedom are related, but they are not equivalent (Bladh, 2007). Academic freedom refers to the conditions for faculty members, their individual freedom to choose the directions for the research, while university autonomy refers to the state of self-governance of the institution. Academic freedom is an important indicator of the educational environment in the country and is related to research ethics.

2.3.9 Summarizing the concept of university autonomy

Conceptualizing university autonomy, a particular emphasis was put on viewing the phenomenon from the institutional perspective. University autonomy is not a new notion but according to the recent policy developments it acquired particular importance in the university environment as a feature improving the competitive characteristics of the HE institutions worldwide. National states across the world introduce the autonomy reforms which are triggered by realization that the best steering for a university these days can be carried out only by university professionals, not the remote government employees. The area of university autonomy studies is quite developed and there is a relative consent in a way university autonomy is viewed. It is a manifold notion and four major dimensions comprising the concept university autonomy can be identified. They are organizational, financial, staffing

and academic components (see Figure 2). These four elements are interconnected and influenced by inward processes at the university and societal changes in outer environments. Academic freedom is related to university autonomy and often accompanies it; however, it relates to the individual freedoms of academics and students and in this thesis is not studied in detail.

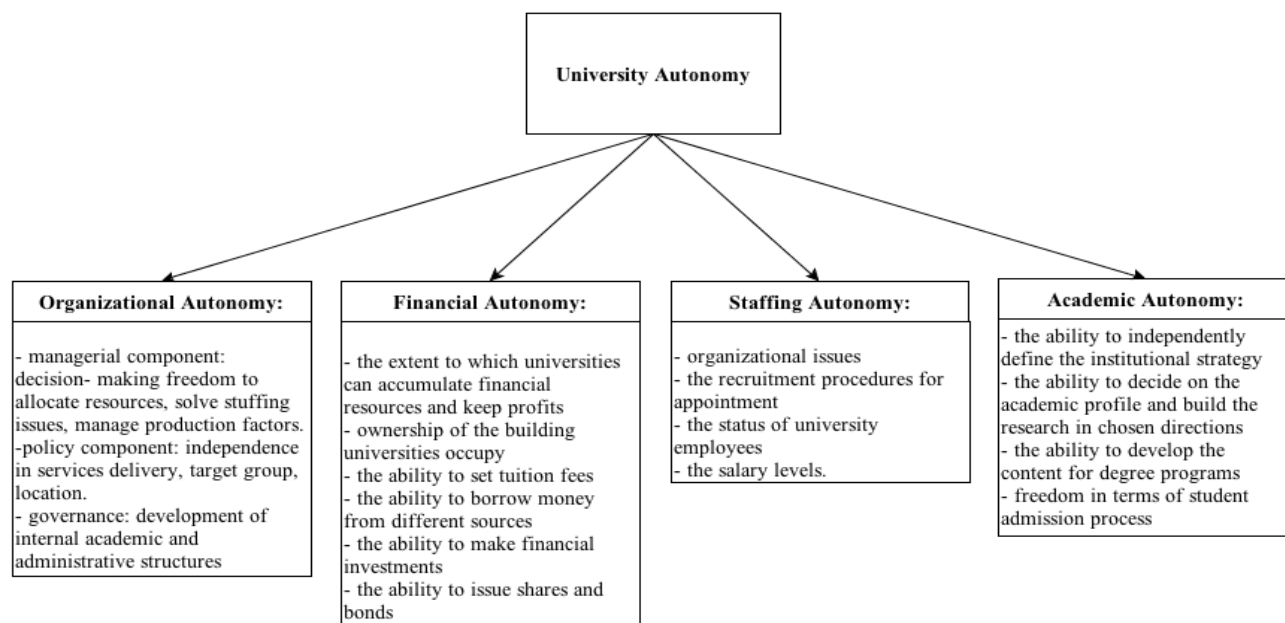


Figure 2.University autonomy

2.5 Chapter conclusion: Theoretical convergence

This chapter developed the understanding of the process of university internationalization and conceptualized university autonomy.

An attempt can be made to theorize the intersection between university internationalization and university autonomy, using the two dimensions of internationalization identified by Welch and Luostarinen (1993): internationalization pattern and capacity. The internationalization pattern can be associated with university internationalization. ‘What’ of university internationalization corresponds with the various educational services that the university moves across the borders. ‘How’ is presented by entry modes discussed above. ‘Where’ is about the target markets chosen by the university for its foreign activities. The internationalization capacity of the university can be presented through the university autonomy. University autonomy and internationalization capacity are described as having similar function: they define the efficiency of an organization. Besides, as has been described above, the components of internationalization capacity are finance, organizational structure

and personnel, so the dimensions of university autonomy (organizational, financial, academic and staffing) match the components of internationalization capacity. The common elements identified are: organizational, financial and staffing (the one of personnel). This matches allow assuming, that in case of university internationalization, its internationalization capacity will be defined by the level of university autonomy (see Figure 3).

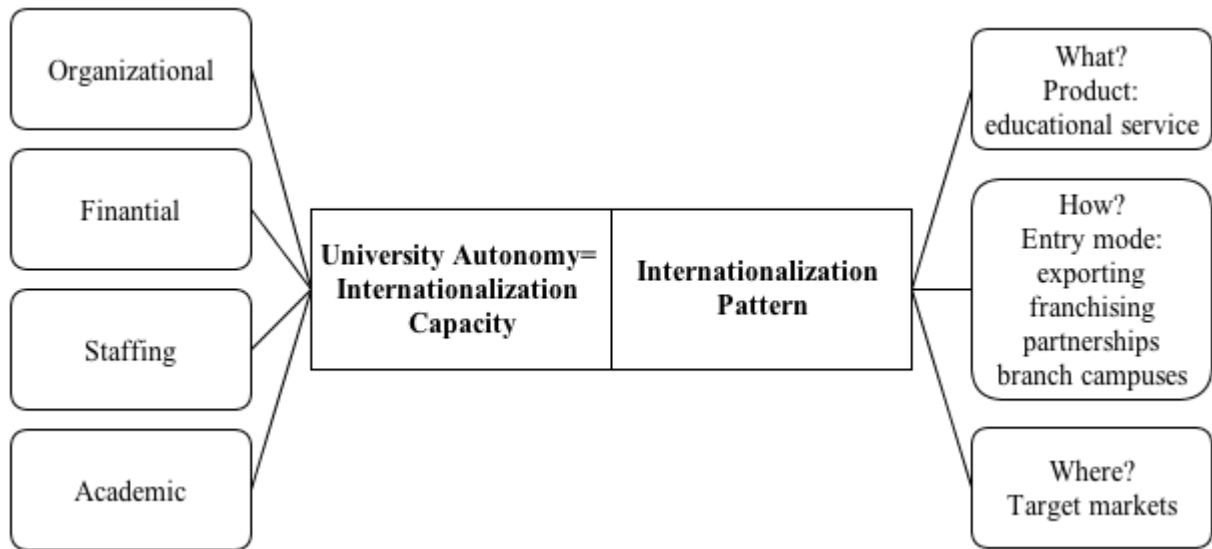


Figure 3: Equating university autonomy with university internationalization capacity

The theoretical development of the concepts is not sufficient for synthesizing the relationship between them; therefore, understanding the empirical application of the phenomena of university autonomy and university internationalization becomes the next stage of the research. In order to support this development, data from the empirical studies working with university internationalization and university autonomy will be collected using the systematic review methodology. The developed theoretical understanding of these two phenomena prepared the grounds for designing methodology section.

3 Methodology

The previous chapter intended to form a theoretical understanding and conceptualize university internationalization and university autonomy. The review highlighted the gap that currently exists at the intersection of the two phenomena and proposed to further approach the topic in terms of empirical application of the concepts. One way to advance the understanding of university internationalization and autonomy and approach their intersection to further direct the research efforts in this area is by means of conducting a systematic review of the relevant studies in these two domains.

The aim of this chapter is manifold. The chapter discusses the choice of the data collection and analysis method, which is a systematic review. The chapter further introduces the phases of the review. Finally, it presents the actual steps taken in terms of data collection and analysis as per systematic review process guidelines. The chapter also contains the reflections on ontology and epistemology and the explanation of the followed research paradigm. These elements are important to put together as the choice of methods of data collection and analysis should be consistent with the philosophical and methodological assumptions made in the research design that guides the study (cf. Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

3.1 Aims and objectives

Chapter 2 made an attempt to identify the point of intersection between the concepts of university internationalization and university autonomy on the theoretical level. However, it has been stated, that there is a lack of empirical evidence in the interdisciplinary domain. Therefore a systematic review of literature is needed to be able to construct the overall picture of evidence on the topic area to direct future research efforts (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). The systematic review aims to identify the studies that can be used for the further conceptualization of the relationship between university internationalization and university autonomy. The main objective of this chapter is to answer one of the stated research questions, in particular: *How can the empirical research of the issues related to university internationalization and university autonomy be detected using systematic review methodology?*

3.2 Post-positivist ontology and epistemology

Collecting data and conducting the analysis, it is important to outline the ontological, epistemological and methodological position of the researcher. These elements reflect the

structure of her beliefs and determine the way the research is performed. The combination of views on these three elements reflects the followed research paradigm. This project adopts the approach to paradigm identified by Guba (1990) and calls it “a basic set of believes that guides action” (p.31).

A paradigm is shaped by a combination of assumptions concerning reality (ontology), knowledge of that reality (epistemology), and the particular ways (tools) this reality can be explored with and knowledge obtained (methodology) (Guba, 1990).

The approach to data collection used in this thesis can be most closely described as adhering to the principles of post-positivism and critical realism. Employing systematic review methodology means that, ontologically, the researcher believes that there is a reality to identify (a body of empirical research on the topics) that exists independently from the researcher’s perception. Therefore, epistemologically, the investigator and investigated are independent entities.

3.3 Reasons for using systematic review methodology

In order to best answer the main research question guiding this study, applying systematic review methodology followed by meta-synthesis of the collected data is the most suitable approach. The research question presupposes the need to obtain a deep understanding of the phenomena in focus. The data sources available on the topic are abundant and a systematic approach needs to be taken to cope with the big volume.

According to Petticrew and Roberts (2006) a systematic review is valuable “when a general overall picture of the evidence in a topic area is needed to direct future research efforts” (p.21). Systematic review is called “the most efficient and high quality method for identifying and evaluating extensive literatures” (Tranfield et al., 2003, p.215). A systematic review is the process of critical evaluation and assessment of the available studies that address a particular research issue; it originated in the medical studies. In order to investigate the intersection of the concepts university internationalization and university autonomy and attempt to fulfill a knowledge gap placed at the intersection, the procedure that is applying certain principles of the systematic review methodology is performed. This type of methodology is claimed to have a number of advantages over the literature review which is often the basic tool for managing the diversity of knowledge for a specific academic enquiry (Tranfield et al., 2003, 2004).

A systematic review develops a detailed technology of the search process trying to minimize the bias that a traditional literature review is criticized for. A systematic review keeps a precise audit of the procedures, decisions and conclusions made in the papers under scrutiny (Cook et al., 1997; Cook, Mulrow & Haynes, 1997).

Employing the review techniques which are in use in medical studies to the study in the domain of social science and business research will help to overcome the biases associated with the traditional review and make the assumptions and values underpinning the review more explicit. Systematic reviews enhance the legitimacy and authority of the resulting evidence and provide researchers and practitioners with a reliable basis to formulate strategies and take action (Tranfield et al., 2003).

3.4 The review process

Tranfield et al. (2003) have drawn up five phases of a systematic review. They range from preparation the search to the final documentation using the findings. Petticrew and Roberts (2006) suggest twelve steps to conduct a systematic review (p. 284). The latter go into more detail when discussing the process, while the former provide a neat structure of the review; therefore the master thesis is using a combination of both. Twelve steps organized in five phases with some additions will structure the methodology chapter. Special attention will be paid to the particular reviewing (searching) methodology to enable replicability of the research, which is the major favorable point of difference of a systematic review.

Phase 1: Planning the review. The first phase of the systematic review consists of three major steps: defining the question, considering drawing together an advisory group and in some cases conducting a pilot study, writing and reviewing a protocol. Systematic literature reviews usually aim at answering a specific question or test a specific hypothesis (Dixon–Woods et al., 2004; Tranfield et al., 2004). In order to estimate the possible scope of the review, and preliminary verify the feasibility of the research, a pilot search can be conducted. To avoid a strong personal bias, it is recommended to create a steering or advisory group. The first step of actual systematic review according to Petticrew and Roberts (2006) and Trafield et al. (2003) is to develop a review protocol. The systematic review must be replicable and transparent, therefore, the researchers should keep a precise record of the search formulas and the databases they are using.

Phase 2: Identifying and evaluating studies. Having developed the search strings, the study proceeds to the second stage – conducting the refined search, selecting the studies, evaluating their fit, extracting the data (Tranfield et al. 2003). The second phase of conducting a systematic review also consists of three stages. The first one is carrying out the literature search itself using the developed search strings applied to the outlined body of data. The identified hits are further screened for the final inclusion in the review. After the clearly irrelevant studies are excluded from the review, there is still a considerable body of literature remaining and a major part of it is excluded on the basis of abstract screening. Often the coverage and clarity of the abstracts vary enormously and an inadequate abstract can prevent the study from being included in the review (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

Phase 3: Extracting and synthesizing data. The challenge of qualitative data synthesis in the frame of a systematic review is to keep up the transparency of the review (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). This is why the researchers should be explicit about their actions in the process of analyzing data. In the initial stage of reading the texts, the findings should be standardized, therefore, tabulating the included studies is the first step of working with data. The quality of the articles sampled for the final review should also be assessed. Once the first round of the search for primary studies is accomplished, the challenge of synthesizing the complex evidence arises. Synthesizing evidence in some disciplines (e.g. medical studies) can be a quite straightforward task when the pieces of research are similar enough. But in social sciences the studies for systematic reviews are often too heterogeneous to permit a statistical summary of data. Therefore, in this area of studies other methods of synthesis are more appropriate (Dixon-Woods et al., 2006; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006).

Phases 4 and 5. Last two phases of systematic review process are focusing on finishing up the research and disseminating the results. They are not part of the systematic review methodology per se and are discussed very shortly here. The fourth phase is reporting (step 11) and means writing the report, which takes the form of the master thesis itself. Phase 5, utilizing the findings, presupposes wider dissemination of the review results (step 12) and discussing the scientific contribution made by the research and its future perspectives. Phase 5 will partially be realized in the Chapter 5 and by writing an article on the basis of this systematic review.

3.4.1 Phase 1: Planning the review

Step 1. Define the question

This review formulates the questions on the preliminary stage of the research. It is done by problematizing the area of interest in the introductory chapter and developing a set of research questions that are guiding the study. As has been stated earlier, the main research question that is guiding the study is “*What is the role of university autonomy in the process of university internationalization?*”.

The basis for the systematic review is prepared in Chapter 2 of the thesis, where the main two concepts are developed. It is anticipated that there is a relation between university internationalization and university autonomy and the review aims to explore the nature of these two concepts, document theoretical developments, empirical findings on the topic and outline the future prospects of the research in the area.

Step 2. Consider drawing together a steering or advisory group

This master thesis is written by one person, but in close cooperation with the supervisor, who has experience in conducting systematic reviews. The personal bias was partly avoided as the writing process is accompanied by on-going discussion on the topic. The author of the thesis also got some advice on adjusting the review protocol.

The author of the thesis also had a two hour session with the university librarian who explained the mechanism of ProQuest data base in detail and shared information about various types of search strategies: conventional subject search, citation pearl growing and others. She also explained the notions of precision and recall when conducting search and illustrated a practical approach to the conventional subject search strategy (Blokmodellen). She also helped to test several search strings that were created on the basis of the previous brainstorming session.

Pilot search

After the main research objectives were outlined and questions formulated, a pilot search in the ProQuest database was conducted in order to find out about the stage of development of the research on the topic and estimate the volume of data to work with. A simple and straightforward search formula (“university internationalization” AND “university autonomy”) was used to make an attempt to identify the empirical studies placed on the intersection. The ProQuest search using this string with the scope ‘citation and document text’ and the date range ‘all dates’ limiting the search to ‘scholarly journals, including peer-

reviewed’ yielded zero results. This outcome made the researcher change the search formula; two alternative strings were created.

The first string was (“university internationalization” AND “institutional autonomy”), as institutional autonomy is the term identified as the closest substitute for university autonomy. This string yielded three results in ProQuest, two of which were empirical papers (Alan et al., 2011; Horta, 2009) and one was conceptual (Trilokekar, 2010). The abstract screening and full text scanning showed that these articles used the broad definition of internationalization as a combination of national and institutional strategies or activities designed to incorporate international dimension into domestic HE. University autonomy was mentioned in the context and the relationship between university autonomy and internationalization was not explicitly discussed. For these reasons the articles identified were not considered as fitting the search requirements.

The second string formulated in the pilot search was broader, using the term ‘autonomy’ without further specification: (“university internationalization” AND autonomy). Using the same scope, the search gave 12 hits, six of which after the abstract screening were identified as partially fulfilling the search criteria. The three results identified in the previous search were also present there. After the manual screening the results, two papers (one empirical and one conceptual) were identified as placed on the intersection (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Yokoyama, 2011). They are discussed in the section 2.1, outlining the research gap and the starting point of the research.

The pilot search confirmed the claim that there is a gap of knowledge on the intersection of university internationalization and university autonomy. It was decided to conduct the searches in the domain of university internationalization and university autonomy separately.

Conceptualizing ‘university internationalization’ and ‘university autonomy’ in Chapter 2 of the thesis enabled the researcher to develop more precise search strings. It allowed embracing the complexity of the concepts, to get an understanding of the phenomena and outline the possible point of intersection on the theoretical level. It also identified additional key words like ‘self-governance’, ‘self-regulation’, and ‘institutional autonomy’ to improve the search strings and make the search more inclusive.

Step 3. Write a protocol and have it reviewed

The major searching technique used in this review is protocol-driven search in the ProQuest database. Through several brainstorming sessions, basing on the scoping reviews on the concepts and background reading, the following keywords were identified:

University internationalization	University autonomy
“University internationalization” “University internationalisation” “International higher education” “Internationalization of higher education” “internationalisation of higher education” “academic internationalization” “transnational higher education”	“university autonomy” (university AND “institutional autonomy”) “university self-governance” “university self-regulation”
“cross-border higher education” “university franchise” (university AND “programme franchise”) (university AND “program franchise”) “offshore campus” “branch campus” “university partnership” “international university partnership”	(university AND “academic autonomy”) (university AND “organizational autonomy”) (university AND “financial autonomy”) (university AND “staffing autonomy”) (university AND “substantive autonomy”) (university AND “procedural autonomy”)

Table 1. Key words used in the search strings

The key words are grouped in a way, so that the general issues of internationalization and autonomy are outlined first, and then a more precise recall is expected using the key words that reflect more specific aspects of the phenomena.

The protocol-driven search was conducted using ProQuest database. The identified key words resulted in eight well-formulated search strings. A search formula (“university autonomy” OR (university AND “institutional autonomy”) OR “university self-governance” OR “university self-regulation”) AND ((university AND “academic autonomy”) OR (university AND “organizational autonomy”) OR (university AND “financial autonomy”) OR (university AND “staffing autonomy”) OR (university AND “substantive autonomy”) OR (university AND “procedural autonomy”)) can be given as an example of an inclusive search string.

3.4.2 Phase 2: Identifying and evaluating studies

Step 4. Carry out a literature search

It was decided to limit the review to the academic journals in the field of HE which discuss general issues as well as the ones with the special emphasis on policy and managerial

decisions. Therefore, the thesis is affected by resource constraint. Selecting the sources for review is a challenging task as there are roughly 700 educational journals existing. This thesis is following tradition and relies on journal quality assessment. There are two major ways of assessing journal quality: objective, quantifiable information resulting in various journal ranking lists, and subjective, based on examining the perceptions of professional users (Bray & Major, 2011). To sample journals for the review in this thesis, objective sources like Combined Journal Guide ABS, Education Journal Esteem ranking by AREA, Scientific Journal Ranking (SJR) by SCImago, and Social Sciences Citation Index were used, supported by a study by Bray and Major (2011) which employs mixed methods of journal evaluation. In this manner, five top tier journals in the field of higher education and policy/management were selected:

- Higher Education: The International Journal of Higher Education Research
- The International Journal of Educational Management
- Tertiary Education & Management. Journal of EAIR - The European Higher Education Society
- Higher Education Policy. The Quarterly journal of the International Association of Universities (IAU)
- The Journal of Studies in International Education. The journal of the Association for Studies in International Education (ASIE)

The search conducted in the ProQuest database limited to the identified five publication titles with the publication dates span from 1990 to 2013 generated 230 hits (excluding the overlaps).

Step 5. Screen the references

The papers that were included to the final review passed two stages of sampling. The first stage is title and abstract screening; it allowed excluding the most evident mismatches and inconsistencies. After the first stage of screening the study proceeded with 53 results. The second stage is screening the texts and thorough reading. The second round of screening reduced the number of papers to 29. This stage identified the papers that fulfill the research's inclusion criteria: the articles are empirical papers that focus on the concepts university autonomy and university internationalization from the business perspective and contribute to their understanding and application. The search results showed that these inclusion criteria are

rigid for articles in university internationalization domain and there were fewer studies than it had been expected at this point of time that fulfilled them.

Additional search methods

Greenhalgh and Peacock (2005) claimed that systematic reviews of complex evidence cannot rely solely on protocol-driven search strategies in the chosen databases. This claim was also supported by the consulting librarian. In the course of the session with the librarian, some flaws of the ProQuest-type databases were uncovered. ProQuest can fail to show some of the results that fulfill the searching criteria as some of the articles are not indexed in the database. A recommendation was given to follow up the ProQuest search with application of the developed strings on the selected journal's webpages. It benefited the study which is influenced by the resource constraint. Using this additional technique made the search in the used titles exhaustive. Applying this search strategy resulted in additional relevant hits. It was particularly beneficial for the search in the domain of internationalization and resulted in 6 additional usable hits.

In total, for the final review 16 empirical papers in the domain of university internationalization and 19 empirical studies in the domain of university autonomy were selected.

Step 6. Assess the remaining studies against the inclusion/exclusion criteria

In some cases introductions and/or conclusions of the article were examined after the first round of refining the search results. However, in this case, no additional relevant papers were brought up to the surface.

3.4.3 Phase 3: Extracting and synthesizing data

Step 7. Data extraction

Reading the articles, selected for the final review, the data was tabulated to facilitate the further process of analysis. The tables drawn up in this study include the columns: *author*, *year of publication*, *research question/objective*, *theory and key concepts*, and *key findings* (see Appendix 1 and 2). This way of organizing material shows the reader which data were extracted from which studies, clarifies the contribution of each research in the final synthesis. The narrative summary of this stage of data analysis is presented in the Chapter 4.

Step 8. Critical appraisal

The studies that met inclusion criteria were assessed from the point of view of methodological soundness, data quality, and research question and methodology compliance (Dixon-Woods et al., 2004, Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). This process helped become aware of their possible biases in the papers. Besides, it assisted in interpretation of data as this activity makes the articles' logic explicit for the reader.

Step 9. Synthesis of the primary studies

Dixon-Woods et al. (2004) published an overview of synthesis methods for complex evidence. They underpin a distinction between integrative and interpretive reviews, taking into consideration the difference between a conventional "review" (as a summary of literature) and "synthesis" (a technique of producing knowledge which is more than just a sum of its parts). There are various techniques of synthesizing data (narrative summary, thematic analysis, grounded theory, meta-ethnography, meta-study etc.) and it depends on the type of data, research objectives and the scientific ambition, which one to choose.

Meta-synthesis is a technique for examining qualitative research (Jensen & Allen 1996). If compared to meta-analysis, which "aims to increase certainty in cause and effect conclusions in a particular area" (Walsh & Downe, 2005), meta-synthesis is more hermeneutic, seeking to explain the phenomena. Basing on the tabulated data and earlier conceptualization, meta-synthesis in this study takes form of interpretation and summarizing the results. These actions lead to generating new knowledge.

Schreiber et.al (1997) define qualitative meta-synthesis as "aggregating a group of studies for the purpose of discovering the essential elements and translating the results into an end product that transforms the original results into a new conceptualization" (p. 314). Schreiber and colleagues identify three purposes of qualitative meta-analysis: theory building, theory explication and theoretical development. Taking into consideration the big size of the identified knowledge gap, the theory building aim is pursued in this thesis.

The summary of data presented in the Chapter 4 is done in the form of meta-theory synthesis (Paterson & Canam, 2001), which is the exploration of the theoretical frameworks and the major concepts that provided the direction of the research in the reviewed studies; and meta-data synthesis (ibid.) which helps summarizing and interpreting the key findings identified in

the studies. The next stage of analysis also included reciprocal translational analysis, identifying the key themes and concepts in each study (Dixon–Woods et al. 2004) (See Appendix 3 and 4). Attempting to translate the key themes and concepts into each other, the researcher is going further into development of the concepts the systematic review is focusing on. It is ‘context-stripping’ (ibid. p.18) activity and the outcome of this stage is an organized body of information for the further analysis.

Step 10. Consider the effects of publication bias, and other internal and external biases

The outcome of the systematic review is a synthesis of studies written by different researchers, so the biases of these studies are likely to have an impact on the final conclusions of the review. Therefore, the researcher who had conducted this systematic review was critical to her sources.

3.5 Combining positivist and interpretivist views in the research paradigm

Due to the nature of the discipline and context-dependency of the phenomena under discussion, post-positivism as a set of assumptions guiding this research cannot be followed to the end. It happens mostly due to the way the identified evidence is synthesized. The discussion chapter contains the researcher’s interpretation of the obtained results. The reality outlined in the analysis is constructed by the researcher and does not exist separately from her perception.

This project combines positivist and interpretivist methods within its research design. It is supposed, that to answer the posed research question, strict procedures of the systematic review methodology aimed at data collection (following post-positivist principles) need to be supplemented by interpretive analysis that aims at constructing the understanding of the relationship between two phenomena (elements of interpretivist paradigm).

The main objective of this thesis is to explore and attempt to understand the relationship between university internationalization and university autonomy. A gap of knowledge was identified on the intersection between the concepts. Systematic review methodology was chosen as a tool to fill in this gap. Systematic review methodology and its searching techniques are strict and are claimed to be replicable, thus, objective. However, the empirical data extracted from the rigorously selected studies is of qualitative nature and the final product of the review is a result of interpretation that the researcher performed from her own

position. Another researcher working with the same set of data could have come to different results using another theoretical lens and leaning upon different methods of analysis. Therefore, the analytical outcome of working with the findings obtained through the process of systematic reviewing the literature based on a protocol is the researcher's own construction. In such a way, the project is crossing two paradigms: data collection is performed in the frame of post-positivism and data synthesis is conducted according to the principles of constructivism in Guba's (1990) terminology.

3.6 Review quality and limitations

Speaking about the quality of the systematic review, the thesis is leaning upon the checklist for assessing review quality outlined in Petticrew and Roberts (2006, p. 296).

The first criterion identified in the list concerns the description of the review's inclusion and exclusion criteria. In the Chapter 3, devoted to systematic review methodology, the inclusion criteria are described as follows: the articles are empirical papers that focus on the concepts university autonomy and university internationalization from the business perspective and contribute to their understanding and application. These criteria were followed and resulted in additional exclusion of the articles which were mistakenly identified as empirical after the first round of the review. Therefore, the first criterion is seen as fulfilled.

The second criterion concerns the completeness of the review: if the review is covering all the relevant studies. Doing a research in the domain of social sciences differs from medical studies, where systematic review originated, so the way systematic review is applied in this thesis underwent some adjustments. Taking into consideration the absence of the extended reviewing team and the time limited by one semester, the project is affected by the source constraint: the search is restricted to a particular number of publication titles (five). Therefore, this systematic review does not include all the studies on the topic as the original medical approach claims. However, a comprehensive picture of the evidence is expected to be obtained, as the selected sources are representative.

The third criterion is quality assessment of the included studies. The studies selected for the final review were assessed from the point of view of methodological soundness, data quality, and research question and methodology compliance. It was done in the process of data tabulation that made the logic of the reviewed articles explicit. This criterion is considered to be fulfilled.

The next criterion concerns the appropriateness on the chosen synthesis method. The data collected through the systematic review is synthesized using qualitative meta-synthesis (Jensen & Allen 1996). This method corresponds with the qualitative character of the collected data. Meta-synthesis is partially a product of the researcher's interpretation. Subjectivity is a side effect of interpretive paradigm (Guba, 1990). This is the major limitation of the analysis. At the same time, the data used in the analysis were collected through a well-protocolled searching strategy and the results were tabulated, so the reader of the project has an access to the used data that makes the analysis quite transparent.

The last criterion of quality assessment identified in Petticrew and Roberts (2006) is about the reviewers' conclusions being supported by the results of the studies reviewed. The conclusions made in this project are based on the data derived from the reviewed studies. This results in a sort of cultural bias. The project is limited by Western perspective on the process of university internationalization and development of university autonomy. Most of the reviewed papers working with university internationalization (about 80%) are focused on universities from developed countries moving to developing countries. In case of university autonomy, half of the papers study the state and effects of autonomy in developed countries and about 30% in the mixed context (comparative studies).

3.7 Chapter conclusion

This chapter justifies the choice of systematic review methodology as a set of techniques suitable for fulfilling the theory building research objectives of this master thesis. The pilot search in the ProQuest database confirmed the existence of the gap of knowledge on the intersection between university internationalization and university autonomy. The decision was made to conduct two separate searches: one in the domain of university internationalization and another in the domain of university autonomy. Taking into consideration that there are vast bodies of information in the domains of university autonomy and university internationalization, these data needed to be comprehended using a well-developed tool. To narrow down the scope of the papers for the review, five publication titles were chosen. It resulted in the resource constraint. Following the outlined procedures, 16 articles working with issues of university internationalization in the IB perspective and 19 articles on university autonomy were identified for the final review. The relevant data from the articles were tabulated and can be viewed in the appendix. The methods of data synthesis were also outlined in this methodology chapter. Meta-synthesis is chosen as the way to

analyze the data generated through the systematic review. The project is written in the frame of a mixed paradigm. Positivist and interpretivist methods are combined within the research design. This chapter prepared the basis for formulating the results of the study and discussing them in the following chapters.

4 Results

After the search was conducted, 16 articles in the domain of university internationalization and 19 papers working with issues of university autonomy were selected for the final review. This chapter is a narrative summary of the results of the conducted systematic review tabulated for each selected study (see Appendix 1 and 2). This chapter aims to demonstrate the theories and concepts used by empirical studies in the domain of university internationalization and university autonomy and present the key findings of the reviewed research papers. It is the initial stage of the analysis. The review results are presented in two stages: first, data are summarized on theoretical and conceptual level as meta-theory synthesis (Paterson & Canam, 2001); second, the key contributions made by the empirical papers are presented – meta-data synthesis (ibid.).

4.1 Theoretical and conceptual level

This section explores the theoretical frameworks that have provided direction to research. The data are summarized on theoretical and conceptual level, disclosing the theoretical context and major approaches to research in the domains of university internationalization and autonomy.

4.1.1 University internationalization

As has been stated before, the thesis is focused on the process of increasing involvement in international operations through cross-border activities and the experiences universities obtain interacting with foreign environments. Therefore, the search focused on exporting educational services, issues related to educational export, HE consortia, international education hubs, offshore branch campuses, strategic alliances and marketing activities that support these arrangements. The papers working with abovementioned dimensions turned out to be less numerous than studies focused on the strategic orientation of the national HE system that encourages the development of international dimension of education, the “internationalization at home” in Knight’s (2008) terminology (cf. Bartell, 2003; Horta, 2009; Pfothenhauer et al., 2012; Jiang & Carpenter, 2011; Urbanovic & Wilkins, 2013). However, 16 studies were identified through a systematic review that provided the evidence for the further analysis in the domain of university internationalization.

Several authors use neo-institutional theory, the notions of academic capitalism and marketization as a framework that embraces the context in which the internationalization

policies are introduced and the universities develop their internationalization strategies (cf. Beerkens & Derwende, 2007; Sihdu, 2008; Sidhu et al., 2011). They use neo-institutional approach to internationalization and identify pressures to internationalize created by the highly globalized environment modern universities exist in.

There are several studies that are concerned with general issues of university internationalization. Bennett and Kane (2011) aim to establish the methods typically employed by U.K. business schools to internationalize their activities; they also question the extent of the internationalization achieved in those cases. These authors employ such parameters of internationalization as its speed and extent and employ internationalization strategies such as curriculum internationalization, exchange programs, international franchising and the recruitment of foreign teaching staff. Thune and Welle-Strand (2005) employ drivers of internationalization as a theoretical framework to discuss the way ITC are used at the process of university internationalization.

Several research papers focus on marketing HE institutions and customer (student) satisfaction at international branch campuses (Cheung et al., 2010; Mazzarol, 1998; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2011). Here, theories of competitive advantage, market entry strategies for education providers, customer satisfaction measurements, and education quality assurance are employed.

Quality assurance of the provision of international services is also discussed in the framework of university internationalization. It is used by Coleman (2003) who examines the operational relationships between the home campus and internationally separated branch campuses.

A number of articles are concerned about the successful formation of international partnerships and employ a variety of theories and concepts when working with these issues. First, Saffu and Mamman (1999) redefine the concept of tertiary strategic alliance as “any collaborative relationship between a local university and an overseas counterpart” (p.281) and equate it with international joint ventures, cross border inter-organizational partnerships, inter-firm partnerships, collaborative relationships and co-operative arrangements. Ayoubi and Massoud (2012), Poole (2001), Saffu and Mamman (1999) are focusing on strategy development of internationalization and are interested in the ways universities organize and manage international entrepreneurial activities. These authors discuss cooperative strategy as the major way for universities to internationalize. They are working with drivers of

international partnerships, strategies for partner selection and partnership arrangement obstacles.

Beerkens and Derwende (2007) employ inter-organizational diversity, resource-based view of the firm, embeddedness theory and the concept of coping mechanisms to identify the critical features of HE consortia. Heffernan and Poole (2005) used the concept of entrepreneurial university, market entry strategies, modes of foreign operation and key constructs from rational exchange theory to identify and examine the critical success factors for the successful establishment and development of relationships between Australian universities and their international partners.

International education hubs are approached from different theoretical angles. Sidhu et al. (2011) use the cluster-based economic development approach and the notion of knowledge economy to examine two Global Schoolhouse (Singapore) initiatives: the alliance between Singapore and MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), and the institutional restructuring aimed at re-modeling the National University of Singapore into a leading global university centered in Asia. Knight and Morshidi (2011) employed the complex notions of university internationalization, cross-border education and international collaboration to examine the rationales and strategies used by United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain, Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia to position themselves as regional education hubs. Sihdu (2008) studies how governance contributes to the globalization of research networks, using the cases of emergence and subsequent dissolution of two key strategic alliances between world-class universities and the Singapore government applying governmentality as the main theoretical and methodological approach. Governmentality understands governance to be “a heterogeneous undertaking involving the uses and application of knowledges, technical strategies and instruments, the influence of experts, and the mobilization of particular identities for those who are being governed, and those doing the governing” (Sihdu, 2008, p. 127).

4.1.2 University autonomy

The discussion of the theories and concepts used in the reviewed research papers will start with the key term and its interpretations, i.e., university autonomy itself. A group of articles was identified which examine the concept of university autonomy and use it as the main theoretical framework for the research (Arikewuyo & Ilusanya, 2010; Chiang, 2004; Yang et al., 2007). Askling et al. (1999) use the concept of self-regulation as an alternative term of

autonomy and is also referred to this group of articles. University autonomy in the reviewed papers is presented as a complex phenomenon, but it is generally understood as the degree of university's independence from external interference and the ability for self-governance: the degree of freedom of the university to steer itself (Askling et al., 1999).

The four dimensional framework of university autonomy – financial, organizational, staffing and academic – used in this thesis is not widely employed by scholars in their empirical research as an entity, none of the reviewed articles employed the four-element framework. However, the reviewed papers discuss financial (coping with funding mechanisms), organizational (growing accountability and the changing role of the university leadership), staffing and academic dimensions (social identities of scholars and academic freedom) separately, thus, the classification reflects the real situation of the university autonomy.

The classical typology of autonomy (Berdahl, 1990) that differentiates between substantive and procedural autonomy is used (Askling et al., 1999; Chiang, 2004). Some researchers adapt other classifications of autonomy that better fulfill their research objectives. For example, Arikewuyo and Ilusanya (2010) use seven parameters of institutional autonomy identified by Anderson and Johnson (1998). The articles, focusing on the concept of autonomy aim at fulfilling various purposes: testing the relationship between university autonomy and funding (Chiang, 2004); examining the influence of economic globalization on the state of autonomy in China (Yang et al., 2007); exploring influences of the change of governance on the inner distribution of autonomy in HE institutions (Enders et al., 2013).

The papers working with separate dimensions of autonomy employ a wide spectrum of theories, most of which originate from the IB literature. To explain the current mass changes at the universities worldwide and the development of autonomy movement, some authors (cf. Larsen, 2001; Ramirez & Christensen, 2013) consider it as an attempt of legitimization and thus, look at it from the perspective of neo-institutional theory.

The development of autonomy is primarily based on the change of government-university relationships, the balance between autonomy and control. The concept of university governance is approached multi-theoretically. The new idea of how to organize this relationship has been inspired by the growing popularity of New Public Management (NPM) approaches that have theoretical background in principal-agent theory. There is a number of papers which work with principal-agent theory (cf. Enders et al., 2013; Sporn, 2001). Using

principal-agent theory, researchers examine the effect of political reforms on the balance of autonomy and control at the universities, the relationship between increasing university autonomy and growing accountability and its possible relationship with increasing university performance. The principal-agent perspective on governance is supplemented by stakeholder theory, management theory, resource-dependency theory, and stewardship theory. The papers that examine university governance by means of these theories (cf. Cristopher, 2012; Magalhães et al., 2013; Ramirez, & Christensen, 2013; Rytmeister, 2009; Yokoyama, 2006) aim at examining the influencing forces impacting the governance paradigms of the universities. The governance paradigms are also explored using the concept of academic capitalism (Yang et al., 2007) and state governance models, combining the two dimensions of 'purpose' and 'authority': 1) "security guard", 2) "honor society", 3) "social goals", 4) "invisible hand" (Askling et al., 1999).

Funding issues related to the financial autonomy are examined mostly using resource allocation models (Chiang, 2004; Lewis et al., 2007; Tammi, 2009) and stakeholder theory (Frølich et al., 2012). The main objectives the researchers pursue in this domain are: to discuss how funding systems influence higher education institutions and their strategies and core tasks; to study the effects of the incentive-based budget system on university performance; to verify if the changing system of state funding enhances the level of university autonomy.

The changes in organizational autonomy are explored using instrumental, neo-institutional and political perspective (Larsen, 2001). Management theory, agency theory and the idea of entrepreneurial university are also employed (Arnaboldi & Azzone, 2005; Askling et al., 2009, Brock, 1997; Nguyen, 2012; Rytmeister, 2009; Yokoyama, 2006). The main subject of these research papers is the new functions of university leadership: the roles of heads of departments and the university governing boards and their strategic and planning capacities.

Academic issues are analyzed by applying the concepts of work autonomy, self-determination, new collegiality, academic freedom and theories of identity (Dee et al., 2000; Kovac et al., 2003). The researchers question the correlation between the growing institutional autonomy and the personal autonomy of the academics, examine the university staff's perception of autonomy, and their identities as researchers. Issues of staffing autonomy were not discussed in the reviewed papers.

4.2 Contributions

In this section the key findings are presented, they demonstrate the empirical evidence available for the further conceptualizing the relationship between these two phenomena.

4.2.1 University internationalization

Concerning the process of university internationalization, Poole (2001) develops a strategic advantage model of internationalization. He identifies four strategic advantage elements: strategically decentralized leadership; leverage of organizational and strategic competencies; pursuit of executional advantages; development of international business competences. He also identifies significant differences between the world class universities and universities of a smaller scale in their degree of managerial professionalism, commitment to improvement and development of international business competencies.

Fang (2012) finds differences in the ways transnational activities are perceived by research and teaching universities. Teaching universities internationalize mostly to increase enrollments, generate revenue and reduce the cost and research institutions do it to enhance academic opportunities. Bennett and Kane (2011) identify the factors that influence the degree and speed of internationalization. In particular, they find that the financial situation influences the internationalization pace: the more problematic financial situation an institution has, the lower the level of internationalization and the more gradual its development.

The articles devoted to international partnerships focus on the factors critical for the sustainable development of these international units. Heffernan and Poole (2005) identified critical success factors for establishment and development of international relationships between universities. They are the development of effective communication structures and frameworks, the building of mutual trust, and the encouragement and demonstration of commitment between relationship partners. Culture is an important prerequisite of effective communication; however, the authors claim that compatibility in business culture is more crucial than similar national cultures. The results of the research by Ayoubi and Massoud (2012) indicated that the obstacles to international university partnerships can be put in two main groups: the obstacles that are relevant to the process of partner selection, and the obstacles that are relevant to the process of partnership arrangements. Saffu and Mamman (1999) found that the most significant problems at the initiation stage are cultural differences, with bureaucracy and differences in the goals of the partners/poor communication being the

second most important challenges. It is also found that “Australian universities believe they bring to the partnership high quality higher education and reputable credentials while their overseas partners' major contributions include financial resources and market opportunities” (p. 281).

Beerkens and Derwende (2007) came up with three critical aspects of HE consortia: a consortium has to consist of members that possess resources which are strategically valuable for the other members; sources of complementarity need to be accompanied by the appropriate strategic coping mechanisms; differences in the institutional contexts in which the members operate need to be accounted as higher compatibility in the consortium leads to its higher performance.

Speaking about international education hubs, Knight and Morshidi (2011) came up with a typology that includes three categories of hubs: (1) student hub, (2) skilled workforce training hub, and (3) knowledge and innovation hub; the last category being the most ambitious and challenging for realization. A number of features and challenges of sustaining education hubs were identified.

Sidhu et al. (2011) who were examining the case of Singapore Global Schoolhouse project initiatives found that generous funding and access to state-of-the art technological equipment are not sufficient for achieving research synergies between institutions with vastly different histories, missions and trajectories. According to this research, the Global Schoolhouse reveals combined relations between economic nationalism and economic globalization.

Concerning branch campuses, Coleman (2003) observed that there are variations across internationally dispersed campuses, even in programs determined to be identical at home and abroad. Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2011) found that the levels of student satisfaction at UAE branch campuses were generally high. Quality of lecturers, quality and availability of resources, and effective use of technology were identified as the most influential factors in determining student satisfaction at a UAE branch campus.

Sidhu (2009) studied the emergence and subsequent dissolution of branch campuses created by Johns Hopkins University and the University of New South Wales (UNSW) in cooperation with Singaporean government. He disclosed that the primary reason of the failures was not just fierce local competition with two national Singaporean universities preferred by local population, but a lack of fit in goals and commitment. It was found that heterogeneous

elements that make up international university networks were not explained by conventional narratives. Besides, ethical issues were identified, Global Schoolhouse impinging on academic freedom on the one hand, and wealthy Western universities accepting the largess sponsorship from the Singaporean government which is being criticized for illiberal behavior on the other.

The aspects of international education marketing and supporting technological innovations are also reflected in the reviewed articles. Mazzarol (1998) finds two factors that are significant predictors of success in transnational education: image and resources, and coalition and forward integration. Image and resources is a variable measured by “the level of market profile or recognition, strength of financial resources, reputation for quality, size and influence of alumni and range of courses and programs” (p. 172). Coalition and forward integration is a variable measured by university’s possession of international strategic alliances and already existing offshore activities.

Wilkins and Huisman (2011) researched the international student destination choices and found that reputation, quality of programs, and rankings are the strongest influences on student choice of institution. They also identified that push factors have significantly less influence on a student’s decision to study abroad than pull factors. Thune and Welle-Strand (2005) studied the impact of ICT on internationalization processes and found that it is indirect and tied to routine activities in teaching, administration and research, rather than being a driving force of internationalization.

4.2.2 University autonomy

The reviewed research papers focused on the change of government-university relationships and implementation of the new public management ideas in HE make contributions to understanding the shifts in governance towards greater autonomy and the consequences of these shifts. Sporn (2001) built a grounded theory of university adaptation and identified that adaptive capacity of universities is enhanced through self-regulation. Seven critical areas for enhancing adaptation emerged: focus on environment (crisis or opportunity); mission and goals (to guide decision-making); entrepreneurial organizational culture; differentiated structure; professional university management; shared governance (taking into account interests of different stakeholders); committed leadership. Christopher (2012) reveals that universities are affected differently by a number of common influencing forces, resulting in different governance paradigms. Five influencing forces were identified as playing a role in

shaping the governance paradigms of public universities: the government sector; funding bodies; global competition; collegial managerialism, autonomy and academic culture; internal management. Malaysian case in this study contrasted with the other eight cases from Australia, Netherlands, the UK and Belgium.

Ramirez and Christensen (2013) find that universities explicitly function as organizational actors and become more socially embedded, however, there are differences in the ways universities respond to autonomy reforms (cases of Stanford University and University of Oslo are taken) which are embedded in the historical roots of these universities. A number of authors come up with similar results and acknowledge what can be called a “paradox of university autonomy” (Christensen, 2011). Magalhães et al. (2013) find that increased level of autonomy in Portuguese universities resulted in the increased state regulation. Enders et al. (2013) develop a taxonomy that distinguishes between formal and real university autonomy and find that Dutch universities have got more managerial autonomy while they have lost some of their initial institutional autonomy.

Yang et al. (2007) disclosed that policies of decentralization in China have been highly instrumental in mobilizing educational resources; universities were granted formal autonomy, while they continue experiencing constraints, especially in terms of political education, sensitive areas of research and university leaders appointments. Arikewuyo and Ilusanya (2010) examine Nigerian environment and find that Ogun State University enjoys real autonomy only in some academic aspects (curriculum and methods of teaching), all the other dimensions being actively regulated by the state. However, the results of the university staff survey show that the respondents consider this interference reasonable. Therefore, the meaning of autonomy is contextually bound, as it is influenced by regulatory modes in a particular country and market mechanisms.

In the domain of financial autonomy the empirical findings show that the effect of funding on university autonomy in a given country is conditioned by the context in which the universities exist (Chiang, 2004). Frølich et al. (2010) uncovered mixed pattern of strengths and weaknesses in the funding systems of Danish, Norwegian and Portuguese universities. The HE institutions were inclined to develop strategies for increasing funding that may compromise the quality of teaching and research, artificially enhance enrolments and misbalance research output in different areas. In Finland, the new funding structure influences the university performance in research and education: the universities that receive

considerable financing from industry/financing councils, dedicated to the promotion of R&D activities, have a low research output measured in scientific publications (Tammi, 2009). Pham (2012) detected unintended side-effects that accompany the renovation of HE funding system in Vietnam: the profit incentives originated from the greater student enrollments become the reasons for underresourced HE institutions to violate the application of quality standards for accreditation.

Empirical research findings regarding the organizational issues of autonomy show that overall, universities are increasing their entrepreneurial activities, they review their institutional strategies, become more market-oriented and obtain strong leadership of chief executives (Yokoyama, 2006). Brock (1997) finds that university strategic planning is associated with superior performance when accompanied by high autonomy of the dean. The study conducted by Larsen (2001) shows that the Governing Board combines different functions: the instrumental, which concerns control and strategy development; institutional – Board's relationship to the administration and the faculty; and political – the rector's role as the "external affairs spokesman". Rytmeister (2009) also identifies the strategic activities of the governing and management university bodies; they are discussions, direction-setting and planning. She also found that the actors' perceptions of management are influenced by cultural norms and the social identity that are derived from membership of these groups. Arnaboldi and Azzone (2005) find that strategic change towards autonomy and accountability is an incremental process, during which top managers change organizational structure, identify responsibilities and introduce a new set of managerial techniques. However, the levels of organizational autonomy are context-specific. Nguyen (2012), who worked with Asian (Vietnamese) context, finds that the main functions of the Heads of Departments are program and facilities management. Therefore, the Heads of Departments have a low level of autonomy and act more like managers, not leaders.

In terms of academic dimensions of autonomy, researchers come up with a positive relationship between the university autonomy and its influence on academic environment and staff. Dee et al. (2000) share the results of the regression analysis that suggest that institutions that grant high levels of faculty autonomy are perceived as supportive of innovation activity: faculty autonomy and related academic freedoms can enable creativity and implementation of new ideas. Kovac et al. (2003) revealed that apart from other issues, involvement of academic

staff in decision-making process helps improving autonomous governance at Croatian universities.

4.3 Chapter conclusion

In this chapter the results of the systematic review were presented. The data were organized in two main groups: theoretical/conceptual level and major contributions. These materials gave an overview of the areas of interest of empirical research in the domain of university internationalization and university autonomy. They also disclosed the theoretical approaches towards the areas of inquiry and presented the key findings of the empirical papers. These data prepared the basis for the detailed discussion of the relationship between university internationalization and university autonomy and the final conceptualization of the intersection.

5 Discussion

This chapter contains the analysis of the obtained empirical evidence that was presented in the previous chapter. This chapter is discussing the role of university autonomy in the process of university internationalization. This is done in the form of synthesizing evidence identified through the systematic review of the selected publication titles.

This chapter is divided into three sections, each answering one of the sub-questions formulated in the introductory chapter. Deriving the patterns of university internationalization, the question: *What are the main strategies of university internationalization and how are they undertaken?* – is answered. The section devoted to university autonomy and internationalization capacity answers the question: *How do the dimensions of university autonomy influence the process of university internationalization?* The section working with source country university autonomy and target country university autonomy gives an answer to: *How do the differences in the university autonomy in the source and host countries influence the process and sustainability of university internationalization?*

5.1 The derived patterns of university internationalization

The data collected through the systematic review in the domain of university internationalization allow extending the understanding of what the main strategies of university internationalization are and how and where they are undertaken. Thus, in this section the patterns of university internationalization are intended to be uncovered.

5.1.1 The mode of entry

There is no clear distinction between entry modes ('how' of internationalization) in the sphere of university internationalization. Classifying the entry modes in some cases becomes a challenge. The identified source of confusion is differentiating between various forms of partnerships. A good example is the paper written by Saffu and Mamman (1999) who for the convenience's sake define an international tertiary strategic alliance as "any collaborative relationship between a local university and an overseas counterpart" (p.281). In this paper terms such as international joint ventures, cross border inter-organizational partnerships, inter-firm partnerships, collaborative relationships and co-operative arrangements are used interchangeably.

Basing on the collected data, the entry strategies discussed in the reviewed papers on university internationalization can be organized in groups analogous to international business strategies. Universities internationalize through

- Direct export (student and staff mobility) (Knight & Morshidi, 2011, Thune & Welle-Strand, 2005)
- Various contractual agreements similar to franchising and licensing - knowledge transfer and adoption of traded materials (Fang, 2012; Poole, 2001)
- Forming strategic alliances like cross-border inter-university partnerships and HE consortia (Ayoubi & Massoud, 2012; Beerkens & Derwende, 2007; Heffernan & Poole, 2005)
- Establishing joint ventures with local institutions (Sidhu, 2009; Sidhu et al., 2011; Saffu & Mamman, 1999)
- Making greenfield investments at foreign locations (Coleman, 2003; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011)

Therefore, to illuminate confusion, the basic set of modes was employed to describe ‘how’ of university internationalization: exporting, franchising, strategic alliance, joint venture and greenfield investment. Establishment of branch campus, which is a specific entry mode for university internationalization, is accomplished through joint venture or greenfield investment.

Due to specificity of education as a service, the common definition of exporting as selling goods and services produced in the home country to other markets (Root, 1994) is not fully applicable. Education service cannot be just moved across the borders, it is produced simultaneously with the process of delivery. Education is exported in a form of student and staff mobility. Education services are franchised when a source country institution gives a host country institution the rights to teach a particular course or a whole educational program. The essence of the strategic alliance is making a partnership between two or more institutions, creating a common space of action and starting the exchange between them. A university joint venture is a business agreement between the source country’s university and university or other organization in the host country which results in the development of a new entity by contributing equity. To make a greenfield investment for a university means to set up a new educational institution abroad. As has been stated before, the most common form of existence of a HE greenfield investment and joint ventures is a branch campus.

Joint venturing and making greenfield investments is done in the form of forward integration, when universities move offshore, into an export channel. Fulfillment of these strategies requires serious evaluation and high levels of commitment, as they cannot be discontinued without losses. Forward integration presupposes a very close interaction with the local environment and, as has been identified in the results chapter, there are various challenges associated with adaptability of foreign institutions to the local settings (cf. Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Sporn, 2001).

5.1.2 Objects of university internationalization

The data from the reviewed papers helped elaborate on the ‘what’ question of internationalization. Four major objects of internationalization emerged. The first is *people* which includes carriers of knowledge, university representatives, international students and members of academic staff (Sihdu et al., 2011; Thune & Welle-Strand, 2005). It correlates with exporting entry mode (Mazzarol et al., 2003). HE export involves academics travelling from source to host countries and students studying abroad. The staffing mobility can be challenging due to the reluctance of some academics to change their research environment, location, move families (Sidhu, 2009). Student mobility is the oldest form of internationalization and its mechanism usually functions well.

A specific *educational program* that is a matter of interest for other universities is the main object of university franchising (Fang, 2012; Poole, 2001). However, the specific nature of knowledge as a commodity makes its transfer a challenging task. To make educational products valid in the franchisee institutions, there is a need for special facilities and teaching skills; the foreign operations need to be systematically evaluated and monitored to live up to some standard (ibid.).

Strategic resources (Beerkens & Derwende) are the objects of strategic alliances and joint ventures. They can include well-reputed members of academic staff, research and educational facilities like libraries and laboratories, intangible resources like know-how, elements of the study programs etc. (Beerkens & Dervende, 2007; Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Saffu & Mamman, 1999). Forming international HE partnerships is demanding, as effective communication structures, commitment between the partners and coping with differences in institutional contexts are needed.

Distinct educational capacities is a term derived from the data by the author of the thesis. It includes specific teaching methods, elements of study programs, any know-how that allows replicating the features of the home institutions in a new location (Knight & Morshidi, 2011; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011), it is conditioned by quality and availability of resources, highly-qualified lecturers, and effective use of technology (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2011). Distinct educational capacities primarily refer to the branch campus establishment in the form of greenfield investment.

5.1.3 Geography of university internationalization

Concerning the geography of university internationalization (the ‘where’ question of internationalization pattern), the main source countries identified are the US (Sidhu, 2009), the UK (Bennet & Kane, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011) and Australia (Coleman, 2003; Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Saffu & Mamman, 1999). They possess various ownership advantages (Dunning, 1980; 1988), including being native in English, which is the main language of instruction in transnational education, possessing teaching and research know-how, sufficient financial resources for internationalization, being generally higher reputed than non-Western HE institutions, having “world class” status; high position in the world university rankings; well-reputed members of academic staff; international experience etc. The providers of education generally move from developed countries to the developing states. 80 % of the reviewed papers in the domain of university internationalization captured the process of internationalization in this direction.

The major direction of the student mobility is quite the opposite: students mostly move from east to west (Thune & Welle-Strand, 2005). However, today, there are movements within economic regions (e.g., China and India are receiving more and more students from the neighboring countries (cf. Cheung et al., 2010)) and more and more Western students head to developing countries to get new experiences (cf. Knight & Morshidi, 2011). Academic staff follows the general direction of university internationalization from developed to developing countries and accompanies formation of strategic alliances and branch campuses (cf. Sidhu, 2009).

Strategic alliances are formed either within economic region (Beerkens & Derwende, 2007) or between Western universities and universities in the developing countries, mainly, in Asia-Pacific region (Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Saffu & Mamman, 1999).

The main locations for establishing branch campuses are Asia-Pacific region (Coleman, 2003; Knight & Morshidi, 2011; Sidhu, 2009) and the Middle East (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). The main host countries identified are Singapore (Sidhu et al., 2011; Sidhu, 2009), Malaysia (Knight & Morsidi, 2011), Hong Kong (Cheung et al., 2010) and UAE (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2011).

So, there is a distinct movement from the developed countries to the developing world. When internationalizing, the Western institutions claim that they bring quality educational products and reputable credentials to the new location and expect the receiving party to provide financial resources and market opportunities. This model of relationship was found in several reviewed papers (cf. Saffu & Mamman, 1999; Sidhu, 2009). The tendency to move from west to east makes university internationalization particularly challenging and calls for outstanding abilities of the universities to adapt to the new environments.

5.1.4 Summarizing university internationalization patterns

This section of analysis attempted to uncover the main patterns of university internationalization discussed in the empirical papers. The patterns of university internationalization answering ‘what’, ‘how’ and ‘where’ questions of internationalization can be summarized in a table:

	<i>Direct export</i>	<i>Franchising</i>	<i>Strategic alliance</i>	<i>Joint Venture</i>	<i>Greenfield investment</i>
How	Academics teaching and students studying abroad	Giving rights for teaching course material to a foreign institution	Collaboration / partnership with other institutions	Agreement with a host country institution resulting in the development of a new entity	Setting up a new institution abroad
What	People	Programs	Strategic resources	Strategic resources	Distinct educational capacities
Where	Students: developing countries > developed; staff: developed >developing	From developed to developing countries	Asia-Pacific, the Middle East, or within the economic region	Developing countries, mainly Asia-Pacific, the Middle East	Developing countries, mainly Asia-Pacific, the Middle East Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia, UAE

Table 2. Patterns of university internationalization

5.2 University autonomy and internationalization capacity

In order to find out how dimensions of university autonomy influence the process of university internationalization, first, the dimensions of autonomy will be presented in detail, basing on the reviewed empirical papers and then, will be juxtaposed the internationalization pattern and its main questions: ‘how’, ‘what’ and ‘where’.

5.2.1 Extending the dimensions of university autonomy

A thematic analysis of the reviewed articles in the domain of university autonomy was conducted. It resulted in the lists of key ideas and metaphors used by the authors in their empirical work (see Appendix 3 and 4). These lists are going to be used to extend the components of the four dimensions of autonomy and identify the issues related to them that can influence the ways universities internationalize. The outlined features that universities obtain having greater autonomy can be viewed as the ownership advantages according to Dunning (1980; 1988). Ownership advantages are tangible or intangible assets that differentiate the firm from its competitors (*ibid.*). The autonomy-related advantages supplement the generic university ownership advantages, mentioned in 5.1.3 (possessing teaching and research know-how, sufficient financial resources for internationalization, being generally higher reputed than non-Western HE institutions, having “world class” status; high position in the world university rankings etc.).

The summary of the articles discussing the issues of organizational autonomy resulted in several key themes and metaphors. The most prominent ones are: university as an organization, organizational strategy, strategy as practice, managerial techniques, shared governance, leadership, multiple Board functions, organizational control, decision-making, adaptive capacities, networking, collaboration and merger. Using these themes, the managerial, policy and governance components of organizational autonomy outlined in the theoretical chapter of the project can be extended and better explained. It can be said that universities possessing organizational autonomy are, first of all, characterized by professionalization of university leadership and management. This feature results in more efficient goal setting, planning and developing internationalization strategies. Autonomous universities possess entrepreneurial organizational culture, they are more proactive and strategy oriented. The adaptive capacity of the university means that it has a greater focus on the environment and greater market orientation. It is sensitive and responsive to the local demand and can tailor its structure and activities accordingly. Networking, collaboration and

merger themes signal about the university's willingness to enter partnerships. Being independent in its decision making process, the university is free to contract partnerships and enter strategic alliances. The proactive and business-minded university management will monitor and control the level of commitment and effectiveness of communication structures.

The summary of the articles in the domain of financial autonomy resulted in the following list of key themes: shifting funding models, incentive-based funding, external funding, multiple stakeholders, outside pressures, accountability mechanisms, performance indicators, quality assurance, resource-dependency, resource-seeking behavior. The description of the financial autonomy given in the theoretical chapter of the thesis can be supplemented by new components. The empirical papers reviewed identify that apart from the university's ability to behave as an enterprise and accumulate and borrow the financial resources from different sources, make financial investments and obtain ownership of the university facilities, there is also the reverse side of autonomy. The shifting funding models and growing number of sources of funding result in a greater number of stakeholders interested in the levels of university performance. The institutions become more accountable to the providers of funding; to test the university performance, various quality assurance mechanisms are employed. The financial autonomy makes universities perform resource-seeking activities and be creative and open-minded. These side-effects of autonomy can be beneficial for internationalization, as universities tend to allocate their resources more efficiently when it is "earned money" and search for new opportunities for funding extension. The accountability mechanisms provide the global standards of educational services and guarantee the quality of the educational services, which is an important asset for successful internationalization.

As has been mentioned in the results chapter, the staffing autonomy was not intensively studied in the reviewed empirical papers. So, the main components of staffing autonomy will be outlined as the status of university employees, the freedom of university to independently conduct recruitment procedures for appointment of academic staff and define the salary levels (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). The ability of a university to independently recruit staff at the local market, to make sure that the possessed qualifications fit the demand of the study program and to organize training courses are the advantages that help keep the quality standards up. The freedom to set the salary levels will help more efficiently allocate internal financial resources.

Concerning the academic autonomy, some new themes emerged. They are: support for creativity and innovation, greater performance, flexibility of educational content, cultural embeddedness, sensitive areas of research and research ethics. These elements support the general idea of academic autonomy which is the freedom of a university to define its academic profile. The flexibility of the institution in terms of the content of academic programs will enhance the adaptability and local responsiveness to the new environment. The creativity and innovation can also benefit the university which wishes to differentiate from its competitors and be recognized for unique approaches and academic environment. Active participation of the academic staff in the decision-making and strategy development can help set realistic goals.

At the same time, academic autonomy is the most specific aspect of autonomy and it is closely interrelated with academic freedom. Preserving academic freedom can be problematic in a foreign market. The main problems are sensitive areas of research, freedom of speech and research ethics.

5.2.2 University autonomy as internationalization capacity

It can be seen, that the identified effects of the four dimensions of autonomy can be viewed as ownership advantages assisting internationalization. The paragraphs above demonstrate that the level of university autonomy determines the internationalization capacity of the university (Petersen & Welch, 2003), i.e. university's prerequisites for successful involvement in international activities and motivation of the university leadership to operate internationally. As has been mentioned earlier, the main components of internationalization capacity are organizational structure, finance and personnel. The dimensions of university autonomy include organizational autonomy, financial autonomy, staffing autonomy and academic autonomy. An intersection matching the elements of internationalization capacity with the elements of university autonomy was outlined in the theoretical chapter of the thesis. After the conducted systematic review this match in components of internationalization capacity and university autonomy is supported by collected data. Thus, when speaking about internationalization capacity of a university, the situation of university autonomy is meant.

5.2.3 Correlation between university autonomy and university internationalization pattern

Identifying university capacity with university autonomy, the above analysis will be used to demonstrate, how university autonomy correlates with university internationalization pattern.

Based on the accumulated findings, a table (see Table 3) was developed that demonstrates the propensity of universities to internationalize depending on the degree of the source country university autonomy. The table captures the correlation between dimensions of university autonomy (internationalization capacity) and internationalization pattern. It answers ‘how’, ‘what’ and ‘where’ questions of internationalization relying on the characteristics different types of autonomy provide. The extended components of the four dimensions of autonomy identified in 5.2.1 are used in the table and are organized in groups that seem to have similar influence on the internationalization pattern.

Table 3. Conceptualizing university internationalization and university autonomy intersection

<i>Internationalization capacity</i>		<i>Internationalization pattern</i>		
		How	What	Where
Organizational autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Professional leadership and management - Efficient goal setting and strategy planning - Entrepreneurial organizational culture - Adaptive capacity and market orientation - Sensitivity and response to local demand 	Entering strategic alliances, setting up branch campuses in the form of joint ventures and greenfield investments. A tendency for forward integration	Strategic resources, distinct educational capacities	Risky locations: markets characterized by considerable psychic distance Most common locations: Asia-Pacific and the Middle East
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Openness for cooperation/ willingness to enter partnerships - High level of commitment - Effective communication 	Strategic alliances with other universities and partnerships in the industry	Strategic resources	Markets within economic region; depending on the possessed resources – further markets
Financial autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Accumulation and borrowing financial resources - Making investments 	Establishing branch campuses through joint ventures and greenfield investments	Strategic resources , distinct educational capacities	Asia-Pacific and the Middle East
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Resource seeking - Numerous stakeholders - Accountability - Quality standards 	Exporting, franchising, branch campus establishment in the form of joint ventures and greenfield investments	People, programs, strategic resources, distinct educational capacities	Markets characterized by location advantages; markets falling within international quality assurance
Staffing autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recruitment procedures - Status of employees - Salary levels 	Particular use for branch campus establishment (joint ventures or greenfield investment)	Strategic resources, distinct educational capacities	Asia-Pacific and the Middle East

Academic autonomy	- Independent academic profile - Independent admission process - Creativity and innovation - Flexibility of program content	Particular use for branch campus establishment (joint ventures or greenfield investment)	Strategic resources, distinct educational capacities	Asia-Pacific and the Middle East
	- Academic freedom - Ethics	Export and franchising, avoiding high commitment:	People, programs	Within economic region

Organizational autonomy, first of all, is making internationalization a feasible task, as the inner management possesses information about the capacities of the institution and can perform efficient goal setting and strategy planning (cf. Brock, 1997; Yokoyama, 2006). Second, this organizational structure makes university more business-like, so the approaches to internationalization originating from the business environment become more applicable to the sphere of HE. The central point of organizational autonomy is increased strategy building capacities and proactive leadership (Arnaboldi & Azzone, 2005; Larsen, 2001). Therefore, a high level of organizational autonomy will make the institution more prone to choose the modes of foreign operation that require intensive strategic planning. Strategic alliances, joint ventures and greenfield investments refer to these modes. Thus, the objects of internationalization will comprise strategic resources that are subject to exchange between the partners and distinct educational capacities that will allow to some extent replicate the institution on the foreign grounds. The openness for cooperation as a characteristic associated with organizational autonomy (Rytmeister, 2009) will make partnership development particularly successful, as the efficient communication structure can be built (Heffernan & Poole, 2005).

Regarding the location of foreign activities of an organizationally autonomous university, strategic alliances, joint ventures and greenfield investments presuppose worldwide scope of operations with particular focus on the developing countries (as identified earlier, Asia-Pacific, the Middle East), which requires a certain level of university flexibility (Ramirez & Christensen, 2013; Sporn, 2001). The sensitivity to the local demand, that organizational autonomy enhances, will help moderate the operation activities in accordance with the new environment.

Presence of the disposable financial resources is a considerable ownership advantage (Dunning, 1980; 1988) for universities to internationalize. Financial autonomy will also mean that the university can allocate its resources according to its own judgment (Estermann &

Nokkala, 2009). The accountability and quality assurance mechanisms accompanying the increases in financial autonomy (Askling et al., 1999) will turn out particularly important for franchising operations, as the main object of franchising agreements is educational program and its quality needs to be secured (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2012). The absence of restrictions in the domain of financial autonomy will allow a university to employ any form of foreign entry and operation: from exporting to greenfield investment. Financial autonomy in its ideal form gives the university freedom to make investments that will benefit the home institution and bring profits. The most profitable form of foreign activities is establishment of a branch campus (cf. Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). Therefore, setting up a branch campus as a greenfield investment or in cooperation with another institution will be a priority. The major objects of internationalization employed under the condition of high financial autonomy are strategic resources and distinct educational capacities.

Financial autonomy in its ideal form gives the university freedom to make investments that will benefit the home institution and bring profits. The most profitable form of foreign activities is establishment of a branch campus. Therefore, making a greenfield investment or forming a joint venture with another institution will be the ultimate priority of such university. Due to the wide variety of possible influences of financial autonomy on university internationalization, the geography of internationalization can be very wide, too. The ‘where’ question of internationalization is thus can be answered as “worldwide”, with a particular emphasis on Asia-Pacific region, where the most intensive branch campus formation is going on. Financial autonomy is associated with resource-seeking university behavior (Ramirez & Christensen, 2013). The favorable options will be markets characterized by location advantages (e.g., ability to offer cheaper educational services) and markets falling within international quality standards of education provision.

The issues of staffing autonomy as they are understood by Estermann and Nokkala (2009) were not considered in the reviewed papers. It can be supposed that staffing autonomy is a matter of particular importance for offshore operations. This type of autonomy is especially relevant for joint ventures and greenfield investments. Recruitment and evaluation of employees at the local site are important both, in the sense of money and quality. The locations that will be most used by a university possessing staffing autonomy will coincide with offshore activities’ sites.

Academic autonomy is associated with different types of flexibility, e.g., concerning the academic content, taught offshore and the admission criteria at foreign sites (Dee et al., 2000; Kovac et al., 2003). Academically autonomous universities tend to be more innovative (Dee et al., 2000) with academic staff stimulated to mobilize their capacities (Askling, 1999). This can result in a more proactive behavior at the foreign sites. In the case of branch campus establishment, the geography of internationalization can be, focusing on the main identified branch campus sites: Asia-Pacific and the Middle East. The issues of academic freedom and related ethical concerns (Sidhu et al., 2011) can be viewed as an obstacle to extend the foreign operations and make a university internationalize within the economic region, where the physic distance as the way academic freedoms are understood is small.

It can be claimed that universities possessing high levels of autonomy, in particular, organizational and academic, supported by sufficient financial researches and autonomy to allocate them, will have a high level of capacity to internationalize. These institutions can integrate forward, into the exporting channel, forming strategic alliances with other institutions, states and players in the industry and establish branch campuses with lower risks. Staffing autonomy mainly has an instrumental function supporting branch campus establishment.

The analysis shows that university autonomy becomes the capacity of the university to internationalize and influences internationalization pattern. Being more autonomous makes a university move into more risky, but potentially rewarding modes. Thus, on this stage of analysis, it can be claimed, that *university internationalization capacity (university autonomy) determines university internationalization pattern* (see Figure 4).

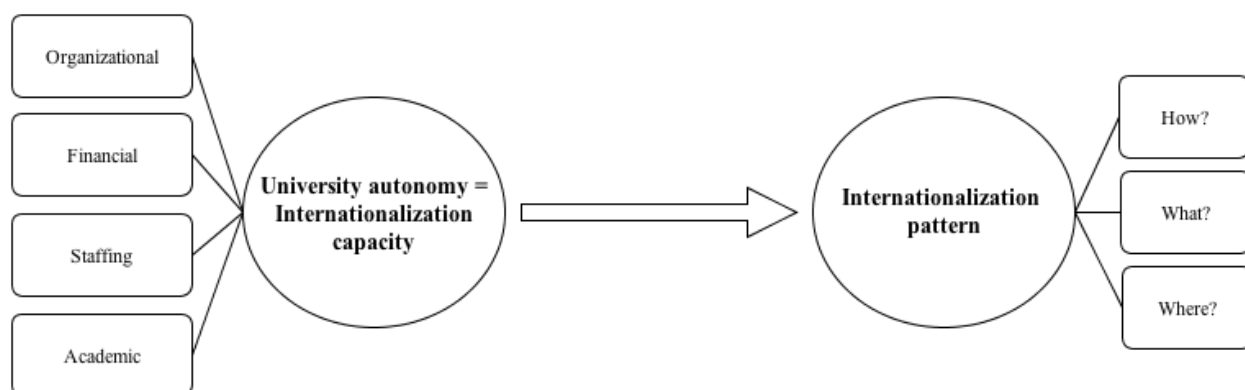


Figure 4. Relationship between internationalization capacity (university autonomy) and university internationalization pattern.

5.3 Source country university autonomy and target country university autonomy

In the previous section it was demonstrated that university autonomy has a strong influence on the development paths and adaptability of universities. University autonomy was claimed to determine the capacity of a university to internationalize and influence its pattern of internationalization. Entering a foreign market presupposes interaction with the host country's environment. Taking into consideration the importance of university autonomy, its level is one of the most influential characteristics of the foreign environment. The difference in levels of autonomy in source and host countries can be viewed from the position of *institutional distance* (Gaur & Lu, 2007; Kostova, 1999) and needs to be taken into consideration when planning and performing internationalization activities.

5.3.1 Difference in home and target country autonomy as institutional distance

The conducted systematic review identified a number of features of university autonomy, which can be called *sensitive issues of university autonomy*. First of all, university autonomy is contextually bound, influenced by regulatory models in particular countries and market mechanisms (cf. Arikewuyo & Ilusanya, 2010; Ramirez & Christensen, 2013). Autonomy is difficult to measure, there is an opposition between real and formal autonomy (Enders et al., 2013, Yang et al., 2007). The official description of the institutional context can fail to fit the reality and there are discrepancies between the rhetoric of autonomy/autonomy discourse and reality (ibid.). Increased autonomy results in increased state regulation (Magalhães et al.).

University autonomy generally has low levels in Asia, where the main host countries are located (Chiang, 2004; Christopher, 2012). Financial autonomy can lead to side-effects, such as opportunistic behavior of the universities: mainly avoidance of quality monitoring and artificial enrollments enhancement (Frølich et al., 2010). Autonomy influences the performance in research and education (ibid.); it can compromise the quality of teaching and research (Tammi, 2009).

These characteristics present autonomy as a potentially problematic issue and support the chosen view on difference in levels in institutional autonomy as institutional distance.

Two dimensions of institutional distance are used in this thesis; they are regulative distance and normative distance (Gaur & Lu, 2007). Regulative distance refers to the state regulations and official legislation in the country and normative distance comprises norms of legitimate

action and cultural values. It is supposed that financial autonomy, outlined as the main mean of state regulation, general decision-making power of the university, which is part of organizational autonomy, and regulations concerning staffing issues fall into the domain of normative distance. Regulative distance covers some issues of organizational autonomy, mainly, derived from its organizational (business) culture, as well as questions of academic autonomy and academic freedom.

Regulative distance is not as challenging as the normative, because it is usually documented in the form of official legislation and can be outlined through the analysis of these documents. So, if there is a mismatch in the domain of the university governance the sources of problems can be located through conducting the analysis of accessible materials.

The normative distance can cost a university a lot of difficulties, as mismatches in organizational (business) culture are as influential as national cultural differences, and sometimes are even more (Heffernan & Poole, 2005). The norms of the host country society should be learned through experience. And a compromise between the source and host countries' values should be found.

When a university possessing numerous ownership advantages (Dunning, 1980; 1988) sets up a branch campus in a favorable location (a country that lacks a well-developed HE system), in most cases it still needs to integrate locally. Despite its brand-name, position in world rankings and scientific reputation in a number of disciplines, a branch campus does not possess complete authenticity of the parent institution. Therefore, some compromises and adjustments need to be done in order to be successful. Viewing the level of university autonomy as a reflection of institutional distance, adaptation of the university autonomy to the partner's autonomy (or the understanding and levels of autonomy in the country in general) becomes crucial for university internationalization. One of the hindering factors along with local competition and mistakes in marketing can be explained through the mismatch in the levels of university autonomy. After analyzing the collected data it seems that for successful internationalization, among other actions, university needs to adapt its autonomy.

In such a way, an alternative definition of university internationalization which relies on the concept of university autonomy can be formulated.

University internationalization is the process of adapting of the components of university autonomy to the host country's environment.

This definition is particularly relevant for universities that perform forward integration and set up branch campuses in uncertain environments. The figure describing the process of university internationalization and the role of autonomy made in the previous section can be supplemented by one more element. It is claimed that the level of autonomy in the host country is a force influencing the process of university internationalization (see Figure 5).

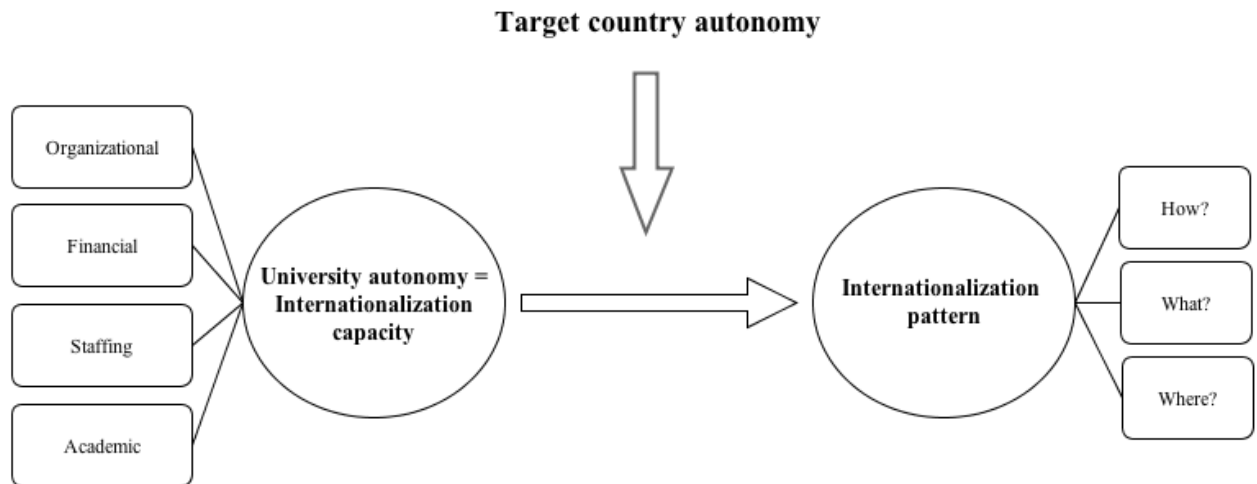


Figure 5. The role of target country autonomy in the process of university internationalization

In order to illustrate this idea, a perspective of matching autonomies in different countries can be drawn.

5.3.2 Strategy to overcome institutional distance

Viewing variations in levels of university autonomy as institutional distance, the choice of internationalization pattern can be made using the ownership strategy for overcoming institutional distance (cf. Gaur & Lu, 2007). The ownership strategy is called efficient for business enterprises entering a market characterized by a high level of uncertainty. Following this logic, it can be supposed, that difference in levels of autonomy in the host and source countries being high, a university will be inclined to choose a mode of entry and operation that requires serious investment and higher level of commitment – a branch campus in the form of a joint venture or greenfield investment. In the situation where the difference in the levels of autonomy is insignificant, a university might choose any mode of entry and geographical location relying on other factors.

The ownership strategy seems to be less efficient in the case of HE. In theory, setting up a wholly owned branch campus should help overcome institutional distance. However, there are numerous examples of branch campuses' closures and low levels of performance (cf. Sidhu,

2009). Setting up a branch campus in the form of a joint venture, a foreign university has to deal with both types of institutional distance. Greenfield investment means that there will be fewer difficulties with normative distance; however, the nature of education as a public commodity does not turn complete ownership into a strategy that helps totally avoid normative issues. A notable lack of one or several dimensions of autonomy in the host country can be perceived as restrictions posed by hostile environment and a cultural conflict. Therefore, the autonomy issues need to be approached with caution.

5.3.3 A perspective on the differences in source country and host country autonomy

In this section, an attempt will be made to outline the consequences of the mismatch in levels of autonomy in two countries. It is somewhat schematic because it draws this perspective relying on available data. However, it outlines some possible problems.

The lack of organizational autonomy or its low level can hinder productivity of the institution and lower its adaptability to the local environment. The lack of decision making autonomy can prevent the foreign subsidiary from integrating into the new environment and setting up important connections with other players in the market. The mismatch between the formal and real state of autonomy can hinder strategic planning activities of the university. The environment characterized by high levels of state controls over the HE system in the country can reduce the decision-making power of the university.

In terms of financial autonomy, funding the particular areas of research by the state government in the host country can influence the institutional profile of the foreign subsidiary. The ability to define the academic profile is an attribute of academic autonomy, in case it is hindered, violation of the autonomy dimension can be seen. Besides, a certain academic profile is part of the university brand and changes in it can harm recognition. Close collaboration with the local industry might also alter the original research paths of the institutions. It can also harm academic autonomy of the university as a whole, which will not be able to choose the direction of research matching its academic profile and it can influence individual academic freedoms of researchers, who are supposed to be able to work with the issues they are most interested in. By contrast, the lack of strict regulations can harm the quality of services. Profit incentives in the open market settings can cause opportunistic behavior of an entrepreneurial university: it can be manifested in growing numbers of enrollments that do not fit the original admission policy of the home university. Such university will step down on quality in favor of quantity: enrolling students who do not fulfill

the admission requirements, enrolling more students than a campus can accommodate can negatively influence quality. Hiring “cheaper” local staff that lack some of the necessary skills can also compromise quality. Financing from the industry, can involve agreements of confidentiality etc., so the university cannot fully use the results of its work; besides, solving concrete issues in the industry can leave little space for academic work.

Variations in staffing autonomy between home and host countries can be an obstacle to recruit the academic team that will reflect the academic profile of the home institution and keep the quality up. Not being able to hire some members of staff will result in greater spending on moving and accommodating academics from the home university. Besides, inability to independently recruit personnel can result in staff shortage that has an influence on the overall performance.

Mismatches in academic autonomy represent normative institutional distance and are the most challenging to deal with. Any attempt of the local state government or the partner institution to influence the academic content of the brought programs can be viewed as interference and violation of academic freedoms and cause serious conflicts. Any form of censorship practiced in the target market is a particular obstacle to academic autonomy. The task of the foreign institution is to be sensitive to the local environment and tailor the courses in a way, it is politically correct in the host country. In case a university has a mission to spread particular values, it should be prepared to the possible resistance and have strong arguments protecting its position.

The drawn perspective on the differences in source country’s and host country’s levels of autonomy can be summarized in a table.

Host country autonomy	Potential problems caused by a mismatch	Source country autonomy
<i>Organizational autonomy</i>	Influence on productivity Influence on adaptability Obstacles to local integration Misconceptions about the real state of autonomy in the country, inability to plan Excessive controls from the host country government Reduction of the decision-making power	<i>Organizational autonomy</i>
<i>Financial autonomy</i>	Changes in academic profile Altering research paths Dependency on the external stakeholders Opportunistic behavior Compromises on quality Negative impact on research output	<i>Financial autonomy</i>

<i>Staffing autonomy</i>	Different recruitment procedures Financial difficulties Violation from the quality standards Possible staff shortage	<i>Staffing autonomy</i>
<i>Academic autonomy</i>	Violation of academic freedom Censorship Changes in the original academic content Conflicts on the ethical grounds: academic freedom Cultural conflicts	<i>Academic autonomy</i>

Table 4. Matching the levels of university autonomy in the host and source countries

5.4 Chapter conclusion

Relying on the collected data and extending the theoretical understanding of university internationalization and university autonomy, the patterns of internationalization used by universities in their foreign activities are summarized under the three headings. ‘What’ refers to objects of internationalization: people, educational programs, strategic resources and distinct educational capacities. ‘How’ covers the variety of entry modes used by universities; there is no generalized approach to entry modes, but exporting, franchising, strategic alliances and branch campuses (joint ventures and greenfield investment) cover this variety and are used in this research. ‘Where’ means the markets universities target; the locations the universities target are spread worldwide, with particular focus on developing countries.

It is claimed that in case of universities, the level of university autonomy equals its internationalization capacity and influences the internationalization pattern. The features universities obtain in relation to autonomy can be viewed as ownership advantages that facilitate internationalization and make it feasible. Universities possessing high levels of autonomy tend to integrate forward, into the exporting channel, and employ equity entry modes.

It was also supposed that the differences in levels of university autonomy in the source and the host countries can be viewed from the perspective of institutional distance. University internationalization required adaptation of its autonomy. It was claimed that the level of university autonomy in the host country is a force influencing the process of university internationalization. Mismatches in the levels of autonomy at the host and source countries impact the internationalization patterns and can cause problems. However, the findings need to be supported by an empirical research aiming to collect data that confirms these suppositions.

6 Conclusion

This study explored a gap of knowledge identified at the intersection of university internationalization and university autonomy. After having reviewed the literature on university internationalization and autonomy and having gotten a deeper understanding of these two phenomena, an attempt to outline the intersection between university internationalization and autonomy was made. Basing on the theoretical literature, it was supposed that in case of university internationalization, its internationalization capacity is defined by the level of autonomy a university possesses. However, this supposition needed to be supported by empirical evidence.

The understanding of the two phenomena obtained through reviewing the literature in the theoretical chapter helped constructing effective search strings that resulted in identifying 35 empirical studies: 16 in the domain of university internationalization and 19 working with issues of university autonomy. The majority of the reviewed papers were written from the Western perspective on these two phenomena; therefore, the knowledge developed in this research is also limited by the Western perspective.

The results of the systematic review showed a detailed picture of the patterns of university internationalization. The synthesis of the collected data identified the major entry modes used by universities, elaborated on the objects of university internationalization, and gave an overview of the major markets targeted by Western universities. Ownership advantages are seen as playing an important role in university internationalization.

The empirical evidence obtained from the reviewed papers supported the prior theoretical development of the intersection between university internationalization and university autonomy. Basing on the collected data from empirical studies, a number of features related to the four dimensions of autonomy were identified as the specific ownership advantages that assist successful internationalization. It was claimed that in case of universities, high levels of autonomy result in additional ownership advantages, define internationalization capacity of a university and influence the internationalization pattern. It was proposed that being more autonomous makes a university integrate forward, into the exporting channel, and employ equity entry modes. Thus, university internationalization capacity (university autonomy) determines university internationalization pattern.

It was also supposed that the correlation between the levels of university autonomy in the source and the host countries has an impact on the internationalization patterns. The difference in the levels of autonomy in the host and source countries is viewed through the lens of institutional distance. Basing on the available data, a perspective has been drawn: serious mismatches in levels and understanding of autonomy might cause difficulties that can lead to a failure.

It can be concluded, that the role of university autonomy in the process of university internationalization is mainly two-fold. First of all, university autonomy can be viewed as defining the internationalization capacity, making university internationalization possible and working as a driving force of university internationalization. The second influence is related to the sustainability of university internationalization. In this case, the situation in terms of university autonomy in the target country can influence the success of university internationalization in various ways. The mismatch between the levels of autonomy can be treated as institutional distance and a conflict and have a negative impact on the internationalization activities.

Drawing upon the results of this study, some future research directions can be outlined. First of all, a more inclusive systematic review of the available data on the topics needs to be conducted in order to obtain a more detailed picture of the theorized intersection. This can be done by extending the number of publication titles reviewed and identifying the grey literature on the topics. The empirical studies aiming to explore the process of university internationalization with respect to autonomy, and case studies of the successes and failures of the universities operating abroad can be conducted. In such a way, data specifically supporting the outlined relationship between university internationalization and university autonomy can be collected. These studies should take into account and try to measure the correlation between the levels of autonomy in the source and host (target) countries. The longitudinal character of the studies will be beneficial, as it will demonstrate the process of internationalization and possible change taking place.

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Appendix

Appendix 1. Data extraction form – university internationalization

Author(s)	Year	Question	Theory and key concepts	Findings
Ayoubi & Massoud	2012	To explore the major obstacles encountered by UK universities in developing international partnerships with overseas universities	International partnership strategy; Partner selection; Obstacles and drivers	A model of obstacles of international partnerships is developed. There two main groups of obstacles: the obstacles that are relevant to the process of partner selection, and the obstacles that are relevant to the process of partnership arrangements.
Fang	2012	To get an insight into transnational HE development in China at the institutional level	Research universities; Teaching universities; Cross border inter-organizational partnerships; Strategic institutional management	Transnational HE programs are developed and perceived differently by research and teaching universities. Teaching universities are aiming to increase enrollments, generate revenue and reduce cost. Research universities internationalize to enhance academic opportunities.
Bennett & Kane	2011	To establish the methods, benefits and extents of internationalization employed by U.K. business schools	International franchising; Curriculum internationalization; Foreign teaching staff recruitment; Internationalization speed/extent	A model explaining the speed, extent, and intensity of a business school's internationalization was developed and tested. Gradual internationalization was the most widely adopted. Financial situation exerts influence of the internationalization pace.
Knight & Morshidi	2011	To examine the rationales and strategies used in positioning the countries as regional education hubs	University internationalization; Cross-border education; Regional Education hub ; Collaboration	A typology of three categories of hubs is suggested. The three types of hubs include (1) student hub, (2) skilled workforce training hub, and (3) knowledge and innovation hub.
Sidhu et al.	2011	To examine two Global Schoolhouse initiatives and the process of HE institutional restructuring in Singapore	Knowledge economy; “Word class” university; Cluster based economic development; Global norms of best practice	The examined institutions failed to become global because of a lack of fit in goals and commitment. The heterogeneous elements that make up international university networks (the complex human actors, their specific communication styles, personal needs and circumstances) are not explained by conventional narratives on knowledge and research networks.
Wilkins &	2011	To identify the determinants of	Branch campus;	Levels of student satisfaction at UAE branch campuses are

Author(s)	Year	Question	Theory and key concepts	Findings
Balakrishnan		student satisfaction at international branch campuses in the UAE	Transnational education; Customer (student) satisfaction; Service quality	generally high, quality of lecturers, quality and availability of resources, and effective use of technology being the most influential factors in determining student satisfaction at a UAE branch campus.
Wilkins & Huisman	2011	To explore international student destination choice and to investigate the attitudes toward international branch campuses	Higher education hubs; International branch campuses; Student recruitment; International student destination choice	Reputation, quality of programs, and rankings were found to be the strongest influences on student choice of institution. Push factors had significantly less influence on a student's decision to study abroad than pull factors
Cheung et al.	2010	To analyze and segment three target markets and recommend most appropriate market entry strategies for Hong Kong HEIs	Marketing HE institutions; Market entry strategies for education providers; Market segmentation; 4Ps	There is a high unmet demand for HE in India, Malaysia, and Indonesia; the visibility of Hong Kong's higher education is weak there. Market segmentation and 4P variables in formulating marketing strategies as well as benchmarking against key competitors are seen as internationalization success factors
Sidhu	2008	To study how governance contributes to the globalization of research networks, using two cases of branch campus failures	University internationalization; Governmentality; Networked knowledge capitalism; International research network	Both institutions failed in their attempts because of a lack of fit in goals and commitment; and as key people failed to embody and translate the global imaginary into globalizing practices and outcomes. Ethical issues framing the arrangements of this kind are identified.
Beerkens & Derwende	2007	To identify the critical features of Higher Education Consortia	Inter-organizational diversity; Resource-based view of the firm; Economic sociology, Compatibility; Neo-institutional theories; Embeddedness theory; Coping mechanisms	Three critical facets emerged: human capital with strategic resources; resource complementarity; strategic coping mechanisms; differences in institutional contexts. Higher consortium compatibility leads to higher performance.
Heffernan & Poole	2005	To study the critical success factors for the sustaining of relationships between Australian universities and their international partners	Entrepreneurial universities; Export strategies; Franchising; Institutional risk; Relational exchange theory	International relationships between universities can be sustained by the development of effective communication structures, mutual trust, and demonstration of commitment between partners. Compatibility in business culture is more crucial than similar national cultures.
Thune & Welle-Strand	2005	To discuss the way ICTs are employed in	Drivers of university internationalization;	The impact of ICT in internationalization processes are indirect and tied to routine activities in teaching, administration and

Author(s)	Year	Question	Theory and key concepts	Findings
		internationalization processes	Globalization; ICTs	research, rather than being a driving force of internationalization.
Coleman	2003	To examine the operational relationship between a core campus and internationally separated branch campuses	Modes of foreign operation; branch campus; Intercampus equivalency; Quality assurance	There are variations across internationally dispersed campuses, even in programs determined to be identical in two countries. The differentiation can be monitored by independent quality assurance mechanisms.
Poole	2001	To explore how Australian universities organize and manage international entrepreneurial activities	Strategic management; Entrepreneurial university; Offshore activities; Typology of universities	A four element strategic advantage model of internationalization is developed: strategically decentralized leadership; leverage of organizational and strategic competencies; pursuit of executional advantages; development of international business competences.
Saffu & Mamman	1999	To scrutinize international strategic alliances involving 22 Australian universities	Cooperative strategy; International HE strategic alliance, partnership; International HE joint ventures	Australian universities have policy frameworks for internationalization activities; top university managers usually initiate joint ventures with overseas institutions. Cultural differences, bureaucracy and differences in the goals of the partners are the most important challenges at the initiation stage.
Mazzarol	1998	To identify critical success factors for international education marketing	Services marketing; Competitive advantage; Critical success factors	Two factors, image and resources, and coalition and forward integration were found to be significant predictors of market success.

Appendix 2. Data extraction form – university autonomy

Author(s)	Year	Question	Theory and key concepts	Findings
Enders et al.	2013	To empirically assess the effect of political reforms for autonomy and control of universities as organizations	Institutional theory; Principal-agent theory; Organizational control; Regulatory autonomy	A multi-dimensional taxonomy was developed that distinguishes between formal and real organizational university autonomy. Dutch universities have gained in managerial autonomy while they have lost in institutional autonomy.
Magalhães et al.	2013	To explore the regulation impact of changing governance models on Portuguese HEIs	Governance; Stakeholder theory; Meta-governance; Institutional autonomy	The increased level of autonomy of Portuguese universities resulted in the increased state regulation. Portuguese HE governance strongly emphasizes management and leadership. Institutional autonomy did not rise evenly; it decreased in terms of the development of new study programs and quality assurance.
Ramirez & Christensen	2013	To investigate the effects of the changes in governance, finance, and resource seeking activity in different universities	Neo-institutional theory; Path-dependency; Governance; Finance; Resource seeking activity	Universities explicitly function as organizational actors and become more socially embedded, however, there are differences in the ways universities respond to autonomy reforms (compare the two cases) which are embedded in the historical roots of these universities.
Christopher	2012	To develop a conceptual model of the wider influencing forces impacting the governance paradigms of public universities.	Governance; Stakeholder theory; Management theory; Resource-dependency theory; Stewardship theory	Universities are affected differently by a number of common influencing forces, resulting in different governance paradigms. Five influencing forces were identified: the government sector; funding bodies; global competition; collegial managerialism, autonomy and academic culture; internal management.
Nguyen	2012	To examine the roles of Heads of Department in Vietnamese universities	Middle-level academic management; Department governance; Leadership	The heads of department enjoy a low level of autonomy and act more as managers than as leaders. The main task areas of the heads of department centre on program management, academic staff management and facilities management; strategic management and budget management are neglected.
Arikewuyo & Ilusanya	2010	To examine the government impact on autonomy in Nigeria	University autonomy; Institutional autonomy ; Market and managerial view	Universities enjoy limited academic autonomy (curriculum and teaching methods, except the introduction of new disciplines). The government fully regulates the other types

Author(s)	Year	Question	Theory and key concepts	Findings
			on autonomy	of autonomy.
Frølich et al.	2010	To explore the influence of funding systems in HE on institutional strategies and their core tasks	Performance indicators; Stakeholder theory; Funding mechanisms	A mixed pattern of strengths and weaknesses in the funding systems was uncovered. Universities are inclined to develop strategies for increasing funding that may compromise the quality of teaching and research.
Rytmeister	2009	To study the strategic activities and relationships between university management and governing bodies	Governance; Schein's (1985) cultural theory; Social identity theory; Agency theory; Institutional strategy	Three areas of strategic activities of governing and management bodies are identified: discussions, direction-setting, and planning. The actors' perceptions of management are influenced by cultural norms and the social identity that are derived from membership of these groups.
Tammi	2009	To empirically analyze the changes in the funding of universities and the changes in their performance in producing education and research	Funding models; Institutional-analytical approach; Economic analysis of higher education and research	Finnish financing model is characterized by the increasing significance of external financing. It influences the university performance in research and education: the universities have a lower research output measured in scientific publications.
Yang et al.	2007	To study the impact of economic globalization on the goals, functions and autonomy of universities and academics in China.	University autonomy; Political economy; Academic capitalism; Governance; Globalization	Situation in China is described as regulated autonomy. Policies of decentralization and marketization in the Chinese context have been highly instrumental in mobilizing educational resources. There is a contradiction between the state's rhetoric about autonomy and the constraints universities continue to experience.
Yokoyama	2006	To scrutinize organizational change in Japanese and UK entrepreneurial universities focusing on recent changes in governance, management, leadership, and funding	Entrepreneurial university; Governance; Management; Leadership; Funding	The convergent trends between four universities are identified. Universities increase their entrepreneurial activities, review their institutional strategies, become more market-oriented and obtain strong leadership of chief executives. Universities differently relate to the industrial sector and build organizational culture.
Arnaboldi & Azzone	2005	To report on an experience of a strategic change in an Italian university	Strategic change: processual interpretation; Managerial tools; Accounting techniques.	Top managers have transformed the organizational structure, identified responsibilities, and introduced a new set of managerial techniques through an incremental process towards autonomy and accountability.
Chiang	2004	To empirically test the	University autonomy;	Fundamental differences between the countries were found

Author(s)	Year	Question	Theory and key concepts	Findings
		relationship between university autonomy and funding	Funding schemes and models; The effects of funding	in the interviews; the effect of funding on university autonomy in a given country is conditioned by the context in which those universities exist.
Kovac et al.	2003	To explore academic staff's perception of university governance in Croatia	New collegiality; Learning organization; Self-regulating organization	The existing perceptions of governance by the university staff in Croatia do not fit the model of learning organization. Autonomous governance is improved by interaction with external environment; involvement of academics in decision-making, change in the internal university governance structures
Larsen	2001	To investigate the role of the governing Boards in higher education institutions	Instrumental perspective on organizations; Neo-institutional perspective; Political perspective	The governing Board combines instrumental (control and policy/strategy development), institutional (Board's relationship to the administration and the faculties) and political (rector as the 'external affairs spokesman') functions.
Sporn	2001	To answer the question of how the adaptive capacity of universities can be enhanced	Organizational theory; Environment; Adaptation	Adaptive capacity of universities is enhanced through self-regulation. Seven critical areas for enhancing adaptation emerged: focus on environment; mission and goals; entrepreneurial organizational culture; differentiated structure; professional university management; shared governance; committed leadership.
Dee et al.	2000	To determine the effect of institutional autonomy (faculty autonomy) in Taiwanese national system of HE	Work autonomy; Self-determination and discretion in job activities; Academic freedom	Faculty autonomy and related academic freedoms are important determinants of perceived support for innovation. Institutions that grant high levels of autonomy to faculty members are perceived as supportive of innovative activity.
Askling et al.	1999	To understand the requirements for self-regulating institutions	Self-regulation; Institutional autonomy; Space of action; State governance models	Self-regulation has a hybrid character: it calls for a more pronounced institutional leadership and encourages the academic staff members to mobilize their own capacities.
Brock	1997	To investigate the impact of strategies, planning modes and levels of autonomy on college effectiveness	Organization theory; Organizational strategy; Prospector and Defense strategy; Institutional autonomy	The mean effectiveness of all high autonomy units is significantly greater than that of all low autonomy units. Ceteris paribus, high autonomy is associated with superior effectiveness relative to low autonomy in the sample used in the study.

Appendix 3. University autonomy: key concepts, ideas, metaphors and themes

Enders et al., 2013	Empirical assessment, effect of political reforms, autonomy and control, universities as organizations, empirical evidence, link between autonomy and performance, bounded rationality, sociological institutionalist approach, organizational control, performance, measuring autonomy and performance, regulatory autonomy, a new regime of control, formal and real organizational autonomy, gain in managerial autonomy, loss in institutional autonomy, Netherlands
Magalhães et al., 2013	Meta-governance, autonomy as an instrument of regulation, impact of changing governance models on institutions, sociological perspective on governance, stakeholder theory, uneven rise of autonomy in different dimensions, strong emphasis on management and leadership, direct relationship: increased autonomy=increased state regulation, Portugal
Ramirez & Christensen, 2013	Cultural roots, greater communality, being exposed to the general rules of the game, changes in university governance, finance, and resource seeking activity, reasons to change, influencing forces, neo-Institutional theory, “path-dependency”, governance, finance, resource seeking activity, universities functioning as organizational actors, growing social embeddedness, differences in responses to the autonomy reforms, Norway (Oslo) and the US (Stanford)
Christopher, 2012	Influencing forces, governance paradigms, public universities, the multi-theoretical approach to governance, integration of agency theory with management theories, stakeholder theory, resource-dependency theory, stewardship theory, the government sector, funding bodies, global competition, collegial managerialism, autonomy and academic culture, internal management; contrasting Asian case, Australia, the UK, Netherlands, Belgium, Malaysia
Nguyen, 2012	The roles of heads of department, Asian context, middle-level academic management, department governance, heads’ of department duties, academic, administrative and leadership functions, main tasks, program management, academic staff management, facilities management, low level of autonomy, managers rather than as leaders, Vietnam
Arikewuyo and Ilusanya, 2010	Influence of the government, staff, students, curriculum and teaching, research and publication, governance, academic standards, administration, finance, academic freedom, self-governance, proper university autonomy, complex view on autonomy, parameters of institutional autonomy, interference, restricted autonomy, Africa
Frølich et al. 2010	Influence of funding systems, strategies and core tasks, performance indicators, stakeholder theory, funding mechanisms, mixed-funding models, European tendency, strengths and weaknesses in the funding systems, unintended effects of funding, strategies for increasing funding, compromise on quality of teaching and research, misbalance of research output, artificial enhancement of enrollments, Norway and Portugal
Rytmeister, 2009	Tensions, relationships between university management and governing bodies, capacity of the governing bodies to respond to pressures. a greater strategic role of governing bodies, a cultural approach to university governance, cultural theory, social identity theory, agency theory, “strategy as practice” perspective, strategic activities of governing and management bodies, discussions, direction-setting, and planning, perceptions of management influenced by cultural identities derived by membership in the groups
Tammi, 2009	Changes in the funding of universities, changes in the performance of the universities, measuring performance, research measured in scientific publications, institutional analysis of university behavior, economic analysis of HE and research, increasing significance of external financing, weakened research performance, financing from industry/financing councils, dedication to the promotion of R&D activities, low research output, Finland

Yang et al., 2007	Economic globalization, university autonomy, academic capitalism, governance, regulated autonomy, policies of decentralization and marketization, instrumental reform, to mobilization of educational resources, contradiction between the state's rhetoric about autonomy and the actual constraints, political education, sensitive areas of research, party members as university leadership, China
Yokoyama, 2006	Organizational change, public and private universities, entrepreneurial activities, changes in governance, management, leadership, funding; convergent trends between universities, reviewing institutional strategies, becoming more market-oriented, obtaining strong leadership of chief executives, differences in application of certain institutional strategies, national specificity, relations between entrepreneurialism and organizational culture, the UK and Japan
Arnaboldi and Azzone, 2005	University as an organization, processual interpretation of strategic change, refining process towards a new strategy, managerial tools, accounting techniques, incremental process towards autonomy and accountability, transformation of the organizational structure, new responsibilities, a new set of managerial techniques, Italy
Chiang, 2004	Relationship between university autonomy and funding, funding schemes and models, effects of funding on university autonomy, contextually bound effect of funding, government and non-government funding, England and Taiwan
Kovac et al., 2003	Academic staff's perception of university governance, university as a learning (autonomous) organization, new collegiality, a self-regulating organization; strong leadership; absence of self-governance and strong leadership, improving the autonomous governance, interaction with external environment; involvement of academic staff in decision-making process, change in the internal university governance structures, Croatia
Larsen, 2001	Role of the governing boards, perspectives on organizations, instrumental perspective, neo-institutional and political perspective, combination of different functions, instrumental function (control and policy/strategy development), institutional function (Board's relationship to the administration and the faculties comes into focus) and political function (rector as the 'external affairs spokesman'), Norway
Sporn, 2001	Adaptive capacity of universities, enhancement of adaptability, enhancement of adaptability through self-regulation, link between organization and its environment, changing university structure, adaptation, critical areas for enhancing adaptation, focus on environment, mission and goals, entrepreneurial organizational culture, differentiated structure, professional university management, shared governance, committed leadership; bureaucratic and collegial structures hinder adaptation and entrepreneurial behavior of universities; networks, collaborations, mergers enhance adaptation; comparing cases, US and Europe
Dee et al 2000	Institutional autonomy, faculty autonomy, autonomy reforms, work autonomy, self-determination and discretion in job activities, multi-dimensional measure of work autonomy, method, schedule, evaluation, support for innovation, academic freedoms, creativity, implementation of new ideas, Taiwan
Askling et al., 1999	Self-regulating institutions, influence of growing autonomy on institutional leadership, management and academic staff, autonomy and space of action, state governance models: security guard, honor society, social goals, invisible hand; shift towards a more decentralized, market oriented governance, strengthening university leadership, low awareness of actual implications of self-regulation, widened space, mobilization of academic staff's capacities, Sweden
Brock, 1997	Combinations of strategies, planning modes and levels of autonomy, superior college effectiveness, organization theory, organizational strategy, prospector and defense strategy, high autonomy of the dean, externally oriented longer-term planning, high autonomy, superior effectiveness, North America

Appendix 4. Components of the identified thematic groups

<p>Sensitive issued of university autonomy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> restricted autonomy restricted academic freedom interference ethical issues decentralized centralism regulated self-regulation political reforms regulatory autonomy formal autonomy instrumental reform academic capitalism meta-governance centralized control top-down autonomy power relations social embeddedness history and traditions national features path-dependency marketization 	<p>Organizational autonomy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> university as an organization strategic planning organizational strategy strategy as practice managerial techniques leadership shared governance new public management redistribution of autonomy outside pressures private and public universities multi-leveled governance institutional approach entrepreneurial features organizational control performance indicators decision-making change in internal governance structures interaction with external environment multiple Board functions adaptive capacities strategy as practice networks, collaborations, mergers
<p>Financial autonomy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> shifting funding models external funding government and industry funding direct relationship between funding and accountability side-effects of funding resource-dependency stakeholders agency theory performance indicators compromising quality incentive-based budgeting resource-allocation models new steering mechanisms resource-seeking activities influence on academic issues quality assurance 	<p>Academic autonomy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> support for creativity/innovation performance adaptability patterns of professional labor pressures on academics (e.g., to publish) social identities of researchers (in jeopardy) work autonomy restructuring of academe sensitive areas of research oppositions tension between back and front office: management and academic staff