Edinburgh Napier University, UK

Doctoral (PhD) Thesis

Exporting hospitality & tourism education abroad and its influence on the home programme internationalisation.

Author:

Richard Mark Lagiewski

Abstract

HEIs have, over the recent decade, been involved in internationalisation of their academic programmes and in the delivery of their degrees in international locations. Internationalisation is associated with the incorporation of international facets into the composition of curriculum, faculty, and students through a combination of activities and policies. One such activity associated with internationalisation is transnational education, in which the degree students are located in a different country than where the institution delivering the education is based.

Transnational education is often categorised in many forms: franchise, twinning, articulations, double degree programme, partnership, distance education, and international branch campus. Hospitality and tourism programmes have been identified as having been involved not only in internationalising their degree programmes, but also in delivering their degrees internationally in branch campus locations. However, even though the narrative has been on the start-up, operations, and management of these IBCs, less is known about the impacts the international branch campus has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programme.

This research, based in management, tourism, and international education, and viewed through a post positivism and critical realist perspective, presents an understanding of the effects that exist between hospitality and tourism programmes in HEIs and their IBCs. This is achieved through developing a typology of the influences that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programme. To address the objective of this research, a case strategy approach was used to support the exploratory and descriptive nature of this topic of study. The methodological design consisted of a mixed-methods approach, exploring three hospitality-tourism programmes in the United States delivering their degrees at international branches campuses. A conceptual framework based on elements associated with overseas expansion of both firms and HEIs and the theoretical foundations regarding internationalisation, guided data collection and analysis.

The significance of this study is twofold. First, it contributes to greater understanding of IBCs from the perspective of the home campus. Much of the literature surrounding exporting education through IBCs broadly focuses on three themes: market entry, risks and benefits, and quality control issues. Understanding these influences back at the home campus programme contributes to an underdeveloped area in the transnational literature. Secondly, the research contributes to the topic of internationalisation specific to the academic field of hospitality and tourism management. Although there is much consensus that academic programmes should prepare students for an international industry and a global marketplace, it is unclear the role that exporting hospitality and tourism degrees on IBCs has in internationalising the exporting degree programme specific to students, faculty, and curriculum.

Greater insight was gained regarding IBCs and internationalisation by assessing the influences of IBCs through the experiences of home campus faculty and staff. Additionally, findings may also prove useful to organisations, both academic and commercial, seeking to expand internationally. Findings of this research demonstrate that delivering a degree internationally is motivated by both internal and external factors, but home programme leadership combined with pull factors from the international location may be the catalyst in the decision to expand internationally. Additionally, the justification for international expansion and the outcome of this activity appears to be most associated with expanding the programme's brand and credibility in the area of international education.

Impacts on faculty, students, and curriculum diverge somewhat when considering the mobility between both the home campus and international branch campus. Students at the home campus experience internationalising influences based on two factors. The first is their study abroad experiences at the branch campus, and the second is their interactions with foreign students who transfer to the home campus. Similarly, faculty who engage with the branch campus onsite in the international location are in some cases gaining international exposure that allows them to internationalise their perspective on the industry and their students. Faculty and staff at the home campus identify the challenges of supporting both the necessary resources of the international

branch campus, and the requirements to serve the changes associated with the home campus environments.

Keywords

Acknowledgements

Author's declaration

I, Richard M. Lagiewski, declare that the work presented in this thesis is original. It has been produced by me, except as acknowledged in the text, as the result of my own research. The material has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

Quantitative findings from data collected in this study were utilized to present a refereed conference paper titled: The Role of Exporting Hospitality and Tourism at the *Education in a Transitional Environment and Internationalization* - 29th EuroCHRIE Conference in Dubrovnik, Croatia October, 2011 (see Appendix P).

List of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abbreviations

FIU – Florida International University

HEI – Higher Educational Institution

IBC – International Branch Campus

MNC – Multi-National Corporation

RIT – Rochester Institute of Technology

SIT – Singapore Institute of Technology

UNLV – University of Nevada, Las Vegas

SECTION ONE: Introduction to the study

Chapter 1:   Introduction

This thesis focuses on the phenomena of transnational education with particular emphasis on the impacts back to the home programme. As an academic who has worked in transnational environments in Israel, Croatia, Kosovo, Dominican Republic, and the United Arab Emirates, it appears that the focus on integrating an international dimension into educational activities is directed toward the off-shore location with less focus on the exporting institution of higher education. This also appears to be the case in the literature. From the literature, there is a clear identification of transnational education as one of the strategies for internationalisation. However, it is less clear how the operation and delivery of degree programmes located overseas are used to integrate an international dimension into the exporting programme. From personal experiences, there seems to be little formal effort to utilise transnational locations for internationalising the home programme, but it is this potential and the lack of research in this area that motivates the researcher both personally and professionally.

1.1   Background

With the advent of globalisation, there is a need to understand better the processes and consequences of internationalisation and its implications for hospitality and tourism education (Teichler, 2009; Zehrer & Lichtmannegger, 2008, p. 33). Specifically, internationalisation of hospitality and tourism education is seen as necessary in order to prepare students to work in a globalised industry (Baum, 2005; Becket & Brookes, 2008). Since the 1990's, this "internationalisation" of hospitality and tourism programmes has involved institutions of higher education in the English-speaking world, collaborating with foreign institutions to export their programmes abroad (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). Here, the term 'internationalisation' is simply the act of operating in an international location or foreign market.

Two primary terms are worth clarifying now to help avoid some confusion regarding the subject of this study: internationalisation and transnational education. The key difference between the two terms is that internationalisation does not require

international border crossing by the exporting programme. Rather, internationalisation requires that the educational organisation integrate an international perspective into its core activities through a combination of strategies. Transnational education, on the other hand, does require international border crossing, but does not necessarily require an international or intercultural perspective be integrated into the components of higher education. A key element of transnational education is that students enrolled in academic programmes or courses of study are located in a different country from the one in which the degree-awarding institution is based (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). The United States, United Kingdom, and Australia have been identified as the dominant exporting countries in transnational education (Rumbley & Altbach, 2007). In almost all forms of transnational education, a certain export model is used for overseas expansion in order to deliver the degree abroad. These export models often take on the following forms: franchise, twinning, articulations, branch campuses, double degree programmes, partnerships, and distance education.

So why do educational institutions expand their degrees overseas through these different market entry models? Like a multinational firm, which exports products and services overseas through setting up foreign subsidiaries, higher educational institutions (HEIs) also seek to gain financial benefits by offering their degrees in overseas markets (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Armstrong, 2007; Naidoo, 2010; Vignoli, 2004). HEIs may also expand into foreign markets to gain prestige from working in international locations (Teichler, 2009; Échevin & Ray, 2002). These efforts are in some cases driven by the motivation to help aid in the development of education in developing economies (AUCC, 2007). Even as the issue of why institutions expand overseas will be covered in the literature review of Section 2 in more detail, it is clear that the reason varies by institution and location. Since offering degrees overseas is a relatively new development over the last 20 years, more emphasis is usually placed on how to expand overseas and less so on what this means for internationalisation at home. Much discussion, like multinational firms, concerning exporting education abroad, focuses mainly on themes regarding how to expand overseas: risk and benefit assessment, market entry modes, quality control issues and management of overseas operations.

Turning the attention toward internationalisation, the specific rationales and motivations for internationalisation in higher education seem to fall into the areas of political, economic, and educational (de Wit, 2010). The American Council on Education's Commission on International Education states that all undergraduates require contact with, and understanding of, other nations, languages, and cultures in order to develop the appropriate level of competence to function effectively in the rapidly emerging environment (Bartell, 2003). The greatest and most commonly repeated arguments for internationalisation of higher education is that graduates need an international understanding to be competitive in the workforce. Perry Hobson and Josiam (1996) pointed out that exporting domestic American service and management models were no longer enough to drive international growth in the hospitality sector, hospitality education needed to internationalise. Others also cite that changes in the American workplace will demand cross-cultural sensitivity and improved interpersonal skills (Hansen, 2002). Some researchers' state there is added urgency for internationalisation given the increased demands to prepare students for a globalised workplace (Armstrong, 2007; McCarthy, 1998; Solem & Ray, 2005). McCabe (2001) believes that internationalisation will be the cornerstone that will allow people to develop skills and tools to survive a globalised world. Many also believe it is a requirement of universities to foster global knowledge and skills to perform professionally and socially in an international and multicultural environment (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Vapa-Tankosic & Caric, 2009). Crowther, Joris, Otten, Nilsson, Teekens, and Wächter (2000) also cite this employment rationale for European graduates specifically. There are many reasons why internationalising education is important; however, as Teichler (1999, 2009) states, in order to internationalise education, international border-crossing activities must be integrated with mainstream activities offered at the home campus.

According to Black (2004), faculty, students, curriculum content, and an international alliance are all essential elements in the integration of internationalisation into any higher education programme. International alliances, in this perspective, are viewed as any collaborative relationship between a local university and overseas counterpart. Werner (2008) described best model practises in integrating internationalisation as the following: curriculum, teaching staff, internships, presentations, student exchanges, off-

site partnerships overseas, and international networks. Smith (2008) identifies four models for achieving the integration of internationalisation into higher education: import, export, network, and partnership. Exploring the integration of overseas expansion and internationalise higher education at home is the primary subject of this work.

1.2   Statement of the problem

There is a popular assumption that involvement in transnational education is an approach to internationalisation. However, for this approach to result in internationalisation at institutions of higher education, it requires the integration of an international or intercultural dimension into the key academic elements of faculty, students, and curriculum. Despite the fact that offering degrees overseas is clearly an international activity, it is unclear how such action provides approaches to internationalisation at the home campus, specifically, the academic programme offering its degree abroad. This connection between offering a degree overseas through a branch campus and its influence on the exporting degree programme is largely lacking in the literature. All scholars agree that one strategy of internationalisation is transnational education. Knight (2004b) points out that the real process of internationalisation takes place at the individual institutional level. Brookes and Becket (2011) state that very few empirical studies have investigated internationalisation at the degree programme level. In order to close this gap in the literature, a sample of three hospitality and tourism management programmes will be explored to determine how delivering their degrees at overseas branch campuses is being utilised back at the home programme to internationalise educational components.

1.3   Purpose and significance of the study

The purpose of this research is to understand transnational education practises for the elements of the degree programme on the home campus. Transnational educational practises are defined as the delivery of a degree to students in an offshore campus in a different country to that in which the awarding institution providing the education is based (home campus). The expansion overseas by HEIs may result in both intended and

unintended consequences, i.e. the reasons why programmes choose to expand overseas in the first place may or may not occur. Thus, this study explored the consequences both expected and expected with the purpose of documenting effects back to the home programme. The purpose is to explain how exporting hospitality and tourism education internationally directly and indirectly influences the faculty, students, and curriculum elements of their programmes.

This study contributes to the theoretical frameworks of transnational education and the literature regarding overseas expansion by multinational organisations. In practise, this study may help decision-makers better achieve their goals, utilise overseas resources to international domestic activities, and become aware of unintended outcomes.

1.4   Research Aim and Objectives

The primary research question of this study is, How does the delivery of degree programmes at international branch campuses (IBCs) contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus? By answering this question and achieving the three objectives below, this research provides further conceptual understanding regarding the relationship between transnational education, specifically branch campuses, and internationalisation at home. The objectives of this research are:

Objective 1: To critically examine why hospitality and tourism programmes in the United States offer their programmes overseas.

Objective 2: To develop a conceptual model to illustrate an explanation of the impacts that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes.

Objective 3: To critically assess the effect of offering hospitality and tourism programmes overseas has on the internationalisation of the academic programmes located in the United States.

1.5 Scope and Assumptions

This study emphasises the influences of one form of transnational education (branch campuses) on the exporting home programme located in the United States. The study is limited to the primary data collected from the faculty and staff working at a U.S.-based hospitality and tourism programme and their perspectives of their IBC. The study did not primarily seek feedback or opinions from other stakeholders, such as students or faculty teaching permanently at the IBC. Lastly, this study is not an attempt to evaluate the performance or success of the three branch campuses in this study.

The branch campuses in China, Croatia and Singapore are used as a specific sample of international cases involving the delivery of hospitality and tourism higher education through a branch campus strategy. Two assumptions were made at the start of this study that influenced the strategy and goals of this work. The first assumption was that the amount of interaction between the home programme and its faculty and staff with the IBC was unknown. Since there are many forms of transnational education and specifically branch campuses strategies, it is possible that the interaction between the home and branch campuses comprised of only setting up the international programme and periodically reviewing standards and quality measures. This required broader primary data collection to identify the existence of any relationship between the home and exporting programmes. The second assumption was that effects of the IBC on the home programme may not have been connected to internationalisation; therefore, all potential impacts of the IBC on the home programme were examined.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Academic Programme: The special field of study in hospitality and or tourism made up of the curriculum (core, required, and elective courses) and any no-credit academic requirements that leads to a degree.

International Branch Campus: An overseas or international location by which the home campus has a presence, which maybe wholly- or jointly-owned or operated by the awarding institution, providing degrees taught face-to- face, supported by traditional

academic infrastructure, such as a library, labs, classrooms, and office space. Adopted from McBurnie and Ziguras (2011).

Faculty: The scholarly staff at HEIs, as opposed to the students or support staff.

HEIs: Represent colleges, universities, professional schools, community colleges, and institutes of technology. Upon completion of a required course of study, a degree, diploma, or certificate is awarded. Students are generally required to have completed secondary school to attend such institutions.

Home Campus: In this paper, the term home campus will be synonymous with the following terms in the literature: exporting institution, domestic campus, source institution, and onshore university. The term home campus is defined as the HEI that is trying to internationalise through delivery of programmes outside of its country.

Home Students: These are students enrolled in the programme located in the United States both foreign and domestic seeking to earn their degree on the home campus.

Internationalisation: Integration of an international or intercultural dimension into the function of the HEIs and or the composition of its curriculum, faculty, and students through a combination of activities, policies and procedures. Modified from the works of Jane Knight (2004a, 2004b).

Return on Foreign Venture: The monetary and non-monetary benefits and costs associated with the delivery of transnational education.

Reverse Knowledge Transfer: Learning related to the experience in offering a degree internationally that may assist the HEIs in future transnational activity.

Spillover Effects: The secondary effects occurring at the IBC location caused by the primary action of educating students there.

Transnational Education: Any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This situation requires that national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or educational materials (GATE, 1997, p. 1).

1.7   Study Methodology

To address the objectives of the study, a case strategy approach is used to support the exploratory and descriptive nature of the prime research aim. This methodological design will consist of a mixed-methods approach, combining both quantitative and qualitative tactics. Three hospitality and tourism programmes from the U.S. were chosen. From a research design perspective, a case strategy was chosen as an appropriate method for its application to exploratory research, since the goal of this research is not intended to test a set of hypotheses, but rather to investigate the phenomenon of transnational education on the programme level of the exporting institution. The prime research question of this study is, "How does the delivery of degree programmes at offshore campuses contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality and tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus" is both a "how" question and a phenomenon in which the researcher cannot control for all of the variables as in an experimental design. A conceptual framework based on elements associated with overseas expansion of both firms and HEIs and the theoretical foundations regarding internationalisation guided data collection and analysis.

1.8   Thesis Structure

This thesis consists of five sections. Section 1 is an introduction to the subject of this study, the main purpose and significance of the work, followed by the main research aim and objectives. Additionally, section 1 provides a set of study definitions for terms and concepts that vary by use both across international locations and in the literature. These are extremely important in order to provide clarity for terms often used to mean similar things to different authors and readers.

In Section 2, the developing theoretical framework surrounding internationalisation in the literature is presented in order to support the lines of inquiry of this work. In addition, the research on the outcomes of transnational education and for firms expanding overseas is covered in order to present a conceptual model of effects overseas expansion has on the organisation (both firms and HEIs).

This follows with methodology and methods in Section 3 describing the research design, forms of data collection, and overall analysis of information. Section 4 presents an analysis of findings and results. Lastly, in Section 5, conclusions and a discussion of implications and recommendations for future research is presented.

SECTION TWO: Literature review

This section of the thesis consists of a literature review, which is divided into three chapters. The first chapter addresses the issues pertaining to internationalisation in HEI. Topics addressed in this chapter are definition, motivations, measures, and methods of internationalisation. In the next chapter the focus moves to the area of transnational education, a sub theme of internationalisation. This sub theme of literature focuses on meaning, drivers, forms, and management issues associated with cross-border educational activities. The last chapter addresses the relevant work on the concept of the multinational organisation as they pertain to the research question and objectives of this study.

The research relevant to the objectives of this research is primarily derived from literature on two types of organisations. These are multinational corporations and HEIs. Since the research relative to internationalisation and transnational activities in multinational corporations are based on a financial paradigm, this literature review will concentrate on the work that has evolved in the area of educational organisations in higher education, which are knowledge and learning centred. However, since cross border activities conducted by HEIs mimic in some ways multinational corporations, an examination at the end will contrast the two bodies of research.

Chapter 2: Internationalisation

2.1 Introduction

As a review, the main aim of this research is to understand how the delivery of degree programmes at international campuses contributes to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus. Therefore, in this chapter, it is important to define the term 'internationalisation'. From this starting point, the main elements of this concept are analysed. In order to help meet the objectives of this research, the following concepts are covered in the literature: why organisations in higher education participate in internationalisation, how internationalisation is measured, and methods for internationalising in higher education.

2.2   Defining Internationalisation

In addressing the meaning of internationalisation, clarity is dependent on the perspective of the entity in question. The entities in question for this research are the academic programmes in higher education which offer their hospitality and tourism degrees outside their home country in an international location. Even though the focus here is on educational organisations, some of the terminology and actions mirror similarities to multinational organisations that deliver their products and services internationally outside their home country. However, since the multinational corporation is primarily an economic organisation and HEIs are educational organisations, the definitions and terminology often diverge sharply from one another. For the multinational corporation, internationalisation is primarily an economic term that consists of the process of increasing involvement of the firm in international markets (Susman, 2007). Although there is no agreed definition of 'internationalisation' as it relates to the firm involved in multinational activities, the theories tend to focus on trade, and why and how firms get involved in international activities. These issues regarding multinational corporations are addressed in Chapter 4.

A considerable amount of literature has been published on the definitions pertaining to internationalisation and transnational education. The definitions in these two areas have grown out of the broad literature on international education. According to Arum (1987), international education is divided into international studies, international exchanges, and technical assistance. From this perspective, internationalisation could involve the study of international subjects, refer to the mobility of faculty, staff and students between nations, or the provision of technical assistance by faculty and staff working to develop institutions and human resources in other countries (Arum, 1987).

More recently, the dominant definition of internationalisation in education has evolved from the works of Jane Knight. She acknowledges that her definition of the concept of internationalisation has evolved over time (Knight, 2004b). In the 1980's, the term was most closely identified at the institutional level of education. Knight (1994, p. 7) defines internationalisation as the "process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution". This definition may be too narrow since it does not encompass the external

environment, such as the demands from society or include other institutions such as national governments that play a role in internationalising education. To create a comprehensive definition, Knight (2003, p. 2) decided to propose the following definition that would apply to national, sector and institutional levels. "The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education."

The term 'process' was used by Knight (2004b) to deliberately convey internationalisation as an ongoing and continuing effort. Here she states that the word 'international' was used to instil the sense of relationships between and among nations, cultures or countries. Knight (2004b) uses 'intercultural' to address issues at the home campus, and the term 'global' to give the process a worldwide scope. It is important to note that Knight (2004b) specifically points out that 'delivery' is a narrower concept that refers to the offering of education courses and programmes either domestically or in other countries.

The term 'internationalisation' is divided in the literature between activities that occur on the home campus and those that take place abroad (Knight, 2004a). The delivery of education abroad and the mobility of faculty, staff and students across borders is specifically a narrow version of 'internationalisation' termed 'transnational education'. Transnational education often is used, confusingly, as a synonym for 'internationalisation' in the literature, which neglects the fact that the at-home activities can be internationalised without physically crossing borders. Some researchers will even narrow their view of internationalisation to solely foreign students studying at the home campus or foreign students studying on a campus in a third country (Healey, 2008). It is important to restate that internationalisation is much broader than transnational education. It involves not just the export of education to other countries, but also may include the movement of students, academic staff and researchers between countries, internationalisation of curricula, and bi-lateral links between governments and HEIs in different countries for collaborative efforts (Harman, 2005).

In Brandenburg and Federkeil's (2007) attempt to rank the level of internationalisation among German HEIs, they make a distinction between 'internationality' and

'internationalisation'. "Internationality describes either an institution's current status or the status discernible at the date of data acquisition with respect to international activities" (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007). In contrast, "Internationalisation describes a process in which an institution moves from an actual status on internationality at time X toward a modified actual status of extended internationality at time X+N. The result is then the difference between the actual situation after expiration of the period N and the desired situation after expiration of the period n" (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007). This distinction is an exception in the literature. Almost all literature on 'internationalisation' analyses the current status and according to Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007), this would be termed 'internationality'. To date, no literature has been uncovered specifically addressing the change in 'internationality' over time.

de Wit (2002, p. 114) argues that a catchall phrase for internationalisation is not helpful and "even if there is not agreement on a precise definition, internationalisation needs to have parameters if it is to be assessed and to advance higher education". He goes on to state, "That is why the use of a working definition in combination with a conceptual framework for internationalisation of higher education is relevant" (de Wit, 2002, p. 114). Thus, for the purpose of this research, the following working definition, modified from the works of Jane Knight (2004a, 2004b), is used for HEI: Integration of an international or intercultural dimension into the function of the HEI and or the composition of its curriculum, faculty, and students through a combination of activities, policies and procedures. This working definition meets de Wit's (2002) first recommendation. The explanation of integrating this definition into a conceptual framework will be addressed following further review of the work on internationalisation at the end of this literature review. Having defined a working definition of internationalisation, the rationales for internationalisation are introduced next.

2.3   Rationale for internationalisation

According to de Wit (2010), the specific rationales and motivations for internationalisation in higher education consists of the following areas: political, economic and educational elements.   Knight (2004a) divides the rationales for internationalisation in higher education between the levels of national, sector and institutional. Irrespective of the differing rationale, it appears that the rapidly changing global landscape plays a significant role in justifying the need to internationalise (Brookes & Becket, 2011). The American Council on Education's Commission on International Education suggests that all undergraduates require contact with and understanding of other nations, languages and cultures in order to develop the appropriate level of competence to function effectively in the rapidly emerging global environment (Bartell, 2003).

It is proposed by some researchers that by strengthening the international knowledge of others, specifically interpersonal understanding and discovery of commonalities between people, that there will be improved relationships and communications between countries. Middlehurst, Woodfield, Fielden, and Forland (2009), Hansen (2002), and Solem and Ray (2005) go so far as to state that learning to understand and appreciate our international neighbours is the primary reason for internationalisation in higher education. Along with the aim of helping students to appreciate their differences and similarities between themselves and others globally for improved relationships, the literature also points to the economic justification to internationalise higher education.

Knight (2004a) identifies income generation in internationalisation as an emerging area of importance for the educational institution. Identifying income generation as an emerging area would suggest that universities are exporting their degree or actively recruiting international students. Thus requiring HEIs to attract international tuition paying students, be involved in income generating research across borders or delivering education overseas. When a university were only integrating an international or intercultural dimension into the curriculum of the home campus, internationalisation would not result in any directly related economic benefit to the institution. For example, using international examples in the classroom or requiring the study of a foreign language would not necessarily generate tuition fees.

Transnational education on the other hand, requires that national boundaries be crossed by students, staff or educational materials that help the university generate tuition income. This income may be produced through attracting foreign students to study at the home campus or through serving them overseas in their home countries via branch campus arrangements. Some countries, like Australia, have very aggressive policies aimed at generating trade through exporting degrees abroad and attracting inbound foreign students (Adams, 1998).

Howe and Martin (1998) go so far as to argue that the rationale for internationalisation, based on international education and cross-cultural competency building, is a facade for solving the problems associated with declining home markets and declining support for impoverished Western governments. They claim it may even be morally suspect to take money away from poorer nations through exporting education. Even though the economic rationale for internationalisation has often played a controversial role as the motivator for this process, it is more accurate to associate this rationale to transnational activity. Altbach and Knight (2007) maintain that traditional internationalisation is rarely a profit making activity, though it may enhance the competitiveness, prestige and strategic alliances of the college, thus resulting in indirect economic benefits. It seems possible that universities trying to incorporate international learning on their home campuses will incur costs to alter courses, train staff and support new international activities on campus. If, however, higher education intuitions are exporting education, this constitutes only transnational education and only assumes that internationalisation will occur at the home campus. Transnational educational activities providing financial incentives, such as recruiting foreign students and exporting programmes abroad, are dealt with later in this review.

One of the most common arguments for internationalisation of higher education is that graduates need an international education to be competitive in the workforce (Shiel, 2006). Perry Hobson and Josiam (1996) argued that exporting domestic American service and management models were no longer enough to drive international growth in the hospitality sector, hospitality education needed to internationalise. Others also suggest that changes in the American workplace will demand cross-cultural sensitivity and improved interpersonal skills (Hansen, 2002). Some researchers[2] conclude that

there is added urgency for internationalisation given the increased demands to prepare students for a globalised workplace (Armstrong, 2007; McCarthy, 1998; Solem & Ray, 2005). McCabe (2001) claims that internationalisation will be the cornerstone that will allow people to develop skills and tools to survive a globalised world. Many also argue it is a requirement of universities to foster global knowledge, and skill to perform professionally and socially in an international and multicultural environment (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Vapa-Tankosic & Caric, 2009). Crowther, Joris, Otten, Nilsson, Teekens, and Wächter (2000) also claim that providing international understanding to European graduates is necessary for future employment.

Brookes and Becket's (2011) is uniquely important to this research since it specifically studies internationalisation at hospitality programmes in HEI. From thirteen interviews with programmes in the UK, they concluded that all respondents felt that the objective of internationalisation at the home programme was to developed graduates who were prepared to work in an international hospitality industry.

2.4   Methods and Measures of internationalisation

In this section, the methods literature recommended for internationalisation is reviewed, along with the indicators used to assess them.

When assessing internationalisation, generally four perspectives are taken into consideration: faculty, students, curriculum, and institutional leadership (Black, 2004; Green, Luu, & Burris, 2008; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Échevin & Ray, 2002). In addition to these four broad categories of indicators, transnational education, such as branch campuses and international alliances are also sometimes identified as a separate indicator or combined in either the areas of curriculum or institutional support (Black, 2004; Green et al., 2008; Échevin & Ray, 2002). These broad indicators cannot be viewed in isolation from each other, since they affect and influence one another. While this study will focus on internationalisation primarily from the point of view of the academic programme, it is appropriate to draw from the literature at the institute level since the academic programme is embedded in this organisation.

It is important to acknowledge four studies specifically for their relevance to the objectives of this research and their direct application to the cases proposed. The first study is Brandenburg and Federkeil's (2007) white paper based on four German higher education institutes (HEIs). This study is recognised because of the quantity of the indicators explored, 186 in all. The level of quantitative detail exploring the main indicator categories (faculty, students, curriculum, and institutional support) is unmatched in the literature. The next work, by Green et al (2008), developed 49 indicators and surveyed over 2,700 U.S. HEIs, resulting in a response rate of 39 per cent, or over 1,000 responses. Their work is likely one of the largest samples of HEIs ever undertaken related to the area of internationalisation.

The next two works are important since they provide a specific investigation into the internationalisation of hospitality and tourism education. Each study is a case study of hospitality and tourism programmes in the United Kingdom. The first by Black (2004), involves a review of factors that would contribute to the internationalisation of the Department of Hospitality, Leisure and Tourism Management at Oxford Brookes University (OBU). Her results and conclusions are based on personal knowledge of activities and initiative at OBU as a former administrator in the department. While her findings are integrated into the sections below, it is noted here that she concludes that developing an internationalised faculty appears to be a prerequisite to developing an internationalised curriculum, students, and alliance. In the second work from OBU, Becket and Brookes (2008) and Brookes and Becket (2011) expand upon Black's (2004) work by conducting a multiple case study exploring all international hospitality management degrees in the UK. They generate frameworks for assessing programme-level internationalisation and generate findings based on thirteen interviews that are addressed in the sections below. The importance of their research is that it is one of few empirical works completed on hospitality and tourism programmes. Sangpikul (2009) ~~does~~ also addresses internationalisation from the perspective of hospitality and tourism education, but his work is not an empirical work, but rather an application of Black's (2004) concept to the Thai HEI system.

2.4.1   Faculty and staff

Faculty and staff are key components in internationalisation, since they have the most interaction with students and play a significant role in the affairs of the university (Black, 2004). It is the characteristics of faculty and staff, along with their experiences, that are often cited as elements of internationalisation (Black, 2004; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009).

Previous studies have reported that having a faculty (staff) who are international or have international traits constitutes a method of internationalisation (Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009). Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007) developed one of the more comprehensive and detailed works on measuring what they term 'internationality of professors'. This measure consists of assessing the number of degrees earned abroad, the proportion of non-native professors, and the recruitment of international professors, either as permanent appointments or as visiting scholars. Language skills of faculty, general administrative staff, and non-academic staff were also acknowledged as indicators of internationality (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007). Recruiting international faculty, which is also cited as an indicator of institutional support for internationalisation (Green et al., 2008), is suggested as an element of internationalisation (Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009).

The literature suggests that being from an international country or having a degree earned abroad will result in an integration of an international dimension into their roles at the university. Sangpikul (2009) alludes to the premise that international and local faculty/staff, when working together, will be able to share ideas and learn about the differences they may have. To date, the review of literature has not uncovered such empirical correlation between faculty being of foreign nationality or faculty having a degree earned abroad and outcomes associated with internationalisation. A more appropriate measure of faculty internationalisation may not be their international characteristics, but rather their support for integrating an international or intercultural dimension into their academic life (Solem & Ray, 2005).

Faculty support and service for internationalisation has also been suggested as a method and metric for internationalisation in HEIs (Bao, 2009; Black, 2004; Brandenburg &

Federkeil, 2007; Solem & Ray, 2005). Support may be simply defined as faculty attitude about the value and importance of internationalisation in HEI (Iuspa, 2010; Solem & Ray, 2005). Solem and Ray (2005) found support for internationalisation by faculty to consist of specific elements associated with international collaboration: sharing course materials with international colleagues, mentoring international colleagues, developing web based courses, team teaching with a visiting scholar, and developing courses as part of an international studies programme.

Service activities consist of non-course activities, such as advising international students, helping with department and college international communities, and taking part in campus- and community-wide activities (Bao, 2009). Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007) also suggest specific mentoring, orientation activities, and lectures on intercultural learning as indicators of servicing the international orientation of the institution or programme.

The international element of faculty professional development and research is also another key method associated with internalisation (Bartell, 2003). Faculty development is often measured by attendance at international conferences (Brookes & Becket, 2011), membership in professional associations (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007), taking part in international internships, and teaching in an international environment (Black, 2004; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009). Research is considered an approach to internationalisation when faculty take part in international scholarship with international partners (Brookes & Becket, 2011; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009). This may be defined as joint research that may lead to international conference presentations, developing grants, and publications related to journal articles and books (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007).

Another method associated with internationalisation is faculty involvement in international exchange and work activities abroad. Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007) identify involvement as semester abroad, international business trips, and general professional experience earned abroad. Échevin and Ray (2002) assert that the virtual and real travel of the teacher and education materials is a technique for internationalising the teaching process. In one of the most comprehensive studies in the

U.S., Green et al (2008) identify leading study abroad trips and travel to international meetings and conferences as two main areas reported regarding the internationalisation of faculty. Black (2004) argues that if faculty are going to be able to include international content into their teaching and research, it is important they have a real experience in an international environment.

An important issue regarding faculty international exchanges and work activities abroad is it is one of the few areas that the literature supports a correlation between the activity and outcomes related to internationalisation. Bao's (2009) research demonstrated that faculty short-term teaching assignments resulted in internationalisation in the areas of new course development, collecting data for research, adjusting teaching styles, working with international students, and leading international programmes and activities. Specifically, faculty identified that they were more suited to advise and engage international students when they returned from China. Additionally, they felt that this experience fostered an increased sensitivity toward international students on the home campus. Faculty also became advocates for both other faculty and students to take part in international experiences.

Very similar to the findings above, U.S. scholars returning from Fulbright international teaching exchanges are shown to internationalise their home campus in multiple ways (O'Hara, 2009). Some ninety-nine per cent report they share information about the host country with colleagues. Eighty-five per cent state that their experience has made them more aware of cultural diversity and eighty per cent have encouraged students to study abroad upon returning from their international assignment (O'Hara, 2009). Supporting Bao (2009) and O'Hara's (2007) findings, Finkelstein et al (2008) found that faculty who spent one or two years abroad are almost twice as likely to incorporate international themes into their teaching than faculty who spent no time abroad. Regarding research, faculty who spent time abroad were also shown to be three-to-five times more likely to have a research focus that was international.

Dewey and Duff (2009) have identified four major barriers to faculty involvement in international activities. The first is a general lack of coordination and information available regarding international engagement opportunities. Secondly, limited funding

for international work has been identified as a major barrier for faculty. Thirdly, many institutional policies serve as a disincentive to participate in international initiatives. Lastly, there is a lack of support personnel to facilitate international initiatives.

Another indicator of internationalisation is faculty criteria for promotion, tenure, and hiring (Green et al., 2008; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009). In a study of over 1,000 universities in the United States, Green et al (2008) found less than 10 per cent of the universities reported any use of internationalisation in hiring and promotion. Specific human resource requirements, such as these, are often categorised under institutional support and will be addressed in a later section of this chapter. Similarly, the integration of international content into faculty teaching (Knight, 2004b) is discussed under curriculum and curriculum development later in this chapter.

2.4.2   Students

One of the traditional methods for internationalisation in higher education is connected to the student mobility associated with "study abroad" activities (Carmical, 2002; Knight, 2004b; Échevin & Ray, 2002). Traditionally, student exchange and mobility are synonymous with internationalisation. From a European perspective, internationalisation is often associated with mobility of students supported by such efforts as the European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) programme (Teichler, 2009).

The perspective of students in the internationalisation process can be taken from either the view of the domestic student or that of the international student. International students are often identified as internationalising HEIs through purely numeric measures. Échevin and Ray (2002) identify international student enrolment as an indicator used to measure the internationalisation of individual programmes of study. They state that the more non-native students enrolled, the more international the programme. Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007) also use the number of international students to measure internalisation.

Green et al (2008) choose to narrowly define students as international students. They define the metrics around enrolment and recruitment of international students to the home campus, and the support they receive in services and resources. They do not deny

that international opportunities for home students are also an indicator, but rather choose to place that measure under the heading of academic requirements and activities.

There is agreement in the literature that having international students enrolled in an academic programme assists in internationalising the programme (Hale and Tijmstra, 1990, Black, 2004, Sangpikul, 2009). Some authors argue that internationalisation is not just about the numbers of foreign students, but rather their role in the classroom as a way to bring international perspectives to courses (Black, 2004). Randall (2008) argues that international students play an important role in bringing an international perspective to campus as a whole. She points out that different cultural perspectives and new international problem solving methods enrich the learning experience in the university, and that the staff are motivated by the global insights provided by their Indian students. International students are also said to bring international perspectives to the faculty themselves. Black (2004) claims that this is only a second-hand experience and cannot be a substitution for experiences outside a faculty member's home country.

Armstrong (2007) questions that without formal efforts whether knowledge transfer between domestic and foreign students will occur. Caruana and Spurling (2007), in evaluating websites of UK HEIs, concluded that recruiting foreign students was the main method for embedding internationalisation and global perspectives into strategy and curriculum across institutions. Drawing from the literature, when academic programmes are recruiting international students in order to internationalise their study body, it does seem appropriate that programmes would implement a formal strategy to maximise their cultural and international differences.

Proving domestic students with the opportunity to study and work abroad is a frequent method to internationalisation students (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; Teichler, 2009). In surveying over 1,000 U.S. HEIs, Green et al (2008), reported ninety-one per cent of the institutions offer study abroad and thirty-one per cent offer internships abroad. The goal of these experiences, according to Teichler (2009), is to generate international attitudes and generate a global understanding of the partnering country. Short-term and long-term study tours are also recognised as an element of internationalisation (Sangpikul, 2009).

Black (2004) suggests that institutions, when seeking internationalisation, face the challenge of meeting the needs of their domestic students, while also trying to meet the needs of their international students. She points out that domestic students are looking for a certain understanding of the curriculum, while international students may need additional support and customisation to make the content understandable and relevant. Additionally, sending and receiving students from international sites is not an easy process to internationalise programmes. Some transnational relationships find it difficult to draw students equally from both sides of the cross-border partnership (Randall, 2008). Sometimes the difference in culture, language, and bureaucracy make in difficult to send domestic students abroad (Randall, 2008).

2.4.3 Curriculum

The learning requirements, activities, and experiences for students have all been cited as important aspects of the internationalisation process (Knight, 2004b). This has been generally categorised as curriculum, curriculum development, and academic requirements (Bartell, 2003; Black, 2004; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009). Three common themes exist in the curriculum approach of internationalisation: integrating an international dimension into current teaching practises, and adding international courses and foreign languages classes.

Perry Hobson and Josiam (1996) were two of the first to discuss the use of curriculum to internationalise hospitality and tourism education. They specifically recommend offering internationally-focused courses, and using international classroom materials and foreign languages. Green et al (2008) discovered in their sample of over 1,000 HEIs that only 37 per cent of the universities required a course with a global or international focus. Language requirements and abilities learned have been suggested as indicators of curriculum internationalisation (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; Perry Hobson & Josiam, 1996; Sangpikul, 2009). Green et al (2008) found that in their sample of over 1,000 HEIs, less than half had a foreign language requirement. Brookes and Becket (2011), in studying UK hospitality programmes, found few respondents who specifically mentioned the importance of languages and only one programme that required it to qualify for a degree.

Curriculum is one of the few indicators of internationalisation that is presented in the literature as a process (Crosling, Edwards, & Schroder, 2008; Sangpikul, 2009). In regards to curriculum development in hospitality and tourism programmes, Sangpikul (2009) identifies four levels of curriculum internationalisation. Level one is infusing international dimensions into existing courses. This is considered the basic building block of curriculum internationalisation and may be done through additional lectures, readings and projects containing an international context. Crosling et al (2008) also identify levels, but only three. Their first level also involves the incorporation of international examples, cases, and perspectives into courses. Railmond and Halliburton (1995) support this first level and stress that a programme of study is not international unless international case studies and examples are used in teaching (Black, 2004, p. 12). Ward (2006) proposes the following guidelines for internationalisation of syllabi: framing the course and course objectives around international perspectives, internationalising the reading list, and creating international learning units and evaluation methods.

Sangpikul's (2009) next level formalises course content by adding international courses to the curriculum. Adding a language course is another form of internationalising the curriculum. For Crosling et al (2008), the second level is labelled 'international competence', which involves building cross-cultural experiences into formal and informal campus activities. Formal course work and requirements appear to be a common theme between these two works.

That last level proposed by Crosling et al (2008) requires an international experience that would consist of immersing the students in a foreign setting in order to apply the learning they have achieved through the previous two levels. Sangpikul (2009), speaking from the perspective of internationalising hospitality and tourism education in Thailand, states the third level is to offer a degree in international hospitality.

Sangpikul's (2009) last and fourth level of internationalising the curriculum is developing joint programmes with foreign universities. This is a unique perspective, since it implies that operating a joint programme will have an internationalising effect on the curriculum at the home programme, and that the creation of a transnational

programme is the end goal of internationalisation. This perspective in Sangpikul's (2009) work is likely explained by the fact that he is writing from the perspective of a Thai hospitality and tourism programme and sees this as a method for potentially importing an international perspective. This last level is consistent with why foreign countries often seek to attract western universities.

Whilst it may be common for faculty to deliver global perspectives to foreign students on both their home and branch campuses, there is a call to incorporate more local knowledge into the curriculum. Wisansing (2008) points out that tourism education in Asia should integrate more Asian elements into higher education, since this market is gaining par with many western markets. Randall (2008) calls for a collaborative approach to delivering a curriculum that takes advantage of expertise in both countries when programmes are delivered abroad. She specifically points to internationalisation of the curriculum as partnership between Queen Margaret University and its franchises in India. Here, the faculty collaborate to develop curriculum to take advantage of both learning environments. International faculty collaborations on course design and delivery are measures of internationalisation by Solem and Ray (2005).

2.4.4 Institutional leadership and support

Some authors identify international alliances or partnerships as a strategy for internationalisation, yet some would argue that institutional leadership and support (Green et al., 2008) is a better indicator of internalisation. Institutional support can be indicated by the presence of a leadership strategy for internationalisation and regular involvement and resource allocation in the internationalisation process by university leadership (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007).

The basis for the four general methods and measures of internationalisation (faculty, students, curriculum, and internal alliances) used in hospitality and tourism programme studies are derived from Hale and Tijmstra (1990), Black (2004), Becket and Brookes (2008), Sangpikul (2009), and Brookes and Becket (2011). Here, an international alliance is represented by student and faculty exchanges and delivery of degrees across borders (Hale & Tijmstra, 1990). The assumption is that a university must have a relationship with another HEI to exchange students and faculty. Black (2004) states that

it seems unlikely that programmes have to be offered in international locations to be considered international when exchanges can be achieved through other modes. Sangpikul (2009) states that international alliances are a core element of the internationalisation process since they are a major push factor for international cooperation. It is important to recognise that Sangpikul (2009) is writing from a Thai perspective, where attracting foreign universities may be seen as a crucial part of internationalising Thai hospitality and tourism education in HEIs.

Échevin and Ray (2002) suggest the use of resource allocation as a measure of internationalisation and they include the establishment of international campuses and programmes as an indicator of this. Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007) include the number of agreements with collaborating foreign institutions as part of their measure of resources committed to internationality. These branch campuses, or international alliances, constitute forms of cross border (international) activity called transnational education (Ziguras, 2007). Philip Altbach (2000), a leading scholar on transnational education, states that these cross border activities provide little mutual exchange of ideas, long term collaboration, and exchange of students or faculty. This view may have been somewhat exaggerated. Interactions with the overseas programme may depend on the type of transnational model being used to export the program.

Olson, Green and Hill (2005) indicate institutional leadership and support as being represented by the resources used to integrate them into the campus mission and goals. Green et al (2008) found that only a minority of institutions mention 'internationalisation' in their mission statements, include it in their strategic plans, or have formally assessed their internationalisation efforts.

Resources allocated for hiring international staff or staff to support international efforts are also used to measure internationalisation in HEIs (Échevin & Ray, 2002). Brandenburg and Federkeil (2007) support this indicator and suggest measuring resources committed to international activities in the total budget, and number/proportion of full-time equivalent posts committed to serving international applications. The existence of specific offices to serve the goal of campus internationalisation and the amount of resources committed to it is identified as an

indicator of institutional support. Green et al (2008) demonstrate that in their survey of over 1,000 HEIs, seventy-three per cent of the institutions had one or more offices to manage internationalisation, but less than one-half had a full-time administrator to oversee internationalisation, meaning the office in charge of internationalisation was either supported part-time or was part of another department on campus.

2.5   Summary

Regarding the assessment of internationalisation in the literature, the approach most frequently used to investigate its presence in HEIs is to measure the existence of international dimensions of faculty, students, curriculum, and institutional leadership. An international dimension is represented often by international activity, international characteristics, and attitudes toward internationalisation (Iuspa, 2010).

Much less attention is placed on the resulting outcomes of international activity, international characteristics, and attitudes toward internationalisation. There is support for using outcomes as an indicator and approach in assessing the process of internationalisation (Knight, 2004b; Stohl, 2007). Researchers (Olson et al., 2005) state that internationalisation requires a strategy that integrates attention to inputs (institutional goals, strategies, and activities) with attention to outputs (outcomes and measures of student learning). Their focus is centred on the student, and the outcome of producing an internationalised student. It is very unclear in the literature at what point a student can be said to be internationalised, but Lundy Dobbert (1998) provides an extreme view. She states students must speak two-to-three languages besides English, and must have resided in at least two non-English-speaking countries in non-Americanised environments for at least one year. Olson et al (2005) provide a more moderate direction in defining an internationalised graduate. They suggest three general learning themes help define a globally competent student as being internationalised: knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Hale and Tijmstra (1990) describe a fully internationalised business school as one that has international faculty, international students, international course content, and offers programmes in several different international locations. While their definition does contain all four of the main measures in the literature, it lacks a strong argument for

what constitutes "fully". It is likely that the emphasis in the literature in measuring international activity, international characteristics, and attitudes toward internationalisation resides in the fact that these must exist first before one can begin to explore their outcomes. Drawing from the literature, it is appropriate to generate indicators based on international activities and outcomes in order to address the research question of this study: *How does the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus?*

Overall, from the literature it is evident that involvement in transnational education, such as international partnerships or branch campuses, is a strategy for internationalisation. However, few works analyse and discuss the outcomes of these export strategies on the home programme.

Chapter 3: Transnational education

3.1 Introduction

Transnational education is often identified as a component of internationalisation in a HEI. The literature identifies transnational education as any education delivered by an institution based in one country to students located in another (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). A key problem in the literature on transnational higher education is terminology, since a variety of terms is often used to describe a complex range of activities (Caruana & Spurling, 2007). Transnational education, sometimes also referred to as cross-border, offshore, or global education, describes learners located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based (Vignoli, February 2004). The Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) defines 'transnational' activity in terms of programmes of study − programmes originating in a UK HEI, but delivered by an institution in another country, programmes delivered via distance learning, and programmes conducted at a foreign branch campus of a UK Institution (Caruana & Spurling, 2007). Often the terms internationalisation and transnational education are used interchangeably (Knight, 2004b; Teichler, 2009), when in fact a HEI can internationalise its curriculum, for example, without delivering its degree overseas. In

almost every case, the HEI delivering education in another country is termed the home campus or exporting campus. However, a recent study by Shams and Huisman (2011) identifies HEIs that award their degree to students in a different country as transnational HEIs. For this literature review and research, the term 'home campus' will be used when describing a HEI delivering education in an international location outside of its resident country.

3.2   Motivations for transnational education

The literature states that nations, institutions, and academic programmes become involved in academic endeavours that cross international borders for rather diverse reasons. Some point to the historic nature of university education and its natural role in attracting students and faculty. Shared learning languages, such as Latin, German, and English have historically promoted academic mobility (Healey, 2008). It is this reason that the literature points toward internationalisation being most pronounced in the five so-called Main English Speaking Destination Countries (MESDCs): Australia, Canada, New Zealand, UK and the USA (Healey, 2008). The rise of English language education internationally has been acknowledged as a pull factor for developing countries' increased demand for foreign education at home, and for the increase in government policies that attract foreign educators (Jones, 2009, p. 3).

Historic events and international relations have also been identified as motivating nations and institutions to foster transnational education. For example, the Cold War was seen as a driver of transnational education. Then, scholarships were used to secure future loyalty of client states (Healey, 2008). An interesting counter to this opinion is Bartell's (2003) view that the need for internationalisation was non-essential during the Cold War. He believes that the development and fostering of international competence of students could be perceived as unnecessary, as the U.S. economy was largely self-contained since the Cold War polarised the world into two competing blocs with the U.S. as the dominant power in the West. After World War II, study abroad and international exchange programmes, like Fulbright, were established to enhance international understanding (McCarthy, 1998; Teichler, 2009).

The end of the Cold War is also cited as having influenced the need for transnational education since an isolationist approach to the world was no longer valid, and in many countries, universities experienced declining public subsidies and increasing pressure to export their education (Bao, 2009; Bartell, 2003; Healey, 2008). Transnational education has also been associated with developing mutual understanding between countries (Naidoo, 2010). One of the positive undercurrents of internationalisation of European education has been its expected contribution to international understanding and peace (Teichler, 2009). Jones (2009) specifically identifies international understanding as motivation for the use of transnational education. The author cites the example of the U.S. Secretary of State, Condoleezza Rice, and the Secretary of Education, Margaret Spelling, meeting with university presidents. They met to discuss exporting American-style higher education through branch campuses, partnerships with foreign institutions, and distance education to address the negative impact of 9/11 on foreign students from areas of the world, such as the Middle East, coming to study in the U.S. (Jones, 2009, p. 1).

Another motivation for nations and institutions to get involved in transnational education is to improve the capacity of their own educational institutions by collaborating with foreign (western) universities (Naidoo, 2010). Wisansing (2008) specifically identifies internationalisation not only as a method for capacity building for higher education in Thai higher education, but also potentially as a way to improve tourism and hospitality education in Thailand. Another strategy related to the improvement of the host country's educational system is the feeling that foreign institutions will challenge traditional education through introduced competition and result in improvement of local HEIs (Vignoli, 2004).

Links with prestigious foreign institutions is also one reason for collaborating to deliver education abroad (Armstrong, 2007; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Vignoli, 2004). This can be seen as enhancing one's international reputation and visibility, leading to the status as a 'world class university' (Échevin & Ray, 2002). Vidovich (2004) goes further and points out that having an international curriculum was seen to generate an elite position in the local educational marketplace. Similarly, international alliances are also seen as critical to developing a sustainable competitive advantage for HEIs

(Sangpikul, 2009). To date, only anecdotal evidence has been used to justify that delivering degrees internationally raises the prestige of the HEI.

The literature also points to pull factors that bring offshore education to foreign countries. This can often be motivated by governments seeking to provide wider choices for citizens (Vignoli, 2004). The host government may also want to avoid brain drain and keep students studying in their home country (Shams & Huisman, 2011) by attracting foreign HEIs to their shores. Singapore, Malaysia, Dubai, and China all have governments intervening to bring foreign educational providers to their shores (Healey, 2008). Another motivation for offshore education is it allows universities to either reach foreign students who previously were unable to afford the cost of studying in the home campus, or to enrol students offshore who could no longer afford or were no longer inclined to travel to the home campus due to an adverse external development (Healey, 2008). Due to the growth of a middle class in developing countries, the demand for higher education typically grows faster than the capacity of the domestic higher education sector, setting the stage for offshore partnerships (Healey, 2008; Ziguras, 2007).

It is the opinion of many authors that a key reason why institutions get involved in transnational education is to generate revenue and create new sources of income (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Armstrong, 2007; Naidoo, 2010; Vignoli, 2004). Some see the motivation toward internationalisation as a way for universities to increase their market share, since in many cases their markets are either reaching maturity or in decline (Howe & Martin, 1998). Supporting this view, Healey (2008) states that for the UK, it was the combination of declining public subsidies for domestic students and the deregulation of tuition fees that made foreign students such an attractive market. Healey (2008) states the motivation to use foreign students as a revenue source was driven by government policy to avoid the political challenges associated with deregulating domestic tuition fees. Others argue that the commercial motivation often seeks to attract foreign students as revenue sources with little care for internationalising their own students (Teichler, 2009). Along the lines of economic benefit, expanding overseas can be used as a location to transfer faculty to during economically challenging times, thus easing the budgets of the home campus (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Jones, 2009).

One form of transnational education, the branch campus, which may have initially been seen as a financial strategy for exporting education, has come under pressure due to the high investment costs (Shams & Huisman, 2011). Interestingly, Howe and Martin (1998) question the morality of taking tuition money from poorer nations, and go so far as to state that the education argument for internationalisation is in fact a mask for the real goal of financial gain. Likely, due to the sensitive nature of financial data, this review has not uncovered any empirical works that analyse the financial cost-benefit of HEIs delivering degrees abroad.

Due to offering programmes internationally, institutions are able to generate increased international student numbers from the countries they are delivering in, and provide study abroad opportunities for their domestic students (Armstrong, 2007; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006). It has been mentioned in the literature that involvement in transnational education gives the exporting institution's faculty more international experience (Jones, 2009). There is little support that a primary reason for involvement in transnational education by the exporting institution is to internationalise their faculty or provide home students an overseas experience. It is more common that nations in developing and transitional economies importing education do so in order to provide their faculty with opportunities to internationalise their teaching and gain global knowledge (Naidoo, 2010; Vapa-Tankosic & Caric, 2009).

Sometimes universities become involved in transnational education not so much through proactive policies and clear articulated motivations, but rather as a reaction to solicitations from overseas operations (Howe & Martin, 1998). This may sometimes result in exporting western educational ideas with little or no focus on the host country's needs. It is clear that the literature is inconclusive as to the prime reason nations, institutions, and academic programmes become involved in academic endeavours that cross international borders. It is likely that these are very different by national origin. For example, the UK and Australia tend to be more associated with the economic rationale for transnational education, while the U.S. is seen as trying to maintain international research students as part of knowledge transfer (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Overall, financial benefits and opportunities for student mobility seem to be the lead

motivators in the literature for going beyond home internationalisation activities and exporting education across borders.

While there are many reasons to get involved in transnational education, it is less clear if these goals are being achieved, especially from the perspective of the HEI. The next section addresses the forms and methods educational institutions use in order to deliver their degrees in foreign markets.

3.3 Forms and methods of transnational education

The forms of transnational education are: franchising, programme articulations, branch campuses, off-shore institutions, large corporations, international institutions, and distance learning (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). The term 'cross-border education' is distinguished from forms of transnational education in that it includes students travelling overseas to study (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Partnerships are the general form of almost all transnational activities. In almost all forms of transnational education, a relationship must exist with a foreign institution in order to export an educational programme abroad (Adams, 1998). These may be partnerships with foreign governments, educational institutions or private entities. One author observed in the 1990's that transnational activities in European higher education often took the form of teaching and research within the university symbolically formalised with foreign institutions with signed agreements (Teichler, 2009).

The forms and terms of these partnerships have changed with time and development of transnational education. Ziguras (2007) points out that in Australia, cross border activities in the literature were first referred to as distance learning, since the students were located away [a distance] from the home campus. In general, the relationship between an onshore and offshore educational institution is defined by some formal agreement. These sometimes take the form of a programme articulation. These are inter-institutional arrangements, whereby two or more educational institutions agree to define jointly a study programme in terms of study and credit transfer, so that students pursuing their studies in one institution have their credits recognised by the other in order to continue their studies (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000).

The Million+-commissioned report identifies three forms of partnerships pertaining to overseas programme delivery (Middlehurst et al., 2009). These vary depending on the degree of involvement of the partner institution in curriculum development and delivery of the overseas programme. The first of these partnerships consists of the foreign partner providing the teaching infrastructure and some administrative help, while the exporting institution delivers the courses and develops the curriculum. The next partnership involves the overseas institution taking part in the delivery of the course work. The final form is when the foreign partner is involved in both developing the curriculum and the delivery of the courses. A partnership where the programme is delivered by the overseas partner for a programme that only exists in the overseas location is termed a 'validation agreement' (Middlehurst et al., 2009).

One form of these partnerships is termed 'franchising'. Franchising is the process whereby a HEI (franchiser) from a certain country grants another institution (franchisee) in another country the right to deliver the franchiser's home programme or degree in the franchisee's host country (Healey, 2008; Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). This form of transnational education lessens the burden of the home institution's faculty in delivering programmes at multiple offshore locations (Adams, 1998).

In many cases, the franchisee only provides the first part of the educational programme, which can be used as partial credits toward a qualification at the franchiser's in the context of programme articulation (Vignoli, 2004). This form of institutional partnership, where a student studies for a period of time in an offshore institution and then transfers onshore to the exporting institution, is also commonly called a twinning programme (Armstrong, 2007; Meek, 2007). There are many variations of twinning, but it generally consists of a twin programme overseas with the home institution involved in delivery of the courses and materials along with the awarding of the degree (Adams, 1998).

To distinguish between franchising and twinning, in a franchise partnership agreement, the source institution exporting their education to their offshore partner allows the partner to deliver the entire degree without the students ever being required to attend the exporting institution's campus (Adams, 1998). Franchising as a form for exporting can

be extensive. For example, for every three international students studying on a UK campus, there are two more studying off-shore in a franchised degree (Healey, 2008). This form of transnational education may or may not lead to joint or double degrees (Vignoli, 2004). A joint or double degree is often a result of a partnership where the foreign partner helps develop the curriculum and delivers the course work (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Armstrong (2007) views franchising as the "ultimate global solution", meaning that this form of transnational education has the least upfront costs and risks when compared to branch campuses and the benefits each provides the home programme.

Branch campuses are another method for delivering degrees abroad. Branch campuses are established by a HEI from one country in another country in order to offer there its own educational programme or qualification (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). This classification of transnational education has dual meanings depending on the differing perspectives of the home campus. It may be a literal bricks-and-mortar unit of the home campus located in a foreign destination. The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education in the UK specifically defines a branch campus as an establishment that is operated in name of the home institution, either by the home institution itself or through some kind of consortia or joint venture. It is important to note that in the definition, the student must receive a degree from the home institution only and that this definition does not include dual-degree programmes. About eighty have been identified under this definition according to the Observatory of Borderless Higher Education (2006). Branch campuses may also be viewed as international locations where the home campuses are involved in delivery of education, but may not necessarily have a bricks-and-mortar investment.

Overseas campuses sometime develop out of some previous relationship between the home campus and the overseas location. For example, they sometimes result from a simple international research collaboration (Black, 2004). For institutions in the UK and Australia, branch campuses were started primarily to increase tuition income, but now it is being driven by governments in foreign countries looking to grow their educational offerings (Norris, 2010). Due to their large investment, these forms of

transnational education are generally viewed as highly volatile and risky (Shams & Huisman, 2011).

Jones (2009) points to some common challenges associated with opening branch campuses abroad: considerable start-up and operating expense, obtaining sufficient enrolment over time, providing faculty from the home campus after initial start-up, adapting curricula to local needs, and accreditation issues. Shams and Huisman (2011) point to two ends of the spectrum that HEIs must face when operating and competing as a branch campus these are issues of standardisation and local responsiveness. Standardisation is the quality control of curriculum, staff, and standards across home and transnational campuses. While this may help insure that students across both campuses are learning the same things, it may not be providing the branch campus with culturally appropriate knowledge relevant to the local environment. The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education identifies three models of branch campuses: fully funded by the institution, externally funded, and facilities provided by a host institution. Therefore, a HEI could potentially operate an IBC without investing in the building of the campus infrastructure.

An offshore institution is an autonomous institution established in a host country but stating to belong, in terms of its organisation and educational contents, to the educational system of some other country without having a campus in that home country (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). These institutions are seldom recognised in the host country; some have accreditation in the U.S., and or have articulation agreements with institutions located in their home country (Vignoli, 2004).

A much more uncommon form of transnational education is large private corporations. These corporations are usually part of big transnational corporations and organise their own HEI offering qualifications that do not belong to any national system of higher education (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). International institutions are institutions offering "international" qualifications that are not part of a specific system of higher education (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). They may have branch campuses in many countries and are seldom recognised in the host country (Vignoli, 2004).

One of the assumed drivers of exporting education overseas is the advances in communication technology (Healey, 2008). Virtual Universities and distance learning are a form of transnational education by which the course materials are provided by mail or the internet and the learning takes place at home (Vignoli, 2004). Sometimes, this is simply referred to as an online programme (Meek, 2007). While this form of transnational education is less expensive for the exporting institution to deliver, it does not provide the immersive educational experience of the culture from which the home country is based (Jones, 2009).

There are many forms of transnational education, but to distinguish it clearly from the term internationalisation, this term refers to the delivery of education across international borders. Internationalisation can occur without international border crossing; it, however, is assumed that such transnational activities internationalise the home programme.

3.4   Management Issues in Transnational Education

Issues in the literature pertaining to managing transnational education generally fall into organisational issues at the home campus or quality control and regulatory issues at the cross-border location. A hospitality-specific work that relates to managing a transnational educational partnership is Randall's (2008) case study on Queen Margaret University's (Edinburgh) exportation of International Hospitality Management to India. This partnership is based on an articulation and memorandum of understanding with overseas partners. This agreement allows students to take the degree programme in a franchised format in India or in Edinburgh at Queen Margaret University (QMU). Randall (2008) states that some of the lessons learned from this decade-old relationship are the danger of underestimating the requirement for strategic planning, strong management, and adequate resource investment.

Over time, it was determined that a dedicated vice principal was needed to lead the partnership. This case study extensively describes how QMU coordinates the delivery of courses, preserves quality, and provides social and academic orientation for Indian students choosing to study in Edinburgh. Web-based modules coordinated individually in each country provide quality control for student learning outcomes. One strategy

identified to manage this relationship was to integrate their website platform in order to support a virtual international community of learners (Randall, 2008). Dewey and Duff (2009) supported the view that a key need in order to balance the faculty, student, and administrative needs regarding transnational initiatives is a director who would provide oversight and information to both parties. This is further supported by Teichler (2009), who states that to assist in managing internationalisation as it becomes a cross-border activity, the university vice-presidents must become more involved in the coordination, and that new international offices be set-up to support such strategies.

Much of the extensive literature on transnational education revolves around the issues of managing risk and quality control at the international location (Vignoli, 2004). Altbach and Knight (2007) have identified several issues associated with managing quality assurance and recognition. The first is identifying that partner institutions are registered, licensed, or recognised by the sending and receiving countries. The second management challenge is maintaining the quality of courses and programmes. Thirdly, maintaining that accreditation issues are managed between the exporting and importing institutions. The next is to make sure that the degrees are recognised as legitimate in the workforce and that courses are acceptable when one continues their education. Bacow (2007) states to avoid the risk of one's reputation being damaged, institutions setting-up overseas campuses should be prepared to control all aspects associated with student and faculty life.

One of the early challenges when starting-up a transnational partnership is recruiting the international students. Some researchers point out that there are pressures by collaborating institutions to take on students with less traditional educational backgrounds (Howe & Martin, 1998, p. 457). Once a transnational operation is up and running, depending on the resource requirements of the home campus, two management issues arise in the literature. One is maintaining quality control and the other delivery of the courses. Usually, if home campus faculty are not involved in teaching the overseas curriculum, quality control is maintained by intermittent site visits by faculty and staff (Randall, 2008). If faculty from the home campus do travel internationally to teach, training and recruitment are cited as management issues faced by HEIs.

Recruitment of faculty after the start-up can often be a problem for exporting institutions (Jones, 2009). Sometimes there is pressure on staff members to teach in overseas sites that may have a quality impact on trying to maintain efforts at home and abroad (Howe & Martin, 1998). Bacow (2007) mentions that it is often at the university president level that international agreements are constructed. Thus, it is important not to forget to engage actively the faculty, since they are going to have the greatest impact on the success of the transnational efforts. Doing so may result in a cynical view of the institutional plans to go abroad (Bacow, 2007). Cultural differences are also cited as a challenge when delivering education face-to-face internationally. For example, when it comes to course work deadlines, a student's perception of time may not match the instructors, thus leading to misunderstandings between international students and faculty (Howe & Martin, 1998).

An interesting issue mentioned in the literature is the potential loss of tuition revenue if domestic students spend more of their degree time at the offshore site (Armstrong, 2007). Since in many cases the tuition charged at the international site is lower than the home institution (Ziguras, 2007), there is the potential for management issues when domestic students discover such differences. Armstrong (2007, p. 136) states that offshore programmes can never be the same quality as the home campus, because the resources built up on the home campus over decades or centuries cannot (and probably should not) be reproduced elsewhere. Managing quality of programmes and assessing risks has developed greatly since the unregulated early transnational projects of the late 1980's. Since then, three organisations have shaped and made this area less risky for international students and exporting institutions: UNESCO, OECD, and the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (Adams, 1998; Ziguras, 2007).

3.5 Methods used to study internationalisation and transnational education

It appears that the methods used to study internationalisation and transnational education fall into three approaches. The first are opinions based on the reflection of expert researchers' own experiences and perspectives. The second, but only in a few well-funded cases, involve large quantitative studies that survey a large sample of schools or faculty. The most common form of research design appears to be the case study approach.

Dewey and Duff (2009) present a case study using an in-depth critical analysis of the internationalisation process underway in the School of Architecture and Allied Arts at University of Oregon. Howe and Martin (1998) also use the case study method in order to study the internationalisation in a small UK business school - Abertay University, Dundee, Scotland. Walton and Guarisco (2007) use a case study to analyse the dyadic partnership between a London based university and an International Institute of Business in Moscow. Here, it is noted that knowledge transfer in international educational partnerships takes place in a communication arena where different cultures of inquiry and reception constantly interact, engage and challenge each other. Becket and Brookes (2008) use a multiple case study approach of UK hospitality programmes to increase the ability to generalise their study.

Another exploration of internationalisation utilising the case study approach is Randall's (2008) review of the partnership between QMU Edinburgh and institutions in India. This study covers issues involved in managing and supporting the students studying International Hospitality Management in their home campus located in India. Perry Hobson and Josiam's (1996) case study of the Leeuwarden Hotel Management School in the Netherlands described action areas the university felt necessary for internationalisation. One was to set-up contacts and relationships with foreign institutions. This resulted in opportunities for faculty and students in the following locations: UK, Sweden, China, Indonesia, Aruba, and the U.S.

It seems likely that the case study approach was heavily relied upon since conducting research and collecting data from a place of employment (i.e. the university) is

convenient. Secondly, access to the inside workings of employees and students is much easier if one is also an employee (faculty/staff). Lastly, such information regarding the "University" is potentially confidential and access by an employed researcher (faculty/staff member) helps protect from unnecessary negative exposure. While most cases studies in the literature refer to specific HEIs by their actual name, some researchers choose to label them as the home programme and the offshore programme. Along with this intent to label generically the cases in question, all ethical considerations and appropriate permission will be taken in advance of data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4: The concept of internationalisation and the multinational organisation

4.1 Introduction

In order to address the research question of this study: How does the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus?, it is useful to look at the academic programme delivering its programme through a branch campus as having hypothetical similarities to a multinational organisation. This is also important, since the literature on HEIs provides very little explanation of what occurs on the home campus due to delivering their services (education) internationally, something the literature on multinational corporations may assist with. This literature refers to a multinational organisation as a multinational firm, multinational enterprise, or a multinational corporation. For simplicity in reviewing research to date, the term 'multinational corporation' is used to represent a business with its headquarters located in one country, its home country, and operations in a foreign country. These operations may include foreign direct investment, contractual agreements, and any form of affiliate enterprise (Dunning & McQueen, 1981). Similarly to HEIs, multinational corporations use many different modes to deliver their products and services internationally across borders. These modes could be foreign subsidiaries, licensing agreements, franchises, and partnerships, for example.

HEIs and the multinational corporation are similar in that both may be delivering services in more than one country, and both act as parent organisations controlling policies and strategies across national boundaries. While both educational and business organisations have some similarities regarding the phenomena of overseas expansion, the multinational corporation body of literature pertaining to this activity comes from very different perspectives. These differences are mainly derived from the fact that the purposes of business organisations are primarily economic in nature, while academic institutions are principally educational. Rugman (1981) defines internationalisation from a multinational corporation perspective as the theory of foreign direct investment. This often takes on a very narrow economic view, focusing mainly on areas related to foreign exchange risk, international diversification, and pricing. Rugman (1981, p. 23) also asserts that a multinational corporation "is basically an economic animal whose mission is to produce and market goods on a worldwide basis". Some authors, however, suggest a definition of internationalisation that is closer to the one that exists in the literature regarding why HEIs expand internationally. This definition advocates that internationalisation is a process of transferring a multinational corporation's knowledge, which embodies its advantage, from one country to another (Kogut & Zander, 1993).

What does internationalisation of the firm mean? There currently exists a large amount of literature and research on the internationalisation of firms. This research is characterised by three major areas (Morgan, Kristensen, & Whitley, 2001). The first are the issues surrounding how firms decide to expand across international borders. The second area of the literature focuses on how the firms get ready to serve efforts outside their home country. Lastly, the managerial issues associated with different forms of overseas expansion. Similar to the works on transnational education, most of the empirical research on internationalisation of firms focuses on the operation and market-entry models (Bjorkman & Kock, 1997).

The internationalisation of firms, like a HEI, is also seen as a process. The Uppsala Internationalisation Model is the most prominent theoretical paradigm regarding the internationalisation of the firm (Bjorkman and Kock, 1997; Forsgren, 2002). "In this model, the internationalisation of the firm is seen as a process in which there is an interplay between the development of knowledge about markets and operations on the

one hand, and an increasing commitment of resources to foreign markets on the other"
(Bjorkman & Kock, 1997, p. 363). "A crucial assumption of this model is that market
knowledge is acquired primarily through experiences from current business activities in
the local (foreign) country" (Bjorkman & Kock, 1997, p. 364). Unfortunately, this
prominent theory pertaining to the internationalisation process of the firm is predicated
on international expansion, and internationalisation in HEI is not. Thus, the Uppsala's
focus on internationalisation of the firm as defined by the economic growth via
international expansion makes it inappropriate for explaining internationalisation in
HEIs.

While the concept of internationalisation of HEIs and multinational corporations are
different, the action of expanding overseas and the resulting impacts share some
similarities. The next section explores 'internationalised multinational corporations'
and analyses the influences that expanding operations overseas may have on the parent
company.

4.2 'Corporate Internationalisation' defined

Determining if a multinational corporation is internationalised can be established
through many different concepts. Dörrenbächer (2000) provides a concise overview of
how to measure corporate internalisation. He divides the indicators of
internationalisation into three frameworks: structural, performance, and attitudinal.
Structural indicators give a measure of how internationally embedded the organisation is
at a certain time. For example, this measure would include activities relating to the
number of countries the firm is active in, the number or proportion of foreign affiliates,
and the number or proportion of employees.

Performance indicators measure the degree which the success or failure of corporate
activity during a certain period of time (usually one year) is connected to foreign
countries" (Dörrenbächer, 2000, p. 120) Examples of this indicator are associated with
foreign sales and operating income abroad. His last framework for measuring corporate
internationalisation is attitudinal indicators. These are divided between soft indicators
and hard indicators. Soft would be the management relationship between the parent and
foreign firm. More specifically, how the parent firm views the importance of the

foreign operation as a potential contributor and actor within the overall picture of the multinational corporation, while a hard measure would be the number of years management has spent working abroad and is thus able to relate to the foreign affiliate.

Dörrenbächer (2000) asserts that these indicators were generated from well-established literature and also notes that there is strong disagreement of what measures should be used to indicate internationalisation. It does seem clear that his work is heavily dependent on Sullivan's (1994) work. Sullivan's (1994) degree of international index consists of five variables: the ratio of foreign sales to total sales, the ratio of foreign assets to total assets, the proportion of overseas subsidiaries to total subsidiaries, top managers' international experience, and psychic dispersion of international operations. Ramaswamy, Kroeck, and Renforth (1996) point to the shortcomings of Sullivan's (1994) work and question whether the index could be supported with the inclusion of an attitudinal component for which there is no way to standardise the variable. The indicators seemingly focus too narrowly on a subsidiary operating mode as the form of international expansion (Ramaswamy et al., 1996, p. 175). However, they do support and recognise Sullivan's original intent and idea of using more than one variable to measure internationalisation is important.

This section above is not meant to be an exhaustive review of the measures of internationalisation of multinational corporation, but rather to point that these measures are often both static and based on the prerequisite of a transnational activity. This requires that, unlike HEIs, the multinational corporation must enter into a foreign market in order to internationalise. It is important to note that these indicators are primarily a measure of international activity outside the firm's parent location and they suggest very little about the impacts of the foreign affiliate on the parent firm.

4.3   Influence of international operations

When multinational corporations decide to expand their efforts into international markets, they do so for economic reasons with the belief that they will be able to transfer their advantages through their foreign subsidiary or affiliates (Bjorkman & Kock, 1997). The impact multinational corporations are looking for through the action of international expansion is primarily economic growth (Rugman, 1981). As stated

above, internationalisation in multinational corporations can be a measure of the firm's international activity, but this does not necessarily capture the effects on the parent company derived from the foreign affiliate. These effects on the parent company can be categorised in the literature as return on foreign venture and reverse knowledge transfer.

In order to address the impacts from the multinational corporation's overseas activities, it is important to look at the potential outcomes of the decision to expand globally. The term return on investment (ROI) may too narrowly define the outcome of transnational activity as financial only. Therefore, the term return on foreign venture is used in this study to represent both the positive and negative impacts that result from international expansion related to the increase or decrease in market and non-market characteristics. These returns constitute changes in the current characteristics of the firm due to the firm's international expansion.

One obvious return is economic, i.e. increased revenues or costs resulting from international operations. This is well known as a firm's return on investment (ROI). Internationalisation and financial performance is a key aspect in the literature of multinational corporations. Since internationalisation is described as a process (Contractor, 2007), financial return is often dependent on where the multinational corporation is in the process of overseas development. Another influence may be the lowering of costs, improved productivity, and larger economies of scale (Blomström & Kokko, 1998).

However, on the other side of ROI may be the associated opportunity costs. For example, when a company is investing internationally, resources may be diverted from the parent firm leading to decline in domestic attributes and the possibility of losses at home (Blomström & Kokko, 1998). This is similar to the transnational issue in HEI where faculty trying to serve two campuses may result in lower quality teaching (Howe & Martin, 1998).

While these returns on the foreign venture are based on the action of expanding internationally, they are not related to the outcomes of new capabilities or advantages, but rather the export of current qualifications and advantages to an international market. New means and aptitudes gained by the multinational corporation resulting from the

delivery of products and services across international borders are represented by knowledge transferred to the parent firm (Ambos, Ambos, & Schlegelmilch, 2006). (The term 'knowledge' from the point of a multinational corporation seems to be broadly used in the literature to mean many things, almost a catchall phrase for gains not directly resulting from the primary act of delivering a service or good in an international location. This knowledge gained appears to be related to what the multinational corporation learns from international activity.

The focus of the knowledge transfer literature has primarily been on the flow from the parent firm to the foreign affiliate (Kuhnert, 2011). The flow of current knowledge from the parent firm to its foreign affiliate is referred to as knowledge transfer. Reverse knowledge flow occurs when new knowledge is returned to the parent firm (Buckley, Clegg, & Tan, 2003). According to some, the traditional role of the parent firm as the prime source of knowledge is changing, as they are increasingly receivers of knowledge from their international affiliates (Branstetter, 2006; Schlefelmilch, Ambos, & Chini, 2003).

Caves (1971) refers to knowledge as the transfer of inputs that go into the production of other goods and services during foreign direct investment. Buckley et al (2003) state that their definition of knowledge is broad and refers to the explicit understanding in a firm about the relationship between phenomena, structured in a more-or less scientific manner (Hedlund & Nonaka, 1993). (Qin, Mudambi, & Meyer, 2008) state that knowledge transfer is a process in which an organisation recreates a complex, causally ambiguous set of routines in new settings and keeps the routines functioning. These routines are identified as taking the form of know-how, R&D capabilities, and managerial techniques, for example (Qin et al., 2008, p. 884). The main focus of knowledge transfer often concentrates on technology and management practises (Branstetter, 2006; Fu and Diez, 2010). Technology and R&D are often combined for a knowledge item called innovation (Dachs & Ebersberger, 2005).

Blomstermo, Eriksson and Sharma (2004) advocate that there are three interrelated components of knowledge critical to internationalisation, which are institutional, internationalisation, and business knowledge. Institutional and business knowledge, in

this case, consist of knowledge related to the particular foreign location in which the organisation operates. Institutional knowledge is knowledge of the government and institutional rules, norms, and values that apply to the firm in the foreign location.

The knowledge derived from the international operations tends to be divided into two themes. The first being the knowledge gained directly from creating and managing the foreign endeavour that is used to help the multinational corporation to expand and operate in additional international settings. The second is the knowledge gained to enhance the competitiveness, processes, and performance of the parent firm aside from any further foreign expansion. Knowledge transfer is important if it enables the recipient organisation to improve their capabilities in their pursuit of competitive advantage (Perez-Nordtvedt, Kedia, Datta, & Rasheed, 2008).

Gupta and Govindarajan (2000) suggest knowledge transfer consists of seven types of knowledge: marketing, distribution, packaging design/technology, product design, process design, purchasing, and management systems and practises. Contractor (2007), in comparing the benefits and costs of overseas expansion, also identifies seven impacts for the parent company located in the home country. Some of these apply in the case of HEIs and some do not. The first is knowledge acquired from abroad which is different from knowledge gained from the experience of opening and operating a unit in a foreign country (Contractor, 2007).

There is much discussion on the types of knowledge and also what creates a transfer and use of such knowledge. Inkpen (1998) identifies four generic management processes that create knowledge connections between the multinational corporation and the foreign affiliate. His perspective is from the point-of-view of a multinational corporation and a foreign affiliate that is not formally a subsidiary organisation. The first process is a result of personnel transfers between the home and foreign location. The second involves the sharing of technology. The third relates to partner interaction, including face-to-face, such as site visits. The last is the creation of a formal liaison office to coordinate the link between the two organisations. This situation involves collaborating with foreign companies to produce goods and services outside the home market.

The concept of spillover effects may also exist once a multinational corporation (MNC) establishes a subsidiary or international branch in a foreign location. These effects are the externalities that may occur from MNCs establishing a foreign presence on those who are not directly involved in the multinational corporation (Crespo & Fontoura, 2207). Spillovers in the context of MNC are often discussed as the advantages that spill over into the foreign market place or to foreign firms beyond the internal advantages gained by the MNC from expanding internationally. From the literature on spillover effects there appears to be three general types of spillover effects on the foreign firm or industry (Alvarez & Molera, 2005; Blomström & Kokko, 1998). The dominant spillover examination seems to surround the increase in productivity gained by local firms and industries from copying and learning from the presence of foreign firms (Lipsey, 2004). A second source of spillover effects derives from foreign technology, production and organisational knowledge gained resulting in new efficiencies (Alvarez & Molera, 2005). A third is associated with the outcome of the competition created by the MNC that results in foreign firms seeking new innovations to stay competitive (Alvarez & Molera, 2005; Blomström & Kokko, 1998). Broadly, MNC spillover effects are knowledge spillovers that occur when foreign firms learn about new technology, marketing and management techniques that improve their performance (Javorcik & Spatareanu, 2008).

MNCs are similar to HEIs exporting their degree programmes, in that they both are setting up overseas branches in order to achieve some return on the foreign venture by establishing a presence in an international location. However, since MNCs are primarily predicated on financial outcomes and goals, the economic and organisational theories explaining the impacts of their foreign affiliate on the MNC may provide only partial explanation of how exporting education internationally impacts the home programme. The next section employs both MNC and transactional education perspectives taken from the literature to generate a conceptual framework for analysing the effects of the IBC on the home campus programme.

4.4   Central Themes in the Literature

The primary research question of this study is: How does the delivery of degree programmes at international branch campuses (IBCs) contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus? Considering the literature from this perspective, two bodies of research are pertinent: transnational education and internationalisation.   The key themes surrounding the elements that contribute to internationalisation in terms of activities and outcomes are well established in the literature (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; Knight, 2004a, 2004b). However, the body of literature surrounding transnational education and the forms of delivery used to export education across international boundaries tends to emphasise how to establish and manage international programmes overseas (Vignoli, 2004) or the potential capacity building transnational education has on the host country or foreign institutions of higher education (Caruana & Spurling, 2007; Paul, 2009). What is less clear and uncertain is how participating in transnational education impacts the exporting programme, specifically in the area of internationalising the home programme. The following sections provide a synthesis of literature pertaining primarily to the activities and outcomes of internationalisation from the perspective of the exporting programme in the context of transnational education. This section will also highlight the shortcomings of this area of literature and present the elements for the conceptual framework Figure 4-5 utilised in this study.

There is strong consensus in the literature that the activities and outcomes of students, faculty and curriculum are central elements in the internationalisation of higher education (Black, 2004; Sangpikul, 2009). Indicators of internationalisation within these elements of the home programme are well developed in the literature (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; Sangpikul, 2009; Échevin & Ray, 2002). However, a fourth element is also identified but less developed from the perspective of internationalising the home programme, which is the delivery of education through various international export models and alliances. As an element of internationalisation, these export models are labelled broadly as international alliances, partnerships, or transnational education (Wilson & Vlasceanu, 2000). Specifically, the transnational delivery of higher education may take the form of franchising, twinning, joint degrees,

and branch campuses (Hussain, 2007; Meek, 2007; Vignoli, 2004). Sangpikul (2009) argues that these international alliances are a core element of internationalisation of higher education since they are a major mechanism pushing other elements to international cooperation. His conclusion is logical in that opening an IBC or aligning with overseas institutions to deliver a degree programme will certainly require students, faculty and curriculum to come together internationally to achieve transnational education. However, to argue that this is a core element of internationalisation would have been more convincing if he had included a discussion on whether this mechanism worked both for the home campus and the international branch campus locations, and if so, how. Black (2004) contests that it is unnecessary to be involved in delivering programmes internationally to be truly international. She contends that elements of programme internalisation can be achieved through individual student exchanges and the international work experiences and features of the faculty (Black, 2004). Her view seems to narrow the internationalising value of delivering degree programmes down to the mobility it provides faculty and students on the home campus. This thesis is not intended to hypothesise whether transnational education is the most important element for internationalisation, but rather investigates its impact on the international activities and outcomes on the home programme.

Literature pertaining to internationalisation can be viewed from two broad perspectives: internationalisation at home and abroad (Knight, 2004b). In the context of this research and the literature, the delivery of the overseas programme abroad has two central impacts in the foreign location: internationalisation and spillover effect. Internationalisation is identified often as the reason why foreign countries permit, attract, and support HEIs from outside their borders (Naidoo, 2010; Wisansing, 2008). Internationalisation is presumed to occur in the host country because the imported academic degree is based on the requirements and content from a foreign, and often, western HEI that brings with it a non-local international or intercultural dimension, sometimes broadly categorised as good-practices (Howe & Martin, 1998; Jordan, 2008). Knight (2004b) suggests that this is part of nation building as a new educated workforce may generate ideas and research to help develop the host country. Whilst these impacts on the host country and the organisations located there are implicit in the literature,

impacts beyond the primary delivery of an educational degree to the students in the host country are frequently reported and can be depicted as spillover effects. A frequent spillover effect identified in the literature is the prospective improvement in the quality of educational institutions surrounding the IBC due to increased competition or implementation of best practises by local HEIs (Rumbley & Altbach, 2007; Vignoli, 2004). Another spillover influence of the IBC on the host location may be the reduction in the number of students travelling abroad, keeping foreign students in their home country and stopping potential brain drain (Vignoli, 2004; Ziguras, 2007). Rumbley and Altbach (2007) also suggest that in addition to the benefit of IBC students getting a good education, local economies in the host countries gain access to research facilities for economic development and income from additional students attracted from throughout the region. Some authors also assert that in exporting degrees internationally, one outcome is improved international relations and public diplomacy between the home and host countries (Rumbley & Altbach, 2007). The tendency of much of the published literature on these effects of the IBC beyond educating foreign students in their home country is inferred rather than supported by primary research. The education and knowledge received from the home programme by the students studying in the host country at the IBC is categorised as primary knowledge transfer represented in Figure 4-5 as it represents the primary export being delivered abroad by the home programme. The spillover effects, as identified in the literature, are the secondary effects occurring at the IBC location caused by the primary action of educating students there. Whilst the branch campus and spillover effects are encompassed in the conceptual framework Figure 4-5, the primary focus of this thesis is on the impacts occurring on the home campus, which will be revisited from the perspective of existing literature in the next sections.

A considerable amount of anecdotal literature has been published concerning the probable influences on academic programmes and their higher educational institutions when they export their degree transnationally through a branch campus in an international setting. As stated previously, this body of literature pertaining to exporting degrees through a branch campus has emphasised the IBC perspective as transnational activity with less empirical investigation into the impacts on the home campus resulting

from delivering a degree internationally. The discourse regarding the impacts on the home or exporting programme can be divided into three broad types of influences drawn from the literature of both HEIs and multinational corporations. The hypothetical influences identified in the literature can be categorised by three thematic elements for the home campus: internationalisation, reverse knowledge transfer, and return on foreign venture. One of the main shortcomings of the literature concerning the impact exporting degrees internationally may have on the home campus programme is it's often anecdotal in nature and less supported by well-developed empirical evidence. Each of the three elements from the perspective of the literature are revisited next and critiqued individually to elaborate the conceptual framework of the influence overseas expansion has on the "home campus" from a transnational perspective presented in the conceptual framework Figure 4-5.

4.4.1   Return on Foreign Venture

One of the frequent themes identified by scholars and authors is the monetary and non-monetary benefits and costs associated with exporting degrees internationally by the home programme. This theme, in Figure 4-5, is expressed as the return on foreign venture. Few authors make the direct comparison between exporting degrees and the action of the multinational corporation; however, McBurnie and Ziguras (2006) suggest that if one were to use the MNC transnationality index of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development to measure transnationality for a university, the levels would be low. Their conclusion is derived from the characteristics of this index which is determined by comparing international and domestic operations in three areas: value of assets, sales, and employment (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006). They also conclude that even while using this index results in low levels of internationality, since HEI operations are overwhelmingly based in their country of origin, transnational operations have a major impact on HEIs financially and in the motivation to operate abroad (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006).

Similar to the works of McBurnie and Ziguras (2006), financial returns of exporting degrees abroad emerge in the literature often as implicit commentaries rather than empirical studies. The financial impacts on the home campus are postulated as a new

revenue source for the home campus (Bacow, 2007; Norris, 2010; Vignoli, 2004). Shams and Huisman (2011) identify this home impact as an extra source of income and an opportunity to exploit foreign markets, which Healey (2008) also asserts as an outcome of HEI's having a competitive advantage over competitors in host countries, due to research, faculty and technology. These conclusions would have been more useful if authors had used a supporting case or primary findings to support their views. Jones (2009) identifies an infrequently reported outcome, which is the positive impact on home campus budgets through the transfer of faculty salaries to the overseas location. This implication would have been much more informative if Jones (2009) had included cases in which exporting programmes had subsidised their home campus salaries through overseas operations. In addition to the potential positive economic benefits of exporting degree overseas, authors also cite the high risk associated with expanding overseas due to the large investment and diversion of resources away from the home campus (Jones, 2009; Shams & Huisman, 2011). As a specific form of transnational education, the IBC is cited as a more risky venture, due to the large investment of resources and time needed to establish an overseas presence (Armstrong, 2007). It's not surprising that much of the reporting on the financial impacts of exporting degrees through IBCs are derived primarily from opinion and generalisations, since examination of this element would require access and investigation into the inner workings of the business aspect of the university not normally made public.

Middlehurst et al. (2009) , in their empirical study of 28 universities in the UK, reported that generating additional income from student fees, research grants, and contract income was a motivating element for transnational education. Their work encompasses a common theme regarding the returns on the foreign venture which appear to be closely reported as expectations and motivation, rather than empirically reported outcomes. Another limitation of the writings on the returns of exporting degrees overseas is the failure to examine if the economic gains outweigh the economic costs associated with the delivery of the degree overseas. Similarly, the literature regarding the positive and negative consequences on the home programme and university's reputation are limited to general remarks or expected outcomes in need of empirical examination and study.

Many authors identify the delivery of a degree overseas will be a positive benefit for the exporting HEI's reputation and exposure internationally (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Rumbley & Altbach, 2007; Vignoli, 2004; Ziguras, 2007). Whilst these authors cite the enhanced reputation or the prestige of having an international footprint as positive benefits (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006), they do not specify how reputation or prestige is enhanced. Verbik (2006) however does identify that this exposure benefits the university in connecting to both industry and gaining access to the highest levels of government. These assumptions about the enhancement or benefit to reputation of the exporting programmes resulting from overseas operations would have been greatly enhanced if there had been greater depth in the examination of specific outcomes associated with reputation. It's unclear if the influence on the home programme's reputation resulted in higher rankings, greater student enrolment, or ability to recruit faculty and staff. Authors also report the potential detriments to quality and reputation resulting from overseas delivery of degrees (Rumbley & Altbach, 2007; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). The negative influence on reputation appears to be linked to the consequences or risks of campus closures or lack of quality control at the IBC (Armstrong, 2007). Howe and Martin (1998) suggest the potential loss of control over student entry and teaching quality standards at the IBC will lead to potential damage to the home programme's reputation. High profile closures of branch campuses have been reported as producing international attention to the failure of global campus activities (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Redden, 2013). While it is unclear how specifically the external reputation of a HEI will be impacted by the quality or success of its IBC, there is some suggestion that the internal atmosphere will be impacted. Bacow (2007) suggests that since IBCs are set up at the highest level, faculty may view such ventures cynically as a presidential initiative. Howe and Martin (1998) also indicate that teaching staff may feel pressure trying to support home and abroad programmes while undertaking their research and administrative duties, which may result in negative impacts on quality both home and abroad. Mazzarol and Soutar (1999) and Mazzarol, Soutar, and Seng, (2003) suggest that home faculty and staff movement will need HR recruitment development and support of expatriate staff.

The influx of international students generated from the IBC to complete course work or to enrol in additional degrees is identified as a benefit for the home campus (Norris, 2010). This may be associated within this section as the financial returns from fees and revenue generated from students (Qiang, 2003); however, others have also identified this may come with the need to expend effort to integrate international students into the home campus (Randall, 2008).

This summary section provides a brief synthesis of the benefits and costs described in the literature pertaining to the returns to the home campus participating in transnational education. This section has identified the central positive impacts, such as enhanced prestige and revenue; and also the encumbrances, such as the impacts on faculty work and resource needs to manage the overseas operations. Having defined what is meant by the returns on the venture of exporting a degree abroad, the next section addresses the knowledge that maybe gained from exporting a degree internationally.

4.4.2   Reverse knowledge transfer

A second element used to categorise the experience and learning gained by the home programme delivering their degree overseas in conceptual framework Figure 4-5 is reverse knowledge transfer. This element of influence, overseas expansion on the home campus from a transnational perspective, is similar to the knowledge multinational corporations may gain from their overseas operations in order to expand and manage new ventures in other countries. Therefore, a potential effect of exporting the home campus' institutional knowledge within their academic degree offering is the knowledge gained on how to manage and deliver their degree overseas (Ziguras, 2007). Randall (2008) states that two of the most important lessons learned from the activities of transnational education are the dangers of underestimating the need for strategic planning and a management structure to manage overseas operations. Shanahan and McParlane (2005), reporting on the University of New England in Australia, detail the important knowledge learned regarding the need for proper assessment of risk prior to taking part in transnational education. Walton and Guarisco (2007) reported in their case study findings that a programme involved in transnational education ultimately established a partnership office on the home campus to monitor quality assurance,

disseminate good practices and standardise operations across the university. By participating in transnational education, not only do home programmes learn how to manage risks and maintain quality assurance (Howe & Martin, 1998), they also gain knowledge on how to recruit students and maintain teaching staff from home and abroad to deliver the course content (Howe & Martin, 1998; Ziguras, 2007).

Not unlike their returns on the venture to export academic degrees overseas, what HEIs learn from offering their degrees abroad are limited by a researcher's access to the internal workings of the university. The intent of this thesis is not to determine internal best practices in exporting degrees through branch campuses, but rather determine the impact that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes. Having reviewed how reverse knowledge transfer represents the expertise realised by the home campus from the act of exporting the degree internationally, the next section discusses the internationalising influences of transnational education.

4.4.3   Internationalisation

Elements of internationalisation in HEIs deviate away from the multinational corporation perspective, since MNC indicators are predicated mainly on activities abroad, such as percentage of sales, asset values, and employment compared to home operations. This element, characterised by the term internationalisation, is one of the most frequently suggested influences of exporting degrees overseas on the home programme. The element of internationalisation, as expressed previously in Chapter 2, is often associated similarly with transnational education, whereby as an academic programme is exporting its degree abroad it is therefore also internationalising. Rather than viewing the delivery of a programme's academic degree through an IBC as internationalisation, since it occurs internationally, the element of internationalisation in Figure 4-5 references the international activities and outcomes resulting at home derived from transnational endeavours. As explained earlier, if MNC indicators (value of assets, sales, and employment) were used to measure HEI internationality, the results would certainly be low since HEI operations are overwhelmingly based in their country of origin (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006). The works of Jane Knight (2004a, 2004b) are utilised here to define the element of internationalisation as the influences on the

international or intercultural dimension of the home campus' curriculum, faculty, and students. Whilst indicators of internationalisation at home are well established in the literature mentioned in Chapter 2, it is less clear whether exporting a degree internationally is predominantly an international activity or an element that influences the internationalisation of the home programme's characteristics.

Échevin and Ray (2002) assert that HEIs that have their own institutions abroad are on a fast track to internationalisation since it creates a mix of national and foreigners promoting cultural interpenetration. This assertion would be more convincing if the authors had supported their claim with explicit empirical evidence. However, their assertion exposes what appears to be a prevalent assumption regarding transnational education, which is that by exporting education abroad there will be an internationalising effect for the home programme derived from the interaction with the foreign location. Whilst there are many models for delivery and operation of degree programmes exported to international locations, how each specific model, such as an IBC, impacts internationalisation at home are less defined. The general influences derived from an overseas operation are re-examined next in order to summarise the indicators of internationalisation resulting from transnational ventures.

A common theme in the literature is the international engagement opportunities transnational operations can provide existing students and faculty not available on the home campus (Ziguras, 2007). Whilst many authors identify the enhanced opportunity for faculty and students to experience an international climate through working and studying outside their national culture (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Rumbley & Altbach, 2007), few identify the specific international knowledge and understanding gained from such opportunities.

Overall, there seems to be evidence in the literature to indicate that working at the overseas operation assists faculty and staff in developing an understanding of other cultures and new ways of learning and teaching (Howe & Martin, 1998; Middlehurst et al., 2009; Sangpikul, 2009). While these findings are based on empirical evidence, they would have been more interesting given more discussion of the specific international knowledge gained. It's notable that authors also call for formal reflection on how to

utilise what the faculty and staff have gained through their international experiences and integrate this back at the home campus (Brookes & Becket, 2011; Leask, 2004), since this may not occur innately. There is some evidence to suggest that one of the results of working with the overseas programme is the new view of the course material gained by the faculty and the potential to develop their international knowledge and cultural sensitivity to it (Black, 2004). Whilst scholars have pointed to the benefits to working with colleagues abroad and the potential to internationalise the curriculum and pedagogy (Jordan, 2008; Randall, 2008), there are limited details on how transnational education is internationalising the home campus curriculum or course materials in the classroom.

As mentioned previously, one of the commonly identified returns from overseas delivery of degrees is the recruitment and enrolment of international students at the home campus (Adams, 1998; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006). Randall's (2008) case study reflections provide one of the uncommon pieces of literature that connect the presence of international students from the overseas campus coming to the home campus as having enriched the understanding and insight of the home faculty and forced classroom activities to account for the complexity of the global world. As identified with faculty experiences abroad, Armstrong (2007) advocates that increased global knowledge will not occur automatically from the influx of international students and requires specific programmes to stimulate such outcomes for domestic students.

This thesis investigates a very specific form of transnational education, the international branch campus, that requires substantial resources and commitment (Armstrong, 2007) with unclear understanding of the effects on the home campus. Much of the literature revisited above is derived from all forms of transnational education, as much of the attention on IBCs has been on branding and financial returns (Rumbley & Altbach, 2007). Rumbley and Altbach (2007) are critical of the potential promise of internationalisation linked to branch campuses and suggest that the focus not be solely on the "big shiny manifestations of internationalisation", but on other parts of the phenomenon as well. This thesis endeavours to fill this request by examining the phenomenon of transnational education from the position of the home campus, rather than from the IBC perspective. The conceptual framework of the influence overseas

expansion has on the "Home Campus" from a transnational perspective exhibited below directs this research.

4.5   Conceptual Framework

Internationalisation can often be used as a catchall phrase for international dimensions in HEI, which may not be helpful; therefore, as de Wit (2002) recommends, a conceptual framework (Figure 4-5) is proposed from the literature to go along with the working definition presented earlier.   This guides the work in order to meet the objectives of this research.   These elements, as described above in Section 4.4, consists of primary knowledge transfer.   These are the exported degree programme and the expertise contained within this academic programme, primarily utilised to educate students studying at the branch campus.   This may result in spillover effects, which represent the influences of exporting the degree at the IBC beyond the education received by the student enrolled there.   The potential influences of the IBC on the home campus identified in the literature are categorised by internationalisation, reverse knowledge transfer, and return on foreign venture.   The internationalisation element of Figure 4-5 references the international activities and outcomes resulting at home derived from transnational endeavours.   Reverse knowledge transfer is used to categorise the experience and learning gained by the home programme delivering its degree overseas that may assist in administration of the both operations of the current IBC and in future overseas ventures.   Return on foreign venture denotes the positive returns, such as enhanced prestige and revenue; and the encumbrances, such as the impacts on faculty work and resource needs to manage the overseas operations.   The term 'return on investment' was deliberately not used to avoid interpreting this element from solely a financial perspective.
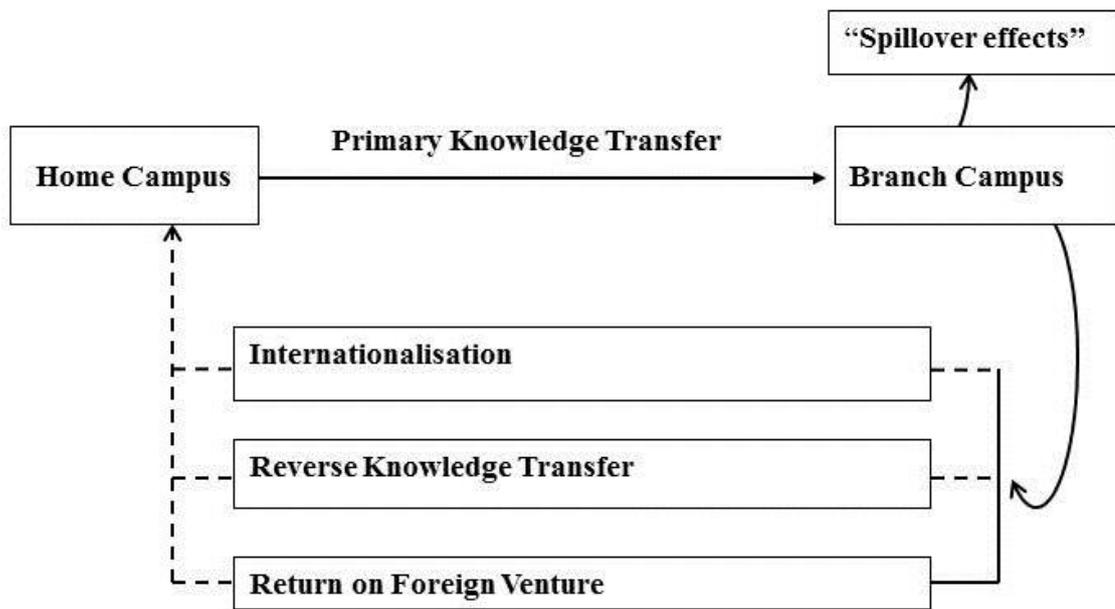
Figure 4-5   **Conceptual Framework of the influence overseas expansion has on the "Home Campus" from a transnational perspective**

4.6   Conclusion

There appears to be a stream of literature related to the indicators of internationalisation in HEIs concerning the aspects of faculty/staff, students, curriculum, and institutional support. What is less clear is how exporting models in transnational education, such as branch campuses, result in any influence on these categorical indicators of internationalisation. Specifically, what types of international or intercultural dimensions occur at the home programme and campus due to delivering a degree internationally? Additionally, while work exists to document internationalisation at the level of the institution and even at the national level, less so has been completed in researching this process at the programme level (Brookes & Becket, 2011).

The next chapter will address the research design and methods to help contribute to the understanding of the role transnational education plays in internationalisation at the programme level and home campus.

SECTION THREE: Research Methodology

Chapter 5:   Methodology

5.1   Introduction

Section 3 of this thesis consists of the details pertaining to the methodological considerations and methods employed in this study. The first part of this section consists of a summation of the research objectives and a reflection on methodological considerations. This is followed by a discussion of the research philosophy that guides this study. The next part describes the techniques and procedures used to collect and analyse primary data. This details the mixed-method approach to generating multiple cases that seek to extend the knowledge regarding exporting education in IBCs. Emphasis is given to the impacts on the home campus and to internationalisation. These specific methods include a quantitative survey and qualitative interviews. The overall analysis of the primary and secondary data collected on the exporting programs was illustrated using the preliminary conceptual model described in Chapter 4 of the literature review.

In order to maintain understanding of the goals of this thesis, this part of the chapter defines what the research is, reflects on the development of the researcher's worldview and describes the methodology pertaining to this worldview and research goal. Thus, to start, Clough and Nutbrown's (2007) reflection on research is appropriate:

> Research is the investigation of an idea, subject or topic for a purpose. It enables the researcher to extend knowledge or explore theory. It offers the opportunity to investigate an area of interest from a particular perspective (Clough & Nutbrown, 2007, p. 4).

The subject or area of interest for this study is the phenomena of delivering academic degree programs in hospitality and tourism at offshore campuses by HEIs located in the United States. The research perspective is the home programme, and the purpose is to explore outcomes associated with offshore campuses, specifically the issue of internationalisation. In the literature, there is very little understanding of what happens to the home campus programme when it delivers its degrees in international settings. Additionally, there is a lack of a well-developed theory to explain the impacts of

delivering degrees at offshore campuses; thus, hypothesis testing is inappropriate at this time. While it might appear that an inductive approach to research is appropriate for this thesis, it will be presented later that the relation of theory for this research is not purely a simple issue of testing or creating theory, but something in-between (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The aim of this research was to determine if the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus.

5.2   Methodological Reflection

It has been suggested that all researchers bring a worldview or paradigm that influences how they plan and carryout research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). An additional point is, whether one knows it or not, researchers bringing a certain way of seeing and interpreting the world to our work. Guba and Lincoln (1994) define a researcher's paradigm not only as their basic belief system and as choice of methods, but also the ontological and epistemological considerations researchers identify as the most appropriate. Mertens (2005) supports such a view and defines paradigms as composing certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct both thinking and action (Mertens, 2005).

Philosophers and researchers have been said to be at "war" for decades over the use of quantitative or qualitative approaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Clough and Nutbrown, 2007). This qualitative–quantitative debate is also known alternatively as the positivist/empiricist and constructivist/phenomenological division (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Clough and Nutbrown, 2007, p. 3). A common argument between the uses of one approach over another is the issue of validity. It is fundamental for a positivist's point of view that controlled settings be the norm, while constructivist are concerned with external validity and emphasise the need to conduct research in a natural setting (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Over time, many researchers realised it is only at its most stringent and pure interpretation that positivism and constructivism are incompatible (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Trochim, 2006). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), the

paradigm or worldview that sees these two approaches of quantitative and qualitative as compatible have been labelled different ways, which some have called pragmatism.

Patton (2002) points out that not all questions are theory based. Understanding concrete and practical questions concerning the world, and how things work within it does not require a scholar to place their research into a theoretical framework (Patton, 2002, p. 136). Patton (2002) points out that he risks being heretical when he proclaims one not necessarily be concerned with theory or vow allegiance to any single epistemological perspective in order to solve real world problems improve programmes and develop policies. Patton (2002) does indicate that students writing dissertations and academic scholars will be concerned with theoretical frameworks and theory generation (Patton, 2002, p. 136). Patton (2002) appears to associate the world of practise to pragmatism.

Personal beliefs may motivate researchers to conduct research in a pragmatic way, researchers seeking to address problems, policies, and practises in education are called to use something stronger than their beliefs alone (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). According to Phillips and Burbules (2000, p. 3), researchers must generate views based on beliefs generated through rigorous inquiry, and that are likely true; in short, they need to seek knowledge. Since tourism studies primarily address the social world, it is important to capture multiple perspectives of the phenomena under study in order to gain the most objective and correct understanding of it. Therefore, in the next sections of this chapter, the topics will focus on the issues surrounding the search for knowledge through a deeper worldview.

5.3   Research Objectives

In the selection of methodology and methods it is important to consider them in the context of the research question and objectives (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). The primary research question of this study is: *How does the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus?* By answering this question and achieving the three objectives below, this research will provide further conceptual understanding regarding the relationship between transnational education, specifically branch campuses, and internationalisation at home. The objectives of this research are:

Objective 1: To critically examine why hospitality and tourism programmes in the United States offer their programmes overseas.

Objective 2: To develop a typology of the impacts that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes.

Objective 3: To critically assess the effect of offering hospitality and tourism programmes overseas has on the internationalisation of the academic programmes located in the United States.

According to the literature, the role of an IBC is almost a prior hypothesis that results in internationalisation for the home campus. However, it appears to be more conjectural based on the different uses of the word internationalisation. Additionally, it also appears from the literature that delivering programmes at IBCs may be seen as a programme strategy to internationalise HEIs. Again, this is conjecture in the literature, since there is limited research supporting internationalisation on the home campus as a principal goal or outcome for delivering degrees in IBCs.

There appears to be a gap in the literature, since there is little evidence of an empirical hypothesis or deductive theory pointing to a predictive element that delivering *programmes at IBCs* results in the specific outcome of internationalisation. However, by addressing this gap, the current study may help decision-makers understand the impact of delivering degrees overseas on the home programme. Therefore, the overall purpose is to explore the issue of internationalisation on the home campus hospitality programme in the context of delivering degrees on international campuses.

5.4   Methodological Organisation

Conducting research and seeking knowledge is influenced by a variety of factors, and this section will address the key areas that place the methodology and methods of this research in context. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), these are values, theory, ontology, epistemology, and practical considerations. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2008) propose the research "onion" as a way forward in addressing the research process.
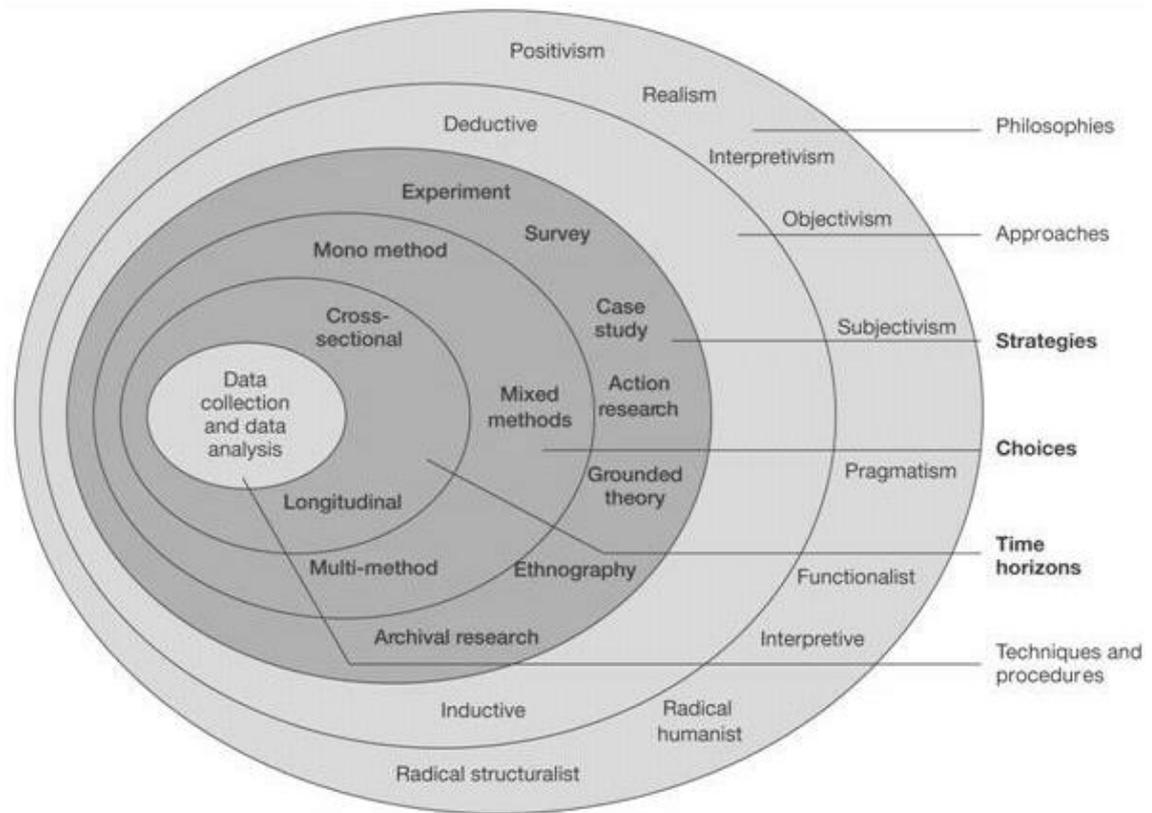
Figure 5-4   **Research 'onion'. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2008, p. 138)**

This figure is used to organise and present the remaining parts of this chapter regarding theory and practical considerations.

5.4.1   Research Philosophy

Benton and Craib (2001) argue to be more systematic in social science investigations; one must draw upon the discipline of philosophy in order to answer the proposed study questions. The philosophy that guides this study is presented in this section to explain the epistemological and ontological assumptions that shape the methodological approach to the research question.

Traditionally for philosophers, the twin terms of methodology are ontology and epistemology (Clough & Nutbrown, 2007, p. 33). For philosophers, these are specialist, complex, and profound fields of enquiry (Clough & Nutbrown, 2007, p. 33). Discussed next are the meanings associated with ontology and epistemology.

5.4.2   Ontological and Epistemological Meanings

Ontology is a branch of philosophy that studies the nature of reality or being (Saunders et al., 2008, p. 597). Clough and Nutbrown (2007) define ontology as a theory of what exists and how it exists (p. 33). Crotty (2010) defines ontology as the study of being and concerned with 'what is', and with the nature of existence and reality. Ontology, in a broad sense, is the theory of social existence (Bryman & Bell, 2007). This is what is said to exist when articulating the nature and structure of the world (Wand & Weber, 1993). "In short, ontology describes our view (whether claims or assumptions) on the nature of reality, and specifically, is this an objective reality that really exists, or only a subjective reality, created in our minds" (Flowers, 2009, p. 1).

The debates in ontological perspectives usually do not concern philosophical ontology, but rather regional or special ontology (Benton & Craib, 2001). This is to say that the debate is discipline specific. So, the question moves from what kinds of things exist in the world to what objects make up IBCs and what are their effects?" Each discipline has its own ontology, its own way of listing, describing and classifying the range of elements, relations or processes. Benton and Craib (2001) claim this range of elements is what provides one with knowledge. The discipline of internationalisation in higher education utilises the elements of students, faculty and curriculum as the primary basis of knowledge. Each of these elements within the discipline of internationalisation has its own established processes and relations accepted as forming an integration of an international dimension into the function of the HEIs.

Turning to the other aspect of methodology, epistemology is a branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and what is acceptable knowledge in a field of study (Saunders et al., 2008, p. 591). It is how we come to know something (Trochim, 2006, p. 18) or how we come to know what exists in the world (Clough & Nutbrown, 2007, p. 33). Thus, epistemology focuses on the appropriate ways to examine the research question and identifies what the limits of such examinations are. Hatch and Cuncliffe (2006), as cited in Flowers (2009, p. 2), summarise epistemology as knowing how you can know, asking how knowledge is generated, and determining how should reality be represented or described. To know if an international dimension has been integrated in the elements of students, faculty and curriculum; accepted attributes and measures have

emerged from an extensive body of literature to identify the existence of internationalisation.

Ontological issues and epistemological issues tend to merge and often are hard to separate (Crotty, 2010, p. 10; Flowers, 2009, p. 2). For example, realism (an ontological concept asserting that realities exist outside the mind) often is taken to imply objectivism (an epistemological notion asserting that meaning exists in objects independently of any consciousness).

It appears that the question of ontological and epistemological perspective stems from both the researcher's beliefs and the nature of the research question. As an academic in the field of hospitality and tourism management, the author's research perspective is grounded in the social sciences. The literature regarding the phenomena of internationalisation and branch campuses supports the utilisation of mixed methods to gain knowledge about what exists.

5.4.3 Research Paradigms

From basic ontological and epistemological philosophies, many general and specific research paradigms have developed. These research paradigms help articulate the researcher's basic set of beliefs that guides his actions in conducting their inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Many researchers and philosophers attempt to divide research paradigms into a few main positions. Alvesson and Sköldberg (2009) break the philosophy of science into the following "overarching" views: positivism and post-positivism, social constructionism, and critical realism. Bryman and Bell (2007) describe three broad research paradigms as the basis for most ontological and epistemological philosophies: positivism, interpretivism, and realism. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2008) identify four broad research philosophies in management research: positivism, realism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. Guba and Lincoln (1994) identify four basic beliefs as positivism, post positivism, critical theory, and constructivism.

These scholars demonstrate that there are many beliefs on how to summarise the philosophy of research in order to categorise the researcher's main ontological, epistemological, and axiological views. There is not a clear set of three, four, or five main research paradigms, since the research philosophy is consistently evolving and is

dependent on the writer's own views and use of language. Thus, when one chooses to identify and label his/her research paradigm, they are not necessarily choosing a clearly bound philosophy, but rather one that shares and overlaps with many others, now and in the future.

One aspect of identifying a set of core research paradigms is the agreement on positivism. All attempts to identify a set of basic, common, or short list of research approaches always begin with positivism on one end. Positivism is articulated clearly as an ontology that views reality as external, objective, and independent of the researcher. It also views the senses as the only acceptable and credible way to observe the phenomena of study (Saunders et al., 2008). The research is said to be completely objective and value free. This research paradigm is often traditionally associated with experiments and hypothesis testing, relying heavily on quantitative data. Positivism gathers facts in order to generate and test laws associated with the phenomena (Bryman & Bell, 2007). These findings are said to be true (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This paradigm is often associated with both the natural sciences and closed systems.

Social sciences like tourism, management and education are open systems that do not allow for complete observation of all elements of the phenomena under study. Additionally, since social science themes like these involve human actors, both as subjects and researcher, they can lead to the misinterpretation of data. Thus, a common paradigm situated on the opposite end of the spectrum to positivism is interpretivism. Here, the focus is on the subjective meaning of social action (Bryman & Bell, 2007). A major goal of this research is to understand the action of exporting educational degree programmes. What is acceptable knowledge in interpretivism is the subjective meaning that actors give to the situation of the phenomena under study. The research in this case is said to be value bound, meaning the researcher becomes part of what is being studied, since they are part of the research and cannot separate their views and values completely from the phenomena under study (Schwandt, 1994). Interpretivism views the researcher as one who seeks to understand the subjective meaning they and others give to what is being studied (Saunders et al., 2008).

To reiterate, it appears that the question of ontological and epistemological perspectives stem from both the researcher's beliefs and the nature of the research question. Whilst this sounds reasonable, it does not provide a practical road map ending at a research paradigm that will guide one's work. Therefore, one could start by looking at and studying all of the research paradigms articulated over time and choose one that fits. Alternatively, one could articulate their views of research first, and then match it to an existing paradigm. Still, maybe the nature of the research question and phenomena under study may provide some direction. In the end, taking all three of these paths has led to an understanding that one does not necessarily choose and remain in one research paradigm. Rather, the research question and focus will drive the direction in some way.

For example, if one was trying to assess the reliability and performance of a touchscreen check-in monitor before installing it in an airport, one would likely lean toward positivism to generate an experiment that would test the touchscreen's reliability and sensitivity. However, if one was trying to understand why passengers were avoiding self-check-in monitors and instead choosing to wait in line for an employee, interpretivism would help articulate why. In this case, passengers may be acting on their subjective interpretation of their situation at the airport counter rather than some universal observable truth. If research philosophy were to only be viewed from a strict positivist perspective, then social sciences research, like tourism, would be impossible to conduct, since not all things are able to be directly viewed by the researcher. From an interpretivist position, if everything is purely socially constructed, then generating acceptable knowledge needed to answer questions and provide understanding would be subjective and actor based.

When considering the question of what occurs at the home campus resulting from the delivery of degrees at branch campuses, there are real outcomes and impacts associated with branch campuses, whether observed or not. There also may be socially constructed views of what these impacts are to the home campus; however, these may not represent the best and most accurate understanding of the impacts of branch campuses. Here, the goal is to try to understand the impacts of branch campuses through both observable results and through the meanings faculty give to them. This logic leads to three terms that often are interchanged or overlapping in the philosophical research literature; these

are realism, critical realism and postpositivist. Realism views reality as knowledge that exists independently of human thought and awareness of it (Saunders et al., 2008). However, both our social conditioning and the imperfection of observations and measurements influence how we come to understand this knowledge. This being the case, one is called to be critical and form a postpositivist view of reality.

5.4.4 Postpositivism and Critical Realism

The use of the term postpositivism varies broadly in the literature. In some cases, it is a very small departure from positivism. For example, Willis (2007) states postpositivism is the search for universals and is a theory-first model, by which one develops a specific hypothesis to be tested. In other cases, it represents a complete rejection of positivism (Trochim, 2006). Postpositivism is the rejection that empirical observation and measurement is the sole method of getting to the truth and understanding of the world (Trochim, 2006). It appears, as scientists, philosophers, and researchers in the social sciences look to and develop many non-positivist approaches, some common themes have emerged in postpositivism.

One well-established theme of postpositivism is that research is based on the goal of revising our understanding of knowledge in order to truly understand the reality of the studied phenomena (Barron, 2007). The goal is not to create a universal truth that helps predict outcomes or to generate generalisable findings. Postpositivist researchers aim to produce recommendations that assist in the general improvement of an issue rather than develop definitive results (Barron, 2007, p. 7) As postpositivism progresses away from positivism, it has also opened up to multiple methods. A second theme in postpositivism is the importance of matching the methods to the study problem, and the use of different methods helps contribute to understanding the question (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). A form of postpositivism that advocates that the goal of research is to gain the most accurate view of the reality of a phenomena is critical realism. This theme of postpositivism argues that one must be critical and open to revisions of findings, since the researcher and those under study influence these findings (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Postpositivist principles guide this research because they align with

the objectives of this study which emphasise the meaning and the creation of new knowledge in the study of internationalisation and transnational education.

5.4.5   Critical Realism

Critical realism is often viewed as both a form and emergent paradigm of postpositivism having ontological and epistemological specifics unto itself (Trochim, 2006; Zachariadis, Scott, & Barrett, 2010).   Critical realism can be considered both an epistemology and ontology (Miller & Tsang, 2010).   It makes assertions about the way the real world can be known, as well as about the nature of social reality (Oltmann, 2009, p. 58).   "On one hand, it posits a realist ontology, that is, the existence of a world independent of the researcher's knowledge of it (Miller & Tsang, 2010, p. 144).   Critical realism also holds to a fallibilist epistemology in which the researcher's knowledge of the world is socially produced (Miller & Tsang, 2010, p. 144).   Besides this realist ontology, critical realism also attributes causal powers to human reason and social structures while also rejecting relativism in social inquiries (Yeung, 1997).

It is said that from a critical realist view, the goal of research is not to identify universal truths (positivism) or to capture the lived experiences or beliefs of social actors (interpretism); rather it is to develop deeper levels of explanation and understanding (McEvoy & Richards, 2006, p. 69).   This goal aligns well with the purpose of this research, which is to understand and explain the impacts of delivering degree programmes at IBCs on the hospitality & tourism degree programmes located on the home campus.

Contemporary critical realism is said to originate from the philosophical work of the English philosopher Roy Bhaskar (1978) and is a relatively new concept evolving since the 1970's (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009; Burnett, 2007).   While it has been gaining international attention, it is still considered a British tradition that is intended to provide an alternative to positivist and interpretive views (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009, p. 40; McEvoy & Richards, 2006).   As the philosopher credited with coining the term critical realism (Oltmann, 2009), Bhaskar's work has been labelled as dense and very complex at times (Burnett, 2007; Scambler, 2002).

Critical realists assert that there is a world independent of human beings and that there are deep structures in the world that can be represented by scientific theories (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). The core view of critical realism is that there is a real world independent of human knowledge of it (Ayers, 2011). Unlike positivism, which seeks to find predictable patterns and generalise results, critical realism seeks to discover the underlying causes that generate empirical phenomena (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009, p. 40). According to Alvesson and Sköldberg (2009), critical realism bridges quantitative and qualitative methodologies and there is no tendency to favour one methodology over another among researchers who subscribe to this philosophy.

The fact that social science research involves the study of phenomena existing as open systems is an important point for critical realism. That being, open systems have many mechanisms and interactions at play at any given time and thus can never be exactly replicated. This is an important point to remember when considering the generalisability of findings (Burnett, 2007).

A major criticism of critical realism is difficult to put into practise. Yeung (1997) argues that critical realism is a philosophy in search of a method. Critical realism has much to say about the philosophy of the social sciences, but leaves the theoretical and methodological work to each specific social science (Yeung, 1997, p. 53). A related critique of critical realism and the importance of philosophy of science in general is put forth by Kemp (2005). He argues it is wrong to use philosophical arguments and frameworks as a way to justify and guide social research and it does not guarantee the successful path it claims to inspire. According to Kemp (2005), the critical realist ontology takes on a regulatory role for the researcher prior to any empirical research being done and this is viewed as unwarranted.

5.5 Research Approach

Research is often divided between testing theory and the creation or development of theory (Sirakaya-Turk, Uysal, Vaske, & Hammit, 2011). A deductive research approach is associated with positivism and focuses on developing a hypothesis from theory and testing it. Inductive research design collects data first and generates theory from the analysis of this data (Bryman & Bell, 2007). There appears to be two schools of thought

regarding the selection of these approaches. One is that research design must be either deductive or inductive. That is, theory is either going to guide hypothesis testing or theory is going to be created from data analysis. The other school of thought is less rigid and supports combining the approaches to understand better the meaning of the research phenomena under study (Straub, Boudreau, & Gefen, 2004).

From the deductive perspective, enough literature and research exist to operationalise concepts around phenomena of internationalisation and transnational education, but not necessarily sufficient to connect and test casual relationships between variables resulting in a universal predictive theory. While this study is guided by operational concepts found in the literature, it requires an inductive approach to develop deeper levels of explanation and understanding. Therefore determining the outcomes of IBCs and their role in internationalisation requires both a deductive and inductive approach

After reviewing the ontological and epistemological issues in this chapter one can see they often tend to merge together and are difficult to separate (Crotty, 2010; Flowers, 2009). Thus, the epistemological stance guiding this study arrives out of the tradition of postpositivism. This postpositivist epistemology regards the acquisition of knowledge as a process acquired through both deduction and induction (Straub et al., 2004). This is built on the ontological concept of critical realism, that there is a real world out there independent of our perception of it and that the objective of science is to try and understand it (Straub et al., 2004).

This combination of research approaches leads to the next two sections of this chapter, which address both the relevance of a case strategy and mixed methods as appropriate research design and methods.

5.6   Research Design – Case Strategy

From a research design perspective, a multiple case approach was chosen as an appropriate strategy for its value as an application in exploratory research. Selective sample cases are chosen because researchers are interested in insight, discovery, and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing (Merriam, 2009). Since the goal of this research is not intended to test a set of hypotheses nor seek to create a predictive model

generalised to the population, but rather to investigate the phenomenon of transnational education, a case strategy is an appropriate approach. This strategy was selected, as Yin (2009) points out, for its advantages in addressing "how" questions for contemporary events and trends over which the researcher has little control. The prime research question of this study: *"How does the delivery of degree programmes at offshore campuses contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students and curriculum on the home campus"* is both a "how" question and a phenomenon in which the researcher cannot control for all of the variables as in an experimental design.

The main study questions that will guide this study are: why do hospitality and tourism programmes export their degrees overseas?; how the overseas expansion impacts the home programme?; and, does offering a degree overseas influence internationalisation activities at home? Answering these questions will explain how exporting hospitality and tourism education internationally influences academic elements of the degree programme in the areas of faculty, students, and curriculum.

This strategy was selected since the intention of the research is to understand how offering degrees overseas provides approaches to internationalisation at the home campus, specifically the academic programme offering its degree abroad.

When considering the researcher's purpose for studying small sample of cases, Stake (1994) identifies an important distinction concerning types of case strategy taken. The first is an intrinsic case study. The purpose of this type of case study approach is to gain a better understanding of a particular case. The primary purpose is not to understand a specific phenomenon or generate theory, but rather the interest is the particular case (Stake, 1994). This appears to be the main purpose of much of the methodological literature for choosing a case study approach. A second type of case study is what Stake (1994) terms an instrumental case study. Here the case is secondary; what is important is how the case helps in providing understanding and knowledge of an external interest. In this research, the cases are chosen because they are all involved in delivering their degree internationally. The interest is not so much the case schools chosen, but rather how the phenomena of exporting the degree impacts the home campus, specifically in the area of internationalisation. Here, the cases are selected to advance the

understanding of the role branch campuses play in internationalisation on the home campus not to advance the knowledge of the overall US based hospitality and tourism programmes themselves.

While multiple case studies are very often completed in order to compare cases (Bryman & Bell, 2007), the primary intent here is not the comparison of cases. The use of a collection of three cases is intended rather to lead to an understanding that a single case may not be able to provide on its own. Yin (2009) points out that when using a multiple case approach, researchers will often encounter the question relating to how many cases are necessary or sufficient for the study. He notes that because sampling logic should not be used, the typical criteria regarding sampling size are irrelevant (Yin, 2009). In this study, the point of multiple cases is not to study a representative sample of cases, but rather to gain richer understanding of the impacts of branch campuses on the home programme.

According to Yin (2009), the development of the research design stage in a case strategy is a difficult stage since there are no comprehensive catalogues of research designs to guide the researcher. However, it is suggested that the research plan identify what questions to study, the unit of analysis, data collection, and how to analyse the results.

Faculty and staff were chosen as the primary source of data since they would have first-hand experience working on the home campus and have interaction with the programme's curriculum and students. The unit of analysis is the academic programme represented by the faculty and staff who would best understand the overall workings of their academic programme on the home campus. As defined in Chapter 1, the "academic programme" is the specific field of study in hospitality and/or tourism made up of the curriculum (core, required and elective courses) that leads to a degree. This smaller unit within the university organisation is sometimes also referred to as a department, school, or college.

Case strategies can be associated with both theory generation and theory testing (Bryman & Bell, 2007). According to Yin (2009), theory development serves as a "blue print" for a case strategy, whether the case is trying to develop or test a theory. Based on the literature, the following model (Figure 4-5), Conceptual model of the influence

overseas expansion has on the "Home Campus" from a transnational perspective) in Chapter 2 is proposed as a conceptual framework for the effects expansion overseas has on the home programme, and will serve to guide the study design. These backward influences appear to fall into the following areas: internationalisation reverses knowledge transfer, and return on foreign venture. This theoretical framework will be used for analytic generalisation in which to organise empirical results of this study.

Generalisability of findings, or rather external validity, seems to be one of the greatest concerns or challenges to case research (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The argument here is delineated between generalising the findings of the research to a larger population of cases and to some broader theory (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Yin, 2009). In this study, the intent of the study is not to generate findings that will apply to a population of HEIs involved in exporting their degree internationally, but rather to make a contribution to the literature on branch campuses and internationalisation.

Construct validity is another important design issue pertaining to study quality. This is the extent to which measurement questions actually measure the presence of the constructs intended to evaluate (Saunders et al., 2008). Yin (2009) articulates construct validity as identifying correct operational measures for the concepts being studied. To avoid problems with subjectively choosing which data to collect it is suggested that operational measures be used from the literature that match the concepts of the construct (Yin, 2009).

To address construct validity, multiple sources of evidence were collected surrounding an operational set of measures from the literature on the influences of overseas expansion on the exporting entity. The operational measures associated with the literature (presented in section two of this study) on higher education internationalisation, at the level of the academic programme, are divided into three areas. These are associated with the main components of an academic programme: students, faculty/staff, and curriculum. Accepted measures of internationalisation in the area of students are: numbers of international students, student exchanges, study abroad, overseas work and internships, and short-term study tours. Internationalisation regarding faculty and staff within the department are catalogued by the following

approaches: recruiting international staff, international exchanges, teaching abroad, international scholarship, joint research with foreign researchers, international visiting lecturers, ability and motivation to work with foreign students, hosting international conferences, and coordinating other joint international projects. Internationalising the curriculum is gauged by adding international contexts to courses, such as international projects, cases studies, modules, and course outcomes. At the curricular level, offering international hospitality & tourism courses, foreign languages, and study abroad courses, are measures of internationalisation.

Since internationalisation is only one potential effect of exporting a degree abroad, other potential outcomes must be operationalised. Drawing from the literature presented in Section 2, reverse knowledge transfer is an additional concept reflected in gained operational understanding on how to export the educational unit in new international markets, as a result of the current international exporting of the degree. This would consist of knowledge gained in order to open up campuses in other international locations.

Another non-internationalising outcome of exporting degrees is the return on the foreign venture. These are the concepts relating to both the positive and negative impacts on the home programme as a result of exporting the degree internationally. Thus, the measures of return on foreign ventures could be new revenue, prestige from operating abroad, and efficiencies. Additional measures of the foreign venture are financing the overseas programme, availability and interest of staff to work abroad, administering academic programme and quality control, and the redirection of student resources away from the home programme. The concepts in the literature identified above will be used to create the operational measures for data collection and composition of findings.

Internal validity is concerned with whether or not a causal relationship between two or more variables is deemed acceptable (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In this thesis, the cases studied are exploratory and are not primary about generating and validating casual relationships. Here the goal is to conduct a small sample study to explore the impacts of exporting a degree on the home campus from a critical realist perspective.

In order to minimise errors and biases, as many steps as possible were documented for the data collection phases of this research. To insure the reliability of the data collection, a study protocol and database were used. The details of data collection protocols are presented in chapter 6 covering techniques and procedures for data collection and analysis.

5.7   Choices of Methods (Mixed Methods)

The term mixed methods research is defined as the integration of quantitative and qualitative research within the same study (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Due to the complex nature of social phenomena, critical realism encourages mixed method research designs (Mingers, 2006). The central premise of mixed methods research is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). While quantitative and qualitative methods are seen and discussed traditionally as two ends of the spectrum, mixed methods are becoming more accepted as a third approach (Creswell, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003).

While there exists philosophical rationale for the use of a mix method approach, it is often the specific research intentions that support this choice of methods. A common justification for choosing to collect both quantitative and qualitative data is triangulation. The intent often is to use data from different collection methods and sources to assist in checking or corroborating research findings. Traditionally, mixed methods and methodological triangulation were often associated as the same design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Mixed methods have moved beyond the purpose of mere triangulation to a distinct research approach in the social sciences (Creswell, 2003b).

Another common reason for mixed methods is to use one method to facilitate the development of the other. For example, qualitative results are used to develop quantitative questions for the next stage of data collection (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Neither triangulation nor the development of questions are the main purpose for mixed methods in this thesis, but rather to better understand an understudied phenomenon. Bryman and Bell (2007) refer to this as filling in the gaps. Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) terms this "expansion"; meaning the purpose of choosing mixed

methods is to expand the breadth and scope of the project. Creswell and Clark (2007) suggest that quantitative and qualitative data need to be mixed together in order to form a more complete picture of the research question than they do when standing alone.

When choosing a mixed method approach, Creswell (2003a) suggests that four decisions must be considered. The first is the implementation sequence of the quantitative and qualitative data collection. In this thesis, a quantitative online survey was used first to uncover the connection between the branch campus and the home campus from the perspective of faculty and staff. The next stage involved phone interviews to capture the experiences of faculty and staff in order to better interpret the findings of the online survey.

The next decision is whether to prioritise the quantitative or qualitative data. According to Creswell (2003a), quantitative and qualitative data may be treated equally, or prioritisation can be defined in several ways. One way is the use of an inductive or deductive framework related to theory to prioritise the data collected. From the deductive perspective, enough literature and research exist to operationalise concepts around the phenomenon internationalisation, but not necessarily enough to connect and test casual relationships between variables resulting in a universal predictive theory. Thus, an inductive framework based on the literature is used to guide the data collection with the goal of producing a deductive framework based on the interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data. While this may appear to be treating both types of data equally, the priority in this research is skewed toward the qualitative interviews since they are not bound by fixed responses and are able to uncover explanations not available in the quantitative data.

Deciding when to analyse and integrate data collected by both quantitative and qualitative data is another important part of the mixed methods strategy (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Additionally, Creswell (2003a) suggests that the final factor one must consider is whether or not a theoretical framework will guide the entire design. Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003) identify six major mixed method strategies to depict these decision criteria when designing research strategy. This study reflects closely what Creswell (2003a) defines as a sequential explanatory strategy. That

is, quantitative data collection and analysis is completed first, followed by qualitative data collection and analysis to assist in explaining and interpreting the quantitative results. This design ends with interpretation of the entire investigation (see Figure 5-7 below).
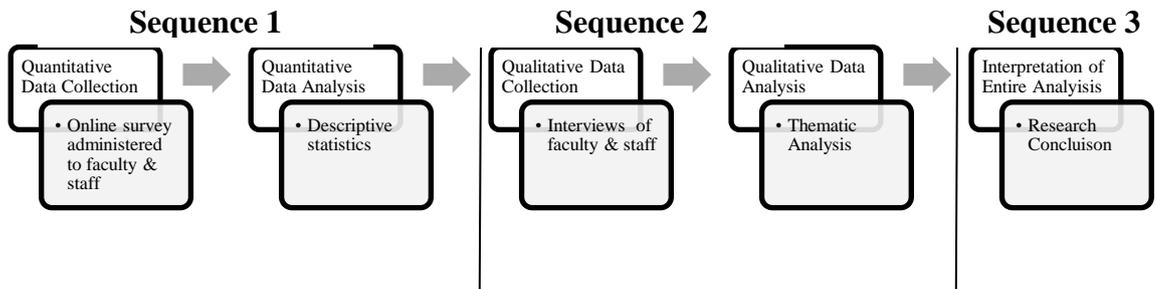
Figure 5-7   Sequential Explanatory Strategy

The next chapter covers the techniques and procedures for data collection and analysis for both the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Chapter 6:   Methods

This chapter describes the methods used to identify and select the academic programmes involved in transnational education specifically delivering their degree through their own IBC. The chapter also presents the procedures for administering an online survey instrument to faculty and staff at the three case programmes included in this study. The system used for selecting participants and conducting interviews is also described in this chapter.

6.1   Techniques and procedures for data collection and analysis

The primary data needed to answer the principal question of this study (How does the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus?) requires first an investigation into which HEIs in the U.S. deliver their degrees overseas. Once HEIs are identified, an investigation into the nature of the relationship between the home campus and the IBC is addressed. The first step in the research process is both necessary and difficult. It is difficult in the United States to identify which programmes

offer their degrees in IBCs, because HEI are accredited by state and regional institutions and, therefore, the U.S. does not have a national clearinghouse which documents programmes involved in transnational education.

The American Council on Education, which is the leading HEI association in the United States, is a major source of secondary data pertaining to branch campuses and internationalisation. However, this tends to focus on the Institutional-level issues and much less so on individual degree programmes, such as Hospitality & Tourism specifically. HEIs themselves have little reason to document publically the specifics of their IBCs beyond that they have them. The public qualities they communicate are often focused on attracting current and potential students. Secondary data generally surfaces when programmes are launched overseas, students graduate, or when programmes run into financial scrutiny. Therefore, the identification of the HEI cases, which offer their degrees at an overseas campus required not just simple access to secondary data sources, but also involved primary data collection.

This first phase required a concurrent review of the research literature, secondary documents, and school websites, along with the administration of an online survey to identify potential case schools. From this phase, specific questions regarding how the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus could then be explored using mixed methods. The following sections provide the specifics of these methods.

6.1.1   Ethical Considerations

Approval from the Business School Research and Knowledge Transfer Ethics and Governance Committee was sought and secured prior to primary data collection. This approval contained the process for addressing security and protection of data, avoiding any possibility of harm to participants, and lastly, informed consent. While more detail will be provided in the discussion of data collection phases, an overview of ethical procedures is summarised here.

All individual and institutional data collected was stored on the researcher's computer which was password protected both at home and work offices. Email communication

between researcher and participants was also secured on a password protected Microsoft Outlook account.

At the stage of primary data collection for each case, participants were informed that the intent of the data collection was purely academic and for completion of degree requirements for a PhD programme. Participants were also informed in writing that no mention of respondents or the university by name would be used without prior written approval. All participants were asked to voluntarily take part in the study and it was communicated to them in writing that they can choose to decline their participation at any stage of data collection. During interviews, permission to record the participant was asked prior to recording them. Recordings did not contain names of participants and files were saved using case codes. Results and findings were also presented using codes for participants.

6.1.2   Phase One – Identifying academic programmes with an IBC

Since the researcher is based in the United States, it was suggested that the cases be selected from U.S.-based academic programmes within the special field of study in hospitality and tourism management. Therefore, it was necessary to identify what programme in the United States exported its degree internationally.

Internationalisation of hospitality and tourism education is seen as necessary in order to prepare students to work in a globalised industry (Brookes & Becket, 2011). While there are many reasons why internationalising education is important, Teichler (2009) states that in order to internationalise education, international border-crossing activities must be integrated with activities offered at the home campus. In line with this thinking, cases were sought that contained hospitality and tourism programmes that offered their degree internationally, in order to explore how this activity internationalised education on the home campus.

Specific criterial for selecting academic programmes with a branch campus were utilised in order to identify an established IBC. The IBC must be operated by the awarding institution, and provide degrees taught face-to-face, supported by traditional academic infrastructure, such as a library, labs, classrooms, and office space. The IBC must deliver the home programme's degree on a physical campus facility where the

student enrolled there can complete their degree. The IBC must have had at least one graduating class or been operating for at least five years. These criteria were used to avoid selecting an IBC that was newly formed.

6.1.2.1 Identifying hospitality and tourism programmes delivering their degree at an IBC

In order to identify the programmes in the United States that deliver their hospitality and tourism degree internationally, primary data collection was necessary. Through online reviews, exploration of academic associations specialising in hospitality and tourism higher education, and a review of the literature, there did not appear to be a clearinghouse which documented the HEI delivering their hospitality and tourism degrees internationally. Thus, the next step was to identify a listing of the HEI in the U.S. that offer a degree in hospitality and or tourism management to determine if they offered their degree internationally.

The U.S. HEI structure is not a national system and relies on accrediting by regional organisations, thus, there does not exist an independent comprehensive ranking for Hospitality and Tourism programmes. In order to identify and survey a complete list of all programmes in the U.S., or a subset of top ranked schools, required both exploring partial rankings and educational organisations (Severt, Tesone, Bottorff, & Carpenter, 2009). Much of the rankings of schools are based on either online lists used to generate marketing for online degrees, or educational services. It is not clear if these rankings, such as the TheBestSchools.org are based on any empirical research. The only empirical research used to rank hospitality and tourism schools are based solely on single-issue topics, such as volume of scholarly publications (Severt et al., 2009) or ranking based on self-reporting by programmes (Brizek & Khan, 2002). Therefore, instead of attempting to collect data from only a subset of "ranked" hospitality and tourism programmes, a larger sample of schools was sought to gain a comprehensive understanding of which programmes were involved in transnational education.

As there does not seem to be a definitive national list of the hospitality and tourism management programmes in the United States, it is unclear how many programmes make up the population of programmes. However, many websites designed to help students choose a programme often refer to a population of schools in the range of 200

plus, and articles pertaining to rankings often describe sample sizes in the 100-150 range. In exploring professional associations that hospitality and tourism schools belong to, one organisation appears to consist of a large sample of member schools. Based on their database, the International Council on Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Education (ICHRIE) appears to have membership of approximately 204 HEIs in the United States (ICHRIE, 2015). ICHRIE was established in 1946 and is a non-profit professional organisation focusing on hospitality and tourism management degrees. ICHRIE has six federations representing regions in North America, Europe and Asia-Pacific. Since the number of members of HEIs was in a similar range as to the number of schools purportedly to exist in total in the United States, ICHRIE members were chosen as the sample group to determine which programmes were offering their degree internationally.

6.1.2.2 Surveying hospitality and tourism management programmes to determine study sample

An email request was made of an ICHRIE board member inquiring how to secure a list of member schools. A contact was provided for the ICHRIE Research & Education Manager and an email was sent requesting information on the procedure for administering an online survey to ICHRIE members. An online survey (see Appendix B) was produced using the online survey tool SurveyMonkey. This was sent on behalf of the researcher by ICHRIE to members asking them to complete the survey within a two-week period.

Potential respondents were told that the short survey was being used to explore the activity in which U.S.-based Hospitality and Tourism Management Programmes deliver their degree programmes in different countries outside the United States. The survey contained 12 questions and respondents were quickly delineated upfront with a simple question: Does your institution offer its Hospitality and Tourism Management degree outside the U.S.? If they answered "Yes", specific questions were asked about the characteristics of their overseas programme(s). Forty-nine responses were received in the first six days identifying four potential cases. To increase the potential case pool, emails were re-sent, but this time to HEIs directly, instead of through the ICHRIE sample. Findings from the online survey conducted through ICHRIE were cross-

checked with individual hospitality and tourism programme websites. If the respondent stated that his/her programme was either offered or not offered outside the United States, the programme's website and the literature was reviewed to cross-check his/her response for accuracy.

When programmes' websites contained evidence pertaining to the delivery of their degree overseas, the information was checked to see if the programme had been identified in the ICHRIE survey by a respondent from that university. If the programme had not been represented in the survey, the survey was sent to that HEI directly. This resulted in one more participant in the survey. For this specific programme, there appears to have been activity in delivering its degree overseas as per their website, but upon receiving a completed survey, the respondent answered that the institution did not deliver its degree overseas. Upon further review of the literature, this response was likely due to the fact that its dual degree programme was funded through a four-year grant that had expired in 2012.

6.1.2.3   Analysis of US hospitality and tourism management programmes

Fifty responses were collected which resulted in five HEI in the United States identifying themselves as delivering their Hospitality and Tourism Management Programmes in different countries outside the United States. Of the five universities that stated through the online survey that they do offer their Hospitality and Tourism Management degree outside the U.S., only one case was identified that met the selection criteria. Again, cases for this study were selected based on evidence the students at the overseas location could complete their degree entirely at the overseas location, that the IBC had at least one graduating class or been operating for at least five years.

From a combination of reviewing programme websites, searching the literature, and administering an online survey, with the goal of identifying a set of cases, two broad findings were made relative to selecting cases. The first is that many schools have strong relationships with foreign hospitality programmes outside the United States, and that these take the form of exchange programmes and study abroad programmes. In some cases, more than one university works to deliver a degree across two campuses, but not the entire degree. The second major finding is that while the U.S. has well over

100 hospitality and tourism degree programmes, very few seem to have international locations where they deliver their degree programme overseas.

The case programmes chosen for this study were generated from the online survey of ICHRIE member schools and a review of programme websites and literature. The three programmes are as follows: Case 1 - Florida International University (FIU) Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management; Case 2 - Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation; and Case 3 - University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV) William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration Innovation. All three cases met selection criteria at the time of this study.

6.1.3   Phase Two – Online survey of faculty and staff at case programmes

Based on a review of the programme websites and of the print and electronic documents, understanding the relationship between the programme (faculty, students, and curriculum) in the United States and its IBC was incomplete. Thus, an online survey was administered to the U.S.-based faculty and staff created from the literature regarding indicators of internationalisation. The survey had four main aims. The first was to identify if the respondent had any personal connection to the branch campus. The second aim was to determine how the branch campus was viewed by the respondent and if it had any influence on his/her work on the home campus. The third aim was to gain insight into the primary reason the respondent believed his/her programme was offering its degree overseas. The fourth aim was to identify impacts on the programme and the individual resulting from the existence of the branch campus programme. Faculty and staff were chosen as the unit of analysis, since they would have first-hand experience working on the home campus and have interaction with the programme's curriculum and students. Since there was limited public information about the specific connection between the home campus and the branch campus programme, a quantitative survey was an effective and efficient method for addressing a wide range of topics.

6.1.3.1   Quantitative Data Collection from faculty and staff at FIU, RIT and UNLV

An email was sent to each hospitality and tourism programme, requesting permission to send the online survey to its faculty and staff. A member of the leadership (Department Chair, Assistant Dean, Associate Dean) in each programme confirmed permission and agreed that his/her name could be used in the introduction to the online survey stating that the study had received his/her support to reach out to the faculty and staff. Initially, in two of the three cases, the programme contact suggested that s/he identify and select individuals who were most familiar about the overseas programme to complete the survey. Both individuals were spoken to over-the-phone in order to explain that the study was not primarily about understanding the overseas campus, but rather understanding how this activity was affecting the home programme in the United States. Since the intent is to investigate the phenomenon of transnational education on the programme level of the exporting institution, all faculty and staff at the home campus were of interest, regardless of their familiarity with the foreign campus. An email with an online survey link was sent to all members of the home programme as listed on its programme website. Programme websites were chosen as the means by which to identify the total population of faculty and staff at each case school since it represented an official public list presented by the programmes. It also provided faculty and staff work emails that allowed the researcher to include all members of the academic programme in the request to participate in the study.

Individual email addresses were taken from the programme website for all potential participants. Each participant received an individual email addressed to him/her personally, requesting his/her participation in the study. The email message introduced the researcher, the member of their programme who supported the distribution of the survey, the primary research question, and that the results would not be presented using the name of the respondent without permission. The recipients were asked to complete the survey within a three-week window.

In Case One (FIU), potential respondents identified on the programme's website were sent an email requesting their participation in the study. This represented at the time a total programme population of 34. In case two (RIT), the total programme population of 21 received the online survey request, while in case three (UNLV), the total population of 49 received a request to participate in the study. At the end of the first

request for participation in the study, the response rates were 13/34 (38 per cent); 12/21 (57 per cent); and 13/49 (27 per cent) respectively.

A second request was sent with a short introduction referring to the previous request and informing recipients that they did not have to be working with or at the branch campus identified in the survey to take part in the study. This was to avoid the possibility of recipients assuming that the study was solely about the branch campus and thus choosing not to participate in the study because they were based on the U.S. home campus. In Case One, one person replied that s/he was too new to participate, while another had retired and declined to participate. In the end, two new responses were received from Case One, bringing the final response to 15/34 or 44 per cent. In case two, nine more responses were received after the second request was made, bringing the response total to 21/21 or 100 per cent. Case Three totalled an additional eleven responses after the second request, bringing the response total to 24/49 or 49 per cent.

6.1.3.2   Data Analysis

The online survey consisted of 13 sections containing closed-ended and open-ended questions (Appendix B). The survey had four main aims. The first was to identify if the respondent had any personal connection to the branch campus. Questions were used to determine if the respondent had ever been to the branch campus, the reason for his/her visit, and the duration of the visit. The second aim was to determine how the branch campus was viewed by the respondent and if it had any influence on his/her work on the home campus. These two questions were addressed using open-ended questions. The third aim was to gain insight into the primary reason the respondent believed his/her programme was offering its degree overseas. A set of fixed responses were provided that were generated from the literature, along with the option to specify "other".

The fourth aim was to identify impacts on the programme and the individual resulting from the existence of the branch campus programme. Fourteen possible effects of branch campuses were identified from the literature on internationalisation and presented as statements with 'Yes', 'No', or 'Unsure' as response choices. Respondents were asked if any of these existed at the home programme because of the IBC. These variables covered issues related to faculty, curriculum, research, and student

opportunities. Respondents were also asked to identify individual impacts resulting from the existence of the overseas programme. This contained eight variables generated from the literature on internationalisation and were presented as statements with 'Yes', 'No', or 'Unsure' as response choices. These variables covered the influence on scholarship activities, interest in international issues, and effect on courses. Lastly, respondents were also asked to include his/her name if s/he would be willing to take part in the interview phase of the research.

The online survey results were analysed using SurveyMonkey analytics and content analysis. For each case, results were delineated between those who had been to the branch campus and those who had not. While the sample size is not sufficient for correlation testing, this was done to gain a different perspective of the findings. Quantitative results were also analysed by individual academic programmes and by combining the total responses of all faculty and staff participants.

6.1.4 Phase Three – Interviews of faculty and staff at FIU, RIT and UNLV

Faculty and staff on the home campus were chosen for phone interviews, because they would most likely have first-hand knowledge of the workings of their academic programmes. Faculty and staff teach the courses, interact with students, conduct research, and are generally aware of the programme's day-to-day activities. Unlike students, who are not permanent members of the academic programme and may not be aware of the day-to-day operations, faculty and staff members are supported in the literature as an appropriate representative source who understands the issues pertaining to internationalisation at the department level.

6.1.4.1 Sampling

Interview participants were identified first through the online quantitative survey in Phase Two, in which online survey participants were asked if they would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview. Those stating "Yes" and providing contact information were contacted first in this phase. Each potential interviewee was sent a personally-addressed email (see Appendix G) reintroducing the study, and explaining that this was both voluntary and a confidential endeavour. Requests to take part in the

survey were conducted from mid-July to mid-September 2013. This helped capture both those participants available during the summer months and those who were unable to be reached until school resumed in September. The request to participate was sent over a separate two-day period for each case, since each request also contained a set of interview dates for the respondent to choose from. By staggering the request to participate, the researcher avoiding having respondents reply with availability that had already been assigned to another participant.

Potential participants were selected from a list of all faculty and staff contained on their academic programme website. A personally-addressed email was sent to all faculty identified on the school's website, as was the procedure used in the online quantitative survey. Sampling by case is presented next.

In Case One (FIU), 31 emails were sent representing all members of its academic programme as listed on its website on July 23, 2013. This initial set of requests resulted in seven individuals agreeing to participate in the study. Additionally, two came back as out-of-office and three declined to participate. One declined because s/he felt s/he was too new to the university, and another declined because s/he said s/he did not have much insight into the topic. This person, however, suggested another individual who had already agreed to participate. Follow-up was made on the two out-of-office replies with a second email request; this resulted in one 'No Reply' and one declining to participate. A follow-up email was sent to individuals who had not replied, but these did not generate any more replies. During the interview process, one more respondent was suggested, and by sending a request to this individual explaining that his/her colleague had recommended him/her, it resulted in one additional interview. This brought the total interviews to eight.

For Case Two (RIT), 11 emails were sent to members of the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation. The school has been divided into two departments: the department of Service Systems and the department of Hospitality and Tourism Management. These requests to participate represented all the faculty of the department of Hospitality and Tourism Management. It is this department's degree programme that is being delivered at the overseas campus. All but one member of the department

participated in the survey, due to summer travel. An additional respondent from the department of Service Systems was included based on a recommendation from a member of the department of Hospitality and Tourism Management. This brought the total interviews to 11.

In Case Three (UNLV), 46 emails were sent representing all members of the academic programme as listed on its website on July 15, 2013. This initial set of requests resulted in eight individuals agreeing to participate in the study. Three came back as 'out-of-office', one as 'retired', and two declined to participate. Again, one decline was due to s/he was too new to answer questions, and the other would not be able to participate because s/he had *an aversion to phones and used them as little as possible.* One of the original respondents who agreed to participate missed his/her agreed upon interview time. After attempting to reschedule through multiple email requests, the participant never responded and thus was not interviewed.

A follow-up email was sent to individuals who had not replied to the first email request, but these did not generate any more interviews. Three additional emails were sent to one individual at intervals over the summer, as s/he was recommended as someone to contact by three different participants. These emails did not generate a reply. During the interview process, one more respondent was suggested and the recommending participant sent an email directly to the individual explaining the study and putting him/her in contact with the researcher directly through email. This resulted in one additional interview. This brought the total interviews to eight. In all three cases, no emails were returned as 'bad' or 'undeliverable'.

6.1.4.2   Data Collection Faculty / Staff Interviews

In order to prepare for the interview data collection phase, the interview process was pre-tested with two faculty members from case two. This pilot effort was completed to achieve three specific aims. The first was to check the feasibility of using the telephone as a means for interviewing, and the digital recorder as a method for documenting interviews. Next, it was important to get a sense of the length and timing of the interview. Lastly, it was imperative to consider the questions and how they were received and understood.

In each case, both participants were called from a landline phone at a predetermined time and telephone number based on an email request to participate. An interview guide was used to administer a semi-structured interview. This contained 11 questions with additional subtopic questions (see Appendix H) to obtain an understanding of the impacts the delivery of the degree overseas has had on the home programme, students, overseas location, and the respondent.

Upon answering the phone, the researcher reconfirmed that the interview time was still convenient and reintroduced the purpose and topic of the study. After the participant was informed that no mention of his/her name would be used without prior written consent, s/he was asked if the conversation could be recorded with a digital recorder for analysis purposes. Upon receiving a "Yes" reply, the participant was informed that s/he would be placed on speakerphone to record the conversation. After being placed on speakerphone, a sound check was done by asking if the participant could still hear and understand the researcher.

Upon completion of the first interview, the digital recording was played back to check the recording quality. During the second interview, a rare occurrence ended the interview unexpectedly. There was a power outage in the office in which the interview was taking place, causing the phone system to go out. The participant was called back using a mobile phone and the interview continued. In all future phone interviews, the participant was called using a landline phone with a mobile phone available as backup.

The two pilot surveys ranged in length from 28 minutes (2196 words) to 40 minutes (4437 words). Upon completion of digital recording, a copy of the recording was saved on a separate computer and catalogued using Sound Organizer 1.1.1.12162 software provided with the Sony digital recorder. The file on the computer was file protected and categorised by programme and respondent name. The file on the recorder was numerically coded. The two numerically coded files were transcribed word-for-word by a professional closed captionist. It was also confirmed with the professional captionist that recording the interviews over speakerphone did achieve appropriate sound quality for transcribing. At no time did the transcriber have access to the names of the respondents.

Regarding the questions used in the pilot interviews, two things were revealed. The first was that sub question 7 (below) needed clarification on what was meant by international issues.

Have you been more willing to work on international issues as a result of this programme overseas? Give some examples of how.

This sub question was changed to read:

Do you feel you have more or less interest to get involved with campus committees, clubs or organisations that are internationally focused as a result of this programme overseas? Explain.

Lastly, it was discovered during the pilot interviews that one cannot always expect to follow the interview guide in a question-by-question order, since it would not make for a natural approach to the interview (Seidman, 2006). For example, when responses to earlier questions may have already answered future questions, it would not be appropriate to ask the future question verbatim without consideration for the previous answers. So, on the occasion when one response also answered a future topic, it was used as an opportunity to either reconfirm the meaning with the respondent, or ask for more specifics. This issue is in line with Bryman and Bell's (2003) discussion of semi-structured interviews. They express that while the interview begins with a specific interview guide, questions may not necessarily follow the same order every time, and when stimulated through the interview dialogue, questions not included in the guide may be asked. In each interview, generally all questions are asked with relatively the same wording (Bryman & Bell, 2003).

The final interview process began by sending an email (see Appendix G) to faculty and staff requesting participation in the study and informing participants that it would take approximately 20-30 minutes. Potential participants were also informed that they were not required to participate and that all findings would be presented anonymously. A set of dates to choose from was included in the email in order to schedule a time and date for the interview. Those confirming by email were called on their selected date and time. All interviews were arranged and confirmed in advance by email prior to a call.

Once on the phone, participants were reintroduced to the study (see script in Appendix H) and then asked if they would be willing to be audio recorded. All participants agreed to be recorded. Once the interview was completed, the digital file of the recording was saved to a permanent hard drive and the recording was transcribed word-for-word by a professional closed captionist. Recordings were not identifiable by participant's name, but rather based on folder and file number, so as to protect the identity of the participants.

Interviews ranged in length from approximately 13 minutes to 63 minutes with an average of 26 minutes per interview. 27 interviews were completed in total; 8 from Case One (FIU), 11 from Case Two (RIT), and 8 from Case Three (UNLV). The question of how many interviews is adequate for a study is often reflected in the issue of sufficiency and saturation (Seidman, 2006). Sufficient for what purpose is an appropriate question to consider. A common consideration is whether one is trying to reflect a representative sample. In this study, the interviews are not intended to be representative, but rather provide understanding and depth to the results from the quantitative findings of the online survey.

Saturation refers to when the interviews are no longer providing any new information. While interviews did begin to report similar information as they went on, interviews ceased primarily due to practical considerations. As Seidman (2006) conveys, the criteria of sufficiency and saturation are useful, but practical constraints like time and money also play a role, especially in doctoral research. Bryman and Bell (2003) suggest that when considering how many interviews to conduct, it is also appropriate to consult the expectation of one's research supervisor. In this study, the researcher's advisement team suggested that based on the academic programmes, 7-10 interviews would be sufficient. As described in the sampling section, repeated requests for interviews were conducted from mid-July to mid-September in order to reach the maximum number of potential participants, and to reach individuals who participants had recommended. After two months of requests, it was now a practical matter of time to move past requesting interviews and begin greater data analysis.

6.1.4.3   Interview Analysis

There are many ways to go about analysing interview data, but some common approaches guide this analysis. The goal of data analysis is making sense of what people have said in the interviews, and this often involves three broad processes. The processes are related to coding, condensation, and interpretation (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Merriam, 2009). Coding is the process by which the interview data will be broken into segments and given a name for later retrieval and analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Coding is a process that starts off with broadly noting what the significant statements and concepts are, and revising through multiple reviews of the transcripts (Seidman, 2006). Coding is also a requirement of computer-aided analysis (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In this study, all interviews were transcribed from digital recordings and organised using NVIVO 10. This allowed the researcher to organise, review, and code the interview text. Prior to organising the data in NVIVO 10, the transcriptions were checked for accuracy by re-listening to and comparing the data. Additionally, the transcripts were printed out and manually reviewed by question to code the meaning of the responses prior to NVIVO 10 application as recommended by Seidman (2006). See coding journal in Appendix I.

Condensing or reducing the interview data involves expressing the answers provided by interviewees into shorter statements (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). After reading through the interview responses, the data was condensed to shorter statements focusing on what the respondent expressed in his/her reply. From here, themes were generated, both from transcripts and when applicable from the literature. These themes were then compared against the purpose of the study, which was to explain how exporting hospitality and tourism education internationally directly and indirectly influences the faculty, students, and curriculum elements of their programmes.

The last step in the data analysis is interpreting the data. Seidman (2006) specifically notes his preference instead for the phrase *sharing the data.* The question now, from strictly an interview perspective, is to determine what was learned from conducting the interviews, studying the transcripts, coding them, and identifying themes. Since the interviews are part of a greater set of data collected from both secondary sources and a quantitative survey, a case study is used to *share the data* (Merriam, 2009). Here, the

interviews and their meanings will be used in a narrative to help explain and add to the findings of the online survey and secondary case documents in answering the objectives of this research:

Objective 1: To critically examine why hospitality and tourism programmes in the United States offer their programmes overseas.

Objective 2: To develop a typology of the impacts that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes.

Objective 3: To critically assess the effect that offering hospitality and tourism programmes overseas has on the internationalisation of the academic programmes located in the United States.

The next section presents a brief description of the HEIs and their hospitality and tourism management programmes.

6.2   Study Sample Higher Education Institutions

The following sections provide a overview of the sample cases of hospitality and tourism programmes that deliver their degree programmes on an international branch campus utilised in this study.

6.2.1   Florida International University

The Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management at Florida International University (FIU) is located at FIU's North Miami Biscayne Bay Campus. FIU is one of the State University System of Florida's 12 campuses and one of the largest public universities in the United States with over 54,000 students (Florida International University, 2015a). FIU was founded in 1965 and began classes in 1972. The School of Hospitality and Tourism Management became The Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management in 2012 in honour of the Chaplin Family, one of the founders of Southern Wine & Spirits of America (Florida International University, 2012).

The Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management is located on an 80 hectare (200 acre) campus with more than 2,000 undergraduate and graduate students (Florida

International University, 2015b). The Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management is one of the campus's 23 colleges and schools with its own dean. A Bachelor of Science (B.S.) and a Master of Science (M.S.) degree are offered in Hospitality Management. The undergraduate hospitality management degree offers six majors: Beverage Management, Culinary Management, Event Management, Hotel/Lodging Management, Restaurant/Foodservice Management, and Travel & Tourism Management. The M.S. in Hospitality Management offers concentrations in real estate, executive education, and thesis research. A Ph.D. in Business Administration Specialization in Hospitality Management is also offered through FIU (Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management, 2015a).

The school's facilities are extensive and contain several industry-sponsored labs and classrooms. These facilities include a 2,880 square-meter conference centre, 140-seat Wine Spectator Restaurant Management Laboratory, Southern Wine & Spirits Beverage Management Center, Brew Science Laboratory, and the Carnival Student Center (Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management, 2015b)). The Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management publishes the peer-reviewed journal, *The Hospitality Review*. This journal was originally founded as the FIU Hospitality Review in 1983 and has over 30 volumes to-date (Hospitality Review, 2015).

In 2003, FIU signed an agreement with the Chinese government, specifically the Tianjin University of Commerce, to open a hospitality management school in the province of Tianjin by 2006 (Kraft, 2003). This agreement was reported to have created FIU's largest foreign programme (Kraft, 2003). The municipality of Tianjin is about 70 miles southeast of Beijing with a population of more than 11 million, and is the largest coastal city in northern China (Lam, 2009). The original investment by the Chinese government was reported as £16,74 million ($25 million), of which FIU projected £13,39 million ($20 million) for construction, and £3,35 million ($5 million) for administration of the project and recruitment of staff and students (Valentine, 2004). Part of the strategy in opening the branch campus in China involved recruiting and training Chinese faculty at the Miami campus by enroling them in the M.S. in hospitality management (Polansky, 2006).

FIU officially opened its school in China in the fall of 2006 (Polansky, 2006). The campus was initially reported as being a £33,48 million ($50 million) investment by the Chinese government, consisting of a 41,806 square metre (450,000 square foot) campus facility on 32 hectares (80 acres) of land in Tianjin, China with a 20-story dormitory building (Polansky, 2006). At a conference presentation in 2007, FIU's vice-president of academic affairs stated that the investment by the Chinese government would have been worth £66,95 million ($100 million) if constructed in Miami (Wartzok, 2007). From this point on, the campus in China is often reported as a £66,95 million ($100 million) investment by the Chinese government (FIU Office of Governmental Relations, 2013).

During its second year of operation in 2007, an exchange of 12 students from Miami travelled to China to study, while 15 Chinese students came to study at the home campus in the United States (Marshall, 2008). FIU reported its first graduating class of 29 students from their campus in China in May, 2008, and that Marriott had donated a £1,138 million ($1.7 million) gift to the school (Hanks, 2008). Later in the fall of 2008, FIU's Hospitality School in China was named the Marriott Tianjin China Program. The programme received a reported total gift of £1,808 million ($2.7 million) from The J. Willard and Alice S. Marriott Foundation (Haro, 2010). This included state matching funds from Florida to establish The Marriott Tianjin China Program Endowment. The earnings from the endowment are allocated for student recruitment and scholarships, and to support faculty recruitment and travel between China and the United States (Haro, 2010). In 2010, the programme in China helped create and launch the inaugural China Wine & Food Festival, similar to the South Beach Wine & Food Festival associated with FIU's programme in Miami (Aguila, 2010).

In 2012, the dean of The Chaplin School of Hospitality and Tourism Management reported that they had reached their capacity of more than 1,000 students in the China programme (Tannenbaum, 2012). The China branch campus facility is reported to be able to handle a total enrolment of at least 2,000 students, but it appears that the capacity is controlled in the agreement with the Chinese government which capped individual year totals at 250 (Mangrum, 2013, p. 1). At the end of 2013, FIU extended its

agreement with the Chinese Ministry of Education to offer its degree at the branch campus through 2020 (Miami Today, 2013).

6.2.2   Rochester Institute of Technology

Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) is a private, non-profit university with more than 18,000 full- and part-time students, located in Rochester, New York. RIT was founded in 1829 as a combination of two educational institutions: Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute. The Athenaeum was an association "for the purpose of cultivating and promoting literature, science and the arts," and Mechanics Institute's goal was to provide technical training for skilled workers (RIT, 2004). RIT is located in Rochester, the third largest city in New York State, on a 526 hectare (1300 acre) campus near Lake Ontario. RIT began as a downtown city campus in 1829, and in 1968 moved to its current suburban campus.

RIT has a history of emphasising career education and experiential learning, and in 1910, the food administration and home economics programmes were established to help educate women. This programme evolved from one of the originals, "Practice House", a cooking school providing students with practise and experience in the kitchen and dining room (RIT College of Applied Science and Technology, 2014). In the early 1900's, the programme focused on school food service and quantity cooking, and in 1939, the first male student was enrolled in the programme. In 1942, the food administration programme became a department and in 1952, "Henry's Room" is a student-run restaurant and teaching lab was opened. The Department of food administration, hotel, and tourist industries management formed in 1974. The programme was part of RIT's business school until 1983, at which time the school moved to its current college, College of Applied Science and Technology (RIT College of Applied Science and Technology, 2014). Between 1974 and 1999, new concentrations and degrees were added to the food administration focus. These included: hotel management, travel management, convention and meeting management, and in 1991, the name changed to the School of Food, Hotel and Travel Management. In 2001, a local hotelier, EJ DelMonte, donated the Rochester Marriott Thruway Hotel to RIT (Saffran, 2001). This donation was reported as a £9.47 million ($14 million gift

which resulted in the creation of the RIT Inn and Conference Center. The RIT Inn serves as a full-service hotel, student housing, and an internship site for hospitality management students (Saffran, 2001).

In 2002, RIT partnered with Constellation Brands, Wegmans Food Markets, and the New York Wine and Grape Foundation to create the New York Wine and Culinary Center. This is a not-for-profit visitor and education centre consisting of approximately 1,850 square metres (20,000 square feet), and was built at a cost of approximately £5,10 million ($7.5 million) (Lagiewski & Domoy, 2006). The centre was built as an educational and experiential gateway for New York State's wine, food and culinary industries (Lagiewski & Domoy, 2006).

The current Hospitality and Tourism Management department at RIT is located on the 4th floor of the George Eastman Building and was renovated in 2009 (RIT, 2009). This facility contains a 70-seat restaurant, two food labs, a computer lab, and one classroom. In 2010, the school was renamed the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation with two departments: Hospitality and Tourism Management, and the Department of Service Systems (RIT, 2014b). The department offers a Bachelor of Science in Hospitality Management with concentrations in Food and Beverage Management, International Food Marketing and Distribution, Entertainment and Event Management, and International Hotel and Resort Management. Additionally, the department offers a Master's of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management. The present size of the hospitality programme is approximately 200 students at the Rochester campus (RIT, 2014a). The development of a branch campus in Croatia began in 1994 with an inquiry by Croatian government officials seeking to privatise education and rebuild the tourism sector (Downs, 2007; Gardner, 2003). The branch campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia opened in 1997 as a partnership among RIT, the Croatian Ministry of Science and Technology, and the Polytechnic of Dubrovnik (International Educator, 2013). RIT renovated and shared space with the Polytechnic of Dubrovnik until 2005, when RIT moved into its own building donated by the Croatian government (Downs, 2007; Gardner, 2003). The branch campus was named the American College of Management and Technology (ACMT) and when it opened it offered a two-year programme.

Students graduating from the IBC have the option to receive two diplomas: an American degree from RIT that is fully accredited by the New York Middle States Accrediting Association for Higher Education, and a Croatian degree from ACMT that is recognised by the Croatian Ministry of Science and Technology (Lagiewski & Lagiewski, 2006). Graduates of the two-year programme receive an Associate in Applied Science Degree (Ekonomist Managementa). Graduates of the four-year programme receive a Bachelor of Science Degree (Diplomirani Ekonomist Managementa). When ACMT opened in 1997, it was the only dually-accredited degree programme in Croatia, and had an enrolment of 175 students, which was reported as the maximum capacity of the facility at the time (Downs, 2007; news&events, 1997).

In 1999, the programme in Dubrovnik graduated its first class with 107 students earning a two-year associate degree in hotel and resort management (RIT, 1999a). The same year, RIT's President signed an agreement with the Croatian government to expand the programme by offering a four-year Bachelor of Science degree (RIT, 1999a). Currently, the branch campus in Dubrovnik offers a Bachelor of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management; the curriculum is overseen by the programme at RIT.

After about a decade of operations, the enrolment level reached approximately 650 students; more than three-times the size of the programme in Rochester, New York (Downs, 2007). In the fall of 2005, ACMT moved into its own 1,300m2 building which contains 30 rooms, including faculty offices, a library, nine classrooms, and three computer labs containing 120 computers (Lagiewski, 2011). The investment in building and furnishings totalled £1,105 million ($1.65 million) with half of the funding coming from ACMT, and the other half from a loan from RIT (Lagiewski & Lagiewski, 2006).

In 2011, RIT opened a second campus in Zagreb, the capital of the Republic of Croatia, offering two undergraduate programmes of study: Information Technology and International Business (Finnerty, 2013). RIT changed the name of its campuses in Croatia from the American College of Management and Technology to RIT Croatia in 2013 (Finnerty, 2014). RIT Croatia's enrolment is now approximately 542 students; 285 students in Zagreb and 257 in Dubrovnik (Finnerty, 2013).

6.2.3   University of Nevada, Las Vegas

The William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV) was founded in 1967 through local industry funding of the Nevada Resort Association (Bosselman, 1996).   UNLV itself was founded in 1957 as an extension programme of the University of Nevada, Reno, as the Southern Regional Division of the University of Nevada, known as Nevada Southern (Moehring, 2007) and is a state institution.   In 1969, Nevada Southern officially became the University of Nevada, Las Vegas.   Currently, UNLV has approximately 28,000 students enrolled on its 142 hectare (350 acre) campus in the United States (UNLV Web Communications, 2014a).   The Department of Hotel Administration became the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration in 1989 after the Holiday Corporation and the widow of William Harrah (founder of Harrah's Hotel and Casinos) donated £3,382 million ($5 million) to the college (UNLV, 2007).   The college provides students the ability to major in hospitality management and has a history of attracting financial support from industry.   In addition to funding received to start the programme in 1967 and to name the programme in 1989, UNLV received several million dollars to create its own facilities which opened as Beam Hall in 1983 (Moehring, 2007).   This donation provided the home for the hospitality programme for most of its history, and consists of a 10,684 square metre (115,000 square foot) facility (UNLV Web Communications, 2014d).   This building contains faculty and staff offices, classrooms, food labs, a casino lab, and a 150-seat dining room (Bosselman, 1996).

In 1993, UNLV opened the International Gaming Institute to provide gaming research and training, which resulted in the creation of UNLV's peer-reviewed Gaming Research and Review Journal in 1994 (UNLV Web Communications, 2014b; UNLV Web Communications, 2014c).   In 2000, UNLV opened the Stan Fulton Building which became the new location for UNLV's International Gaming Institute. This building was funded by a gift of £4,151 million ($6.2 million) from Stan Fulton, the former chairman of Anchor Gaming. The 3,251.6 square metre (35,000 square foot) building contains a casino laboratory, gaming library, conference centre, computer lab, classrooms, faculty and staff offices, and distance education technology (UNLV Media Relations, 2000). In 2007, the university received its largest gift when Harrah's Foundation donated £20,086

million ($30 million) to the hotel school to fund the proposed INNovation Village project (O'Donnell, 2007). This project consisted of a proposed academic and research facility with a hotel and convention centre, and a 9,290.3 square metre (100,000 square foot) academic building with food and nutrition science labs, teaching kitchens, a gaming laboratory, and dedicated interdisciplinary research space (O'Donnell, 2007). This project failed to launch after UNLV and the State's budgets were impacted by the financial crisis in 2008 (Benston, 2011). Currently, it appears that this project has been re-launched as the new home for the hotel school under the name Hospitality Hall. Konami Gaming Corporation donated £1,674 million ($2.5 million) to the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration in 2014 to get the proposed £ 33,476 million ($50 million) Hospitality Hall facility started (Whitaker, 2014).

Presently, William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration offers a Bachelor of Science degree in Hospitality Management with concentrations in Gaming Management, Meetings and Events, Restaurant Management, and Professional Golf Management. Masters in Hospitality Management and Hotel Management are also offered, along with a Doctor of Philosophy in Hospitality Administration. Student enrolment in the hotel college is approximately 2,900 undergraduate students and 200 graduate students (UNLV Web Communications, 2014e)

In August 2006, the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration opened UNLV's first international campus in Singapore utilizing a loan of £1,473 million ($2.2 million) from the Singaporean government called UNLV Singapore (Hsu, 2008). The campus facility consists of 1,115m² (12,000 square foot) of space located on the 10th and 11th floors of the National Library of Singapore, with no dedicated student housing (Asian Correspondent, 2010; Grey, 2006).

Singapore has a population of about 5.5 million people located on a land area of approximately 697 km^2 which is slightly more than 3.5 times the size of Washington, DC (Central Intelligence Agency, 2014). The IBC in Singapore offers two degrees: a Bachelor of Science in Hotel Administration and an Executive Master of Hospitality Administration (Tavares, 2009). In June 2009, first graduating class of 34 undergraduates and seven master degrees in hospitality administration were conferred at

the IBC in Singapore (Levesque, 2009). Student enrolled in the degree programme in Singapore had the ability to graduate in three years instead of the traditional four at the home campus which was sometimes referred to as the fast track programme (Campbell-Ouchida, 2008).

UNLV's branch campus was part of a policy effort by the Singaporean government to increase the number of HEI's and students in Singapore. This effort was known as the Global Schoolhouse Initiative launched in 2002 by the government of Singapore (Singh, 2012). To establish the IBC, UNLV created UNLV Singapore Ltd, which reduced the direct risk of the branch campus financially on the home campus (Hsu, 2008). UNLV also received financial support to open its campus in Singapore which through the government's Economic Development Board, was provided £1,528 million ($2.3 million) to support the first three years of the branch campus (Sayre, 2006; Yung & Sharma, 2013). UNLV Singapore operated as a stand-alone programme with no foreign partner until 2010 when it entered into an agreement with Singapore Institute of Technology, an educational entity created by the government in 2009 (Redden, 2013).

During the period of start-up of the branch campus the home programme dean stated; "The idea was not to start a campus in Singapore. The idea was to extend our university campus where our students are located. We have many, many international students in Las Vegas and most of them are coming from Asia" (Sayre, 2006, p. 1). The Singapore branch campus was also reported as being the first step in in the university's effort to create a network of branch campuses when discussions began to open another hospitality branch campus in Dubai in 2009 (Las Vegas Sun, 2009). Additionally, the dean of the home programme described that if they were to have a programme in Las Vegas, Singapore, Dubai and possibly Latin America, that students could spend a year in each campus to earn their degree (Tavares, 2009). To date there is no evidence that a programme opened in Latin America and the discussion for a programme in Dubai ended after the financial crisis in 2008.

In the first years of operation it appears generating adequate enrolment may have been a challenge for UNLV Singapore. Due to the competition from professional training schools in hospitality, UNLV Singapore developed a student ambassador programme to

educate students and parents about UNLV at education fairs throughout Asia (Levesque, 2008). By mid-2009, UNLV's branch campus in Singapore was also designated a Continuing Education and Training Center by the Singapore Workforce Development Agency to attract students seeking to develop their skills qualifications in hospitality (UNLV, 2009) In 2009 the 7th annual Asia Pacific Council on Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE) conference was held at UNLV's Singapore Campus (Levesque, 2009).

In March 2010, UNLV partnered with Singapore Institute of Technology (SIT) to increase access for undergraduate Singaporean students and create guaranteed enrolment (Yung & Sharma, 2013). This resulted in the largest incoming cohort of 280 students since the IBC opened with 34 students in 2006 (Jordan, 2011). SIT was established in 2009 by the Ministry of Education to provide education opportunities for Singapore citizens and permanent residents to study in industry focused degree programmes at a highly subsidised tuition rate (UNLV, 2010, p.38). The agreement with SIT guaranteed enrolment to the IBC by connecting students from five polytechnic institutions in Singapore to the UNLV Singapore hospitality programme. These students transferred in with credits towards a degree at the IBC and UNLV receives approximately $33,000 per Singaporean student from the government through SIT (Redden, 2013).

In 2010, the Singapore government approved the Harrah Hotel College as one of 5 programmes to receive student scholarships to fund students to study back at the Nevada campus in the United States (Bawany, 2010). The first undergraduate students from the Singapore campus to officially study at the home campus in Las Vegas was a group of twelve students enrolled in a special events management class in May, 2010 (Levesque, 2010). By 2012 over 200 students from the IBC were coming to the home campus in Las Vegas in the summer to participate in a three week study programme (UNLV, 2012, p. 35).

Late in 2012, it was announced that the last intake of students co-enrolled in SIT and UNLV would occur in 2013, since the agreement to operate the branch campus programme would expire at the end of 2015 (Linstrom, 2012). According to UNLV's

President Dr. Neal A. Smatresk, by the end of 2015, the branch campus in Singapore will have graduated approximately 900 students with a Bachelor of Science Degree from the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration (Formoso, 2013). In the spring of 2013, the home campus begins a study abroad programme providing scholarships for students studying at the Las Vegas Campus to study for a semester in Singapore (UNLV Web Communications, 2013).

In 2013 UNLV proposes opening a campus in Macau after it shuts down the campus in Singapore 2015 (Formoso, 2013). It is reported that UNLV Singapore breaks even financially while paying back their loan, and that their total $5 million dollar loan will be repaid to Singapore government in full by 2015 (Formoso, 2013). While UNLV Singapore reports attracting plenty of students, the themes surrounding the announced closing of UNLV Singapore appear to be the reliance on government subsidies for student tuition and UNLV's interest in requiring IBC students spend more time on the home campus (Foo, 2013). Of the eight universities partnering with SIT, UNLV is reported as charging one of the highest tuition fees and receiving over 70 per cent in subsidies from the government (Barnwell, 2013). One of the related issues is the high cost of operating the branch campus in Singapore. Because of the exchange rate with the US dollar and the inflation in Singapore, it was reported that it's become to expensive and unsustainable to attract U.S. faculty to teach at the branch campus (Yung & Sharma, 2013).

In an attempt to renew their agreement with SIT, UNLV Singapore proposed doubling the tuition fee, increasing the length of the degree and increasing the amount of time students would spend on the home campus in Las Vegas (Yung & Sharma, 2013). This proposal did not progress to a formal agreement and UNLV appears to be re-evaluating what presence they will have in Asia after 2015.

The next section presents the analysis and findings of transnational education in U.S.-based Hospitality and Tourism Management Programmes.

SECTION FOUR: Analysis and Findings

Section Four of this thesis composes the analysis and findings of the methods illustrated in Section Three to evaluate the primary research question and three objectives. Chapter 7 commences with the discussion of the findings collected from secondary documents and primary data to acquire an understanding as to why programmes offer their degree overseas. Chapter 8 continues with the typology of impacts of overseas expansion on the exporting programme.

Chapter 7:   Why academic programmes offer their degree overseas

7.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of findings from the study's survey instrument, interviews, and secondary documents as they pertain to why hospitality and tourism degrees choose to deliver their degrees through an IBC. From primary data collected during research sampling, it became apparent that hospitality and tourism programmes in the United States are more likely to deliver their degree internationally either through articulation agreements with foreign HEIs, or through short-term projects and online delivery methods. Therefore, these findings provide insight into a less-common area of transnational education, the delivery of degrees at a foreign branch campus location. To explore why these three programmes chose to deliver their degrees internationally, two primary sources of data were utilised: data collected from public documents and secondary literature; and from two stages of data gathered from faculty and staff of the home programmes, form the basis of these findings.

In order to address the primary research question of this study: How does the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty students, and curriculum on the home campus?; it is necessary to critically examine why the degree programme was exported overseas. Inquiries into why hospitality and tourism programmes delivered their degree overseas at a branch campus were examined utilising primary and secondary data sources. Primary data was collected through an online survey sent to all programme faculty and staff of the

exporting hospitality and tourism programmes. Interviews were also requested and conducted with faculty and staff at each of the exporting programmes.

Drawing on a range of public sources, it is important to note that availability of public documentation reporting why these three U.S. HEIs were delivering their degrees in a foreign country diverges widely, possibly based on their academic governance. FIU and UNLV are both public universities; RIT, however, is a private university. In the case of public universities, they receive funding and budget approval from the state in which they are located. Private universities do not rely directly on state budgets, but rather on revenues from student tuition. Since public universities receive tuition funding from the state budget, the state governments have a direct role in the operations of the universities. In this situation, public accountability and interest in the operations of the university may be more accessible to the public domain. In private colleges and universities, the governance is commonly administered through a board of trustees at the university (Ricci, 1999). This form of governance may result in less-compulsory public reporting of university affairs and operations to the greater community.

In the first stage of primary data collection, respondents from all three programmes were asked to identify, from a set of factors developed from the literature, what the main reason was for choosing to offer their degree at the IBC. In the qualitative sequence of this study, respondents were asked to identify why their programme decided to offer its degree in the international location. From primary and secondary data, two broad influences emerged explaining why hospitality and tourism management programmes export their degrees to IBCs. These are broadly push-and-pull factors pertaining to the supply and demand elements of a U.S. university degree in hospitality and tourism management. The themes within the push-and-pull factors for delivering a degree through an IBC are presented in the next sections.

7.2 Pull factors for exporting the hospitality and tourism degree

Similar to a multinational firm, pull factors consist of favourable conditions in the international location that attract the HEI to export its academic degree at an IBC. The main elements that attracted these HEIs into participating in transnational education are foreign government demand for western education, and financial incentives used to

induce a relationship with a U.S. based HEI. Additionally, there was some evidence that as a state university, FIU was drawn to working with China to open markets for the state of Florida.

7.3 Government demand to meet changing social and economic conditions

The review of secondary sources of information provide evidence that one of the factors that influenced the decision by hospitality and tourism programmes to offer their degree internationally was the demand for their academic degrees by the host country. This demand appears to have been the result of changing social and economic dynamics in the foreign location. In two of the programmes, the demand for their degree seems to originate from the need for capacity building in the international location. In the third academic programme the demand for setting up an IBC was also to help achieve an economic development strategy of the host country.

7.3.1 China's goal to prepare students for growth in the tourism sector

In the case of FIU's decision to offer their degree in China, FIU described the Chinese government as looking to prepare itself for the growing tourism forecasted for China and the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympics (Kraft, 2003; Polansky, 2006). During the initial decision in 2003 to create an overseas branch campus, it was recognised that visitor growth was expected to grow at 22 per cent each year in China through 2013 (Kraft, 2003). FIU's former dean, Joseph West, stated that, "They were approached by a Tianjin University of Commerce since they (China) realised the economic importance of such a programme" (FIU, 2004, p. 100). It was also reported that FIU and China felt that the timing was good because of an expected upswing in tourism in China (Kraft, 2003). FIU faculty and staff interview participants reported that they thought their degree was offered at the IBC in China because of China's demand for their hospitality degree. The following excerpts support this sentiment:

> FIU was invited to participate in something called an RFP they were doing from the city Tianjin; the city government was behind it. They were looking for an international programme, because the Chinese, I guess the local government and also overall the administrator of education knew that their hospitality field will continue to grow and they

would like the management talent to get educated by an American university and an American programme (C1 I1).

…the people in Tianjin had approached us because they wanted an American degree programme there (C1 I4).

...and it [FIU China] evolved into a very robust discussion because apparently the Minister of Education over there … and the President of that university … wanted to get a signature or cornerstone kind of programme (C1 I6).

China sought to attract FIU because it would assist them in providing education needed to meet future tourism needs. The need for an English trained workforce that understands Western markets was also identified as a demand for the FIU programme (Marshall, 2008). Findings from FIU indicated that the Chinese were in need of a workforce with knowledge of how to interact with visitors from Western markets (Polansky, 2006). Interviewees also reported that growth in education in China, and Asia in general, was attracting foreign institutions (C1 I3; C3 I1).

7.3.2 Croatian aim to rebuild tourism sector and provide western education

In the case of RIT, it was reported that the Croatian government was looking for an educational institution to help prepare their future human resource managers for a newly-privatised tourism sector, and assist in Croatia's recovery from the war that broke up Yugoslavia (Downs, 2007; Gardner, 2003; Lagiewski & Lagiewski, 2006). There is some evidence to imply that RIT was being chosen as a foreign HEI because of its focus on Western management and an applied, hands-on educational model, something uncommon in the region (RIT, 1999b; Wentzel, 1999).

During this period, Croatia was attempting to transition from a socialist model to a market-oriented model. The programme was sought by the Croatian government to provide a mix of hands-on training and classroom work that would rebuild the tourism industry (NAFSA, 2013; RIT, 1997). The aim of the college in Croatia was to emphasise Western management techniques and practical applied skills (RIT, 1998). When asked why RIT delivered their degree in Croatia, faculty and staff interviewees also reported that they thought their degree was offered to help in developing education as a method for post-war tourism recovery.

In part, you have Croatia in the mid- and late-90s and they were trying to pull themselves out of the effects of the war they had with Serbia. I think it was an opportunity for them, another opportunity to educate their youth, which most places are trying to do. I think a positive to the programme was especially with hospitality and tourism and that had been a relative strength in their economy, so they wanted to leverage what had been the strength and move that forward specifically, quicker than maybe other areas of their economy (C2 I2).

Well, because the State Department approached RIT to help to bring a hospitality programme to Dubrovnik, to help in the after-war efforts to re-establish the tourism trades in Dubrovnik (C2 I3).

… at that time I understood they [RIT] wanted to help train people over there and give them an education over there, so they could be in the hospitality tourism business (C2 I8).

Publically, RIT's decision to deliver its degree in Croatia centred on the singular issue of helping deliver education that would assist in the recovery of the Croatian tourism economy devastated during the war. Whilst there was a clear demand for RIT's programme in Croatia, it can only be speculated that the public rationale for the IBC may have focused entirely on helping educate host country students to work in a newly-privatised tourism industry due to the associated instability of the Balkans. The IBC opened approximately two years after the end of the war in Yugoslavia. Creating an IBC in a post-war environment may have been an impediment to initially promoting student mobility or any other outcomes, financially or otherwise, for the home campus, considering the war had recently ended. Two years after the campus opened, instability in the region was further impacted by the conflict in nearby Kosovo. This was evident during press reporting of RIT's first commencement ceremony in Croatia:

"While bombs fall in a nearby war, the Rochester Institute of Technology will hold commencement ceremonies tomorrow for the first class to graduate from its American College of Management and Technology in Croatia" (Wentzel, 1999, p. 1).

The IBC president at the time indicated:

"The current situation in Kosovo has not had any bearing, to date, on Croatia and particularly on Dubrovnik. Obviously, concerns for security have been heightened. We continue to monitor the situation and, as of this date, we feel that everyone in the school is secure" (RIT, 1999a).

Push factors and impacts presented later in this chapter and in Chapter 8 suggest that RIT opened an IBC because it was also seeking several other objectives, in addition to helping with tourism recovery in Croatia.

7.3.3   Singaporean economic development initiative

The demand to expand into Singapore for UNLV resulted from the Global Schoolhouse initiative (Redden, 2013). This was an economic development programme developed by Singapore's government in 2002, designed to attract offshore universities. The intent was to attract 150,000 international students to Singapore by 2015. The objectives of this initiative were to educate workers, improve the economy, and create jobs (McClure, 2006). UNLV also identified that Singapore was becoming a more sophisticated travel destination and expanding rapidly, subsequently increasing the need for a globalised work force (Communications, 2009). UNLV took part in a request for proposals to participate in this initiative. In expressing why the degree was offered overseas, the following interview excerpt supports the conclusion that there was demand to offer the UNLV degree from the host government:

> Well, it was discussions of the Singapore government when they were looking at making tourism in education their focal point. They went out shopping for a school and we won the bid. …Well, it was not a bid; it was an invitation (C3 I7).

The Singapore Workforce Development Agency designated UNLV a centre for continuing education and training to offer workforce skills qualifications diploma programmes in tourism (Communications, 2009). Findings suggest that discussions with the Singapore government to develop an IBC were connected with the goal of making tourism in education a focal point and the overall strategy to develop their economy through education.

These findings from all three IBC examples support Howe and Martin (1998, p. 447) who argue that sometimes universities become involved in transnational education, not so much through proactive policies and clear articulated motivation, but rather as a reaction to the pull factors from overseas. The results of this research indicate that this was a distinct theme across all three academic programmes. In each, there lacked evidence to support the assessment that the HEIs had a proactive policy to establish an

IBC; however, the HEIs were identified as reacting to pull factors from foreign governments. In all three cases, the academic programmes were influenced by requests from a foreign government entity to deliver its degree overseas.

The primary and secondary evidence identified governments aiming to attract foreign HEIs to satisfy demand for Western education. This finding is in line with Naidoo's (2010) work, which identifies one motivation for nations to get involved in transnational education is to improve their own educational capacities. In the case of UNLV's IBC in Singapore, it is well documented in the literature that Singapore had chosen to utilise foreign HEIs as a method for both the development of their education and the economy (Toh, 2012). There is some evidence to suggest that one reason why UNLV failed to come to a new agreement with their partnering government entity (SIT) in Singapore was that SIT was now able to offer its own hospitality degree after working with UNLV for almost 5 years (Barnwell, 2013)

Based on the initial focus on why the U.S. programmes chose to deliver their degrees overseas, this data suggests that the foreign governments were looking to pull in foreign HEIs to develop education in preparation for tourism sector growth. These results may support Wisansing's (2008) assertion that transnational education is also a potential method to improve hospitality and tourism education in the host country.

7.4   Financial incentives for western academic degree programmes

In addition to the demand coming from the government in the international locations, there is evidence that there were incentives provided and that influenced the decision to export the degree abroad. In all three cases, foreign governments provided financial support for the IBCs. RIT's programme in Dubrovnik received a £1.014 ($1,500) subsidy per student for the first two years (Gardner, 2003). The Croatian government also assisted RIT with facilities within the Polytechnic of Dubrovnik, now known as the University of Dubrovnik (Dougherty, 2010). UNLV was cited as receiving one of the highest rates of subsidy among foreign educational institutions in Singapore (Barnwell, 2013). To start their programme, UNLV was given a loan by the Singaporean government between £1,353 million ($2 million) and £3,382 million ($5 million) (Hsu & Pereira, 2008; Redden, 2013). Findings from the secondary documents suggest that

without financing from the Global Schoolhouse Initiative, UNLV would not have created the IBC in Singapore (Yung & Sharma, 2013).

When UNLV opened their campus, they also signed an agreement with the Singapore Institute of Technology (SIT) in which SIT paid for the tuition of Singaporean students and acted as a feeder programme to UNLV's Bachelor of Science degree in Hospitality Management (Singh, 2012).

In the case of FIU's expansion into China, they received a very substantial financial investment to deliver their degree abroad: the funding of a 16-story building, including student housing, a cafeteria, classrooms, and housing for graduates (Valentine, 2004). In an interview with founding Dean Joe West, he stated, "…he was not so intrigued by the offer at first (to create a IBC), but eventually the Chinese government's persistence won" him over (Marshall, 2008, p. 23). This persistence included an agreement by the Chinese government to build a £33.812 million ($50 million) facility on the campus of Tianjin University of Commerce for FIU (Marshall, 2008). Once opened, officials and publications reporting on FIU's branch campus began to reference this as a $100 million Chinese-funded facility for FIU's Hospitality programme (Haro, 2010; Wartzok, 2007).

Interestingly, the two public universities (FIU and UNLV) give the impression of needing to indicate in public reporting that financially the IBC would be both low-risk and financially profitable. Articles describe that either very little financial investment is being made on behalf of the home campus (Hsu & Pereira, 2008), or that the students at the foreign locations will specifically pay more for tuition (Valentine, 2004). In the case of RIT, a private institution, it reported investing $500,000 to $750,000 into its IBC during the first 5 years (Gardner, 2003). Furthermore, it was reported that in the case of FIU, its IBC would be fully-funded by the Tianjin provincial government (Haro, 2010), and for UNLV, no taxpayer's funds would be lost, even if the IBC failed (Sayre, 2006).

When plans for UNLV's IBC were approved in 2005, it was stated that Singapore's Economic Development Board had committed $2.3 million for the first three years, and that it was expected to be self-supporting or it would close (Sayre, 2006). Additionally, salaries and travel expenses of UNLV-based faculty were reported to be covered by a grant from the Singaporean government for the start-up of the IBC (Sayre, 2006). These

findings suggest that whilst there were financial incentives present, it was also important that the public universities did not sustain any financial costs or risks in developing the IBC.

The IBC literature did not reveal extensive research on financial incentives provided by host countries. However, these cases appear to support Wilkins and Huisman (2012) who suggest that opportunities offered by the host country may be an important trigger in the decision to consider an IBC.

Another reported pull factor for the IBC was that the formation of FIU's IBC in China would also generate a relationship between the Chinese government and Florida that would bring benefits to the state. Kraft (2003) reported that the IBC collaboration is more than just the University of Tianjin and FIU. It is between the city of Tianjin and the State of Florida, and a start-up point for China and the United States (Kraft, 2003). The IBC was also cited as helping put Florida on the map by raising awareness for Florida as a tourist destination (Marshall, 2008). The Dean at FIU was credited for not only helping FIU enter China, but in helping South Florida 'crack an increasingly popular Eastern market' (Marshall, 2008, p. 23). It was also identified that Florida's access and connection to Latin America was important, since this area is a major market for Chinese business (Marshall, 2008).

It is evident that two of the main influences for academic programmes to expand and deliver their degrees overseas are the demand and incentives provided by foreign governments. The next section explores the factors that prompted the home programmes to consider expanding internationally and supply this demand with their hospitality and tourism degree programme.

7.5   Push factors for exporting the hospitality and tourism degree

Push factors are the internal driving forces at the HEI that stimulate academic programmes to export their degree internationally. The reasons for supplying the academic programme at an international campus may also be the reaction to changes in the domestic environment of the home programme. There are several reasons why programmes are interested in exporting their degree internationally. The following five

elements appear to initiate the intention to expand internationally: entrepreneurial leadership, expanding the brand, internationalising the programme, growing enrolment, and increasing revenue.

Motives, goals, and needs for exporting a degree at an IBC comprise the private, internal workings of the academic programme; therefore, primary data collection was required to gain access to publically unavailable information. An online survey administered to the faculty and staff at the home programme was used to determine why programmes were offering their academic degree through an IBC. Seven factors from the literature, along with the opportunity to identify "other", were provided as choices. Respondents were asked to choose the main reason and to select only one. This method allowed for the exploration of several elements, in an efficient manner, to obtain general insight into why home programmes chose to export their degree at the IBC. Table 7-1 presents the results of the quantitative survey items pertaining to reasons for delivery of degree programmes at IBCs. In a second stage of primary data collection, interviewees were also asked why they thought their academic degree programme was delivered at the IBC.

Table 7-1   Reason for delivering the degree at an IBC

What do you believe is the main reason for delivering an academic degree at the IBC?	FIU		RIT		UNLV		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Improved reputation and status for home campus	1	9.1	6	45.8	11	45.8	18	32.1
Opportunities for increased international focus of programmes	3	27.3	4	19.0	5	20.8	12	21.4
Economic benefits for home campus	4	36.4	1	4.8	1	4.2	6	10.7
Increase in home campus overall student enrolment	0	0.0	5	23.8	1	4.2	6	10.7
To help provide educational opportunities for students in IBC	2	18.2	3	14.3	1	4.2	6	10.7
Other (please specify)	1	1.8	1	1.8	4	7.1	6	10.7
Study abroad opportunities for home campus students	0	0.0	1	4.8	1	4.2	2	3.6
Total	**11**		**21**		**24**		**56**	

7.5.1   Entrepreneurial leadership

In the three hospitality programmes, there was evidence to suggest that an entrepreneurial or visionary-style leader who was present at the time may have been the advocate for the opportunity to expand their programme internationally. When faculty and staff were asked why they thought their programme was offered at the IBC, interviewees expressed that their dean or director played a fundamental role in the opportunity to expand. It was expressed that these directors were visionary and or aspired to expand their degrees internationally. The comments below support this perspective:

> You know the biggest reason, like most success stories, right? Whether it's Ben & Jerry's or whatever it might be, it took a visionary at the time and that visionary then was Dean West (C1 I6).

> I think there were two reasons. The first was that the director at the time felt there was a tremendous market internationally for a degree like ours…(C2 I5).

> I know that from when I was hired, Dr. Domoy [programme chair], there was a real view or vision of doing things globally (C2 I8).

> I know the previous dean, Stewart Mann, was hot on expanding the UNLV brand and had looked at Dubai and looked at Singapore and a few other locations (C3 I4).

Public documents also reveal that the decision for UNLV's first IBC emerges as the founding dean's vision to internationalise and expand the brand internationally through a global network of campuses (HospitalityNet, 2009; Tavares, 2009; UNLV, 2009). After the development of their first campus in Singapore, other international locations were being explored in Dubai and Latin America (Communications, 2009; Tavares, 2009). Dean Mann stated that if they had four overseas campuses, students could spend a year at each campus, resulting in a "truly international degree" (Tavares, 2009).

These findings support a very specific contextual factor that Wilkins and Huisman (2012) identify as the potential role of a powerful individual agent pushing internationalisation. They suggest that a university leader may enable a HEI to depart from the usual way of doing things and be the reason behind the IBC. Krieger (2008) cited in Wilkins and Huisman (2012), also argues that it can be the vision of one powerful individual at the campus that is primarily responsible for the decision to develop an IBC. At the programme level, these three administrators were all in leadership positions that would allow them to influence the direction of their academic programme degrees overseas. These findings may support the contextual element that programme leaders at the home programme had a key interest and role in the decision to deliver their degree outside the United States.

7.5.2   Expand the brand internationally

The potential to expand the programme's brand outside the United States and the recognition this could provide encouraged programmes to export their degrees through an IBC. As identified in the findings above, UNLV's first IBC emerges as the founding dean's vision to internationalise and expand the brand internationally through a global network of campuses (HospitalityNet, 2009; Tavares, 2009; UNLV, 2009). In reviewing the published accounts of the decision for the IBCs, there is some evidence to

suggest that FIU's executive vice-president viewed the IBC as a method toward 'building a world-class university' (Wartzok, 2007).

In the secondary reporting on RIT's IBC development, there is little evidence to support 'benefits to reputation' as a reason for exporting its degree. In the case of UNLV, the secondary reports attribute 'extending the brand internationally' as a purpose for the IBC in Singapore. The survey evidence in Table 7-1 indicates that 'improved reputation and status for the home campus' is ranked the highest for both UNLV and RIT. Almost one-half of the respondents at both HEIs selected this as the reason why they considered that their degree was offered overseas. In RIT's case, this result was not significantly different from the importance of both 'increasing student enrolment' and the 'opportunity for increased international focus of programme'. Approximately 46 per cent of the UNLV respondents from the online survey identified 'improved reputation' as the main reason for the delivery of the degree.

More than a quarter of the interviewees identified influences on their programme's reputation and brand as one of the reasons why their programme was offered internationally. The specific word 'brand' was identified across all three IBCs, with emphasis on 'credibility', 'recognition', and 'prestige'. Faculty and staff reported the following statements when asked why their programme was offered at the IBC:

> Because it [the programme] wanted to have a global reach and more credibility…I think there is a certain amount of prestige that goes along with having a programme internationally, especially in China (C1 I8).

> …to one, get an international brand; two, it was an opportunity to increase enrolment by large numbers. I think those were the two main reasons (C2 I7).

> I think the main reason was to establish more strongly in his (Dean's) mind an international brand…(C3 I2).

It seems possible that the HEIs attributed 'improved reputation or status' as motivation to expand internationally, due to the possible uniqueness attributed to being one of a limited number of U.S. programmes having a branch campus presence overseas.

Previous authors have noted the importance of linking with foreign institutions when delivering degrees internationally, as it enhances their international reputation and status

(Armstrong, 2007; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Vignoli, 2004). Additionally, foreign institutions in the IBC location gain an elite competitive advantage through these links with foreign HEIs (Vidovich, 2004). The results of this study appear to agree with previous research that a key reason U.S. HEIs choose to deliver their degree internationally, was the positive effect on their reputation. However, the benefit to the programme's reputation is less identified with collaborating with a foreign institution and more likely from the international exposure gained in setting up an IBC.

7.5.3 Internationalising the home programme

Findings suggest the impetus to internationalise the home programme was a motive for exporting the academic degree internationally. The use of the terms 'international' and 'internationalise' were used broadly to describe opportunities that the IBC provided the home programme. UNLV, specifically in the reporting of its decision to open an IBC, indicated that their aim was to internationalise the home programme and to give the students and faculty on the main campus the opportunity to experience an increasingly important part of the world for the hospitality industry (UNLV, 2009). The founding dean of UNLV's IBC, commenting on his vision for this opportunity, stated, "The faculty are able to bring those experiences back to the Las Vegas campus. It enriches their courses and their teaching" (Tavares, 2009). Associate Dean, Lee Dickson, stated, "This program makes FIU truly international…programs like this are why we have "international" in our name" (Polansky, 2006).

Survey data in Table 7-1 suggests that overall, the opportunity for increasing the international focus of the home programme was the second-most identified reason for delivering the degree at an IBC. There was also some evidence that emerged from the faculty and staff interviewees that internationalisation was a motive in the decision to offer their degree programme overseas. This aim was either to support the international direction of their programme or university, or to provide an international dimension into the function or the composition of its curriculum, faculty, and students. The following excerpts express the purpose of integrating an international dimension into the elements of the home programme when asked why their programmes were delivering their degree at the branch campus:

Because we have an international global focus for not only our programme, but the entire university; again, that's tied in with the mission statement of the university and the school (C1 I4).

To internationalise our programme, to increase enrolment, our university focus is to globalise. We talk about a World's Ahead education, so we are looking to have an international presence (C1 I5).

…two, to provide a new experience for the students back here and then the faculty to internationalise, if you will, the students and faculty who work back at RIT. Probably, the primary goal is the opportunity to internationalise students...(C2 I1).

… as the business of hospitality has become very global, that is, hotels expanding globally, American hotels, it was important for us to have a global view in our undergraduate curriculum. Additionally, we were also receiving more international students, so, therefore, the expansion to ACMT [RIT's Croatia campus] helped to provide faculty with a more global viewpoint, and that carried into the curriculum (C2 I10).

…because, in order to bring new knowledge to United States students, more and more international experiences are part of the curriculum requirement. …and in some cases, we, the faculty and the students had to learn about best practises that were being developed in international sites that United States hospitality companies could benefit from (C2 I9).

It was a way of expanding an international presence. …The programme has always had an international, at least in recent times, had an international bent, and I think the expansion into Singapore with a branch campus was part of a strategy to continue that international orientation through a physical plant. …It also provides an ideal situation[al] opportunity for faculty to enrich their experience by doing stints overseas and having a just bit broader experience (C3 I2).

There is some evidence, as stated above, that the motive to export the degree internationally was part of the university's overall goal to internationalise. Interviewees at FIU identify the reason for offering their degree in China as an alignment with the direction and mission of internationalisation within their programme and university. This is not surprising, since Green et al (2008) also found that the majority of institutions have internationalisation as part of their mission statements and strategic plans.

Additionally, the opportunity to provide students with a study abroad experience as a purpose for the IBC is present in the excerpts above. Secondary documents also reinforce this motive. Thomas Breslin, FIU VP of Research, stated that the IBC would

open up a new set of experiences for students here and there… (Kraft, 2003, p. 1). FIU's Dean West stated that this free movement across campuses is important for FIU to "develop our international globalization aspect" (Marshall, 2008, p. 22). Secondary data sources provided evidence that this mobility of students would be important for UNLV students in order to understand how hospitality works globally (UNLV, 2009). Additionally, it was reported for UNLV that:

> Students who have an understanding of multiple cultures, countries, and global tourism will develop a very good background to work anywhere in the world, for any company, at any level (UNLV, 2009, p. 20).

It was identified that the quantitative finding (Table 7-1) providing study abroad opportunities for students was the least identified reason for delivering the degree at an IBC. It may be important that public rationale for the IBC acknowledges benefits for the home students, even if it is not the primary reason for establishing the degree overseas.

7.5.4   Growing enrolment and increasing revenue

Growing enrolment and increasing revenue emerged from the public reporting for establishing an IBC. In a published interview, the founding dean of FIU's programme in China stated, 'We anticipate that when we're fully up and operational, we will have positive free cash flow of about a million dollars a year that will come back to the school to be used to enhance the education of both our Chinese and our Miami students' (Marshall, 2008, p. 22). Similarly, the founding dean of UNLV's programme stated that the IBC would 'eventually generate revenue for UNLV through student fees and other means' (Hsu & Pereira, 2008, p. 189).

Reports on the opening of the Singapore campus, also reported that the IBC was, 'an efficient way to accommodate the growing number of Asians interested in studying at UNLV, without affecting local admissions or budgets (Tavares, 2009). Asia was identified specifically as a place to deliver the degree, because it was where the majority of the international students on the Nevada campus originate from. UNLV also reported delivering their degree in Asia to support the needs of students unable, or no longer wanting to travel to the U.S. to get an American degree (UNLV, 2009). This finding matches what Healey (2008) suggests as a motivation to deliver degrees where the

students reside internationally when foreign students no longer are able or willing to study on the home campus.

Discourse emerged in the interviews that increasing student enrolment was important, since schools were facing a competitive market in the United States:

> I think any administrator that has made the push for there to be an abroad component to their programme would lie to you if they didn't say it would really help to increase enrolment (C1 I3).

> It's an ancillary programme, and it does generate revenue and we have had budget cuts here in the U.S…, so the revenue was certainly a consideration. …the U.S. market was saturated with hospitality schools growing and we did want to grow our enrolment. This was a natural way to do it (C1 I4).

> The Chinese are doing very well and it was a lucrative opportunity for the school (C1 I4).

> Well, I think RIT has several interests: one, to find a new audience for its degree programme because there is a lot of competition in the U.S. …Probably, the primary goal is the opportunity to internationalise students and the secondary goal would be to drive student enrolment (C2 I1).

> One, because we wanted to increase the enrolment in the department as a practical matter…(C2 I10).

Two divergent issues pertaining to enrolment were reported in the interviews regarding the impacts of the IBC on the home programme in Chapter 8. For state universities, revenue generated by the growth of out-of-state student tuition was identified. In the case of the private university, enrolment was expressed as a reason connected to improving the number of students in the domestic programme's student count. The connection between increased enrolment and financial gain was identified here as a motive to expand overseas and was introduced again by interviewees when exploring the impacts of the IBC in Chapter 8. In the online survey results, (Table 7-1) economic benefits for the home campus combined with an increase in home campus student enrolment, were identified by over 20 per cent of the faculty and staff as the main reason for delivering their degree at an IBC. Attributing enrolment as the case for transnational education is consistent with Howe and Martin (1998) who see this

motivation as a way to increase market share, since western markets are either reaching maturity or in decline.

7.6   Conclusion

This chapter set out to determine why the hospitality and tourism management programmes delivered their degrees overseas at IBCs. This first objective regarding 'why' is often reported anecdotally in the literature. This does not suggest a lack of supporting evidence, but rather may infer that the motives for establishing branch campuses are accepted tenets, not requiring significant documentation each time they are indicated. Prior research has identified both the stimuli and motives for IBCs, and this chapter contributes additional empirical evidence pertaining to why HEIs, at the academic programme level, deliver their degree abroad.

When investigating why programmes decided to deliver their degree through an IBC, some respondents may have viewed this question from the perspective of current outcomes, rather than selecting or identifying the main reason for delivering the degree internationally. When respondents selected 'other' in the online survey, their comments often reveal an opinion of the IBC. One respondent reported on the economic situation of delivering the programme internationally, rather than a reason for offering the degree at the IBC. Respondents described that the IBC was "promised" to be an "economic benefit for the college"; something the respondent "never believed."   Another respondent reported that all reasons "would apply to a certain degree." The survey respondent went on to explain:

> It was launched after 20 years of rapid expansion at UNLV. Money was no object, and the university, much like the [Las Vegas] Strip, had grown accustomed to decades of growth. Then the bottom fell out of the economy, and wow; time to trim the hedges.

This view may be explained by the projected decision not continue the IBC after 2015, due to the financial arrangements of the agreement (Redden, 2013). Another individual who selected 'other', reported that over time, one or more reasons likely "served as a rationale" for the IBC. This participant expressed that since the campus had been operating for over ten years, there was no real justification not to continue with it. Interviewees were distinctly asked to identify why their programme decided to offer

their degree overseas. Through this primary source of data, combined with the online survey and secondary documents, a greater understanding of the action to participate in transnational education in the form of an IBC emerges.

Public documents and reporting provide some evidence into why these academic programmes chose to deliver their degrees through the creation of an IBC. This evidence suggests that for all three HEIs, there initially existed demand for their academic programme, due to pull factors present in the international location. In all three HEIs, the programmes appear to be reacting to an opportunity presented from a foreign government seeking to develop either their educational or industry sector. In China, the strategy to collaborate and develop an IBC for FIU emerges as an approach to educate the Chinese student population for the growing tourism sector, and to meet the demands of inbound western markets. The government of Singapore, through the Global Schoolhouse Strategy, attracted UNLV as part of its effort to develop the educational sector as a greater contributor of GDP (Singh, 2012). The opportunity for RIT's IBC originated as a response to Croatia's request to help rebuild its tourism sector and prepare students for a market-oriented tourist industry. This evidence suggests the initial presence of pull factors.

The online survey instrument generally evaluates the push factors that may have influenced the hospitality and tourism management programme to supply their degree internationally through an IBC. The two factors identified the most in the survey results (Table 7-1) were 'improved reputation and status for home campus', and 'opportunities for increased international focus of programmes'. Interview data supports that the motive was also to expand the brand internationally by delivering their degree overseas in a branch campus. Interview data also confirms that the IBC was part of either the motivation to internationalise their programmes, or may have coincided with current efforts at the university to internationalise.

In response to the first objective of this research, "Why HEIs establish branch campuses", this researcher supports the conclusions of Wilkins and Huisman (2012) who state that it's ill-advised to focus on largely one dimension of the range of factors to explain why programmes participate in transnational education. It appears that HEIs

delivered their degrees internationally as a result of one-of-three factors: building their reputation, internationalising their programme, or growing enrolment. It is evident that these factors were combined with pull factors stemming from demand by a foreign government for the degree to be exported overseas.

It is important to restate that this chapter is limited to assessing why the programmes were delivering their degree overseas. On this question, the review of the secondary documents suggests that once the IBC had been established, positive impacts were reported as rationale for the IBC. Outcomes of the IBC and findings from the primary data are discussed in the next chapter in the analysis and categorisation of the IBC impacts on the home programme.

Chapter 8:   Impact of IBC on home programme

8.1   Introduction

The primary research question of this study is to determine how the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contributes to the internationalisation of hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus. The possibility exists that the IBC and the home campus may have had minimal contact (Perry Hobson & Josiam, 1996), and possibly, very little internationalising impacts. This suggests that the IBC's impacts are not exclusive to the home programme or to the theme of internationalisation. Therefore, all impacts were considered, whether categorised as internationalising or not, in order to develop a typology of the impacts that overseas expansion have on the exporting hospitality and tourism programme.

Aspects and elements of assessing internationalisation at the academic programme level often consist of the following areas: faculty, students, curriculum, and international alliances. A considerable amount of the literature focuses on what constitutes internationalisation for faculty, students, and curriculum. Little attention and discussion has been applied to the relationships between international alliances, such as an IBC and the home programme, specifically in the area of internationalisation. This may be due to a programme's ability to gain international exchanges and experiences elsewhere without needing to offer its degree abroad to be considered international (Black, 2004).

In this chapter, the literature on internationalisation is utilised to discuss the IBC's impacts on the home programme. The chapter consists of four sections explaining the influences of the IBC on the home programme. As Black (2004) identifies in her work, even though it is important to analyse the subject of internationalisation of faculty, students, and curriculum in turn, they are difficult to separate in practise as they relate to and depend on each other. This chapter separates the analysis and discussion of the impacts with the same interpretation as Black (2004); that in practise there is some connection between each potential element of programme internationalisation, and therefore, impacts presented in the following sections cannot exist without some level of overlap.

8.2   Effect on programme characteristics

One area of the home programme impacted by the IBC are the organisational characteristics of the programme itself. This area is specific to the non-academic programme attributes and operations. Non- academic characteristics of the home programme identified as having been affected by the IBC are reputation, enrolment, resources, and strategy.

The results of the quantitative and qualitative responses found that faculty and staff perceive the IBC to have influenced their programme's reputation and marketing. This impact contributed to the home programme's international exposure and enhancement of reputation. In some cases, this appears to have influenced the home programme's marketing and recruitment of students. When asked how the IBC affects the home programme, one response articulates this overall theme and its interrelated characteristics through the following excerpt:

> We have had an international exposure and that is pretty important. It helps promote (UNLV)…it has helped our reputation internationally (C3 I7).

The terms 'exposure', 'promotion', and 'reputation' all have some interconnected elements; however, to better illustrate this influence on the home programme, they are presented individually in the next sections.

8.2.1 Impact on Programme Reputation

A commonly expressed view amongst interviewees was that the IBC had influenced their programme's reputation. These views were mainly positive and expressed across all three programmes. One individual expressed that the main impact of the IBC was how they were viewed relative to other universities in their state. The individual stated that other hospitality programmes and universities within the Florida State system "are a little bit in awe of what we have pulled off. "…We have been there [China] since '04 and we are a proven commodity…" (C1 I6). Another respondent expressed that the IBC helped support the "international" in their name, and this assists with what gives their programme "notoriety"; the word 'international' (C1 I11). Interviewees identified that a reason for opening the IBC was that the U.S. market was saturated with the growing number of hospitality schools. This may suggest that the IBC helped differentiate the domestic hospitality and tourism programmes. These findings also suggest that the IBC helped with the home programme's reputation relative to their competitors.

These finding are consistent with Mazzarol and Soutar (1999) (cited in (Black, 2004)) who argue that transnational activities help provide programmes with a competitive advantage. It is clear from the findings presented in Chapter 7 that an improved reputation and status for the home campus was one of the main reasons for delivering the programme's degree overseas at the IBC. Faculty and staff also report that the impact on the programme's reputation is one of the main effects of the IBC.

Some interviewees expressed that the IBC had influenced their internal reputation at their university. Internal reputation was linked to the programme's positive reputation for successfully opening the IBC, which appears to have become the stimulus for international expansion. The excerpts below reveal this perspective:

> Well, I think it's very positive. The new president of the university is thrilled with the programme and we are looking to expand more beyond the Tianjin campus in China (C1 I4).

> The fact that the college is its own separate entity, and the fact that other international campuses have been set up in Kosovo and Dubai and others have been looked at, I think speaks to the fact that the [IBC] must have been a success in the eyes of the administration. Otherwise, I don't think they would duplicate their efforts elsewhere. …It seems like

overwhelmingly, it's viewed as positive from the upper administration at RIT (C2 I1).

I think it has been viewed as quite positive, almost sort of setting the model for other degree programmes to look at and maybe envy, maybe not in Dubrovnik, but in other cities (C2 I8).

In the quantitative survey, one respondent when queried about whether the IBC had been viewed as a positive or negative influence on the home programme stated that, "…it has enhanced the reputation of the programmes in the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation." This view was supported in the interview data as well. When asked what respondents felt was the main impact of the IBC on the home programme, the following excerpts regarding the IBC were expressed:

The expansion of the brand was really a big one. We were the first ones in China and I know, within our own venue of hospitality schools, we were the model for how to go in and do something and do it well (C1 I4).

It's definitely reputation. Finances, that can be one; but really, reputation is the number one. RIT became known for its ability to develop and execute in an overseas situation or environment. It's not just from a faculty exchange and student exchange standpoint. No. We had the ability to handle the total risk of the real estate side, of putting in the systems, transporting faculty, maintaining their level of satisfaction. This is one of the bigger outcomes and it was that model that we created in Croatia, was a test model for Kosovo and Dubai. It will probably be a test model for wherever we end up in a future period (C2 I9).

The above excerpt also appears to support that the IBC influenced the programme's internal reputation by becoming the model by which other overseas expansion would be developed. The excerpt below also alludes to reputation, but from the perspective of parents and students:

…reputation, in that when our perspective students come here, a lot of them nowadays are thinking of study abroad or doing something international. And we have a building in international Europe, in Dubrovnik, in this beautiful tourist city that has RIT's name on it, where I think that makes mom and dad feel a little bit better, a little bit safer that we can send our student overseas and they are actually still in an RIT programme. It's RIT rules and regulations. The building over there flies the RIT flag (C2 I7).

Some interviewees, when asked what the main impact was of the IBC, connected reputation to the exposure that the IBC provided their programme as the excerpt below expresses:

> Probably reputation. I think it's just having our name out there, having university news and local newspaper and industry papers seeing that exposure. I know quite certainly, we are not the only college to have global experience so it keeps us competitive (C2 I8).

Another interview participant specifically identified reputation as being the main impact of the IBC. This participant indicated in the excerpt below that reputation was influenced through the international exposure generated by the success of their graduates:

> I think there are certainly, or our visibility in Asia has been enhanced. Certainly, in Southeast Asia and that region and we have more than 600 students there these days. It's ramped up in the last few years as we did some things to enhance the financial side of it, we resulted in greater number of students. We are graduating those students and they are finding themselves working in Singapore and other parts of Asia. That is good for our reputation. I think that to me is the most positive aspect of having been there (C3 I2).

When queried about whether the IBC had been viewed as having had a positive or negative influence on the home programme, two responses from the quantitative survey expressed that it had a negative impact in the area of reputation. They reported, 'It is cheapening our brand'; 'The quality of the degree was diluted, particularly in Asia. 'The admissions requirements were too low.' One interviewee, when asked how the IBC was affecting the students on the home campus, confirms a similar view that the IBC may be cheapening the home programme's reputation. This interviewee explains that whilst the English language requirements are the same for both the IBC and home campus that they feel the students "have not shown proficiency in written, spoken or any kind of English." The interviewee states, "The language barrier is quite extreme between, specifically between Mandarin and English." How this impact influences the programme's reputation is explained further through this respondent's excerpt below:

> You know, they [IBC students] have more access because we have the programme (IBC) now. However, what I am trying to say is, if I am sitting in a classroom as a student who is working very hard to earn a

bachelor's or master's degree, having had to earn all the requirements beforehand, passing an SAT, having a diploma from high school, etc. And there is someone sitting next to me that could not attain that same thing, it almost, you could significantly say, cheapens the degree, if there are people that are graduating from that programme that are going to go out and represent the school in a way that is not sufficient or not at the point they are.

These findings appear to support Bacow (2007) who suggests that there is a risk to the reputation being damaged when programmes are involved in transnational education. Bacow (2007) recommends that HEIs must be prepared to manage all aspects of student and faculty life in order to maintain a quality reputation.

Overall, it appears that the IBC affected the reputation of the home programmes either on the home campus itself or externally. The next section discusses an influence likely linked to reputation specifically the international exposure and recognition gained by the home programme.

8.2.2 International exposure and recognition

While respondents indicated that their programme's reputation had been influenced by the existence of the IBC, some also specifically identified that their programme attained international exposure and recognition. When asked if the IBC was viewed as having been primarily a positive or negative influence on the home programme, or what the main impacts were, respondents reported that the international exposure benefited their brand and spread their name. This impact also was connected to industry recognition.

From the online survey evidence, many of the respondents who identified the branch campus as having had a positive influence on the home programme stated that it gave their programme international exposure. The word exposure and international exposure were use specifically to describe why the IBC was viewed as having had a positive influence on the home programme. The following statements were given in response to the survey question regarding if the influence was viewed as positive or negative: *international exposure, international exposure is always a good thing, gives us an international foothold*, and *positive in the sense it provided us a broader exposure*

It was stated that it was 'good to have the UNLV brand in Asia'. Another statement in the open-ended response was that, 'It is very important to properly leverage the brand.'

The interview excerpts below also support this effect of the IBC on the home programmes:

> It's gotten us a lot of public awareness. People have heard about it. It's a very big programme. The Chinese government has supported it and we have 1,000 students, so it's gotten, you know, us a lot of publicity. Positively (C1 I5).

> I think it has made us more visible here in the United States. We have certainly garnered a lot of attention because we have a programme in China. That is the greatest impact (C1 I8).

> It definitely spread our name in Asia. We have been able to identify some really good students from there that eventually came here and finished and who have gone further. It has done a lot for our name in Asia (C3 I3).

Survey and interview data, also revealed that industry recognition generated from graduates of the IBC are resulting in international exposure for the programme's brand. In the online survey, one participant stated that it has provided "industry recognition" to the home programme. Three additional participants reported employment issues and that graduates are in high demand. This was described in the following statements: 'Our students are obtaining great positions in the industry and are being sought after by global-international companies" and that, "Students employed by multi-national hotel companies build the FIU brand'. One interviewee explained that the greatest impact of the IBC on the home programme was likely the reputation they gained for producing such a large number of graduates in China with the English skills and western orientation to work for major hospitality companies. The excerpt below depicts the role that the IBC may have on generating industry recognition:

> You know, in China, it is seen as the preeminent hospitality programme in the country. Marriott Corporation gave us, I believe, several million dollars as an endowment when we first started. We have received great recognition in the hospitality industry. Chris Nassetta, the CEO of Hilton Corporation, made a special visit to our campus last year. Senior executives from Marriott and Hilton both come. For example, Anne Gunsteens, the head of the Marriott Foundation. …We are approaching

> Marriott for another million dollars, so it is receiving great recognition (C1 I7).

This interviewee also stated that the main impact of the IBC on the home programme was likely reputation, resulting from 500 IBC graduates each year going out into the hospitality industry. He explained that they are viewed as a quality institution by hospitality firms because their graduates now have the English skills and western orientation.

About one-quarter of the respondents interviewed suggested that international exposure was an impact of the IBC associated with the recognition they were receiving abroad from the IBC. The opinion emerges from the data that the IBC generated awareness for the academic programme's brand through the international exposure, promotion, and recognition it created. These findings are consistent with Échevin and Ray (2002) and Teichler (2009) who suggest that HEIs' involvement in transnational education can be perceived as enhancing one's international reputation and visibility. It seems possible that these results are linked to the international nature of the hospitality and tourism industry and the attention a US based programme would receive by setting up an IBC. The brand and reputation of U.S. hospitality and tourism programmes may be viewed favourably through their involvement in an IBC due to the possible connection between being in an international location and serving and meeting the needs of a global industry.

The next section turns to what could be considered an outcome of this influence on the brand: the use of the IBC in marketing the home programme.

8.2.3   Influence on Marketing

In their accounts of the impacts of the IBC on the home programme, some respondents specifically expressed that the IBC was beneficial to their programme's marketing. The following extracts express this outcome:

> It has become a selling point of our programme in Rochester (RIT Quant Q7).

> I think it's given us a lot of press, a lot of marketability. Now that the programme has been in place for 16 years, we do get a lot of mileage on it, as far as recruitment goes (C2 I3).

> …I mean, it's still marketing for us, where we can say, *if you come here you can study abroad and take RIT classes in Dubrovnik* (C2 I7).

One respondent articulated the interconnectedness that may exist regarding reputation within this theme:

> Again, there are multiple impacts. If I had to pick the biggest one, it would be a more practical one. It would be the enhancement of the reputation and the impact of that on marketability (C2 I10).

When asked about the meaning of marketability, the respondent explained that it helped in attracting students. They explained that the images associated with that overseas campus have sent powerful messages to the visitors to the department and visitors to our website. The images of the campus on the Adriatic and the walled city were cited as valuable imagery for marketing the academic programme.

Respondents clearly identified that the IBC had influenced their programme's reputation and as articulated by these responses above, there was some evidence that the IBC helped with marketing and recruiting to students. From these findings, it is not clear if this specific influence resulted in additional enrolment at the home programme. These overall findings of this section are in agreement with Altbach and Knight (2007) who suggest that transnational activities may enhance the competiveness and prestige of the exporting programme. Accounts of the IBC's effect on the programme's home enrolment are described in the next section.

8.2.4 Effects on programme enrolment

An increase in enrolment at the home programme was identified as a consequence of the IBC. The majority of participants (68.6; see Table 8-1) from the online survey indicated that the IBC resulted in an increased number of foreign students studying at the home campus. When participants were asked in the open-ended survey questions how the IBC impacted them and how the IBC was viewed at home, positive enrolment was also reported. In the open-ended questions, each of the three programmes identified the IBC as providing enrolment for the programmes at the home campus. Respondents from FIU stated that the IBC has "increased enrolment in the grad programme" and "The undergraduate programme sends Chinese students to study in Miami for grad school".

Table 8-1   **Identified influences of the IBC on the home programme**

	Yes	
	n	%
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at the programme's home campus to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	37	71.2
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	35	67.3
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at the programme's home campus?	35	68.6
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for programme's home-based students?	30	57.7
Increased interest by the programme to create additional degree programmes abroad?	29	56.9
Opportunities for home-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	26	50.0
The programme's creation of other international programmes overseas (outside of IBC)?	26	50.0
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the programme at the IBC?	25	48.1
Joint research for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	17	32.7
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at the programme's home campus?	15	28.8
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	15	28.8
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at the home campus?	14	26.9
International guest speakers to the programmes home campus?	14	26.9
Publications for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	11	21.6

A respondent at RIT also identified that the IBC had increased enrolment in their graduate programme. Another respondent stated that the IBC had a critical effect on the home programme; "It saved our department budget and enrolment." One respondent at UNLV also identified that the overseas programme provided new students for the online master's programme.

A recurrent theme in the interview stage also was that the IBC positively affected the enrolment on the home campus. Across all three academic programmes, students from the IBC either had transferred into the U.S.-based programme to complete a graduate degree, or had transferred in to complete their undergraduate degree. One-third of the interviewees identified enrolment, when asked how the IBC influenced the home programme. The following excerpts reveal this influence:

First of all, I think we get good Chinese students to transfer into the programme, into a graduate programme. So, it has become a feeder for us from China. Once they finish their education in China, then they apply to the graduate programme here in Miami. Right now, our graduate programme is the number one international source. They are from China (C1 I1).

It has added to the international aspects of our programme. We do have plenty of students from South America and Europe, but only a few from Korea and Japan, prior to the entry of our China programme. This gives us quite a bit more students from Asia and gives us more of an international feel to our curriculum. …We have some from the undergraduate level from China and we have a significant number in our graduate programme that come out of our undergraduate programme in China to our graduate programme in Florida (C1 I2).

We were at that point in a declining enrolment situation and had been for a number of years. This suddenly allowed us to take on new students. The thought was that the number of these students would be quite great, and it turned out that guess was correct. …I think it allowed us to maintain a faculty size that we would not have been able to maintain had we simply stayed at the RIT campus (C2 I5).

We have been able to identify some really good students from there that eventually came here and finished and who have gone further (C3 I3).

We already had a high number of international students who were part of our population, especially Asian students, and I think this has expanded the opportunity for more Asian students to be engaged. (The interviewee explained that "engaged" denoted an expanded enrolment at the home campus) (C3 I1).

These finding confirm that the IBC plays a role in internationalising the home programme by generating international enrolment. These findings support Échevin and Ray (2002) who identify international student enrolment as an indicator used to measure the internationalisation of individual programmes of study. It seems possible that the IBC generated international student enrolment for the home programme by creating awareness and a direct process for international students to transfer into the home campus.

Interestingly, one respondent revealed that at some point the admissions standards at the IBC and the home programme were not the same, and that students may have used the IBC as an admissions approach into the home programme. This perception is depicted below:

We also have a certain number of students who begin [at the IBC] and transfer to the main campus, because we use the same admission standards as in the U.S. So, [IBC] students are freely able to transfer if they can do it financially. Some of those students, prior to me being here, were not admissible on the main campus, so they probably came here [study abroad from the IBC], honed their English and got their grades up, and were able to transfer over. So, it was kind of a back door into main campus for a lucky small number of students, probably no more than 20 (C3 I8).

One respondent, choosing "not to be on the record", stated: *the university likes the fact that there are so many students coming from [the IBC] who pay out-of-state fees*. They explained that IBC students enrolled in their graduate programme are paying the highest tuition fees at the home campus, because they are charged at the out-of-state rate. It is not surprising that one respondent did not want to be identified in reporting this connection between the IBC and the home programme, since generating revenue from foreign students may be, as Howe and Martin (1998) suggest, be viewed as morally suspect.

While increased enrolment may generate additional financial resources through tuition fees, only one interviewee communicated this connection. In addition to the impact on financial resources, the next section turns to programme resources influenced by the IBC.

8.2.5   Impact on programme resources

This study also revealed that faculty and staff thought the IBC affected the home programme's resources. This influence emerges as generally negative, and was related to both financial and human resources.

Findings suggest that the programme's human resources were impacted as a result of faculty and staff on assignment at the IBC. One survey respondent, when asked how the IBC influenced his/her work, reported, "The focus on China seems to take a toll on the availability of key personnel." There was dialogue expressed from some interviewees that the faculty may be "spread too thin", and that because "administration is gone abroad quite often" to the IBC, getting things done at the home campus maybe more challenging. These respondents expressed this as a general feeling they had, and did not necessarily know if the correlation was accurate. Almost all (88 per cent) of the UNLV

survey respondents who identified the IBC as having had a negative influence on the home programme, cited resource issues. The primary reason provided by survey participants was the negative impact on resources, specifically human resources. Seven of the eight respondents specifically noted resource issues, such as, "A waste of money and manpower"; "Takes away our faculty that are needed here"; "Draining resources, taking away faculty needed here". One response seems to best summarise this view: "UNLV's Singapore campus has used a lot of administrative and faculty time, effort, and resources that I believe would have been more effectively used on our main campus."

These findings are in agreement with Randall's (2008) assessment that the delivery of degrees overseas depends on adequate support of resources, such as staffing, both at home and abroad. The view that the IBC affected the human resource capacity of the home programme appears to be connected to the financial structure as a state-funded institution. As the excerpt below reveals, the timing of state budget cuts and the need to serve the IBC affected the human resource capacity of the home programme.

> ...our particular operating environment is one where the state has cut our budget. We are not a private college; we're a public college, so we deal with state funding of education. …my opinion is that it [the IBC] has stressed us even further in terms of covering the courses there in Singapore. It's supposed to be self-maintaining, but it was always offered to the faculty [as an] opportunity for us to teach. We have succeeded in covering courses over there, but it hasn't been easy in my opinion (C3 I4).

This respondent also expresses that an impact of the IBC was that "too much of the talent pool" of the home programme was sent to the IBC. Specifically, it was reported that when the Ph.D. programme director was on assignment at the IBC, "it wasn't the best" for graduate students. This respondent also stated, "I think the doctorate students last year were acutely aware of this absence." The impact of this was explained that student activities, such as choosing a chair for their research or just keeping things moving forward or smoothly, was more difficult due to this absence.

In some survey responses, it appears that it is less about direct impact on resources, but rather that the branch campus was not successful in achieving certain outcomes. For example, it was stated that, "It [IBC] does not make money for us." "It has not been

financially beneficial." "The programme has not been as successful as it should have been." When asked what the main impact of the IBC was on the home programme, one interviewee stated, "I think we had to flip the bill for a lot of it from our end." This belief, regarding the negative financial impact on the home programme, is somewhat surprising, since it was stated by multiple interviewees that the IBC and home campus are separated economically and financially. As one interviewee revealed, it was not legally possible to repatriate money, due to the structural arrangement between the two campuses.

Two respondents specifically reported that the IBC provided financial benefits to the home programme. While one interviewee specifically connected increased enrolment with increased financial benefits, one open–ended response to the online survey question stated that the OBC was positive for the home programme, because it was a "good source of cash flow". It is unclear if this impact emanates from enrolment in the branch campus, increased transfer of students into the home programme, or something else. One respondent did identify the main impact of the IBC on the home programme as the financial resources generated from the IBC:

> It's overwhelmingly economic. It's a huge amount and again without being privy to the exact information it's ah increased the enrolment, therefore you increase I guess revenues for the department. C1 I3

In addition to the IBC's impact on programme resources, the view surfaced that the IBC may have affected the home programme's strategy and vision. The next section presents these findings.

8.2.6   Influence on programme strategy

The IBC appears to have had some influence on the home programme's focus and vision. One survey respondent, in affirming that the IBC had been a positive influence, stated the following: "Expanded vision and reach of the programme, giving it greater depth and breadth." Some interviewees, when asked what they thought the main impact was explained that the IBC was a factor in helping their programme achieve an international focus:

…long-term, definitely a focus for the hospitality programme. The international focus, which had the programme not had first-hand experience, we would never, first of all, it's desired to have international focus probably, and secondly, we wouldn't have the confidence or credibility to state that the programme is really international (C2 I1).

… to internationalise our programme, to increase enrolment, our university focus is to globalise. We talk about a World's Ahead education, so we are looking to have an international presence (C1I5).

Another interviewee explained that there is a "bit of disconnect with an institution of higher education from the United States", and what Asia may want or need. This respondent explained that the foreign government is interested in workforce development, and they [the university] are not concerned with that. The excerpt below describes this distinction:

> …the governments are as interested in workforce development as much as anything, and we are not necessarily in work force development. We are here to deliver undergraduate and graduate degrees in hospitality, not necessarily create people that can work at the front desk of McDonald's or some hotel. We develop future managers and leaders (C3 I2).

Interestingly, this respondent also reports that the programme's strategy and focus changed to meet this government demand. This respondent explained that due to initial low enrolments in the IBC's undergraduate and graduate programmes, the university did develop a workforce development programme. The excerpt below summarises this view:

> In the early days, …the flow of students from the undergraduate and master's programme weren't what had been expected. They did develop the workforce development programmes, and had a contract even with the workforce development agency in Singapore. It's just not what the university was set up to do (C3 I2).

In two of the IBC examples, it is clear that the IBC resulted in other additional degree programmes abroad. Over 50 per cent of the survey respondents (see Table 8-1) cited increased interest to create additional degree programmes abroad, and the actual creation of other programmes overseas. These new international activities were not all specific to the academic degree programme in the hospitality and tourism programme. There is some evidence that UNLV's experience with its IBC in Singapore has led to a new domestic strategy to focus on the assets and attributes of being a hub for gaming

and gaming education. The excerpt below demonstrates that the challenges with operating an IBC from home may result in the decision to revaluate the resource commitment to transnational education.

> …the problems can be more significant than what the size of the operation would suggest. I think that is where he had to decide how best to allocate our resources, our total resources, to make sure you are delivering the best strategic experience you can for the state and private funding that exists. And that is probably why there has been some retrenchment internationally, because people saw the challenges absorbed a lot more of attention; not just monetary. Then perhaps the initiative suggested it would be based on the size of it (C3 I2).

This respondent, who was also the past dean of the programme, expressed that they did not need a branch campus to deliver what makes most sense for them. Through the IBC experience, he concluded that what they do well in the U.S. is executive education and leadership development. Interestingly, the IBC seems to have moved the home programme toward a strategy focusing on the uniqueness of their domestic academic and industry setting. The excerpts below give insight into this new direction:

> The other part of it in my mind is I like to play offense. In one regard, you can say creating these campuses overseas is playing offense, and I suppose it is, but so our retrenchment in my case isn't defence. We haven't had as positive an experience as we would have liked to have had, but in my mind, playing offense is combining this academic programme, that has been created over the last 45 years at the university, that really has defined excellence in hospitality education. Taking that and combining it with what does make us unique in the world, and that is the world's largest living lab. I really do think that is the offense that makes sense for our particular institution. …We have something unique here (In Las Vegas). I think that gives us an opportunity to create and continue to enhance our brand… is attractive to a foreign student and, over time, I think we enhance the academic experience. I think we increase the quality of the international students we have, and all that feeds on itself, and in a positive way, allows us to define what makes most sense for UNLV. So, it's not necessarily to disrespect or be defensive about a foreign branch strategy. It's to say strategically for us, to deliver in the best most effective way and create the greatest advantage for the university and for the State, is focus here at home (C3 I2).

This view is connected to the strategy to use the gaming and hospitality industry as "the world's largest laboratory combined with a world class academic programme." Another

interviewee identifies this same change in direction for the home programme when discussing the impact of the IBC:

> Our strategy right now at UNLV is we have looked at Houston [TX], in terms of they are the expert in energy and oil, even though the industry is now dispersed and not just based in Texas. …We are looking at UNLV, and Las Vegas should follow Houston's example, in terms of the intelligent centre of gambling and research, and should be policy and regulation should be Las Vegas. Even though now it's all over the world. We are getting more ethnocentric, more geographically centred, instead of looking to expand (C3 I4).

As reported in both the interviews and public reports, it is likely that this IBC will close in 2015. One reported reason for closing the campus publically was failure to renegotiate more funding from the Singaporean government (Takahashi, 2013). Reported during the interviews, the reason might be that the original business structure of the IBC was poorly structured and negotiated. It was the opinion of one interviewee that faculty may not have the right background needed to manage and negotiate expansion overseas. When asked about offering their degree in other overseas locations, the following comment emerged regarding this lack of experience:

> …in Education, they take a full professor and put him in charge of something. Now that full professor, all they have done is teach and research. They may have not managed a large project or have ever had any negotiations with the government and all of that (C3 I7).

The findings seem to match Randall's (2008) view that one of the lessons learned is the danger in underestimating the need for strategic planning and adequate resource management when delivering a degree abroad.

Results in this section may have similarities to the literature on multinational corporations when they gain knowledge and experience from setting up their international operations. The findings suggest the home programme gains knowledge critical to internationalisation as described by Blomstermo et al (2004). Similar to internationalising a firm and consistent with Yan, Muldami and Meyer (2008), knowledge transfer can occur when the home programme learns how to export its degree programmes in new international locations. A possible explanation for why this knowledge transfer and experience may have emerged could be because the IBCs in this

study were also some of the first significant transnational educational activities for their universities. As some of the first IBCs for these universities, it seems possible that the experience resulted in a significant new understanding of the requirements and efforts needed to export their degree overseas. This experience appears to have resulted in new projects to export their degrees overseas, or the reconsideration of the current IBC effort.

In the next section, the discussion is directed toward the IBC on the specific resources of faculty and staff centred at the home programme.

8.3   Impact on faculty and staff at the home programme

Two areas of specific importance to the primary research question are faculty and staff which have been identified as an important element in programme internationalisation (Leask, 1999). Taking this into consideration, impacts on faculty can be classified into two broad areas: those that are factors of internationalisation, and those impacts that are unrelated to integration of an international or intercultural dimension into the function of the faculty. It is important to note again, as Black (2004) identifies in her work, that while it is essential to analyse the subject of internationalisation of faculty, students, and curriculum in turn, they are difficult to separate in practise, as they relate to and depend on each other. Therefore, this next section addresses impacts on faculty associated with internationalisation and those impacts that influence their work environment and responsibilities.

Table 8-2   **IBC influence on faculty and staff at the home programme –**
online survey results

	Yes	
	n	%
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	34	65.40
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at the programme's home campus?	33	63.50
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	28	53.80
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree programme you teach in?	27	52.90
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree programme you teach in?	16	30.80
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	13	25.00
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	5	9.60
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	3	5.80

8.3.1   Internationalising faculty at the home campus

This section of findings and analysis examines the contribution of the IBC on the internationalisation of the home campus faculty and staff. While there is very little primary data available in the literature addressing this specific question, there is, however, a considerable amount of literature published on what constitutes the elements of faculty internationalisation.   Sangpikul (2009) provides a useful approach to categorising the themes of faculty internationalisation. The internationalising elements of faculty are separated between recruitment and human resource development, and professional development (Sangpikul, 2009). This broad division is used to organise the analysis and discussion of the impacts the IBC has had on faculty. While faculty activities are directly connected to curriculum and teaching, the impacts and themes associated with curriculum and pedagogy are presented separately in Section 8.4: Effects on curriculum and teaching.

8.3.2   Recruitment of international faculty and staff

Respondents were asked to identify whether foreign experience was considered when hiring new faculty and staff to work at the home campus, due to the IBC. The quantitative survey results illustrate that only about 27 per cent of the respondents

confirm that foreign experience was considered when hiring new faculty and staff to work at the home campus as a result of the IBC. While this element of faculty internationalisation was confirmed by respondents, it was one of the least-reported influences of the IBC on the home programme (see Table 8-2).

The secondary sources and interview data did not provide any evidence to support that international and faculty were hired at the home campus as a result of the IBC. The overall evidence that the IBC generated recruitment of non-nationals or staff with international experience as a result of the IBC is negligible. Prior studies have noted the importance of the presence and recruitment of international faculty and staff as an element of internationalisation on the home campus (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Black, 2004; Sangpikul, 2009). These findings seem to be consistent with Green et al (2008) would found in their study that less than 10 per cent of universities reported any use of internationalisation in hiring and promotion.

8.3.3 International human resource development of faculty and staff

There was no evidence in the primary or secondary data collection that indicated the existence of the IBC resulted in opportunities for home programme faculty and staff to study, take courses, or earn degrees internationally. It was, however reported through interviews and secondary documents that foreign faculty from the IBC were provided degree and training opportunities at the home campus, in order to develop their academic abilities for employment at the IBC. In the dialogue regarding the impact of the IBC on their programme, some interviewees from FIU identified IBC faculty receiving training at the home programme. The purpose for this training was reported as a method to modify the teaching style at the IBC, in order to make it more interactive and participatory. The three excerpts below describe this development of IBC faculty through training and collaboration with the home programme faculty.

> We were able to, with China, have faculty come from China, come over here and train with our faculty here, and go back and teach the courses, for the most part (C1 I5).
>
> I would just add one more comment. We have interchanged our faculty quite a bit, which has been extremely interesting to have the faculty that are used to teaching a lecture style there, come here and watch how we teach. …we do encourage the more participatory model and we do

believe that is going back to China with the faculty that have come here (C1 I2).

…but the good thing is the collaboration and coordination between the faculty here and the faculty there, and the admin team here and there, has radically improved over the years. It was never adversarial. I am not saying that whatsoever, but to try and get two different philosophies of an Asian and what I call a sage on a stage, versus a very engaging kind of, not a didactic, but a facilitated kind of instructional learning environment that we foster. That has taken a few years to try and, try to get across (C1 I6).

The approach to internalisation of faculty through human resource development is defined in the literature as providing home-based faculty with opportunities to work or study abroad through either exchanges or scholarships, to obtain training, education or international understanding (Black, 2004; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; Sangpikul, 2009). The section that follows presents the data on faculty exchanges connected to the internationalisation and human resource development of the home faculty.

This study produced evidence that the IBC provided international exchanges to home faculty and staff across all three academic IBC examples. There was strong quantitative evidence from the online survey results suggesting that the IBC resulted in the exchange of faculty between the IBC and the home campus. This element of faculty internationalisation was the second-most identified influence of the IBC on the home campus, with approximately 67 per cent of the respondents affirming this outcome through the quantitative survey. Additionally, 42 per cent of the participants in the quantitative phase of the study identified having taught at the IBC or having travelled there on official business.

Of those who took part in the interview phase, 82 per cent indicated that they had gone to the IBC for academic purposes, either to teach or take part in administrative duties. The findings broadly support that the IBC provided an opportunity for faculty and staff to participate in international work experiences. This is consistent with the internalising element of faculty exchanges, which Black (2004) describes as important, given that faculty (unlike students) have a more permanent character within the academic programmes and need to continually update their international experience.

A small number of respondents indicated that the IBC provided some faculty and staff with their first international teaching and working experiences. One interviewee, who was also the current department chair, reported that the faculty gained confidence from their experience of teaching at the IBC, since for most of them it was their first international experience teaching and working overseas. These results establish that the IBC provided an opportunity for international work experiences. These findings are consistent with Jones (2009), who suggests that involvement in transnational education gives the exporting institution's faculty more international experience. The next section discusses the outcomes of these international exchanges to the IBC by faculty and staff from the home programme.

8.3.4   Development of international understanding

The literature identifies faculty exchanges as important, primarily because this activity provides faculty members with a broader international understanding of society, culture and business (Sharma & Roy, 1996). When respondents were asked in the phase one survey questionnaire how the IBC had influenced their work at the home campus, evidence suggested that greater international understanding resulted in two of the academic programmes. Findings from one academic programme strongly suggest that faculty and staff became more globally and culturally aware.

Approximately one-third of the respondents from RIT reported that greater international understanding emerged in the perspectives of industry, geography, and cultural awareness as a result of the IBC. The following statements were given as responses as to the influence of IBC on their work: 'Enhanced my cultural awareness'; 'It has given me insights into another culture'; and 'It has helped me to see the role of culture in constructing knowledge.' Additionally, it was reported by one respondent that, 'It has enhanced my appreciation for understanding an eastern European perspective'; and '…as well as hospitality corporations'. Faculty from FIU reported that IBC provided them with a greater understanding of global issues and understanding 'the local needs of hospitality operators' in China.

One interviewee thought that part of the mission of the IBC was to help develop faculty understanding of an international environment.

> …the goal or objective is really to benefit the faculty. The faculty were allowed an opportunity to really engage with a new student, to engage with the industry, to engage with other cultures, and that wouldn't have happened if they only developed their teaching at the local campus at RIT (C2 I9).

These findings are in agreement with other studies that found that international exchanges and teaching in an international environment allow faculty to internationalise their experience (Hale & Tijmstra, 1990).

An approach to internationalising faculty identified in the literature is to expose home faculty to international guest speakers and faculty (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Black, 2004). While some faculty reported that they had some encounters with visiting faculty from the IBC on the home campus, this was not revealed as something that advanced their own international knowledge. Twenty-seven per cent (see Table 8-2) of the survey respondents affirmed that the IBC resulted in guest speakers to the home campus programme. Interview data did not reveal any evidence of guest speakers from the IBC as an influence on the home campus.

The majority of individuals at UNLV reported in the online survey that the overseas branch campus did not influence their work on the home campus. Nearly 70 per cent of respondents reported that "it really hasn't", "not at all" or "very little". One respondent, however, expressed that the IBC had "not had a lot of influence" on their specific work, but "influenced the overall amount of work, atmosphere, etc., for the college". Two interviewees from UNLV did relate the IBC to some additional international insight for faculty. One view was experience at the IBC may have influenced course content, while the other provided the respondent with a new international perspective.

> Number one, it broadened the faculties' view of their subject matter, especially so in law, in human resources and management, in the way that the different cultures run. I know some of them brought that information back, and we are trying to incorporate a little bit of international focus in all of our classes, so that helped in a lot of those classes (C3 I7).

> My personal work, it has added an element that I really like. I went over there and paid a site visit to IHG's Asian headquarters, and was just overwhelmed with how professional and organised and strategic it was. You go to what you think are third world countries, and sometimes you

are sometimes surprised and humbled at the sophistication you see, their country compared to your own country (C3 I4).

A possible explanation for the divergent results may be related to the past international experience of the faculty and staff. For example, the department chair at RIT explained that the programme has arranged more international experiences for students because of the confidence of faculty who have gone to teach directly at RITs IBC. She explained that confidence was gained from the experience teaching at the IBC because for most of the faculty it was their first experience teaching and working overseas. This response may explain why the majority of the RIT responses to the survey question regarding how the IBC influenced them personally, cited examples relating to the development of an international understanding. Overall, findings suggest that the existence of the IBC resulted in some broader international understanding of society, culture and business for the home programme faculty. Additionally, faculty also reported that the experience working at an IBC provided them with an international perspective that was utilised in the classroom. These findings are presented in Section 8.4.2: Pedagogy.

Black (2004) identifies a less emphasised outcome of international exchanges, which is, faculty and staff now share a common experience with their international students at the home campus. International faculty exchanges are reported as providing faculty with the understanding for the experiences students encounter when suddenly being exposed to a foreign environment, and may assist faculty in supporting international students more effectively (Black, 2004; National Geographic, 2002). Findings from the online survey suggest one of the most-identified (65 per cent response) outcomes of the IBC on individuals was their increased willingness toward working with international students. The results of the interviews produced some evidence that the home faculty gained experience from working at the IBC that assisted in their interactions with international students. Three interviewees specifically identified that working at the IBC made them more sensitive to cultural differences and provided them with the ability to relate to international students while back at the home campus. It was also reported that faculty were able to relate to the challenges students face from the demands of travelling far from home over long distances, due to this shared experience.

> …I opened up to my international students in understanding, especially when I know they just got back last night and they are sitting in my class. Because I know what they are going through, their travel anxieties, the fact that they have left home again and left everything thousands of miles away. So, I think it opened me up to having experienced those things to understand what they are experiencing (C3 I7).

Overall, these results indicate that the IBC provided faculty with an international working, teaching, and travelling experience by going to the IBC.

Interview data supports that the IBC resulted in additional international understanding that may have also influenced curriculum and teaching. The following responses to the open-ended survey question regarding what faculty and staff members thought were the influences of the IBC, introduces this connection:

> The ability to observe and interact with other cultures allows for a global perspective, which extends into the classroom (Quant RIT).

> Adapting the courses to appeal to a global audience rather than just for the U.S., takes some time and really you cannot do this well until you have visited the campus to observe the culture (Quant RIT).

> It brings a global perspective of hospitality businesses and cultures. We were required to "dive into" a culture dramatically different from the U.S. This caused many courses to include a broader worldview of their topic (Quant RIT).

These findings correspond with Kwok, Arpan and Folks, Jr. (1994), who suggest that international knowledge gained through international exchanges is essential for internationalising curriculum. The discussion of this influence on teaching and curriculum is presented further in Section 8.4. The next section examines the influences on the professional development of faculty, specifically the IBC's influence on their academic work and expertise.

8.3.5   Professional development faculty at the home programme

To assess the existence of professional international activities resulting from the IBC, six items were investigated in the online survey (see Appendix E). Respondents were asked to identify whether they were aware of professional academic activities resulting for the home programme faculty and staff or for themselves directly. One-half of the survey respondents (see Table 8-2) conferred that the IBC resulted in opportunities for

their home-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad. One-quarter of the respondents (see Table 8-2) identified that the IBC resulted in opportunities for them directly to present papers at international conferences abroad.

Some interview participants mention briefly scholarship activities stemming from the existence of their IBC. In each case, the international location is the stimuli for the research work. One interviewee expressed that the IBC provided research opportunities to faculty at the home campus to compare the intercultural classroom differences between the two campuses (C3 I7).

> …from my perspective and it's also given us a research agenda and to loosely focus on Mediterranean diet the nutrition and the Mediterranean diet. While that was not the main reason we started teaching the course, a colleague's time spent in Croatia did influence us in putting together a course that we taught now for seven years and that was the course that we adapted to this spring to take students. We have done two posters secessions out of that or we will as of the fall. So, it's loosely contributed to our research agenda as well (C2 I1).

> We have gotten some pretty good play in terms of presentations and we just started in the refereed article kind of domain. We have either myself or other faculty here co-facilitate and collaborate on research. Because it is a using the term developing kind of concept of tourism over there, anything that so far we have put forward within some of the hospitality journals, is being taken or being accepted. It doesn't mean it doesn't have to be revised and resubmitted, but everyone is curious about the hospitality and tourism and the state of it within China... it's faculty that report to me within my academic unit, so I pair them up with faculty members in our programme in Tianjin (C1 I6).

Approximately 48 per cent identified that the IBC resulted in co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the programme at the IBC. These results must be interpreted with caution, since over 60 per cent of evidence supporting outcomes related to professional conference papers and co-creation of conferences originate from one HEI. There is some evidence to suggest that these results are linked to an international conference hosted by the home programme at its IBC. RIT hosted EuroChrie in collaboration with its IBC in 2010.

A minority of respondents (9.6 per cent) indicated that the IBC resulted in joint research individually with their colleagues abroad. The least affirmed influence on home-based

faculty was publications with colleagues abroad (see Table 8-2). Individually, only a small percentage (5.8 per cent) verified that they published with colleagues abroad as a result of the IBC. One respondent indicated that the IBC gave them the ability to work with students at the IBC on research projects. This was the only open-ended evidence to support such activity in the quantitative portion of this study. These findings represent a source of faculty internationalisation through international research described by Kwok et al (1994). These results support what Brookes and Becket (2011) term the informal dimensions of internationalisation, which include international networking and conference participation. These can encourage faculty members to develop more international perspectives and knowledge of industry across different countries and cultures.

Findings from the online survey (see Table 8-2) suggest that the two most identified outcomes of the IBC on individual respondents was that it had increased their willingness toward working with international students (65 per cent response) and on international issues (63 per cent) at the programmes home campus.

In addition to analysing the internationalising impact on faculty and staff, it is important to consider how the IBC is affecting their work at the home campus irrespective of the international dimension. Looking beyond the IBC's role in internationalisation of the faculty and staff the next section discusses the possible benefits and detriments associated with the delivery of the degree at an IBC on the home based faculty.

8.3.6   Impacts on faculty work environment

While the primary purpose of the research was to determine how the IBC contributes to the internationalisation of the home programme, one of the objectives was also to categorise all impacts of the IBC. This section examines the IBC impacts on faculty, unrelated to integration of an international or intercultural dimension into their work as academics.

The results of the study indicate that the impact on faculty employment has been both positive and negative. These findings support some influence on the quality of the work environment, and the responsibilities and opportunities of faculty and staff.

The dialogue emerged from some faculty that there was pressure to go and work at the IBC. One interviewee commented:

> I think the problem we faced with Dubrovnik was that initially we were told we were in charge of the curriculum by our dean, and we thought that meant that we needed to offer the courses, write the outlines and that sort of thing. But, what he really meant was that we were to be forced to go over there and teach (C2 I5).

Another interviewee expresses stronger sentiment that he felt that the requirement to teach and support the IBC was required to potentially stay employed:

> Originally, there was a demand that you do it. You had no choice. The alternatives were either you did or didn't. If you didn't, there is a chance that you would be eliminated. …You had a choice. You either went or did it online, but you were required to do something. Now there is no requirement to do any of that (C2 I6).

It is unclear if this pressure on faculty to teach may have affected the quality of their work teaching at home or abroad. These findings appear to agree with Howe and Martin's (1998), who indicate that there is pressure on staff members to teach in overseas sites that may have quality impacts on trying to maintain efforts at home and abroad.

A small number of those interviewed suggested that faculty and staff were not consulted in the creation of the IBC as much as they would have liked. One interviewee explained that initially there was excitement in opening the IBC, but that there could have been more *inclusion* for faculty and *from the strategic perspective, probably could have been a little bit more encompassing*. Another interviewee expressed a similar view and expressed that this lack of consultation had a negative influence on the relations within the programme. The following excerpt reveals this opinion:

> I think the big issue was when I first got here and continued to be that way, was that this is an administrative issue. To put the campus over there and the faculty didn't feel they were consulted or involved. I think of course that creates alienation right away (C3 I5).

These findings seem to support Bacow (2007) who suggests that if faculty are not actively engaged, it may result in a sceptical view of the plans to go abroad. The sentiment of faculty that they may not have been fully engaged in the decision to export

their degree abroad, is not surprising. As presented in Chapter 7, the decision to deliver the degree abroad was often associated with the vision of the dean or programme director. There is very little evidence to suggest that the IBC initiative was a strategic, collaborative project of the faculty and staff to internationalise their programme.

Factors regarding compensation for working at the IBC were also identified as something that may have impacted the work atmosphere at the home programme. One interviewee disclosed that a negative impact in the early years of the IBC was the perception by faculty that they were not being compensated adequately, and that there were tax implications. Two interviewees felt strongly about this issue. One respondent, in reflecting on their experience, expressed:

> It was the tax issue that pissed everybody off primarily. If you went over and had to stay, because of the laws and because of the tax situation, it didn't help people. Nothing has really changed to any degree that I know of (C2 I6).

Another interviewee explained that the tax and compensation issue was handled so poorly that they had threatened legal action. Part of this opinion is related to the communication and handling of filing international taxes, and the strategy used for covering expenses while teaching at the IBC. The dialogue below is included to provide a better understanding of what was likely a very difficult and sensitive impact on the work environment for this individual:

> …at one point, RIT had hired a company to do our taxes in Croatia. …As a result of their doing our taxes, apparently they overpaid or over collected money for the taxes, …but there wound up being a pot of money over in Croatia, which belonged technically to each individual because of the legal environment over there, yet RIT felt it was deserving of that money. The one issue was they wanted people to go over and sign a Power of Attorney over their income taxes to allow RIT access to get this money. When I said, *no, I won't do that, because it gives you power of attorney to do anything you want with my taxes*, and they said, *well we wouldn't do that*, and I said, *I don't care whether you would or not, it gives you the power and I won't give it to you*. They became quite feisty and I said if you want, you can talk to my lawyer and all discussions stopped and it was never discussed with me again. That was one incident.
>
> The other incident was at one point we had been told when we first went over that we could take the foreign tax credit. One issue that I had was

that RIT would make you fully whole. *We [RIT] will make you whole for the time you were over in Croatia.* What RIT meant by that was, *we will pay you the same salary, we will give you an allowance to pay for your apartment while you are in Croatia, however, all the expenses back here, your mortage, etc. you would still have to make those payments.* When we went over the first time, the Accounting Office at RIT said, *if you file for the international tax credit, you will get enough money back to cover those expenses*, and that in fact turned out to be true. I filed for that several times, and suddenly RIT decided that they deserved that money and not me. So, they not only wanted me to re-file my taxes for the year before, but again they wanted to be able to look at my taxes for the last five years and determine how much of the international tax credit they would get, and they would bill me for that amount. I said, *you can't legally do that,* and they said they could. I again hired the tax lawyer and I said, *here, call RIT and explain they can't do this.* Once again, at one point they suggested it would not be well for me to maintain my position if I did not show them this information. I said, *if you do that I will sue you and here is the name of my lawyer*, and then again all conversations stopped and I was never asked to do that (C2 I5).

One interviewee explained that since their programme was part of a state university that significant expenses, such as airfare and living, were so slow in repayment, that it was a disincentive to teach at the IBC. These findings are in accord with Dewey and Duff (2009) who identify institutional policies may be a disincentive for faculty to participate in international initiatives.

One perspective on how the IBC impacted faculty was reported regarding the their work environment at the IBC. This was indicated by one participant who stated that the facilities at the home campus were *much more supportive in instruction* than they are at the IBC. He stated he was *used to having a computer in his office, a private office. I am sorry; I am used to having that, having a printer just down the hall that generates large amounts of copies.* While a minority view, this process for engaging and sending faculty to the IBC to work was, for some, a negative experience.

The quality of the workplace and environment at the IBC was rarely mentioned in the interviews. This is not unexpected, since this research was focused primarily on the impacts at the home campus, but does reveal that working at the IBC may have had an overall influence on the quality of work for faculty. For example, one answer from the online survey question regarding how the IBC impacted faculty and staff personally was that the IBC, "Made it much busier and much more rewarding." It is unclear what

specifically made the IBC more rewarding. As one interviewee said, after describing interacting with the IBC students during the summer programme at the home campus, *I mean, it's fun.*

Findings did not reveal many significant personal influences on the individual. Two respondents, reflecting on how the opportunity to work at the IBC had affected them, did report some noteworthy personal outcomes. One interviewee reflected on their experience as something that was an unexpected opportunity to grow personally:

> I just think for me personally, sometimes when I am sitting in China in a meeting of all Chinese people and I'm carrying on FIU business, it's like this little wow, can you believe I am doing this? It's a really nice thing that has happened that because of this connection and experience, my life has become much more globally oriented. I was always open to diversity and open to differences and challenges that way, but I wasn't quite so invested that I would go over several times a year to another country and do business in another country. So, for me personally, it's been a lot of growth (C1 I5).

Another interviewee revealed that the IBC provided them the opportunity to work full-time at the home campus.

> Well for me personally, that is how I got my foot in the door. They needed someone to teach here in Rochester one quarter, in Croatia one quarter, and another satellite campus in Kosovo for one quarter. By agreeing to do that, that is how I got my foot in the door as a full-time lecturer (C2 I7).

The next section examines how the absence of faculty and staff, away at the IBC, may have influenced the work environment at home.

Some evidence suggests (identified in Section 8.2.5 Impact on Programme Resources), that the faculty and staff believed that the IBC negatively affected the availability of faculty and staff at the home programme. Very few interviewees identified how this personally impacted their own work responsibilities an activities. One interviewee did express the general feeling that since the administration is often gone serving the IBC, it may have influenced the amount of time it took to get something done on the home campus. As expressed in the excerpts below, this was their general feeling, not something they were completely confident about:

> We do have administration in China, but they still need to answer to the administration in Miami, which means that the administration in Miami does have to be in China often. It's not just China period, like one spot on a map and you move on, it's the potential in Asia, let alone Tianjin, China which is where our campus is, is enormous, so our administration is abroad quite often. That can, it can make things at the home university a challenge (C1 I3).

When asked has it impacted their work specifically, they explained:

> It's hard to definitively say yes. I mean, if that sounds like I am putting up an iron curtain to make a defence. But at times, if I am not privy to information about something like a budget, and I have a budget request for something, and it doesn't happen, and coincidentally the administrator that would approve it is out of town, that doesn't necessarily mean that is what is holding it up. So, I think the gentle answer is no. It hasn't, but I think the more like sceptical research answer is, I can't prove that it has, but I can see if someone came with proof that it's plausible or it could, sure. It's usually the top administration that is gone, so sometimes it's hard to know how far up the bull you have to climb to get a blender in the classroom, and if people are abroad, sometimes that makes it, you know (C1 I3).

Two interviewees also indicated that they had provided their course materials to colleagues going to teach at the IBC. Since classifying whether the IBC had a positive or negative impact on the home programme was not an objective of this research, it is not completely clear how faculty viewed helping colleagues going to teach at the IBC. One interviewee did state:

> I have provided colleagues in Singapore the entire courses to deliver, so they didn't have to do any prep work. But, I would do that with you or anyone else. I don't consider that work (C3 I3).

Participants in the online survey revealed the loss of faculty and staff as a negative impact of the IBC on the home programme, but did not cite specific examples related to how this influenced their own work. Besides the possible absence of administration when needed for approving needs and assisting other faculty with courses for delivery at the IBC, it is not clear how the absence of faculty impacted the faculty responsibilities back at the home programme.

While the loss of human resource teaching at the branch campus supports Black's (2004) view that missing faculty members is problematic for the programme, it is less

clear how this impacted the individual remaining faculty and staff at the home campus. There was no evidence that faculty and staff had more teaching, committee or student advisement duties due to the loss of faculty on assignments at the IBC.

Whether or not there is a connection between the work environment at home and the absence of faculty while teaching at the IBC, evidence suggests that having the IBC resulted in more work for those based on the home campus with both teaching and administrative responsibilities.

It appears that some interviewees had multiple responsibilities between teaching and administrative responsibilities as part of their home programmes governance. Not only did these administrative responsibilities sometime change, but part of these responsibilities include both the IBC as well as the home programme. For example, one respondent expressed how the IBC was affecting their workload:

> Well, when I was associate dean for academic affairs last year and operations the year before, that I had to be thinking about how we would deliver some of those courses in Singapore. Particularly the lab courses are difficult. That is one way it impacted me. And thinking about how those students are going to be integrated here when they come for their short course here in America in Las Vegas (C3 I6).

The dean for one programme described the impact of the IBC on his first year of work as *almost all consuming*. He explained that:

> ...when you have a campus that is 10,000 miles away that needs attention, you have to give it. If you look at the number of students that we had relative to the number of students at the main campus, the amount of time that was spent working with the campus in Singapore was disproportionate, so it was distracting (C3 I2).

When asked how the IBC influenced their own work, the issue continued to emerge that it resulted in more work or additional responsibilities. The following excerpts express this opinion:

> I have more. More issues that can go wrong or, you know problems and things I have to attend to. When things go wrong there, I have to fix it. So, just more work. A whole different set of concerns and issues and challenges. So, more work (C1 I5).

…when you run a programme of this level and magnitude; it takes a high degree of coordination, which in the standards part and faculty development part, but it's going to take a lot of time. So, I said I am over there four to five times a year and it may not even be enough. It is now with all the people we have going over. So, those are big shoes to fill. You have programme reviews that need to be done; you have the annual student learning outcome reviews that have to be done on this programme, our online programme, our master's programme, online master's programme and executive ed[ucation], and then finally the China programme. So it's a boat load of work is what it amounts to (C1 I6).

So I guess, physically travelling, delivering course work, preparing and delivering course work from through online distance learning, that has been an impact. That has been a lot of work doing that (C2 I2).

Oh, well, me personally in the respect that I supported doing all the scheduling and when they went from 150 students to 500 students, oversee that function. So that added a lot to my administrative position (C3 I7).

Similar to the findings above, respondents explained that the IBC became part of their area of responsibility. One respondent expressed that they were working to develop alumni programmes and was asked to assist with coordinating tours of the overseas campus when donors travelled there. Another respondent identified having learned more about scheduling and support for the students at the IBC. In contrast to studies that identify the challenge of covering the teaching and administrative roles of their colleagues while away at the IBC, the challenge may also be the additional responsibilities placed on staff to oversee the functions of the programme at the IBC.

The next section turns to the effects of the IBC on the curriculum and pedagogy.

8.4   Effect on curriculum and pedagogy

To assess the impacts of the IBC on curriculum and teaching, the online survey examined four items. These items were used to determine if additional courses emphasising international aspects of the degree programme were created, or if faculty were adding international content to their courses due to the existence of the IBC. Interviewees were also queried to determine if curriculum or pedagogy had been influenced by the delivery of their degree at an IBC. The student and faculty mobility resulting from the IBC appears to have had some influence on the curriculum and

pedagogy of the home campus. The IBC, as an international endeavour, may have also been a factor that affected the curriculum and pedagogy. The term 'curriculum' in this thesis, is defined by what programmes teach or offer as courses. 'Pedagogy' is defined by how these courses are taught. While interviewees sometimes use these terms interchangeably, their conventional meanings above are used to organise the findings below.

8.4.1   Curriculum

Survey respondents were asked to indicate if new course requirements emerged as an outcome of the IBC. Some participants (29 per cent) from the online survey indicated that the IBC resulted in the consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum. Thirty per cent of the survey respondents confirmed that an outcome of the IBC was the creation of new courses that emphasised an international aspect of the hospitality and tourism degree.

When asked whether the IBC had influenced the curriculum, interviewees were mixed in their views. Approximately 41 per cent of the respondents said that the IBC did not impact the curriculum at the home programme. Some interpreted this question from the perspective of whether the home programme changed its curriculum for the IBC. This is expressed in the following excerpts:

> I would have to say no. Miami is the dog and China is more the tail. Well, just because of accreditation restrictions and everything that is offered in Miami must be offered in China (C1 I4).

> No, no, no. Definitely not. The faculty has been pretty independent about it. Not all the faculty were excited about expanding to Singapore. They thought it would dilute the brand and they have been pretty rigid about the quality level that was required of Singapore (C3 I3).

There was no interview evidence of a foreign language requirement becoming part of the curriculum, or that effort was being directed toward adding this as a requirement to the programme due to the presence of IBC. There was some evidence that the IBC had resulted in new course options at the home programme. These were the development of elective courses with a short-term study abroad component to the IBC. There appears to

be only one example of a new required course offered at the home programme due to the international environment of the IBC.

One faculty member expressed that they were proposing to offer a new course specifically focusing on the international cuisine of Asia, partially due to their programme being offered in China. The interviewee explained that this course had not yet been approved or delivered to-date. Some interviewees from RIT identified a new required course in global standards that was created for both the home campus and IBC, due to the differences between Europe and the U.S. This course appears to be included in the curriculum, since the standards for service internationally were different, as expressed in the excerpt below:

> …global standards. You could do a comparison analysis between a U.S. standard and a European standard. That course, specifically in global standards, especially in the area of service, I think was excellent. Certainly, talking about Dubrovnik. But also when you look at service standards of Asia. In the U.S., technology was the tool to enhance service, and in Asia it's individuals that are added to the equation in order to increase service standards. So, doing a comparative analysis of service in Dubrovnik versus service in the United States, that certainly was a great exercise for students and faculty (C2 I9).

The IBC seems to have little impact in generating internationally focused courses or foreign languages, as called for as a method to achieve an internationally focused hospitality and tourism curriculum by Perry Hobson and Josiam (1996). This is not surprising, since the home programme curriculum is often sought by the foreign location as a strategy to internationalise their own educational environment, through providing a western perspective and English instruction.

Elective courses at the home programme were also created to utilise the location of the IBC as a short-term study abroad site. One course was identified as, Tourism in the Adriatic, Croatia and Italy. The interviewee explained that the course was fulfilled twice so far, and that part of the course is taught at the home campus, followed by a trip to Italy and the branch campus location in Dubrovnik, Croatia. As shown in the excerpt below, this interviewee believed that the IBC was the impetus for this type of course.

> …It's opened an experience for students and we talked in the classroom about the cultural sites, to food, and to the wine. How it impacts the

regions and without the school in Dubrovnik, I really doubt something like this would have happened here (C2 I7).

Two faculty members also discussed the creation and modification of a course called Nutrition in the Mediterranean Diet. While it was explained that the IBC was not the main reason for the initial creation of the course, the interviewee explained that a colleague's experience at the IBC helped. From the interviewees, it appears that recently this course culminated with a short-term trip every-other-year to the branch campus location in Croatia. The excerpt below illustrates this influence:

> …While that was not the main reason we started teaching the course, a colleague's time spent in Croatia [IBC) did influence us in putting together a course that we've taught now for seven years, and that was the course that we adapted to this spring to take students. We have done two poster sessions out of that, or we will as of the fall. So, it's loosely contributed to our research agenda as well (C2 I1).

These few examples above support what Sangpikul (2009) describes as the second level internationalising the curriculum. This is the addition of new or revised international courses. The addition of study abroad courses to the IBC may be the most common influence on the curriculum, since it seems possible that these are elective courses and do not require significant changes to the programme to offer as courses.

There did not appear to be significant examples of change to the home campus curriculum resulting from the existence of the IBC. What did emerge, however, was evidence that the IBC influenced how classes were delivered and taught at the IBC. This issue will be discussed next in the section on pedagogy.

8.4.2   Pedagogy

More than half (53 per cent) of the survey respondents affirmed that the existence of the IBC resulted in the addition of an international context to the courses offered in their degree programme. In the interview phase, the IBC was described as impacting courses in three facets. The first was the addition of international content to courses through a number of factors presented in the next section. The second was the impact of IBC students studying at the home campus. The last influence was the need to adjust course delivery due to lack of culinary labs or courses at the IBC.

When interviewees expressed the position that the IBC did not influence their classes or the methods they used to teach their course content, two reasons emerged. One view was that the IBC did not relate to their subject area or could not be applied to their subject area. The excerpts below express this view:

> My [courses], personally hasn't been impacted that much, because I am teaching beverage courses here. …It's something I was open to, but we haven't really explored it fully (C2 I8).

> Since many of my courses are food courses, and that campus doesn't offer food courses, that part [courses] was not impacted (C2 I10).

> I teach facilities management. And so, it really doesn't matter where you are, other than some mechanical kinds of things. The issues are pretty much the same (C3 I5).

Secondly, some faculty members felt that the international exposure they received from the IBC did not influence their integration of international examples or content to their courses, because they had previously gained international working experience elsewhere. As one interviewee expressed, "I have had a lot of international experience before I started teaching, so that [bringing international examples to classes] wasn't particularly an issue for me." When asked if the IBC had any influence on adding international examples to what or how they taught, another respondent stated it was something already present in the home programme:

> We are a pretty international programme and school already. So, we have got students from every state in the U.S. and fifty countries around the world. So, that is pretty much, I would say, worked its way into our entire curriculum. The industry we teach is international, so we are pretty up-to-date with that. I would say it doesn't have any impact on it at all (C3 I1).

What does emerge from the interviews is that the mobility of students and staff between the two campuses generated some international content to the courses being delivered at the home programme. This seems to occur both formally and informally. It emerges that the IBC may be connected to a programme's formal efforts to add an international or global component to their courses. The excerpts below express the idea that the IBC may have had some role in formal efforts to add an international context to classes taught at the home campus:

Well yes, I think it did at a point because we moved more toward globalising some of the courses. Other than saying that teaching hospitality law as it applies in the United States, we have now moved more toward international law as it applies to the hospitality field. Because we can't really be teaching in China the hospitality law or even accounting and finance getting more toward international. I think good examples of studying marketing, the difference between how people receive values, and the buying decisions made there versus here. So, we encourage our faculty members to not only use examples from the United States, but we want them to use more global examples. So, in that sense, yes, I think over the last five years of actual teaching in China, or almost six years, we have been able to move more toward globalisation of our curriculum (C1 I1).

So, has that programme [IBC] influenced that "I" of the FIU? What we are in the middle of, still ongoing, is to globalise, however you define it, every one of our core courses. And it's now kind of leaking over, leaking over into non-core courses, our elective courses. …They [students] don't always need to know the western philosophy. Yes, that is primarily the way we are going to be teaching things, but what they need to know is the Latin America, South America and the European, so it has to have some elements of touch points of global in every one of our core courses. Most certainly, I think an outcome of this Tianjin programme [IBC] (C1I6).

We just have gone through, in the last few years, a major curriculum revision, and it was started about the same time we initiated Singapore campus. The focus really has been upon, what do you need to deliver to hospitality in an international marketplace, and that has been our view from a long-time perspective (C3 I5).

Evidence suggests that faculty have altered their instruction or course content, as a result, of either working at the IBC or connecting with the IBC through online delivery. Over one-half (54 per cent) of the respondents affirmed on the survey that the existence of the IBC resulted in the addition of an international context to the courses they teach. In the open-ended survey questions, regarding how the IBC influenced their work or their programme, over one-third of the respondents from RIT identified an influence on their classroom teaching. Responses to the survey questions regarding the impacts of the IBC on the home programme revealed these general influences on pedagogy:

It has allowed me to bring true international examples into the classroom (RIT Quant Q6).

It has also provided many useful examples and case studies that can be helpful in enriching student learning and experience (RIT Quant Q6).

> The ability to observe and interact with other cultures allows for a global perspective which extends into the classroom (RIT Quant Q6).

> I think that it has given faculty members a more international perspective, which carries through into their teaching (RIT Quant Q6).

> …it was the driving force for online versions of courses, further developing instructional strategies that can be used in Rochester classes as well (RIT Quant Q6).

Two respondents from FIU also indicated an influence in the classroom. One expressed that it gave "a more global perspective" to all of their classes. Another commented that it allowed them to develop their "teaching style to accommodate the large number of international students" studying at the home programme from the overseas programme. Some survey respondents expressed specific international effects on their classes. As one respondent explained, "It has given me more and better examples of leadership and meeting management and business ethics from an international perspective." Another expressed that it allowed them to developed multicultural teams for business problem solving. These multicultural teams seem to occur as a result of connecting students between the two campuses online. This respondent also states that the IBC expanded student learning to include global markets and application of information technologies for marketing and human resource development. As one interviewee summarised below, it appears the IBC provided a resource for faculty to utilise global examples in the classroom.

> I just think having experienced that just made me more open and more willing to incorporate global issues and concerns in my classes (C2 I3).

When faculty were asked how the IBC has influenced their teaching or classes, some expressed it was an international example or experience they shared in the classroom. As one speaker explained, they may just explain the way things are different between the two campuses, and tell their home students a story about how it was different. Another interviewee mentioned, specifically when talking about nutritional differences between the two campus locations, that they would share the virtues of increased exercise as a part of the lifestyle at the IBC country. A wine instructor noted that when they teach about wines around the world, they can share insights on how wine might be served or what the cultural experience is with wine in that particular country. Very few

interviewees recalled many specific details of what examples they were using in their home classes, but the respondent below recalls their specific use and outcome of the IBC experience in their home campus class:

> After teaching there [IBC] for two years in a row, I was able to get some data points and share those with my class here. Because I believe in comparison, it's important, especially what is the cost per room, for instance, an energy cost available per occupied room in China versus Miami, and why would that be different? Or, how their maintenance cost, why would their labour cost be less expensive in China versus here? You can get assessment for similar properties in China and here. That comparison was very interesting and a lively discussion in the class (C1 I1).

On a temporary basis, one faculty member described how they had changed their meeting and events course to help produce the EuroCHRIE conference at the IBC. He described for this one-time event at the IBC that his home campus course was connected to a course and class at the IBC. During this time, a team of students worked together electronically between both campus to learn about and develop an international conference.

The IBC influence on the home programme matches Sangpikul's (2009) first level of internationalising the curriculum by infusing international dimensions into the curriculum and adding international context to courses. The addition of international content and examples appears to be more likely an ad-hoc decision by faculty and staff. This finding seems to be consistent with Becket and Brookes (2008) who found that providing international examples and embedding international understanding through pedagogical decisions may result in a lack of transparency as to where global perspectives are explicitly being developed in the programme.

As one respondent explained, when asked what they thought the main impact of the IBC was on their home programme, it seems to be the connection between the students drawn to the home programme from the IBC and their impact on the programme. They explained that even though they had plenty of students from South America and Europe, they now have many more from Asia as a result of their IBC in China. The excerpt below illustrates this connection between IBC students on the home campus and the influence on classes:

It [IBC] has added to the international aspects of our programme. …This gives us quite a bit more students from Asia and gives us more an international feel to our curriculum. …significant number in our graduate programme that come out of our undergraduate programme in China to our graduate programme in Florida. …It gives us more of an international perspective that our school in general has promoted internationalisationism in the classes in a global perspective, but it's very real in our school. In hospitality, we have so many of our students who are non-U.S. residents, so we have adjusted our curriculum to reflect what happens (C1 I2).

About one-quarter of the interviewees identified the exposure to the IBC students either at home or at the branch campus as an influence on their course or classroom teaching. The next section covers this impact on classroom instruction and teaching due to the differences in the IBC students.

8.4.3   Adjusting to international students

Faculty at the three academic programmes come in contact with IBC students, due to differing influences of the IBC. In the case of FIU, it appears that many students transfer into their graduate programme in Miami. One respondent explains that over 100 students are being generated from China into their graduate programme in Miami due to the IBC there. At UNLV, an intensive summer programme for the IBC is offered in Las Vegas to deliver courses not taught at the IBC, and to provide the IBC students a U.S. capstone experience. This summer programme consists of almost 300 students taking courses at the Las Vegas campus. Faculty at RIT were initially required to deliver the curriculum at the IBC in Croatia, through in-person and distance teaching. The discourse that emerged is that the cultural differences in the classroom caused faculty to modify their course delivery.

One respondent stated in the online survey that it allowed them to develop their "teaching style to accommodate the large number of international students" at the home programme from the overseas programme. It is evident in the excerpts below, that the faculty teaching at the home campus are encountering IBC student differences in the classroom that require their attention.

It has changed a bit in the way we teach, but the students in Asia generally, and in China particularly, have a different method of teaching than we do in this school generally. So, we have had to go back and

introduce to the students coming from Asia into our methods of teaching, which are more participatory rather than lecturing. So, it causes us to adjust the way we present the material to the students and to particularly introduce the students to our method of teaching in a way they can understand and not be lost at the way we present ourselves (C1 I2).

It's hard to get them to open up in the classroom and that is because it's the way the system operates in China. They have been trained all their life to just sit there and listen to lectures and take notes. Never ask a question, because that is considered challenging a professor. ...When they come to the U.S., it's hard to break that particular pattern and get them to open up again. They are a little shy and a little worried about their English speaking skills, too. It's up to whoever is in the classroom, the professor, to make sure they do discuss things. Call on them and get them to share within the classroom experience. The other thing is they are so focused in China on the education part of it. They don't necessarily have the work experience or the outside experience to do the applications in the classroom. …Again, the challenge is to get the groups to talk with each other and work together and I think group projects help significantly, especially if you can get a Chinese student in or several Chinese students in with the European students and American students in group projects (C1 I4).

I think also it has made us evaluate our teaching styles and how we do what we do best, because the Chinese culture is quite different from the western culture, so we have to adjust and make changes to how we deliver the curriculum. … to foster greater engagement. Any student that is more accustomed to the traditional lecture style, they are very quiet and reserved. I teach cooking, so it's important they are engaged in the classroom, I am enthusiastic and expressive, so I have had to adjust somewhat to allow for that to happen (C1 I8).

These results corroborate Brookes and Becket's (2011) view that faculty must understand the different learning styles and need to adopt a more inclusive pedagogic approach to educate the international students studying at the home and branch campuses. The data also confirms Becket and Brookes (2008) who advocate the importance of getting international and domestic students interacting with each other from the start, in order to achieve successful classroom integration.

One respondent from RIT also identified a similar theme that through home programme faculty teaching at the IBC, they had "introduced their students to an entirely different way of learning". It was articulated that the difference was that the Croatian educational system lacked discourse between the students and the instructor and that U.S. faculty introduced much more debate and dialogue. He stated:

> We actually got them engaged in discussion, and that is something they had never done before. They really enjoyed it and they liked it (C2 I5).

Another interviewee, when reflecting on their experience at the IBC in Singapore, explained that teaching in that environment was helpful in adjusting their teaching to other Asian students back at the home campus. UNLV's Las Vegas campus was reported as having a large student body from Asia, as many as 40 per cent. This interviewee explains that, "It's one thing to have 25 per cent of your class being from an Asian culture. It's something completely different when every single one of them is from an Asian culture." He states that trying out his normal mode of delivery, class discussion and assessments at the IBC, allowed him to see what worked and didn't with a homogenous group of Asian students. As stated in the excerpt below, this resulted in an experience that was utilised in home courses to meet the needs of international students.

> …You see where some things work and some things don't, and when you come back [from the IBC], you have a much better framework in terms of understanding a little bit better the Asian culture and can adapt your courses better to Asian students (C3 I4).

A small number of those interviewed at RIT mentioned having to address cheating within the IBC classes. One respondent explained it as, "The idea that in Croatia the appropriate grade would be a B or C perhaps, because the idea was that no one excelled, nobody failed, and everyone did about the same." He explained that if the students didn't understand the material, they would cheat off other students, who as group didn't have an issue with it. Another interviewee also cited this example and explained that they altered their exam assessment when teaching students from the IBC.

> There is also a tendency to cheat, so you have to make up a lot of different tests, different variations to the same test, and monitor the security of the tests a lot closer (C2 I11).

This respondent expressed that the changes to tests were not small, but rather extensive. Two respondents reported that there was some adjustment to the scheduling and preparation for the Singapore students when they came to the home campus for their capstone summer programme. Since the class in the summer consists of entirely Asian

students from the IBC, one respondent stated that they absolutely changed his class discussions and preparations.

In addition to adjusting courses for international students, there were findings that revealed that the lack of the culinary labs at the IBC resulted in course adjustments. These results are discussed in the next section.

8.4.4 Adjusting for IBC food lab facilities

The interviews revealed that for the IBCs in Singapore and Croatia, the absence of adequate food lab facilities to deliver the curriculum, altered course delivery. One respondent explained that the food lab facilities at the Croatian IBC were not acceptable, and that whilst they tried to offer the course with a lab, they were not acceptable at the IBC. This coincided with a perception by the IBC that the food aspect of the hospitality degree was too vocational. As the excerpt summarises below, this resulted in the degree at the IBC focusing primarily on hotel and tourism management.

> They tried to do a lab course, but there were no facilities acceptable, and basically, they didn't want the food component because they considered that a high school, like a vocational high school kind of curriculum. So, they only focused on the hotel tourism side. They did not have labs. There was a possible lab facility, that was not acceptable and the students and school really didn't want food as part of it (C2 I10).

Respondents explained that the Singapore students from the IBC were brought to the home campus in the summer to take their cooking and restaurant operations class. The corresponding courses at the IBC are available, but were reported to be lecture based without the labs. One interviewee expressed that they thought the educational experience received by teaching the classes without running restaurants, or cooking facilities, changed the value of the degree for students at the IBC campuses. Another finding was that the lack of food labs at the IBC impacted the courses offered to IBC students during their summer at the home programme. The excerpt below reveals that the courses needed to be adjusted due to lack of food lab experience for IBC students.

> For instance, one of the curriculum issues is they just don't have the facilities to offer the food and beverage. The course, it's the way we design them and offer them on campus, so when they come to campus we have to change, literally change processes and everything within a course

to at least try to meet our goals, you know, because their knowledge and abilities just aren't there (C3 I7).

Evaluating the IBC quality and facilities was not within the scope of this research; however, it appears to have had some minor influence on home programme curriculum and teaching. These findings also support Armstrong's (2007) opinion that offshore programmes came never be the same quality as the home programme which has been built up over in some cases centuries. It is very probable that FIU did not encounter these issues associated with the lack of food labs at the IBC, since they had opened their IBC on a campus supported with over £33.818 million ($50 million) from the Chinese government.

Overall, the results suggest the main influence of the IBC on the curriculum and teaching at the home programme are related to pedagogical themes. The evidence suggests that there is a link between home campus faculty and their work experience with the IBC. This experience was reported as providing faculty with international content and understanding, which to some degree allowed for the integration of an international perspective into their coursework. Based on the interview data, faculty identified adjusting how or what they taught, due to the cultural differences of the IBC students taking courses at both the IBC and home campuses. The findings provide very little evidence to indicate that the IBC influenced the home programme curriculum or degree requirements. The next section of this chapter turns to the findings and discussion of how the IBC has affected the students studying at the home campus.

The evidence presented in this section does not suggest that the home programme curriculum significantly changed to include more internationally focused courses due to the presence of the IBC. The opportunity to work at the IBC and or interact with IBC students has given some faculty new international views on the material they teach, and developed understanding of new pedagogies, as suggested by Black (2004), and Brookes and Becket (2011). The next section presents the influences the IBC had on the students studying at the home campus.

8.5 Influence on home students

The next element of the programme examined is the home students, and how they may have been affected by the IBC. In the first stage of primary data collection, three items on the online survey assessed the effect of the existence of the IBC on the home-based students. These items examined the presence of study abroad, short-term study tours, and employment opportunities. In the next stage of data collection, interviewees were specifically asked how the IBC had impacted the home students. It is clear that the IBC provided study abroad options for students, but with divergent outcomes. It also appears that the IBC had an effect on the home students who never studied at the branch campus. Even though there is considerable overlap in the influences and effects of the IBC on the home-based students, the following segments are utilised to present the findings that emerged.

8.5.1 Study abroad opportunities and outcomes

The results of the quantitative survey, as shown in Table 8-1, indicate that the most identified influence of the IBC on the home campus was the opportunities generated for home-based students to study abroad. 71.2 per cent of survey respondents indicated that study abroad opportunities occurred as a result of the IBC, and almost 60 per cent of the survey participants indicated the occurrence of short-term study tours. More than one-half of the interviewees also identified study abroad opportunities as an influence of the IBC on the students from the home programme. Those who identified study abroad as an impact of the IBC on their home students often expressed that it is a positive part of their education. The extracts below reveal this sentiment:

> It's given our students, really, I guess both here and abroad, an academic opportunity they may not have gotten. We have a small contingent, but a number of students do leave from Miami, no matter where in the world they are from, they leave FIU based here in Miami and spend a semester, and some even a year, in China. So, there are a lot of things. It benefits the school and enrolment, but it does benefit the students and adds a different component to the degree here, and to the School and to the University (C1 I3).

> Number one, these students have the opportunity to study in the Tianjin programme. The students that live there and study abroad for one or two

> semesters come back transformed. It has changed their lives forever (C1 I7).

> We do have a study abroad programme with our Tianjin campus. ...Those students that go and study abroad is a life changing experience for them in a very positive way. They come back here and they're more…what is the word I am looking for…they are perhaps more accepting of different cultures; they are more flexible people in general than those that have not studied abroad. They're not quick to make assumptions about others (C1 I8).

The findings of the online survey and interviews support Brookes and Becket's (2011) opinion that student exchanges are the best known and most traditional form of internationalisation.

A variety of perspectives were expressed regarding the study abroad influence of the IBC. Some respondents considered it an opportunity made convenient for home students to participate in, since the IBC was part of the home programme. This convenience appears to be associated with the fact that the IBC has similar course credits and cost. The excerpt below illustrates this view:

> …I think it provided our students in Miami a really good study abroad opportunity. We send about 12 to 15 students each year to study in China for the whole semester. Since the costs are exactly the same, they can take the same courses in China and stay for a whole semester, and some of them have really learned a lot from that experience (C1 I1).

> It gives our students a chance to study abroad, while still taking RIT courses (RIT Q7 Quant).

> Later on, the idea of our students being able to go over there for 10 weeks and study and get the same degree without losing any credit going over to a foreign country, I think that was a very positive thing on our students here. As a result of the fact that we were offering the same degree, there was no course transfer or no credit changes (C2 I5).

There is evidence that supports that students from all three home programmes studied at their branch campuses, the outcomes and participation differed for UNLV. When asked in the quantitative study if the IBC had been viewed as having had a positive or negative influence on the home programme, one of the negative responses was: "I don't think a single Las Vegas campus student every travelled to Singapore." In the second stage of data collection, all UNLV interviewees expressed that the IBC's influence on their

students was "minimal", "very little" or "no impact" regarding study abroad opportunities. The comments below illustrate this opinion:

> I don't think there is much overlap. The students are aware of the campus in Singapore. Personally, I don't know if we have had anyone go from Las Vegas to Singapore. If so, one or two. I think it's very little impact on our students here (C3 I3).

> There is very little cross fertilisation pushing toward Singapore. It's all pulling back to UNLV. We have 300 students come every summer to take a couple of courses and to experience Las Vegas, in terms of casino resorts and they travel to the United States, but there are very few students that actually go to Singapore to take courses (C3 I4).

> No. No impact. I mean a couple of them have gone over on like a scholarship there. They had 10 scholarships the president offered last year and only two people took anyone up on it (C3 I6).

It may be possible that UNLV's IBC was not convenient for a home campus student to attend. The statements below identify possible barriers related to the alignment of the curriculum and the opportunity to help fund students to study abroad at the IBC:

> One thing done at the very outset of the programme there [IBC] was to take what we have here as basically a four-year Bachelor of Science degree and deliver it in a two-and-a-half-year period of time to help manage some financial issues associated with it. As soon as that was done for financial reasons, it made it even more difficult to connect with the main campus because all of a sudden you are not on the same semester system; you can't create the same type of interaction either with students or faculty. It was a very separate operation (C3 I2).

> This was an initiative [study abroad] of our president, spontaneously when he was [at the IBC] conferring diplomas in 2012, he spontaneously said we are going to offer presidential scholarships in addition, to get you American classmates [from the home programme]. We basically ended up funding it through administratively here on campus due to a very strict rule from our regents that we are not subsidised with the Singapore enterprise in any way, shape or form with the main campus, either with state funds or institutional funds (C3 I8).

Similar to these findings, one RIT respondent expressed that since their home programme moved from a 10-week quarter to a 16-week semester, that this longer time away internationally could reduce the number of students interested in studying at the IBC (C2 I6).

It was reported, that as a state programme, UNLV was not allowed to use funds from the home programme to support initiatives, such as study abroad at the IBC. A respondent expressed that even phone calls between the IBC and the home programme were specifically initiated by the IBC, so that the home programme would not incur IBC expenses. As respondents identified the possible complexities for students to study at the IBC, the issue also emerged that the IBC may not have been intended for home students to attend. When asked about the impact on students, the following excerpts convey this view:

> They [students] don't notice anything; it's un-relatable to them because it doesn't involve them in any way (C3 I1).

> I just don't think the prior management thought of it as a priority. Prior to [the new Dean] arriving, I don't think there was any thought given to integrating the Singapore campus into the main one. I think [the new Dean] really changed the whole concept of what we were doing in Singapore and how it needed to be an integral part of the University. … I think it's a no-brainer in the sense that if you are going to all that effort to have a foreign campus, certainly you want your Nevada residents [home students] to benefit from it (C3 I8).

Respondents from UNLV identified that some home students had taken part in study abroad, but did not reveal any outcomes of this experience. It appears that the occurrence of study abroad participation at the IBC was robust enough for FIU and RIT that respondents correspondingly volunteered specific student outcomes of the study abroad experience. The following response to the question of whether the IBC was viewed as having had a positive or negative influence on the home programme helps introduce this discourse:

> Students who study abroad are given the opportunity to learn about other cultures, languages, make new friends and learn more about themselves. It enhances their overall academic experience (RIT Q7 Quant).

Secondary data reported that financial programmes to support study abroad at UNLV's IBC didn't occur until 2013 (UNLV Web Communications, 2013).

In addition to the general opportunity to study at the IBC, home students appear to be influenced in three areas. These areas are their interactions with IBC students, learning and growth, and careers and employment. These outcomes connected with study abroad

will be discussed in the next sections alongside the influences that were reported irrespective of whether students studied at the IBC or not.

8.5.2   Interactions with IBC students

Approximately one-third of those interviewed identified the interaction of the home students with the branch campus students as an impact of the IBC. These interactions are reported to have occurred for both the students who participated in study abroad at the IBC and for those had encounters through studies at the home campus. Interaction with foreign students from the IBC were reported to occur when IBC students studied at the home campus or when the home campus students were connected in common courses using distance learning technology.

A common view amongst interviewees was that an outcome of this interaction was the development of friendships between the home and IBC students. Some respondents expressed that an impact of the IBC for students was that they became very close to the IBC students who came to study in the graduate and undergraduate programmes at the home campus. In some cases, the connection between students of both campuses appears to be very strong. Interviewees articulated the following examples below:

> …I just got an email from someone who spent two semesters over there and she is holding up a sign--the best friend that she made over there is coming to Miami. That type of international connection is really great (C1 I5).

> [A student] within FIU that said: *You know, I have done the study abroad and this is my senior year. Can I graduate with the students over in Tianjin instead of coming back to Miami to walk there?* So, they wanted to complete their entire degree there because they had this bond with the students. That's a good sign (C1 I6).

Interactions with the IBC students also provided home students with an impression of the IBC. One interviewee expressed that students from the IBC studied abroad first at the home campus, and this generated interaction with the home students, which resulted in their interest and eventual participation in study abroad at the IBC (C2 I5).

A small number (2) of respondents also indicated that the presence of IBC students studying at the home campus was challenging. This issue seems linked to the English language abilities of the IBC students. One interviewee alluded to the notion that even

though the standards for enrolment in the home campus and the IBC were technically the same, they expressed doubt. "I have students [in my class] that I feel have not shown proficiency in written, spoken or any kind of English." This respondent also reveals that s/he gets the sense that it cheapens the degree for the home students who have gone through the entire admission requirement to study at the home campus programme, but are now sitting next to someone who maybe has not. The respondent explains that it appears that the IBC students do not have the English skills, but do have the funds:

> ...at some point it's even been a student that has been abroad that has been through the [IBC] programme...and makes a comment: *Boy, you can buy a degree.* ...It comes off as a very negative thing.

Another aspect of the inadequate proficiency of English language skills reported was the difficulty to integrate the IBC students into classes at the home programme. In this account, the interviewee states:

> ...the Chinese like to group together when they are here. It's just the people they are comfortable with. ...I think the challenge is to get them more involved with the students from the U.S. and other locations, so they are talking to each other and working together, and not just being with the Chinese because they are comfortable and they are comfortable using that particular language (C1 I4).

While a small minority mention the drawbacks of inadequate English proficiency of their IBC students, the most common outcome of the IBC on the home students appears to be study abroad and the friendships developed. This outcome is expressed in the excerpts below:

> ...we bring in so many more Chinese students into our programme that do senior year or graduate study here. They come and interact with our American students, developing relationships and friendships, so our students are getting a cultural exposure to China (C1 I7).

> They definitely establish friendships and relationships and certainly learn more and are more open to learning about other cultures (C2 I3).

> I think the students enjoyed that [online class with IBC students] and made some friendships as a result of it (C2 I5).

> The second part of that of course was that our students from the Rochester campus could engage with the students from the Croatian

campus, both in the classroom and with joint events and activities, such as the Ritz dinner. …EuroCHRIE was another great example of students from Rochester going to Dubrovnik to participate in a major conference of educators from many countries. Our students would not have had an opportunity if we did not engage in hosting the educator's conference there (C2 I9).

These findings are consistent with Black (2004) who found that not only do exchange students make new friends, but also learn from one another. Similarly, these results seem to align with Brookes and Becket's (2011) conclusions that interaction with international students increases the international experiences of the home students.

In the example of the UNLV IBC, none of the interviewees reported examples of interactions between the IBC and home campus students. Some interviewees felt that very few students from the home campus took part in study abroad at the IBC, and only recently. However, UNLV had been running summer programmes since 2006 in which IBC students come to take coursework at the home programme in the United States. When asked about the potential interaction during the summer with home-based students, the excerpt below explains the absence of interaction:

No, we get almost no integration with local students, because our students are all gone. We don't have a big summer school, because in the hospitality industry you are out working. As it is, I would suspect 80 per cent of our students or more have part-time jobs. I have had a number of students with full-time jobs and trying to go to school. …That is a local economy kind of an issue. A kid can go down to the [Las Vegas] strip and if he is good, he can park cars, make $100,000 a year or bartend, and make that much money (C3 I5).

These results suggest that student mobility between both campuses resulted in friendships and exposure to the students from each campus. The next section illustrates the finding that learning and growth emerge for the home based students as a result of the IBC. As one interviewee explained, students in Miami become very close to the Chinese students, both in graduate and undergraduate programmes, and they gain a better understanding of a developing nation because of this. Similar to interaction with IBC, there is some evidence that learning and growth can occur whether home students studied at the IBC or interacted with IBC students on the home campus.

8.5.3   International learning and growth

Respondents reported that students studying on the home campus returned from their study abroad experiences at the IBC more globally knowledgeable. Interaction with foreign students studying on the home campus appears to have also influenced a student's international understanding. The experience for some students returning from the IBC has been reported as a "life changing experience". There appears to be a sense among respondents that students are more internationally knowledgeable, as a result of their experiences with the IBC and its students.

In general, the respondents revealed that they thought their students gained an international or global awareness from their study abroad at the IBC. The following excerpts express this view:

> We send our students there and they send their students here, and the interaction has been valuable to create a sense of globalism from both sides. We do manage to have a lot of interaction with the students from different cultures and it just adds to their growth in internationalism (C1 I2).

> They come back here and they're more…what is the word I am looking for…they are perhaps more accepting of different cultures; they are more flexible people in general than those that have not studied abroad. They're not quick to make assumptions about others (C1 I8).

> I think it has gotten several to an area of the world they probably would never ever go to on their own. I have had several students ask me where is Croatia, where in Russia is that again? I think it's made the students more globally aware (C2 I7).

> They seem to be a lot more aware of, I hate to say, international incidents or international events. They seem to be more aware of a different culture and they seem to enjoy the different kinds of teaching and culture that they receive abroad (C2 I11).

One participant stated in the online survey that the IBC provided opportunities for their home students to study abroad, which is invaluable for them and part of the University's overall vision to produce internationally competent graduates (RIT Q7 Quant).

International learning and growth were also mentioned as occurring at the home campus from direct and indirect experiences with the IBC. For example, one interviewee explained that they had a Chinese national from the IBC teaching at the home campus

during the summer, and that the home students were *very happy because they felt they got more global or international understanding than they otherwise would have*. Another respondent mentioned that the students related their IBC experience to topics in class. This respondent taught wine courses and expressed that students could engage in the topic due to their first-hand experience with the subject from studying at the IBC. Another respondent expressed that:

> The existing students, those that go, it's certainly a life-changing experience for them, 100 per cent. Those that don't go, but are in class with the ones that went, you know, are internationalised to a degree from the stories and the work that the students might do related to the efforts-- if they do their senior project or if they wrote a paper related to Croatia, then the others learn from that (C2 I1).

There were two examples reported which involved the students at the home campus being enrolled and connected in a common course with the IBC students. In the course Resort Management, students were connected online and shared information specific to the characteristics of that country. The IBC students shared issues unique to their environment, such as marina resorts, and the home campus students shared management issues pertaining to golf operations. The excerpt below illustrates this international learning environment:

> …Technology enabled us to merge students from both campuses in a common course and in a common class, and that enriched all of the management concepts that we were trying to deliver to our students, because those management concepts were viewed differently in other [international] locations and that we certainly were able to diversify and broaden our student understanding of management (C2 I9).

A similar example was identified for a course in events management. Students were connected in a common course between the two campuses in order to learn about international event planning and help organise the EuroChrie conference at the IBC. Students worked collectively on projects, which were said to have strengthened the course in events management, as well as meeting planning. Students then travelled from the home campus on study abroad to help execute the conference whilst studying at the IBC. By working on assignments with IBC students, home students were reported to have learned about running a conference event in an international location.

The next section turns to additional area related to the home students' participation in study abroad at the IBC. This is the view among faculty and staff that the study abroad experience benefits a student's career and employment opportunities.

8.5.4   Career and employment benefits

Some participants (29 per cent) from the online survey (Table 8-1) indicated that the IBC resulted in overseas work and internship opportunities for the students at the home campus. During the interviews, there was very little evidence of students working internationally, but rather a discourse emerged that the experience of studying abroad at the IBC helped prepare home students to work internationally. In the quantitative stage of data collection, three participants explained that the IBC had positive influence on the home programme through the following related statements: "Our students are obtaining great positions in the industry and are being sought after by global/international companies" and, "Students employed by multi-national hotel companies build the FIU brand."

The discourse in the interview stage of data collection revealed that the experience at the IBC helped home students gain an international experience that would be favourable on a resume and help with future employment opportunities. One respondent described the impact of the study abroad experience on the home students as having the following career benefits:

> It's not only an experience they can bring back, but also something that I think looks very good on a resume. Where they had international experience and then they would also be able to interact with maybe a customer at the hotel or some other event, but they would have that global experience (C2 I8).

Another interviewee also said that the choice of going to China (IBC) is very valuable…for students who are looking for a career that involves international travel or working for companies that do business internationally in hospitality (C1 I2). Another interviewee felt that the experiences gained by students abroad at the IBC prepared them to work anywhere in the world (C1 I1). One interviewee expressed that the recognition they were getting from their IBC in China was helping generate student placements with companies in China (C1 I7). Additionally, they commented that this also generated

conversations with companies, such as Starbucks and Burger King back at the home campus looking to establish more operations in China.

Some interviewees expressed that the experience of studying at the IBC made their home students more understanding of international differences and that this experience would assist them in their confidence and inclination toward working globally. The following excerpts below exhibit this perspective of completing a study abroad at the IBC:

> In terms of their experience, they are more willing to try different work opportunities, and live and think globally, as opposed to just locally (C1 I8).
>
> Certainly. As you know, it's a resume builder. It helps in their experience set because they will have seen different management styles, different organisational structures in other countries. So, that was a benefit to the individual student. It became a major talking point for the student as they met with recruiters, whether for international positions or domestic positions within the United States. It simply allowed them to have a greater amount of confidence; that possibly, only that was enhanced, because they only worked in the Rochester community or they only worked in a United States company. That they were a little bit more fulfilled and worldly and in some cases, some of them probably picked up parts of a second language that they could articulate… (C2 I9).

Overall, findings suggest that respondents felt it was advantageous for a student's career to have participated in a study abroad experience at the IBC. While interviewees disclosed this connection between study abroad and the benefit for employment; there was no interview evidence of home students working internationally as a result of the IBC.

In accordance with Randall (2008), there were limited examples of dissatisfaction with existing students regarding their experience with the IBC and IBC students. However, in two interviews, participants reported the potential concern regarding the tuition differences between the two campuses. They both identified that the home campus tuition was more expensive than the IBC and that it may be problematic if home campus students were fully aware of this. To their knowledge, no domestic based student had revealed this as a problem, but they did feel it was a potential risk. This topic of concern is similar to Ziguras' (2007), who suggests that a potential management

problem for the university is if students at home discover the tuition difference at the IBC when the fee are less than the home campus programme.

8.6   Impacts on the IBC environment

Survey participants were asked how offering their degree in the overseas location impacted the overall environment at the international branch campus. The intent was to explore possible influences that exporting the US hospitality degree may have had beyond educating students at the IBC. Querying the home based faculty about impacts at the IBC, with mixed first hand experiences working at the IBC, does have obvious limitations; however this inquiry provided some useful insights. Three broad views emerged among the interviewees regarding how their degree may have influenced the IBC environment. These perspectives were related to employment, western concepts and ideas, and the development of hospitality and tourism industry.

8.6.1   Employment of IBC students

There was a sense among interviewees that IBC students gained career and employment benefits due to their enrolment and study in a degree programme from the United States. One respondent expressed that since the students are graduating from "quote on quote western programme" which is approved and accredited by a strongly recognized US based programme, major hotel and restaurant brands are hiring their IBC students (C1 I6). Employment discourse emerged surrounding the following areas; the skills gained that created demand for students and the perceived ability that students could now work globally due to their education at the IBC.   One of the areas identified was the ability to speak English and interact in a western corporate environment as shown in the following extracts:

> I found that a lot of the students because of them being bilingual and the skills they developed, they might initially get a job within the industry, but other business executives they come in contact with are taking them out of that. They are offering them really high paying positions in other areas because of the skills they have developed through the school there. C1 I4

> In terms of industry it helps in that when a student is trying to work at a Marriott or Hilton or a western organisation I think the students are more

comfortable with the mindset of an interactive environment where in a meeting in China people are going to sit and listen and not participate. They find that our students are somewhat better prepared for that. …We are producing 500 graduates every year that are going out into the industry. The Marriott's, Starbucks, and Burger Kings and the YUM brands see us as a quality institution and as one that is delivering a US quality education. There are many tourism programmes in China, but none producing students that have the level of English that we give to the industry, with developing a western orientation in the students (C1 I7).

I think it's broad in that the [IBC] market they are more qualified and better trained …there are students that have graduated from our programme that are very well trained in western style hospitality. So for these companies like a Marriott for example that have opened and they have western standards and are appealing to a broad client base many westerners involved they [IBC students] are better able to deliver that level of service their guests have come to expect with that particular brand (C1 I8).

One respondent expressed that since the IBC provided students a dual degree, graduates were able to work globally since their degree was recognized both in their local market and the US market. This respondent stated that; as a group of educators [they] really assured that the graduates from the IBC could be employed not only in their home country, but in other parts of the world in leading US hospitality companies (C2 I9). Another respondent suggested that since the IBC students come to the US campus as part of their degree experience and interact with employers that are also located at the IBC campus they gain employments opportunities as a result of networking (C3 I3). These findings agree with other studies that suggest that internationalisation is needed develop the appropriate level of competence to function effectively in the rapidly emerging global environment and that English is often a pull factor for developing foreign education at home in IBC environments (Bartell, 2003; Jones, 2009)

An interesting observation from some of interviewees was the required change in mind-set that needed to be addressed with the parents of the IBC students to generate acceptance of both an education and career in hospitality management. The excerpts below demonstrate this finding:

It's opened up a lot for them. We have to remember that there was a lot of resistance in China especially from the parents of the students, because they don't see it as being a prestigious type of occupation. So there is a whole educational process there (C1 I4).

> …[students] are in high demand. So if the students want to go into it full-time, the jobs are out there. …, the service industry is not viewed by some of the I say natives, but probably not the natives from the metropolitan urban kind of areas. So if you look at the country overall there is a lot of rural to it. So to still impress or prove upon mom and dad that hospitality is really a viable career, I think there are still a few challenges over there, but seeing we do have 1100 students in the programme, I think we are starting to win that – hey mom and dad this is actually a credible kind of career path, because they keep signing up, so that is a good sign (C1 I6).

This finding is similar to Huimin and Perry Hobson's (2008) observation in their review of hospitality and tourism education in China. They expressed that few Chinese parents are willing to see their children work in what are perceived as "serving" sectors (Huimin & Perry Hobson, 2008, p. 29).

In the next section the educational experience delivered at the IBC is linked to changes and influences on the overall standards of the hospitality and tourism sector.

8.6.2   Development of Hospitality and Tourism Sector

Some respondents felt that because their degree was being offered at the IBC it had influenced the local hospitality and tourism sector by changing standards and providing the ability to serve foreign visitors and markets. One respondent speculated that because they were graduating a large number of students at the IBC going into the hospitality industry that "there should be some effect on the standards in the industry based upon the way we teach" (C1 I2). Another respondent expressed that the market for westerners and Americans had increased in the tourism industry through the "infiltration of western ideas" form the IBC and because the IBC graduates could deliver higher quality service "necessary to please the western visitor" (C2 I10). A similar view reported was that the IBC helped turn the tourist trade around by educating students which helped change both service and the tourism sector from a socialist model to a western oriented one (C2 I3), and provided the local market with a better workforce (C2 I7). Another interviewee expressed that the IBC provided IBC student broader experiences at the home campus that they could bring back to their own country which was "absolutely critical to building the type of hospitality industries" needed in their markets.

The overall results in this section support the opinions expressed by Sangpikul (2009) that western universities and alliances (i.e. IBCs) can help build graduate capabilities and meet industry needs through internationalisation in the host country. The intent of this section was not to document in depth all of the effects the IBC has on its own country environment, but rather to uncover some of the possible spillover effects of exporting a hospitality and tourism degree in an international location.

The findings in this chapter do not indicate that programme elements of internationalisation derived from the IBC were integrated into a policy and or goal to formalize an internationalisation process at home as advocated by Qiang (2003). The next section consists of the conclusions and recommendation of this study.

SECTION FIVE: Conclusions and Reflections

This thesis has investigated the influence of exporting hospitality and tourism degrees at IBCs on internationalising the exporting degree programme specific to students, faculty, and curriculum. This work had also given an account of the impacts that the IBC on the functions of the academic programme. This work has helped understand the reasons why academic programmes deliver a degree at an IBC distinct from internationalisation. This researcher and research has assumed a post-positivist approach aimed at learning about the influences of international branches on the home programmes rather than testing the causes and effects of exporting a degree at an IBC (Ryan, 2006).

Chapter 9:   Summary of Aims and Findings

9.1   Summary discussion of IBC influences on the home programme

Internationalisation in this thesis is characterised by the integration of an international dimension into the academic programme's curriculum, faculty, students and programme characteristics.   Exporting an academic degree programme internationally can be achieved in many different forms: franchise, twinning, articulation, double degree programme, partnership, distance education, and IBC. The possibility exists that the IBC and the home campus may have had minimal contact (Perry Hobson & Josiam, 1996); therefore, the impacts of the IBC at home may be limited to the resources needed for validation and management of quality assurance abroad by home-based staff. Since a developed theoretical model did not exist to explain what effects exporting an academic degree may have on the home programme, the following conceptual model (Figure 9-1) was derived from themes in the literature on transnational education, internationalisation, and multination corporations and the findings from this thesis.
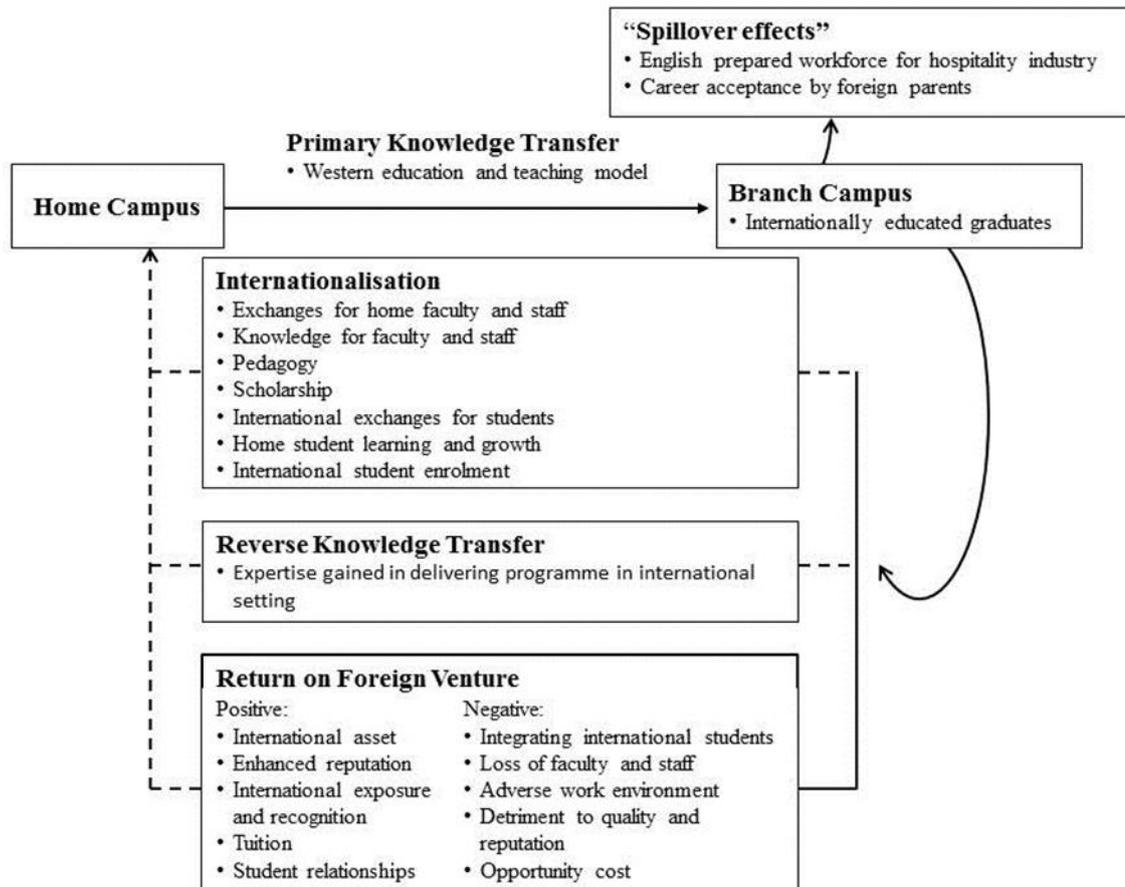
Figure 9-1   **Conceptual model of the influence overseas expansion has on the home programme**

This thesis set out with the purpose to determine if the delivery of degree programmes at international branch campuses (IBCs) contributes to the internationalisation of hospitality and tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus. Very little was found in the literature encompassing IBCs and the influences they may have in internationalising characteristics of the home programme. However, as mentioned in the literature review, there are many potential outcomes that may impact programmes involved in delivering their degree abroad through a diverse set of export models, yet this literature often lacks empirical depth or focus on the home programme.

To guide this investigation into IBCs and their impacts on the home programme, a conceptual framework Figure 4-5 was put forth from the literature categorising influences on the home programme into three elements: internationalisation, reverse knowledge transfer, and return on foreign venture. These three elements are utilised

below to organise and guide the discussion of the impacts the IBC had on the home programme in this thesis. Since the results of this study are based primarily on qualitative methods, two questions were used to help provide perspective to the findings presented in Chapter 8 and help summarise the themes that emerged from faculty and staff regarding the impact of the IBC on the home programme. One question requested interviewees to identify the main impact of the IBC, and a second examined whether they thought the IBC made the home programme more internationally focused. Findings from these two questions are used to initiate the summary discussion of the findings regarding the impacts of the IBC on the home programme.

9.1.1   Return on foreign venture

The findings of this thesis indicate that HEIs exporting their academic degrees through international branch campuses result in various benefits and detriments for the programme operations of the home institution. The results indicate that the IBC brought both positive and negative economic and non-economic returns.

In this thesis, reputation was a prevailing element identified as a return on foreign venture due to the establishment of an IBC. About one-third of the respondents identified positive effects on the programme's exposure, promotion, and brand. The programme's reputation was enhanced for the following stakeholders: potential incoming students, present students, and industry. Overall, the results of this study found that the international exposure helped bring awareness to these U.S.-based hospitality and tourism management programmes and had been a mostly positive return of the IBC venture. This result is consistent with the views and opinions of many authors who suggest that one of the motivations and benefits of transnational education is the positive impact on reputation (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Rumbley & Altbach, 2007; Vignoli, 2004; Ziguras, 2007). A possible explanation for this result is that by establishing an IBC, the programme receives media attention and gains an overseas presence that may help differentiate their programmes from competing domestic programmes. It may also be that U.S.-based programmes attribute some gain in prestige by offering their degree internationally, since the hospitality and tourism industry is clearly a global business subject.

Another important return on the IBC was the economic benefits resulting from an increase in student enrolment. While one interviewee identified this as the main impact, it did emerge in other inquiries as an outcome of students transferring from the IBC into the home programme. In each IBC case, student flow back to the home campus was present, but only in one case was this significant. This finding seems to be consistent with Norris (2010) since these IBC students were enrolling in the home programme to continue with a graduate degree. It is interesting to note that specific monetary benefits derived from students based at the IBC or transferring to the home campus were not freely reported. This result may support Howe and Martin (1998) who question the ethics of generating revenues through transnational education. A focus on enrolment as the return, and relatively less reporting of tuition fees may be that faculty individually encounter the presence of new international students and are not fully aware or concerned with their specific economic impacts. Interestingly, there was some lesser reporting of IBC student influences on the home campus that were neither economic nor international in context, but rather social returns for domestic students. Evidence suggested that a benefit of having the IBC are the relationship and friendships students make with IBC students, both on the home campus and while studying abroad at the IBC. This result needs to be interpreted cautiously because it relies on only a few faculty perceptions of their students and may be attributed to their overall positive feelings about the presence of international students and the IBC in general.

One surprising finding was the use of the IBC as an asset used to offset costs of faculty. In this case, it was noted that the creation of the IBC helped save the academic programme and maintain the home-based faculty. This finding is in agreement with Jones (2009) who suggests that IBCs are used to offset budgets at home by transferring faculty salaries overseas.

The results of this study also indicate that there are various costs and detriments to the home programme resulting from the foreign venture to deliver a degree programme at an IBC. A small number of the interviewees identified negative impacts on faculty as the overall main impact of exporting the degree overseas. These impacts were related to their work environment and the impact of their absence on the department when working at the IBC. There was some evidence that supporting the IBC with home

campus faculty and staff "stressed" the programme in terms of covering the courses at the IBC. This loss of "talent" at the home programme was indicated by some as a main impact of the IBC on the home programme. Some respondents identified that serving the IBC, either at the home campus or at the IBC, created more job responsibilities and increased their work overall. These findings are consistent with Howe and Martin (1998) who identifies the challenges for faculty attempting to maintain duties at home and abroad in support of transnational operations. This result may be explained by the fact that faculty may be required to serve an overseas location, requiring international travel, time away from home campus resources, and duplicating their administrative roles across two organisations. However, these findings must be viewed with the understanding that this effect may only pertain to those faculty and staff who have direct responsibilities in supporting the IBC. It is important to bear in mind that the current state of the IBC may also have some influence on the interpretation of these findings. Whilst it was outside the scope of this thesis, the present stage in the life cycle of the IBC may bias the interpretation of how the IBC influences the work environment at the home programme.

This study did not detect detriments to the quality of the programme or its reputation as a significant impact of the IBC. However, respondents did identify concerns that the standards had been lowered for IBC students and that the IBC activity may have "cheapened" the brand. These results agree with the findings of other works that suggest that quality of students of the IBC may not meet the same standards as the home campus (Howe & Martin, 1998). These findings may also confirm one of the major risks identified by authors, which is the impacts an IBC closure may bring to the home campus's reputation. This is speculated by the fact that one of the IBCs had publically announced its plans to end their IBC during the completion of this study.

This study detected that faculty needed to devote some time and effort to integrate international students into the U.S. classroom environment when they continued their studies at the home programme. However, this did not emerge so much as a negative impact, but rather recognition by faculty that as IBC students arrived from a singular foreign-source country, it required their efforts to modify and adjust course pedagogy. These adjustments were related to integrating IBC students into the social dynamics of a

U.S. classroom environment and account for differences in cultural and English speaking skills. Whilst expending time and energy integrating international students into courses may be required whether there exists an IBC to attract them to the home programme or not, what is not well developed in previous research is the IBC may result in an influx of students from a single foreign country changing the dynamics of classroom and programme environment. However, this result emerged only in one case, and therefore may not be transferable to other IBC scenarios.

Another finding was that the IBC may have taken away from the focus at the home programme or directed resources away from efforts needed to operate the domestic operations. While this was not extensively reported, it is interesting to note that some members of the faculty felt that the resources used to support the IBC could have been better utilised at home. The opportunity costs associated with an IBC is seldom identified in the literature which may be explained by the private nature of such internal business workings of HEIs resulting in less public awareness of this consequence. Although it's possible to speculate that opportunity costs result from the effort to export degrees through an IBC, findings from this study do not reveal this as a widely reported effect on the home programme.

9.1.2   Reverse knowledge transfer

One of the main impacts of the IBC identified was that the programme gained knowledge about what was required to export its degree internationally. From taking part in transitional education, participants reported their programmes gained new understanding and learning about the intricacies of offering an overseas programme. Some reported that this experience provided the programme and HEI with the knowledge needed to open new international programmes. Overall, the learning and experience of offering a degree internationally has assisted the HEIs in both operating the current IBC and the institute's efforts to export degrees elsewhere internationally. It was surprising that in some cases these IBCs had become the model for developing new IBCs and transnational opportunities. A possible explanation for this was that in these cases, the IBC was either the university's first IBC or one of its earliest attempts to

establish a permanent overseas offering of their degree, resulting in a pioneering experience for future transnational endeavours.

9.1.3   Internationalisation

As mentioned in the literature review, international exchanges for faculty and staff are identified as an important internationalising element for the home programme (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Hale & Tijmstra, 1990; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Rumbley & Altbach, 2007). It was clearly evident that one of the central impacts of the IBC on the home programme was the mobility between campuses for faculty and staff. This result, while not surprising, can be explained by the necessity of home-based faculty to participate in teaching courses at the IBC, assist in training local staff, set up local operations, and manage quality-related issues. These findings support the common roles faculty have in supporting the IBC abroad, which require travel to the site. Leask (2004) suggest that this mobility may not internationalise the faculty and staff unless specific practices are in place to generate this outcome. In contrast, this study did detect that travel to the IBC provided greater understanding of the global scope of tourism and hospitality, or great country-specific knowledge. The results also showed that some faculty applied their experience and new knowledge learned from the IBC into their course content without formal systems requiring them to do so. This finding corroborates the ideas of Brookes and Becket (2011), who suggested that working with partners in transnational programmes, may help staff develop in understanding of different pedagogies. Two possible explanations relate to these outcomes. One explanation might be the amount of international experience of the faculty and staff prior to their experiences at the IBC. Findings indicated faculty did not gain additional international awareness from their work at the IBC, because they already had had significant global work experience. Another possible explanation for the utilisation of the IBC work experience in the home-based programme might be related to their subject specialisation area. Faculty reported utilising their IBC and overseas country experiences in the classroom when they viewed their courses as having an international nature. Contrary, if their IBC experience was viewed as irrelevant to their course subject, experiences from their travel were not integrated into their pedagogy.

Prior works have noted that transnational education may provide home-based faculty with the opportunity to collaborate and conduct research with colleagues abroad (Black, 2004). The current work found some scholarly activities evolved from the IBC activity, but this influence was not reported as one of the main impacts of the IBC. However, in one case, a joint academic conference was organised which resulted in scholarship being produced by both campuses that was delivered at the IBC. A possible explanation for the lack of scholarship activities between campuses may be due to the primary focus and the amount of effort required to maintain a campus geographically far from the home programme. It seems possible that this could also be attributed simply to differences in expertise and research interest between the two campuses.

The results of this study show that students enrolled at the home programme were identified as one of the main internationalising elements of the IBC. The IBC provided students with study abroad opportunities, which were perceived as providing students with a valuable international learning experience and having future career benefits. Some faculty and staff also reported students returning from this experience having developed socially and professionally. Whilst the opportunity to study abroad doesn't necessarily require an IBC, there was some correlation that the convenience of studying abroad under the same academic institution was a factor in students deciding to study at the IBC.

The IBC was also found to generate student enrolment for the home campus, but from the perspective of internationalising the home program through student diversity, the results did not indicate substantial evidence of this. This finding may support those who suggest that increased numbers of international students at the home programme doesn't necessarily result in an international perspective on the home campus (Armstrong, 2007; Black, 2004). The explanation for this result may be explained by the student's lack of English proficiency which may limit their ability and willingness to share their cultural perspective on issues discussed in and outside the classroom. Another possible explanation is that the interactions of IBC students on the home campus were characterised as friendships, which may have been publically observed, while global contributions in the classroom may have been limited by cultural and language barriers.

This increase in the number of international students generated from the IBC was identified as one of the main impacts on the home programme. Interestingly, respondents also cited that their programmes were more internationally focused due to more international students enrolling in the home programme. Even while a definition of internationalisation was given to participants, it appears that the presence of more international students may have been a prevailing view for some of what it means to be international or internationalising. This finding was linked to the numbers of international students specifically, not necessarily the international diversity and qualities they brought to the home programme. This is also explained by the fact that in some cases it was reported that the home program was not more internationally focused due to the IBC, because the home campus already had a significant enrolment of international students present.

The majority of the participants in this study indicated that the IBC made their programme more internationally focused. This was indicated by the increased number of students on the home campus and also that the programme now viewed the industry and education from a global perspective. Results also indicated the home programme was believed to be more internationally focused, since the IBC provided the programme with a foothold internationally and generated new international exposure. There are several possible explanations for this result. The first might be that international students represent physical evidence of a tangible characteristic of internationalisation at home. Secondly, having a physical operation in an international setting may require the domestic programme to have a global view of how they work, what they teach, and how events impact the IBC. Another possible explanation might be that by gaining exposure internationally, the home programme is regularly aware of how its domestic and branch campuses are regarded on a global level. Some respondents were mixed about whether the IBC made their programmes more internationally focused. It was reported by them as difficult to determine since some felt the IBC influence was hard to separate from cases where the IBC coincided with other international efforts undertaken by their universities.

It was not the purpose of this study to determine if the IBC resulted in the home programme becoming more international, but rather to determine if it was having an

internationalising influence on the home programme. This combination of findings provides support for the conceptual model Figure 9-1 that the IBC has both internationalising and non-internationalising influences on the home-based academic program.

9.2   Aims and Findings

The aim of this thesis was to determine if the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contribute to the internationalisation of hospitality and tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home campus.   Hospitality & tourism management degree programmes were selected for this study, in concurrence with Brookes and Becket (2011), given the demand for hospitality graduates capable of working within a globalised industry.   A critical post-positivist stance is taken in summarising the findings of this thesis.   The goal is not to determine with certainty how the IBC affected the home programme, but rather, advance the knowledge of internationalisation with respect to transnational education.   The complexity of the relationships between the home programme exporting their degree internationally and the branch campus limits the researcher's ability to identify, collect and analyse the data of the complete system. The conclusions below are made with this limitation and yet, with the confidence that the research provides new knowledge using a structured empirical approach to the fields of   internationalisation   and   transnational   education   in   hospitality   and   tourism management.

These findings suggest, in general, that the academic programmes participated in the transnational education activity of exporting academic degrees through a branch campus strategy for many purposes found in the literature.   Leadership within each programme, favouring international ventures, was one factor inducing programmes to export their degrees.   In this information-oriented sample, the research identified a dean, director or chairperson who was predisposed to delivering their degree internationally, facilitated transnational education.   A second factor for exporting hospitality and tourism degrees on a branch campus is connected to the formal and informal efforts at the home programme to internationalise faculty, students and curriculum.   Increasing student enrolment and influencing their international brand reputation were also themes that

emerged supporting the programme's delivery of their degree at an IBC. Due to the small sample size and the range of opinions, no single reason for choosing to export their degree at an IBC emerged from the academic programmes. Data supports that multiple factors and motives likely produced the decision to deliver degrees at an IBC. This study corroborates the ideas of Wilkins and Huisman (2012) who suggest that many factors play a role in the decision to establish an IBC. As well, the motivation to open an IBC, not surprisingly, was likely based on a range of dimensions and factors as recommended by Wilkins and Huisman (2012) who also suggest HEIs need to consider a wide range of potential costs and benefits.

The study revealed that the range of reasons reported for opening an IBC may have been the result of faculty and staff expressing outcomes or goals they expected the branch campus to achieve, rather than the reason for exporting their degrees internationally. The findings clearly support the presence of pull factors originating from the IBC country. The opportunity or strategy to export academic degrees through a branch campus resulted from pull factors; mainly capacity building in the areas of education and industry. The opportunity and need for an IBC in Croatia was to assist in the rebuilding of the tourism sector and provide a market-oriented business degree for a country transitioning from a socialist to market-orientated economy. Similarly, the demand for the IBC in China was generated by China's need to develop graduates capable of serving a growing inbound western tourist market. The pull factor for a degree programme in Singapore was part of the government's strategy to establish Singapore as a hub for higher education, stimulating economic growth through the input and output of foreign and domestic university students. Without the influence of these pull factors in each international location, it is unclear if these programmes would have exported their degrees internationally through a branch campus.

An objective of this thesis was to classify the impacts that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes. These influences of the IBC extended to both the home programme and branch campus environment; and consisted of both internationalising and organisational impacts. The concept of internationalisation in this work is characterised by the integration of an international dimension into the academic programme's curriculum, faculty, students and programme characteristics.

The effects of the IBC on the home programme were classified into three types. One category type was the return on the foreign venture. This type of impact on the home programme consists of the positive and negative outcomes of exporting and delivering the degree internationally. Similar to a multi-national corporation, the IBC provides the home programme with an international asset that can be utilised for expanding their educational service outside their home market. This activity also has an opportunity cost. Resources used in the IBC may have resulted in the loss of potential gain from other alternatives at home, or elsewhere.

Not surprisingly, the IBC can be a source for new students, which in turn can provide additional tuition income. The most obvious positive benefit to emerge from this study was the view by faculty and staff that the IBC gave the home programme international exposure and enhanced its brand reputation. However, there was some indication that there is risk to the programme's reputation in opening the IBC. The planned closure of one of the IBCs was announced during the time of data collection, so it is too soon to know if this pending action will have a negative cost for the exporting programme's brand reputation.

The perceived change in admissions standards and the enrolment of students with insufficient English language skills may have been a negative result of opening and maintaining an IBC. In the short-term, lower admissions standards would appear to only influence the academic environment at the IBC location. However, the differences in international students admitted to the IBC may be magnified if the IBC becomes a strong feeder programme for the home programme. One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is the effect on the home programme when the IBC becomes a robust feeder programme, providing significant enrolment of international students for the home programme. This may impact the classroom environment, both positively and negatively. Integrating and teaching an influx of international students at the home programme requires effort by faculty and staff to address differences in learning styles and English skills. The development of new personal relationships between the students of the home and IBCs was reported as a positive outcome of exporting the degree. The results of this research indicate that there are negative effects on the home programme when faculty and staff are absent, due to serving the IBC.

Faculty and staff may have to assume more responsibilities, both to support overseeing academic areas at the IBC and covering for staff while they are away. Findings uncover that some negative pressure may exist to work at the IBC, and adequate financial support for international work may be insufficient.

A second type of impact is the knowledge gained from the transnational experience. The learning and experience of offering a degree internationally has assisted the HEIs in both operating the current IBC and the institute's efforts to export degrees elsewhere internationally. For example, academic programmes gain understanding on how to deliver their curriculum in environments that may not have adequate teaching labs for culinary-based courses. The IBC experience also provides the home programme with some insight into the financial and non-financial costs it can incur at home and abroad. This direct experience and knowledge may help in strategic decision-making.

The last category type is comprised of the impacts that produce internationalisation at the home programme. An obvious finding to emerge from this study is the opportunity the IBC provides faculty and staff to live and work in an international environment. This finding suggests that the IBC provides the faculty and staff with international experiences that exposes them to cultural differences and some understanding of the global hospitality and tourism industry.

The findings suggest that the IBC affected the home programme curriculum very little, yet influences on pedagogy did emerge. The findings revealed that some faculty and staff did use their IBC experiences to provide international perspectives to the courses they taught. Scholarship activities occurred primarily through the utilisation of the IBC as a research subject or as site to host research activities. Not surprising was the use of the IBC as a study abroad site for students studying at the home programme. Findings suggested that students gained international understanding and a global experience that would benefit their careers. The IBC increased the number of international students studying at the home campus.

The research findings suggest that the type of impacts occurring at the home programme from exporting the hospitality and tourism management degree to an IBC diverge

greatly. This may be consistent with the mixed rationale and motivations for exporting the degree internationally and the characteristics of the home programmes.

9.3 Suggested implications

The evidence from this research suggests that exporting a degree through an IBC generates both positive and negative returns for the exporting programme. The results of the research indicate that the IBC can provide the home programme with positive returns in the following areas: greater international recognition, new enrolment and tuition fees, and marketing. It was also indicated that when an academic programme takes part in its initial transnational education activities, it gains new knowledge and experience that will assist in future transnational activities. All three programmes reported that the IBC led to new international understanding that helped generate new international programmes or evaluate their transnational strategy.

Evidence suggests that the negative return on transnational education is the demand on human resources. Loss of faculty at home can impact both faculty and students at the home campus through their absence. Faculty serving the IBC may feel obligated and strained by this additional responsibility, especially if proper compensation policies are not enacted.

The results of this study indicate that the type of university exporting their degree abroad may limit its ability to utilise fully the branch campus for internationalisation of the home programme. State-run universities in the United States may be limited in the use of their funds between the home and IBCs, reducing their ability to support exchanges of students between the campuses. Alumni produced by the IBC also have the potential to influence and expand the home programme's reputation and brand globally as they live and work internationally.

9.4 Significance of findings

This work contributes to the existing knowledge of internationalisation by providing an understanding of how the practise of delivering an academic degree at an IBC internationalises the exporting hospitality and tourism programme. The current findings add to the literature on the elements and measures of programme internationalisation by documenting a specific stimulus on such elements, the IBC.

These finding enhance the understanding of IBCs from a new perspective of the exporting home programme. It also helps close the research gap, identified by Brookes and Becket (2011), on internationalisation at the programme level. This is one of the few studies to provide empirical evidence of the IBC' impacts, both planned and unplanned on the exporting home programme. This evidence contributes to the literature by providing insight into the IBC as both an international activity and as a strategy to enhance the home programme's internationalisation.

Despite the exploratory depth, this study offered broad insights into all of the elements of the home programme influenced by exporting its degree to an IBC. The empirical findings contribute additional evidence that the IBC can have an internationalising effect on the home programme. Although the study is based on a small number of academic programmes, the findings suggest some common themes. The opportunity for faculty and student mobility is a fundamental element of the impacts of the IBC on the home programme. This opportunity provides international experiences for both faculty and students, and yet the need for faculty and staff to travel and support the IBC may negatively affect the department's overall human resources. The explanation and outcome of exporting a degree internationally appears to be linked with reputation and brand enhancement. Additionally, the experience of offering a degree at an IBC provided new knowledge and understanding of the requirements necessary to export a hospitality and tourism management degree overseas.

9.5 Contribution to knowledge

As identified in the first chapter of this research, there are two interconnected areas of knowledge with implications for hospitality and tourism programmes:

internationalisation and transnational education. The body of knowledge surrounding the concepts associated with internationalisation and transnational education are well developed by scholars, such as Jane Knight, Philip Altbach, Hans de Wit, Ulrich Teichler, and Christopher Ziguras. While Teichler (1999, 2009) advocates that in order to internationalise education, transnational activities must be integrated with mainstream activities at the home campus, the interrelationships of concepts of internationalisation and exporting higher education lack significant development and understanding as theory in international education. By considering the role that international branch campuses have in internationalising the home programme, this research contributes to closing a knowledge gap regarding the phenomenon of exporting education internationally and the resulting outcomes.

Broadly, this research created new knowledge surrounding the impacts that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes. Through the development of a conceptual model illustrating the relationship between the IBC and the components of the exporting home programme, a unique perspective was advanced concerning the influences IBCs have on the transference of international elements, knowledge, and resources back to the home campus. Through viewing the IBC empirically as an element in internationalising the home-based students, faculty, and curriculum, rather than from the traditional export activity paradigm, important empirical contributions emerged that will assist future researchers in advancing greater theoretical understating of traditionalism in HEIs.

9.6 Implications for practise

The findings of this study have a number of important implications for those academic programmes and their universities when delivering their degree at an IBC. The objectives and reasoning for delivering the programme abroad should be clearly articulated to the faculty and staff. The findings of this work suggest that the understanding of why academic programmes opened an IBC differed widely among the faculty and staff. This may result in mixed opinions and support for the IBC. Another practical implication is in order to utilise the IBC for internationalisation at the home programme, programmes should consider the feasibility of faculty and student mobility.

It appears that faculty and staff traveling between the campuses is an important factor that leads to the internationalisation of their work, therefore, consideration must be given to the compensation and tax issues for faculty and staff while working at the IBC. Inadequate consideration of this element may result in a disincentive for faculty to teach at the IBC. Human resource loss at the home campus must also be planned for, in order to cover the absence of faculty and staff while working at the home campus.

To attain student mobility through the IBC, funding and curriculum alignment are recommended. While funding may be available for students to study abroad, it is important to insure these funds are not restricted in any way, due to the organisational and legal structure of the IBC. Moreover, the availability of course offerings and the pattern of the semester or quarter calendars should be mirrored as much as possible to create an efficient opportunity for students to study between the campuses. The necessity to provide orientation for students studying on both campuses is a conventional requirement; however, academic programmes may need to make efforts to help their faculty and staff prepare their pedagogy for the influx of IBC students to the home campus who may have different learning and cultural needs. This type of orientation for faculty and staff should not only be delivered to those based at the home campus, but also for those who work abroad at the IBC.

Unless academic programmes adopt formal efforts to link the faculty and staff between the two campuses, joint research activities may not emerge. Joint production of conferences and seminars are recommended to help assist in the generation of such scholarly activities. This study's findings do not support changes to the home programme curriculum delivered at the branch campus. A programme is typically exporting their curriculum primarily because there is demand for it emerging from pull factors associated with the IBC' location. However, a practical implication to prepare for is the delivery of the curriculum at the IBC where it may lack the resources and facilities present at the home campus. How lab based food courses and restaurant operation courses will be delivered must be planned for when exporting a degree programme in hospitality and tourism management at an IBC.

International understanding of the unique characteristics of the hospitality and tourism sector of the IBC location should be utilised in course content and in the development of short-term study abroad programmes. Formal systems are likely needed to insure that the use of the IBC location is incorporated into class lectures and discussions to provide an international perspective and case for globalising class content. The creation of short-term study abroad courses that utilise the international characteristics of the IBC location could be one of the most effective methods to integrate an international dimension into the composition of a home programme's curriculum, faculty, and students. This strategy would support faculty and student mobility while integrating international learning through a formal course structure without changing the core curriculum required at the IBC.

The practise of transnational education is influenced and stimulated by many factors. While an IBC is clearly an international activity, it will require explicit processes to internationalise the home programme. The integration of an international dimension into the function of the curriculum, faculty, and students will informally occur due to the IBC as a transnational activity. However, if an objective of the IBC is to provide an integration of an international dimension into the home programme, a clear strategy needs to be formulated in order to maximise this outcome.

9.7   Limitations of the current study

In reflecting on the initial aim to determine if the delivery of degree programmes at IBCs contributes to the internationalisation of the exporting hospitality and tourism programme, it must be recognised that the insufficiency of internal knowledge on these programmes required a broad approach to exploring the IBC' influence on faculty, students and curriculum. In an effort to determine if any internationalisation effects resulted from the IBC, no one element of the academic programme was investigated in-depth. The subject of this study provides a different view of IBCs and the theory of internationalisation, but foregoes understanding the influence on a single element of the academic programme in detail.

The findings of this study are subject to practical, methodological, and theoretical limitations. The primary utilisation of a qualitative research strategy encompasses

various limitations. Since this thesis predominantly utilises a qualitative research strategy, it takes an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research. Qualitative case strategies are often criticised for their potential for research bias and subjectivity which may prejudice the types of questions asked and the data analysed by the researcher. The themes and concepts utilised to direct the data collection and analysis were developed primarily from the literature on internationalisation and transnational education, not the researcher. In addition to utilising themes generated from the literature to direct query design, an interview guide was used to administer a semi-structured interview, and data coding was organised utilising NVIVO 10.

One of the primary objectives of this study is to develop a conceptual model to illustrate an explanation of the impacts that overseas expansion has on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes, taking into account all primary data collected combined with the preunderstanding of the literature available related to the theoretical explanations about the phenomenon of transnational education and internationalization. This study acknowledges that a theoretical framework does not exist in the literature on transnational education to explain the outcomes of exporting education on the home campus, and that grounding the study in the internationalisation theory of multinational corporations may not be appropriate. Therefore, a conceptual framework derived from the literature was created to guide the research which may have limitations, but is appropriate since the qualitative nature of this research is not intended to test a theoretical framework. However, it is important to recognise the conceptual framework chosen here may be limited by anecdotal literature and that through future testing of the conclusions and findings of this research study, new conceptual models may emerge.

Each research strategy and data collection method has its own unique limitations and disadvantages. One of the main criticisms of case research design is that the findings cannot necessarily be generalised to the wider population and lack representativeness. To avoid sampling bias and provide case transparency, objective characteristics were generated as criteria for case selection. Whilst generalising the findings of this case research was not the intent, establishing credibility and acceptability of the findings were required.

A number of specific limitations need to be considered since interviews were used as the primary method for collecting data. First, faculty and staff were used as the only source for primary data collection. While the literature supports faculty as the main element of internationalisation because of their general permanence relative to students and their role in delivering the academic degree, the views of other stakeholders were not evaluated. Secondly, the current research was not specifically designed to evaluate the international experiences and characteristics of faculty and staff independent of their experience linked to the IBC.

The current study primary examined the IBC from the perspective of the home programme and relied mainly on secondary data to understand the structure of the IBC. The three IBCs in this study attained the required sample characteristics to be included in the study, but limited primary data collection designed to understand the specific operational and management structure of the IBC may have restricted the overall interpretation of the IBC's influence on the home programme. Though the influence of the IBC's management and legal structure did emerge in the findings, this research was not specifically designed to collect primary data regarding the intricacies of managing and operating the IBC by the home programme.

Hospitality and tourism academic programmes were selected for their recognised need to produce internationally competent students; however, the focus on one type of management programme in academia is a potential limitation of this work. An inherent limitation of interview methods is memory degradation over time. The primary data utilised to answer the main aim of this study was based on a cross-sectional analysis of three programmes exporting their degree through an IBC. The IBCs had all been operating for at least eight years when the primary data was collected. It is possible, therefore, that respondents may missrecall events or not recall them at all. Since the primary data originates from one specific point in time, these findings need to be interpreted cautiously.

9.8   Recommendations for further research work

The current research was designed to explore how exporting hospitality and tourism education internationally, directly, and indirectly influences the faculty, students, and

curriculum elements of their programmes. Specific interest was to assess the role international branch campuses have on the internationalisation of their academic home programme. Due to a lack of a well-developed theory to explain the impacts of delivering degrees at offshore campuses, a conceptual model was developed from this research to illustrate and explain the impacts that overseas expansion have on the exporting hospitality and tourism programmes. Through the foundations developed in the literature and the findings of this research, there emerges the opportunity for greater theory development and assessment. It is recommended that the findings and conceptual model developed in this research be utilised to lay the groundwork for a theory on transnational education and its effect on the internationalisation of the exporting programme. Therefore, the next stage in theorizing transnational education should incorporate further research involving some level of hypothesis testing.

To advance a theory on transnational education and its function in internationalising the home programme, several recommendations are proposed for further research, but not limited to the following: 1) the use of a single in-depth case study utilising longitudinal data to expand on the exploratory nature of these findings; 2) exploration of the internal legal and organisational structure of the home programme and its university is needed for greater understanding of the influence of the IBC on the home programme; 3) generate and test hypotheses around a single element (such as reputation, enrolment, resources or students) of the IBC on internationalisation at home; and 4) conduct a comparative study of HEIs in the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia exporting their degree through IBCs. These three countries have been identified as the dominant exporting countries in transnational education, and their comparison may be useful in understanding the role IBCs have in internationalising hospitality and tourism programmes.

Methodologically it is recommended that collaborative research be conducted with scholars working at potential case programmes in order to achieve access to internal data that may not be made available or revealed to an outside investigator. This may provide access to a key object of internationalisation: the students studying at both the home programme and branch campus locations. This access would allow for greater assessment of the direct views and opinions of the home-based students, providing a

more complete understanding of the impact the IBC has on the home programme. Further study is additionally recommended to determine if the IBC increased students' willingness and motivation to participate in study abroad due to the existence of the branch campus. Lastly, further research might also centre on the impacts of IBC students studying at the home campus on internationalisation generally, and classroom pedagogy specifically.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adams, T. 1998. The Operation of Transnational Degree and Diploma Programs. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 2(1): 3-22.

Aguila, S. 2010. Food and wine festival goes global to China, *FIU News*. Miami, FL: Florida International University.

Akhter, S. H., & Ahmed, Z. U. 1996. Internationalizing business curriculum: considerations and applications. In Z. U. Ahmed (Ed.), *International business education development*: 1-12. Binghamton, NY: International Business Press.

Altbach, P. G. 2000. The Crisis in Multinational Higher Education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 32(6): 28-31.

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. 2007. The Internationalization of Higher Education: Motivations and Realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4): 290-305.

Alvesson, M., & Sköldberg, K. 2009. *Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.): Sage Publications.

Armstrong, L. 2007. Competing in the global higher education marketplace: Outsourcing, twinning, and franchising. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2007(140): 131-138.

Arora, T. 2009. Internationalizing Higher Education. *academe*, XIII(1): 61-64.

Arum, S. 1987. International Education: What is it? A Taxonomy of International Education of U.S. Universities, Vol. 23: 5-22: CIEE Occasional Papers on International Exchange.

Ayers, D. F. 2011. A Critical Realist Orientation to Learner Needs. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 61(4): 341-357.

Bacow, L. S. 2007. Planting a Branch Campus Abroad Can End Up a Boom or a Bust. *Trusteeship*, 15(6): 36.

Bao, L. 2009. *Faculty Development and Campus Internationalization: A Case Study*. Drake University, Des Moines, IA.

Barnwell, K. 2013. Why UNLV Singapore folded, *NOCTUA Information Services*.

Barron, P. 2007. Learning Issues and Learning Problems of Confucian Heritage Culture Students Studying Hospitality and Tourism Management in Australia. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 6(4): 1-17.

Barron, P., & Anastasiadou, C. 2009. Student part time employment: implications, challenges and opportunities for higher education. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(2): 140-153.

Bartell, M. 2003. Internationalization of universities: A university culture-based

framework. *Higher Education*, 45: 43-70.

Bawany, A. 2010a. Dean Mann's transition keeps him knee-deep in education, *Premier*, Spring ed.: 20-21 & 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Bawany, A. 2010b. From the Dean's desk: five questions for Donald D. Snyder, Dean of the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 2. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Becket, N., & Brookes, M. 2008. Assessing the international dimensions of degree programmes, *Enhancing the International Learning Experience in Business and Management, Hospitality, Leisure, Sport Tourism*. Newbury, United Kingdom: Threshold Press Ltd.

Bennell, P., & Pearce, T. 2003. The internationalisation of higher education: exporting education to developing and transitional economies. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 23(2): 215-232.

Benston, L. 2011. UNLV professor heralding Las Vegas as hospitality technology hub, *vegasinc.com*. Las Vegas, NV: Greenspun Media Group.

Benton, T., & Craib, I. 2001. *Philosophy of Social Science: Philosophical Issues in Social Thought*: Palgrave Macmillan.

Berns, D. 2011. Report: as Houston reinvented itself, so can Las Vegas, *Las Vegas Sun*. Las Vegas, NV: Greenspun Media Group.

Berta, D. 2004. American hospitality school to run $19M campus in China, *Nation's Restaurant News*. New York, NY: Penton Media.

Berthoin Antal, A. 2000. Types of knowledge gained by expatriate managers. *Journal of General Management*, 26(2): 32-51.

Bhaskar, R. 1978. *A Realist Theory of Science* (2nd ed.). Brighton, Sussex/New Jersey: Harvester/Humanities.

Bjorkman, I., & Kock, S. 1997. Inward international activities in service firms - illustrated by three cases from the tourism industry. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(5): 362-376.

Black, K. 2004. A review of Factors which Contribute to the Internationalisation of a Programme of 6. Study. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 3(1): 5-18.

Blomstermo, A., Eriksson, K., & Sharma, D. D. 2004. Domestic Activity and Knowledge Development in the Internationalization Process of Firms. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 2(3): 239-258.

Blomström, M., & Kokko, A. 1998. Multinational Corporations and Spillovers. *Journal*

of Economic Surveys, 12(3): 247-277.

Bosselman, R. H. 1996. UNLV--The desert jewel a history of the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration. *Hospitality & Tourism Educator*, 8(2/3): 27-32.

Brandenburg, U., & Federkeil, G. 2007. How to measure internationality and internationalization of higher education institutions! Indicators and key figures. In C. f. H. E. Development (Ed.).

Branstetter, L. 2006. Is foreign direct investment a channel of knowledge spillovers? Evidence from Japan's FDI in the United States. *Journal of International Economics*, 68(2): 325-344.

Brizek, M. G., & Khan, M. A. 2002. Ranking of U.S. Hospitality Undergraduate Programs: 2000–2001. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 14(2): 4-8.

Brookes, M., & Becket, N. 2009. An Investigation of the Internationalisation of UK Hospitality Management Degrees. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 21(3): 17-24.

Brookes, M., & Becket, N. 2011. Developing Global Perspectives Through International Management Degrees. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 15(4): 374-394.

Bruce W. Speck (Editor), B. H. C. E. 2002. *Internationalizing Higher Education: Building Vital Programs on Campuses: New Directions for Higher Education, Number 117*: Jossey-Bass.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. 2003. Business research methods.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. 2007. *Business Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Buck Sutton, S. 2010. Transforming Internationalization Through Partnerships. *International Educator*(Jan/Feb): 60-63.

Buckley, P. J., Clegg, J., & Tan, H. 2003. The Art of Knowledge Transfer: Secondary and Reverse Transfer in China's Telecommunications Manufacturing Industry. *MIR: Management International Review*, 43(2): 67-93.

Burnett, N. B. 2007. Critical Realism: The required philosophical compass for inclusion?, *Australian Association of Research in Education: Research Impacts: Proving or improving?* Fremantle, Western Australia.

Cambourne, K. 2009. Teaching services sit high on the earning curve; education export industry in focus, *The Sydney Morning Herald*, July 6 ed.: 23. Sydney, Australia: Fairfax Media.

Campbell-Ouchida, R. 2011. South Korean students are drawn to UNLV, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 34-35. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah

College of Hotel Administration.

Carmical, B. H. 2002. Internationalizing the campus: What do you need to know? *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2002(117): 79-86.

Caruana, V., & Spurling, N. 2007. The Internationalisation of UK Higher Education: a review of selected material: 1-147.

Caves, R. E. 1971. International Corporations: The Industrial Economics of Foreign Investment. *Economica*, 38(149): 1-27.

Chan, B. T.-Y. 2008. Pedagogical issues in transnational education: the case of postgraduate pharmacy and education programs, *UNESCO-APEID Asia Pacific Sub-regional Preparatory Conference for the 2009 World Conference on Higher Education*: 1-10. Macao, People's Republic of China: APEID-UNESCO Bangkok and the Government of the Macao Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China.

Clough, P., & Nutbrown, C. 2007. *A Student's Guide to Methodology* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Cometa, M. 2010-11. Global campuses: RIT's campuses abroad continue to grow, *The University Magazine*, Winter ed.: 12: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Contractor, F. J. 2007. Is international business good for companies? The evolutionary or multi-stage theory of internationalization vs. the transaction cost perspective. *Management International Review*, 47(3): 453-475.

Correspondent, A. 2010. University of Nevada Las Vegas (UNVL), *Asian Correspondent*, July 13 ed. Bristol, England: Hybrid News Limited.

Creswell, J. W. 2003. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, D. V. L. 2007. *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. 2003. Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori, & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*: 209-240. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crosling, G., Edwards, R., & Schroder, B. 2008. Internationalizing the curriculum: the implementation experience in a Faculty of Business and Economics. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 30(2): 107-121.

Crotty, M. J. 2010. The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process. St. Leondards, NSW, Australia: Allen & Unwin.

Crowther, P., Joris, M., Otten, M., Nilsson, B., Teekens, H., & Wächter, B. 2000. *Internationalisation at Home: A Position Paper*. Amsterdam: European

Association for International Education (EAIE).

Dachs, B., & Ebersberger, B. 2005. Sourcing knowledge? Knowledge flows between multinational enterprises and national innovation systems, *EUROFRAME*. Vienna, Austria: EUROFRAME.

de Wit, H. 2002. *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe: A Historical, Comparative, and Conceptual Analysis*: Greenwood Press.

de Wit, H. 2010. Rationales for Internationalisation of Higher Education.

Dewey, P., & Duff, S. 2009. Reason before passion: faculty views on internationalization in higher education. *Higher Education*, 58(4): 491-504.

Dougherty, N. 2010. RIT set to expand in Croatia. *Rochester Business Journal*, 26(35): 1.

Downs, K. 2007. RIT in Croatia: Launched a decade ago following a devastating war, RIT's American College of Management and Technology has had a tremendous impact on its students and its host nation, *The University Magazine*, Fall ed., Vol. 9: 15-18: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Dunning, J. H., & McQueen, M. 1981. Transnational corporations in international tourism. In UNCTC (Ed.). New York.

Dörrenbächer, C. 2000. Measuring corporate internationalisation: A review of measurement concepts and their use. *Intereconomics: Review of European Economic Policy*, 35(3): 119-126.

Échevin, C., & Ray, D. 2002. Measuring Internationalisation in Educational Institutions: Case Study: French Management Schools. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, 14(1): 95-108.

Finkelstein, M. J., Walker, E., & Chen, R. 2008. The Internationalization of the American Faculty: Where Are We? What Drives or Deters Us? South Orange, NJ: Seton Hall University.

Finnerty, B. 2007. RIT to open Dubai campus in 2008, *RIT news&events*, December 6 ed.: 1 & 4. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Finnerty, B. 2013. RIT's Zagreb campus moves to new facility in Croatian Capital: University's growth continues in Europe, *RIT University News*. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Finnerty, B. 2014. RIT renames overseas college 'RIT Croatia': Formerly known as American College of Management and Technology, *University News*. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Flowers, P. 2009. Research Philosophies – Importance and Relevance. (1).

Formoso, J. A. 2013. UNLV sets sights on Macau as Singapore goes bust, *The Rebel*

Yell, Vol. August 5, 2013. Las Vegas, Nevada: UNLV.

Forsgren, M. 2002. The concept of learning in the Uppsala internationalization process model: a critical review. *International Business Review*, 11(3): 257-277.

Frolich, N. 2006. Still Academic and National: Internationalisation in Norwegian Research and Higher Education. *Higher Education*, 52(3): 405-420.

Fu, W., & Diez, J. R. 2010. Knowledge spillover and technological upgrading: The case of Guangdong province, China. *Asian Journal of Technology Innovation*, 18(2): 187-217.

Gardner, E. 2003. Going global: American colleges and universities head to distant lands, and approach the challenge in markedly different ways, *University Business*, October 1 ed.: Professional Media Group LLC.

Garton, J. 2010. What does it take to become transational? Public and private alliances in transnational education., *Australian International Education Conference (AIEC)*: 1-7. Sydney, Australia: RMIT University.

GATE. 1997. Certification Manual. Washington, DC: Global Alliance for Transnational Education.

Giroud, A., & Scott-Kennel, J. 2009. MNE linkages in international business: A framework for analysis. *International Business Review*, 18(6): 555–566.

Goodman, J. 2010. RIT cuts ribbon on study-abroad area, *Rochester Democrat and Chronicle*. Rochester, N.Y.: Gannett.

Grays, L. 2010. Singapore roundup: challenges and opportunities of creating library services for the Singapore campus, *Premier*, 2010 ed.: 30-31. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Green, M., Luu, D. T., & Burris, B. 2008. *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses: 2008 Edition | The American Council on Education*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. 1989. Toward a Conceptual Framework for Mixed-Method Evaluation Designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3): 255-274.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. 1994. Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*: 105-117. London, UK: SAGE.

Gupta, A. K., & Govindarajan, V. 2000. Knowledge flows within multinational corporations. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(4): 473-496.

Hale, A., & Tijmstra, S. 1990. *European Management Education: A Handbook*: INTERMAN.

Hanks, D. 2008. 5 questions with Joe West: FIU hospitality dean discusses program in

China: the outgoing dean of FIU's School of Hospitality & Tourism Management talks about the school's program in China, *Miami Herald*.

Harman, G. 2005. Internationalization of Australian Higher Education: A Critical Review of Literature and Research. In P. Ninnes, & M. Hellstén (Eds.), *Internationalizing Higher Education*, Vol. 16: 119-140: Springer Netherlands.

Haro, M. 2009. New Hospitality interim dean, BBC interim vice provost named, *FIU News*. Miami, FL: Florida International University.

Haro, M. 2010. Donor Profile: The Marriott Foundation: Gift endows School of Hospitality's Tianjin program, *FIU News*, Winter ed.: 48. Miami, FL: Florida International University.

Hatch, M. J., & Cunliffe, A. L. 2006. Organization Theory: Modern, Symbolic and Postmodern Perspectives, 2nd ed. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Healey, N. M. 2008. Is higher education in *really* 'internationalising'? *Higher Education*, 55: 333-355.

Hedlund, G., & Nonaka, I. 1993. Models of knowledge management in the West and Japan. In P. Lorange, B. G. Chakravarthy, J. Roos, & H. V. d. Ven (Eds.), *Implementing Strategic Processes: Change, Learning, and Cooperation*: 117-144. London, UK: Basil Blackwell.

Hospitality Review. 2004. FIU, Tianjin University Plan to Run School in China. *Hospitality Review*, 22(1): 100-101.

HospitalityNet. 2009. UNLV Singapore Graduates Inaugural Class: Success of First International Campus Key to Creating a Network of International Campuses to Deliver UNLV's World-Renowned Hospitality Management Expertise, *HospitalityNet*, Vol. 8 June 2009.

Houston, S. 2010. Prising Open the Black Box: Critical Realism, Action Research and Social Work. *Qualitative Social Work*, 9(1): 73-91.

Howe, W. S., & Martin, G. 1998. Internationalisation strategies for management education. *Journal of Management Development*, 17(6): 447-462.

Hsu, C.-C., & Pereira, A. 2008. Internationalization and performance: The moderating effects of organizational learning. *Omega*, 36(2): 188-205.

Huimin, G., & Perry Hobson, J. S. 2008. The Dragon is Roaring… The Development of Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management Education in China. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 20(1): 20-29.

Hussain, I. 2007. Transnational education: Concept and methods. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education (TOJDE)*, 8(1): 163-173.

Hussein, A. 2009. The use of Triangulation in Social Sciences Research: Can qualitative and quantitative methods be combined? *Journal of Comparative Social Wor*, 1:

1-12.

Impacts E-Newsletter. 2009a. Marking a milestone, *UNLV Impacts E-Newsletter*: University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

Impacts E-Newsletter. 2009b. Marking a milestone, *UNLV Impacts E-Newsletter*: University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

Inkpen, A. C. 1998. Learning and knowledge acquisition through international strategic alliances. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(4): 69-80.

International Educator. 2013. Rebirth in the Former Yugoslavia. *International Educator*, 22(1): 33.

Iuspa, F. E. 2010. *Assessing the Effectiveness of the Internationalization Process in Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study of Florida International University*. Florida International University, Miami, FL.

Jayawardena, C. 2001. Challenges in international hospitality management education. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(6): 310-315.

Jones, R. C. 2009. *Exporting American Higher Education*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Society for Engineering Education, Austin, TX.

Jordan, E. J. 2011. *Creating and Maintaining a Student-Centered Culture at an International Branch Campus: A Case Study Examining the Roles of Faculty, Staff, and Students at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas Singapore Campus*. University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA.

Jordan, F. 2008. Internationalisation in Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Higher Education (HLSTE): A Call for Further Reflexivity in Curriculum Development. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 7(1): 99-103.

Kang, J. 2010. UNLV Global - UNLV Singapore student spotlight, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 38. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Katel, J. 2009. Susan Gladstone from FIU School of Hospitality and Tourism teaching at FIU China Tianjin Campus, *Miami New Times Blogs*, Vol. 2013. Miami, FL.

Kemp, S. 2005. Critical Realism and the Limits of Philosophy. *European Journal of Social Theory*, 8(2): 171-191.

Knight, J. 1994. Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints. Ottawa, Canada: Canadian Bureau for International Education.

Knight, J. 2003. Updated Definition of Internationalization. *International Higher Education*, International Issues(33 Fall): 2-3.

Knight, J. 2004a. Internationalization Definitions. *International Association of*

Universities.

Knight, J. 2004b. Internationalization Remodeled: Definition, Approaches, and Rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1): 5-31.

Kogut, B., & Zander, U. 1993. Knowledge of the Firm and the Evolutionary Theory of the Multinational Corporation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(4): 625-645.

Kraft, L. 2003. FIU plans to open hospitality school in China, *Miami Today*: 1. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Krieger, Z. 2008. The Emir of NYU, *New York Magazine*.

Krohn, F. B. 1996. The international business curriculum of the future. In Z. U. Ahmed (Ed.), *International business education development*: 53-66. Binghamton, NY: International Business Press.

Kuhnert, S. 2011. Success of reverse knowledge transer in multinational enterprises, *RIBM Doctoral Symposium 2011*, Vol. Doctorate. Manchester, UK: Manchester Metropolitan University Business School.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. 2009. *InterViews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing*: SAGE Publications.

Kwok, C. C. Y., Arpan, J., & Folks Jr, W. R. 1994. A Global Survey of International Business Education in the 1990s. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(3): 605-623.

Lagiewski, R. M., & Lagiewski, C. A. 2006. *Bringing the new paradigm of business education to the Balkans- the case of the American College of Management & Technology (ACMT) and the American University in Kosovo (AUK)*. Paper presented at the International Scientific Conference: The Next Decade Challenges for Business Proceedings, Riga, Latvia.

Lam, T. 2009. Tianjin: The gateway for North China, *HVS*.

Las Vegas Sun. June 6, 2009. UNLV Singapore campus graduates first class, *Las Vegas Sun*.

Lasanowski, V. 2010. International Branch Campuses: Motivations, Opportunities & Challenges: Going Global 4, 7th ed.: The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education.

Leask, B. 1999. Internationalisation of the curriculum: key challenges and strategies, *Australian International Education Conference*. Australia: International Education: the Professional Edge. IDP Education Australia.

Leask, B. 2004. *Transnational education and intercultural learning: reconstructing the offshore teaching team to enhance internationalisation*. Paper presented at the Australian Universities Quality Forum, Adelaide.

Lenn, M. P. 2000. Higher Education and the Global Marketplace: A Practical Guide to Sustaining Quality. *On the Horizon*, 8(5): 7-10.

Levesque, G. 2008. UNLV Global - UNLV Singapore's roving student ambassadors, *Premier*, Spring ed., Vol. 8: 27. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Levesque, G. 2009. Singapore Roundup, *Premier*: 32-33. Las Vegas, NV.

Levesque, G. 2010. Main campus experience excites Singapore students, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 37. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Lewin, T. 2008. Universities rush to set up outposts abroad; [Series], *The New York Times*, Late Edition (East Coast) ed. New York, NY: The New York Times Company.

Lewis, M. 2012. FIU's China outposts enhance Miami's economic outlook, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Lipscomb, M. 2008. Mixed method nursing studies: a critical realist critique. *Nursing Philosophy*, 9(1): 32-45.

Lipsey, R. E. 2004. Home- and host-country effects of foreign direct investment. In e. Robert E. Baldwin and L. Alan Winters (Ed.), *Challenges to globalization: Analyzing the economics*: 333-382: University of Chicago Press.

Littlejohn, D. 1985. Towards an economic analysis of trans-/multinational hotel companies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 4(4): 157–165.

Lord, M. D., & Ranft, A. L. 2000. Organizational Learning About New International Markets: Exploring the Internal Transfer of Local Market Knowledge. *J Int Bus Stud*, 31(4): 573-589.

Lundy Dobbert, M. L. 1998. The impossibility of internationalizing students by adding materials to courses. In J. A. Mesternhauser, & B. S. Ellingboe (Eds.), *Reforming the higher education curriculum: Internationalizing the campus*: 53-68. Phoenix, AZ: American Council on Education and Oryx Press.

Machado dos Santos, S. 2003. Introduction to the Theme of Transnational Education, *Conference of The Directors General for Higher Education and the Heads of the Rectors' Conferences of the European Union*. Aveiro, Portugal.

Mangrum, M. 2013. FIU adds 10 programs across China, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Mann, S. H. 2009. Dean's Message, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed., Vol. 5: 2. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Marshall, L. 2008. Chinese hospitality. *South Florida CEO*(January 2008): 22-23.

Mazzarol, T., & Norman Soutar, G. 1999. Sustainable competitive advantage for

educational institutions: a suggested model. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 13(6): 287-300.

Mazzarol, T., Soutar, G. N., & Seng, M. S. Y. 2003. The third wave: future trends in international education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 17(3): 90-99.

McBurnie, G., & Ziguras, C. 2006. The international branch campus, *IIENetworker: The International Education Magazine*, Spring ed.: 35-37.

McBurnie, G., & Ziguras, C. 2007. *Transnational Education - Issues and trends in offshore education* (1st ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

McCabe, L. T. 2001. Globlization and Internationalizatio: The Impact on Education Abroad Programs. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 5(2): 138-145.

McCarthy, J. S. 1998. *Continuing and Emerging National Needs for the Internationalization of Undergraduate Education*. Paper presented at the International Education in the New Global Era: Proceedings of a National Policy Conference on the Higher Education Act, Title VI, and Fulbright-Hays Programs, UCLA.

McClure, A. 2006. Made in America; IHEs strive to ensure academic quality as they expand globally, *University Business*, October ed. Norwalk, CT: Professional Media Group LLC.

McEvoy, P., & Richards, D. 2006. A critical realist rationale for using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. *Journal of Research in Nursing*, 11(1): 66-78.

McLean, V. 2006. Auditing Transnational Partnership Programs. In J. Baird (Ed.), *Quality Audit and Assurance for Transnational Higher Education*, Vol. 10: 55-63. Melbourne: Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA).

Miami Today. 2013. Six more years in China, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Meek, V. L. 2007. Internationalisation of higher education and the Australian academic profession: 65-80: International Centre for Higher Education Research (INCHER).

Merille, E. 2009. 100 percent placement for FIU's China grads: FIU News.

Merriam, S. B. 2009. *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*: John Wiley & Sons.

Mertens, D. M. 2005. *Research and Evaluation in Education and Psychology: Integrating Diversity with Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods*: SAGE Publications.

Middlehurst, R., Woodfield, S., Fielden, J., & Forland, H. 2009. Universities and

international higher education partnerships: making a difference. In L. Ebdon, & P. Tatlow (Eds.): 4-48. London, UK: Kingston University.

Miller, K. D., & Tsang, E. W. K. 2010. Testing management theories: critical realist philosophy and research methods, *Strategic Management Journal*: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Mingers, J. 2006. *Realising Systems Thinking: Knowledge and Action in Management Science*: Springer US.

Moehring, E. P. 2007. *UNLV: The University Of Nevada, Las Vegas: A History*. Las Vegas, NV: University of Nevada Press.

Morgan, G., Kristensen, P. H., & Whitley, R. 2001. *The Multinational Firm: Organizing Across Institutional and National Divides*: Oxford University Press.

Mozer, M. 2010-11. Going global, *The University Magazine*, Winter ed.: 10-11: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Naidoo, V. 2010. Transnational Higher Education: Why It Happens and Who Benefits? *International Higher Education*, Branch Campuses and Transnational Higher Education(58 Winter).

National Geographic. 2002. Young Americans still in dark on geography, survey shows: Swedes, Germans and Italians outperform other countries, November 20, 2002 ed.: National Geographic.

news&events. 1997. American College of Management and Technology makes a hit in Croatia, *RIT news&events*, October 23 ed. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

news&events. 1998. Croatian students co-op at RIT, intent on rebuilding their hospitality industry, *RIT news&events*, August 27 ed. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

news&events. 1999a. 1st Croatia college graduation set for May, *RIT news&events*, May 17 ed. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

news&events. 1999b. RIT's college helps Croatia rebuild post-war tourism trade, *RIT news&events*, September 10 ed. Rochester, NY: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Norris, B. 2010. Offshore university campuses, *Language Travel Magazine*, February 2010 ed.: 23. London, UK: Hothouse Media Ltd.

O'Donnell, E. 2007. A landmark gift from Harrah's gives a boost to a proposed academic complex that will keep Hotel College students and researchers on top in the industry, *UNLV News Center*. Las Vegas, NV: UNLV.

O'Hara, S. 2009. Vital and Overlooked: The Role of Faculty in Internationalizing U.S. Campuses. In P. B. a. R. Gutierrez (Ed.), *Meeting America's Global Education*

Challenge, Vol. 6: 38-45. New York: Institute of International Education (IIE).

Olson, C., Green, M., & Hill, B. 2005. *Building A Strategic Framework For Comprehensive Internationalization*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Oltmann, C. 2009. *A Critical Realist Account of a Mentoring Programme in the Faculty of Pharmacy at Rhodes University*: Rhodes University.

Paige, R. M. 2003. The American Case: The University of Minnesota. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7: 52-63.

Patton, M. Q. 2002. *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Paul, S. 2009. Internationalisation of Higher Education: Strategic Implications, *Economic & Political Weekly*, February 28 ed., Vol. XLIV: 36-41. Mumbai, India: Sameeksha Trust.

Perez-Nordtvedt, L., Kedia, B. L., Datta, D. K., & Rasheed, A. A. 2008. Effectiveness and efficiency of cross-border knowledge transfer: An empirical examination. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(4): 714-744.

Perry Hobson, J. S., & Josiam, B. M. 1996. An Integrated Approach to Internationalizing the Hospitality and Tourism Curriculum in the USA. *Journal of Transnational Management Development*, 2(1): 13-34.

Phillips, D. C., & Burbules, N. C. 2000. *Postpositivism and Educational Research*: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Pieterse, J. B. 2007. New Dubai campus reflects RIT's plan to grow globally. *Rochester Business Journal*, 23(36): 8.

Polansky, R. 2006. FIU opens hospitality school in China, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Premier. 2009a. UNLV Global - First Class: Singapore marks major milestone, *Premier*, Spring ed., Vol. 5: 12-15. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2009b. UNLV Global - First Class: Singapore marks major milestone, *Premier*, Spring ed., Vol. 5: 12-15. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2010a. Club corner, *Premier*, Spring ed.: 33. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2010b. UNLV Global - Alumni profiles: recent graduate gives back in Singapore, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 30. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2010c. UNLV Global - More students for Singapore campus, *Premier*,

Fall/Winter ed.: 38. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2010d. UNLV Global - UNLV Masters Degree in Hospitality now offered in Macau, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2010e. UNLV Global - UNLV Singapore celebrates second commencement, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2011a. From the Dean's desk, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 2-3. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2011b. UNLV Global - Inaugural career fair held at UNLV Singapore, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2012a. Fourth commencement held at Singapore Campus, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 37. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2012b. UNLV Global – Singapore campus: Singapore students visit Las Vegas campus, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 35. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2012c. UNLV Global – Singapore campus: Tour of Asia, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 35. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2012d. UNLV Global – Singapore campus: UNLV Singapore hosts reception, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2012e. UNLV Global – Singapore campus: UNLV Singapore to offer pathway to U.S. engineering degrees, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2013a. UNLV Global - Singapore alumna spotlight: Egena Fu, *Premier*, Summer/Fall ed.: 41. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2013b. UNLV Global - Singapore campus: UNLV Singapore students network in Las Vegas at UNLV Shine and UNLV Ties, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 40. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2013c. UNLV Global - Singapore campus: Alumni and graduating students reception 2013, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 39. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier. 2013d. UNLV Global - Singapre campus: commencement 2013, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 39. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Premier Guide Miami. 2010. Florida International University's School of Hospitality and Tourism Management's Tianjin, China program hosts first even China wine & food festival-Tianjin, *Premier Guide Miami*. Miami, FL: Premier Guide Media.

Qiang, Z. 2003. Internationalization of Higher Education: towards a conceptual framework - Policy Futures in Education Volume 1 Number 2 (2003). *Policy Futures in Education*, 1(2): 248-270.

Qin, Y., Mudambi, R., & Meyer, K. E. 2008. Conventional and Reverse Knowledge Flows in Multinational Corporations†. *Journal of Management*, 34(5): 882-902.

Railmond, P., & Halliburton, C. 1995. Business School Strategies for the Single European Market. *Management Learning*, 26(2): 231-247.

Ramaswamy, K., Kroeck, K. G., & Renforth, W. 1996. Measuring the Degree of Internationalization of a firm: A Comment. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(1): 167-177.

Randall, S. 2008. Strategies for Internationalisation - Supporting Students through Overseas Collaborative Partnerships. In R. Atfield, & P. Kemp (Eds.), *Enhancing the International Learning Experience in Business and Management, Hospitality, Leisure, Sport Tourism*. Newbury, United Kingdom: Threshold Press Ltd.

Redden, E. 2013. Debasing the brand. *Inside Higher Ed*(January 16, 2013).

Ricci, E. A. 1999. College and university governance in the United States: an historical survey.

Rugman, A. M. 1981. *Inside the Multinationals: The Economics of Internal Markets*: Croom Helm.

Rugman, A. M. 1985. Internalization is still a general theory of foreign direct investment. *Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv*, 121(3): 570-575.

Rumbley, L. E., & Altbach, P. G. 2007. International Branch Campus Issues. In C. o. S. Memorandum submitted to the U.S. House of Representatives, Space, and Technology, for consideration in conjunction with Dr. Philip G. Altbach's testimony at the committee's July 26, 2007 hearing (Ed.).

Sangpikul, A. 2009. Internationalization of Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education: A Perspective from Thailand. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 9(1-2): 2-20.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. 2008. *Research Methods for Business Students*: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Sayer, A. 2004a. Foreword: why critical realism?, *Critical Realist Applications in Organisation and Management Studies*: 6-19. London, UK: Routledge.

Sayer, A. 2004b. Foreword: why critical realism? In S. Ackroyd, & S. Fleetwood (Eds.), *Critical Realist Applications in Organisation and Management Studies*: 6-19. London, UK: Routledge.

Sayre, M. 2006. Exclusive: UNLV opens Singapore campus, *8 News Now*, August 2 ed. Las Vegas, NV: KLAS-TV.

Scambler, G. 2002. *Health and social change: a critical theory*: Open University.

Schlefelmilch, B. B., Ambos, B., & Chini, T. C. 2003. Are you ready to learn from your offshore affiliates? *Symphona. Emerging Issues in Management*(2): 3-9.

Schramm, J. 2008. Globalizing by degrees, *HR Magazine*, Vol. 53: 144.

Schwandt, T. A. 1994. *Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, Ca: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Seale, C. 1999. Quality in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 5(4): 465-478.

Seidman, I. 2006. *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences* (3rd ed.). NY, NY: Teachers College Press.

Severt, D. E., Tesone, D. V., Bottorff, T. J., & Carpenter, M. L. 2009. A World Ranking of the Top 100 Hospitality and Tourism Programs. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(4): 451-470.

Shanahan, P., & McParlane, J. 2005. Serendipity or strategy? An investigation into entrepreneurial transnational higher education and risk management. *On the Horizon*, 13(4): 220-228.

Sharma, B., & Roy, J. A. 1996. Aspects of the internationalization of management education. *Journal of Management Development*, 15(1): 5-13.

Shiel, C. 2006. Developing the global citizen. *The Higher Education Academy: Academy Exchange*(5): 18-20.

Shumny, D. UNLV Singapore to host 10th annual Asia Pacific forum: academic papers to be presented on tourism enhancement. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Singh, N. 2012. *The market for branch campuses: UNLV Singapore and the role of the government in defining its marketing*. University of South Carolina.

Sirakaya-Turk, E., Uysal, M., Vaske, J. J., & Hammit, W. 2011. Research Methods for Leisure, Recreation and Tourism: 290: CAB International North America.

Smith, R. A. 2008. Joint International Hospitality Management Programs: The Case of Cornell-Nanyang Institute of Hospitality Management, Singapore. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 20(1): 38-44.

Snyder, D. D. 2013. From the Dean's desk, *Premier*, Spring/Summer ed.: 2. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Solem, M., & Ray, W. 2005. Gauging Deisciplinaary Support for Internationalization: A Survey of Geographers: 43.

Stace, L. 2012. Chinese To Say S237 For Fiu Degree, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Stake, R. E. 1994. *Multiple Case Study Analysis*. NY, NY: Guilford Publications, Inc.

Stohl, M. 2007. We Have Met the Enemy and He Is Us: The Role of the Faculty in the Internationalization of Higher Education in the Coming Decade. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4): 359-372.

Straub, D., Boudreau, M.-C., & Gefen, D. 2004. Validation guidelines for IS positivist research. *The Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 13(1): 63.

Sullivan, D. 1994. Measuring the Degree of Internationalization of a Firm. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(2): 325-342.

Susman, G. I. (Ed.). 2007. *Small And Medium-Sized Enterprises And The Global Economy*. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing, Inc.

Sylvester, R. 2012. UNLV's Singapore campus part of effort to preserve Las Vegas' status as gaming kingpin, *Las Vegas Sun*. Las Vegas, NV: Greenspun Media Group.

Takahashi, P. 2013. UNLV likely to shutter its campus in Singapore, *Las Vegas Sun*, Jan. 15, 2013 ed. Las Vegas, NV.

Tang, N., Nollent, A., Barley, R., & Wolstenholm, C. 2009. Linking outward and inward mobility: How raising the international horizons of UK students enhances the international student experience on the UK campus, *The Prime Minister's Initiative for International Education*: 37: Sheffield Hallam University.

Tannenbaum, R. 2012. Florida International University plans degree program in Macau, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Targeted News Service. 2014. RIT Renames Overseas College 'RIT Croatia', *Targeted News Service*. Washington, D.C.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. 1998. *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*: SAGE Publications.

Tavares, S. 2009. With success of Singapore campus, UNLV eyes U.A.E., *Las Vegas Sun News*, Vol. July 4, 2009.

Teichler, U. 1999. Internationalisation as a Challenge for Higher Education in Europe. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 5(1): 5-22.

Teichler, U. 2009. Internationalisation of higher education: European experiences. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 10(1): 93-106.

The University Magazine. Winter 2010-11. Constellation donation supports global initiatives, *The University Magazine*: 15: Rochester Institute of Technology.

Thune, T. 2005. ICT for and in internationalization processes: A business school case study. *Higher Education*, 50: 593-611.

Toh, M.-H. 2012. Internationalization of Tertiary Education Services in Singapore. Tokyo: Asian Development Bank Institute.

Trochim, W. M. K. 2006. The Research Methods Knowledge Base, 2nd ed.

Trochim, W. M. K., & Donnelly, J. P. 2007. *Research Methods Knowledge Base*: Thomson Custom Pub.

UNLV. 2012. UNLV Singapore to offer pathway to U.S. engineering degrees. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

UNLV. 2013. UNLV Singapore Offering Study Abroad Scholarships, Vol. 2013. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

UNLV Media Relations. 2011. Richard Linstrom appointed to head UNLV Singapore. In UNLV Media Relations (Ed.): 2. Las Vegas, NV: UNLV Newscenter.

Valentine, S. 2004. FIU to work with Chinese on hospitality school, *Miami Today*. Miami, FL: Michael Lewis.

Vapa-Tankosic, J., & Caric, M. 2009. *Developing A Conceptual Framework on Internationalization of Higher Education in Serbia*. Paper presented at the 2009 EMUNI Conference on Higher Education and Research, 25-26 September, Portoroz, Slovenia.

Verbik, L. 2006. The International Branch Campus – Models and Trends: Going Global. Edinburgh, UK: Observatory on Borderless Higher Education.

Vidovich, L. 2004. Towards internationalizing the curriculum in a context of globalization: comparing policy processes in two settings. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 34(4): 443-461.

Vignoli, G. February 2004. What Is Transnational Education? Complied Rome.

Walton, J. S., & Guarisco, G. 2007. Structural issues and knowledge management in transnational education partnerships. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 31(5): 358-376.

Wand, Y., & Weber, R. 1993. On the ontological expressiveness of information systems analysis and design grammars. *Information Systems Journal*, 3(4): 217-237.

Ward, D. E. 2006. *Internationalizing the American Politics Curriculum*. Paper presented at the APSA Annual Meeting, Washington, DC.

Wartzok, D. 2007. Building a World-Class University, *17th International Conference of the International Trade and Finance Association*. Miami, FL: International Trade and Finance Association.

Weinman, J. 2011. UNLV Global - UNLV brings prestigious tourism research conference to Singapore, *Premier*, Fall/Winter ed.: 36. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Wentzel, M. 1999. RIT Croats graduate despite war next door, *Rochester Democrat and Chronicle*. Rochester, N.Y.: Gannett.

Werner, E. 2008. The Bologna Process: Building Bridges for Education Internationalization and the Bologna Process: What does it mean for European Higher Education Institutions? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 20(1): 6-12.

Whitaker, I. 2014. Konami donation to kickstart new hospitality building, *The Rebel Yell*, Vol. February 13, 2014. Las Vegas, NV: UNLV.

Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. 2012. The international branch campus as transnational strategy in higher education. *Higher Education*, 64(5): 627-645.

Willis, J. W. 2007. World views, paradigms and the practice of social science research. In J. Mukta, & N. Rema (Eds.), *Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches*: 1-26. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publishing, Inc.

Wilson, L. A., & Vlasceanu, L. 2000. Transnational education and recognition of qualifications. In L. C. Barrows (Ed.), *Papers on Higher Education*, Internationalization of Higher Education: An Institutional Perspective ed.: 75-85. Bucharest, Romania: UNESCO-CEPES.

Wisansing, J. 2008. The Three Waves of Internationalisation Sweeping Thailand's Tourism and Hospitality Education: Current Progress and Future Prospects. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 20(1): 13-19.

Woodfield, S., & Middlehurst, R. 2009. Universities and international higher education partnerships: making a difference: 4-48. London, UK: Kingston University.

Wächter, B. 2003. An Introduction: Internationalisation at Home in Context. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7(1): 5-11.

Yeung, H. W.-c. 1997. Critical realism and realist research in human geography: a method or a philosophy in search of a method? *Progress in Human Geography*, 21(1): 51-74.

Yin, R. K. 2009. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*: SAGE Publications.

Young, J. 2010. UNLV Singapore student spotlight: in his own words, *Premeire*, Spring

ed.: 32. University of Nevada, Las Vegas: William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration.

Yung, A., & Sharma, Y. 2013. Demise of branch campuses exposes reliance on government subsidies, *University World News: The Global Window on Higher Education*, Global ed. London, UK: Higher Education Web Publishing Ltd.

Zachariadis, M., Scott, S., & Barrett, M. 2010. Designing mixed-method research inspired by a critical realism philosophy: A tale from the field of IS innovation, *ICIS 2010 Proceedings*, Vol. Paper 265.

Zehrer, A., & Lichtmannegger, S. 2008. The Internationalization of Tourism Education - The Case of MCI. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 20(1): 45-51.

Ziguras, C. 2007. Good Practice in Transnational Education: A Guide for New Zealand Providers: 1-40: Prepared for Education New Zealand Trust.

Ziguras, C., & McBurnie, G. 2011. Transnational Higher Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: From Distance Education to the Branch Campus. In S. Marginson, S. Kaur, & E. Sawir (Eds.), *Higher Education in the Asia-Pacific*, Vol. 36: 105-122: Springer Netherlands.

Appendix A: Online survey request email sent to all CHRIE member schools

Thursday - June 14, 2012

Dear Hospitality and Tourism Educator,

Would you please take two minutes to complete this short survey which seeks to identify U.S. Hospitality and Tourism Management programs involved in delivering their degree in international settings outside the U.S. Please use the link below. One participant in this survey will be drawn to receive a $50 Amazon.com gift card. **The survey will close June 30th.**

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/InternationalizationPrograms

Thank you for your time and support,

Rick

Richard "Rick" M. Lagiewski
Faculty
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
College of Applied Science and Technology
Rochester Institute of Technology
14 Lomb Memorial Drive
Rochester, New York 14623-5604 USA
Phone 01 (585) 475-2820
email: Rick.Lagiewski@rit.edu

This announcement was paid for by Rochester Institute of Technology and does not reflect the opinions of International CHRIE.

To unsubscribe, please click here

Appendix B: CHRIE survey to identify U.S. universities involved in transnational education

Transnational Education

A growing trend over the last 15 years has been the export of U.S. education to countries around the globe. This trend is often called transnational education. Transnational education is defined as any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This short survey is being used to explore the activity in which U.S.-Based Hospitality and Tourism Management Programs deliver their degree programs in different countries outside the United States.

Please take a few minutes to answer the following questions:

*1. Name of your degree program:

*2. Name of your institution:

3. Does your institution offer its Hospitality and Tourism Management degree outside the U.S.?

◯ Yes

◯ No

4. How many different countries is your degree offered in outside the U.S.?

◯ 1

◯ 2

◯ 3

◯ 4

◯ 5

◯ Other

5. What geographic areas does your degree program get offered in outside the U.S.? (click all that apply)

☐ Africa

☐ Asia

☐ Caribbean

☐ Europe

☐ Middle East

☐ South America

Other (please specify)

6. What are the total years of existence of your oldest overseas degree offering?

◯ Less than 4 years

◯ More than 4 years, but less than 10

◯ 10 years or older

7. What degrees do you offer in the overseas location(s) (click all that apply):

- [ ] Associate Degree
- [ ] Bachelor Degree
- [ ] Master Degree
- [ ] Doctorate Degree

8. As of May 2012, approximately how many students are enrolled in all your overseas degree locations?

- ( ) 1-30
- ( ) 31-50
- ( ) 51-100
- ( ) Over 100

9. How many of your U.S.-based faculty have taught in your overseas degree location(s) since its inception?

- ( ) 0
- ( ) 1-3
- ( ) 4-5
- ( ) 5-10
- ( ) Over 10

10. What percentage of all your overseas courses are delivered through:

Face-to-face classroom instruction in the overseas location	
Online course delivery	
Hybrid courses (combination of face-to-face and online)	
Other	

11. What best describes your position?

- ( ) Administrator
- ( ) Faculty (instructor)
- ( ) Staff

Other (please specify)

12. Please enter your name and email address below if you would like to be entered in a drawing for a $50 Amazon.com gift card.

Name:

Email:

Appendix C: Results of CHRIE survey to identify U.S. universities involved in transnational education

Internationalization in US Based Hospitality and Tourism Management Programs

Q1 Name of your degree program:

Answered: 50   Skipped: 0

#	Responses	Date
1	hotel and restaurant administration	7/9/2012 9:05 AM
2	AAS Hospitality Management	6/20/2012 2:09 PM
3	Hospitality and Resort Management	6/19/2012 9:58 AM
4	Hospitality and Tourism Management Studies	6/19/2012 9:23 AM
5	BBS in International Hotel Management	6/19/2012 8:19 AM
6	MBA in service and Hospitality Management	6/19/2012 3:42 AM
7	International Hospitality Management	6/18/2012 4:53 PM
8	AAS in Hospitality Management	6/18/2012 1:38 PM
9	Hotel and Restaurant Management	6/18/2012 10:38 AM
10	Hospitality Management	6/16/2012 11:56 AM
11	Associates of Science Degree in Hospitality Management	6/16/2012 9:30 AM
12	Hospitality and Tourism Management	6/15/2012 5:00 PM
13	BS in Hospitality management	6/15/2012 3:40 PM
14	Hospitality Management	6/15/2012 1:51 PM
15	Hospitality Management	6/15/2012 1:38 PM
16	Hospitality Administration	6/15/2012 1:00 PM
17	Hospitality Administration	6/15/2012 12:04 PM
18	Hospitality Management	6/15/2012 11:24 AM
19	HRIM	6/15/2012 8:36 AM
20	Hospitality and Tourism Management	6/15/2012 7:33 AM
21	Degree Programme in hotel, restaurant and tourism management	6/15/2012 4:31 AM
22	School of Hotel and Restaurant Management	6/15/2012 2:27 AM
23	dfghth	6/15/2012 1:32 AM
24	Hospitality Administration	6/15/2012 12:27 AM
25	BS Hotel and Restaurant Management	6/15/2012 12:04 AM
26	Hospitality tourism events	6/14/2012 10:43 PM
27	Bachelor of Hospitality Management (Honours)	6/14/2012 9:12 PM
28	Restaurant, Hotel and Tourism	6/14/2012 8:17 PM
29	Bachelor of Science	6/14/2012 7:38 PM
30	hospitality	6/14/2012 7:36 PM
31	Hotel & Restaurant Management	6/14/2012 7:28 PM
32	Hospitality, Tourism and Events	6/14/2012 7:10 PM
33	Hotel and Restaurant Management (AAS)	6/14/2012 5:47 PM
34	Hotel/Restaurant Management	6/14/2012 4:40 PM
35	bachelor of science	6/14/2012 4:21 PM
36	Foodservice, Lodging, and Recreation Management	6/14/2012 4:18 PM

37	Bachelors in Hospitality Management	6/14/2012 4:17 PM
38	Hospitality Management	6/14/2012 4:14 PM
39	Hospitality Management	6/14/2012 3:34 PM
40	Bachelors degree in professional studies of culinary arts management	6/14/2012 3:33 PM
41	School of Hospitality Administration	6/14/2012 3:25 PM
42	BBA with an emphasis in Hospitality Management	6/14/2012 3:21 PM
43	PHD	6/14/2012 3:16 PM
44	Hospitality Administration	6/14/2012 3:13 PM
45	Hospitality management	6/14/2012 3:12 PM
46	Associate of Hospitality Management	6/14/2012 3:10 PM
47	Hospitality management	6/14/2012 3:10 PM
48	Bachelor of Science in Restaurant and Catering Management	6/14/2012 3:08 PM
49	hotel, tourism, and event management	6/14/2012 3:06 PM
50	Hospitality and Tourism Management	6/14/2012 3:05 PM

Q2 Name of your institution:

Answered: 50   Skipped: 0

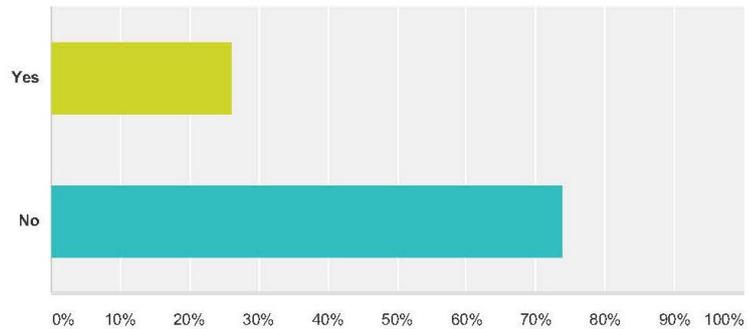| #	Responses	Date
1	oklahoma state university	7/9/2012 9:05 AM
2	Hudson County Community College	6/20/2012 2:09 PM
3	University of Memphis	6/19/2012 9:58 AM
4	the Richard Stockton College of NJ	6/19/2012 9:23 AM
5	Shannon College of Hotel Management	6/19/2012 8:19 AM
6	Ecole de Savignac	6/19/2012 3:42 AM
7	Universidad del Este	6/18/2012 4:53 PM
8	Lake Michigan College	6/18/2012 1:38 PM
9	Kansas State University	6/18/2012 10:38 AM
10	Collins College of Hospitality Management	6/16/2012 11:56 AM
11	Bermuda College	6/16/2012 9:30 AM
12	Delaware State University	6/15/2012 5:00 PM
13	East Carolina University	6/15/2012 3:40 PM
14	Butler Community College	6/15/2012 1:51 PM
15	Del Mar College	6/15/2012 1:38 PM
16	University of Nevada Las Vegas	6/15/2012 1:00 PM
17	Georgia State University	6/15/2012 12:04 PM
18	Indiana University of Pennsylvania	6/15/2012 11:24 AM
19	PENN STATE	6/15/2012 8:36 AM
20	Purdue	6/15/2012 7:33 AM
21	HAAGA-HELIA university of applied sciences	6/15/2012 4:31 AM
22	Northern Arizona University	6/15/2012 2:27 AM
23	fhrthrt	6/15/2012 1:32 AM
24	Texas Tech University	6/15/2012 12:27 AM
25	Central Luzon State university	6/15/2012 12:04 AM
26	Metro state university	6/14/2012 10:43 PM
27	BERJAYA UNIVERISTY COLLEGE OF HOSPITALITY< MALAYSIA	6/14/2012 9:12 PM
28	Ohio University	6/14/2012 8:17 PM
29	UNLV	6/14/2012 7:38 PM
30	jwu charlotte	6/14/2012 7:36 PM
31	College of the Ozarks	6/14/2012 7:28 PM
32	Metropolitan State University of Denver	6/14/2012 7:10 PM
33	Delaware County Community College	6/14/2012 5:47 PM
34	Northampton Community College	6/14/2012 4:40 PM
35	cornell university	6/14/2012 4:21 PM
36	Community College of Allegheny County	6/14/2012 4:18 PM

37	Endicott College	6/14/2012 4:17 PM
38	Bermuda College	6/14/2012 4:14 PM
39	Syracuse University	6/14/2012 3:34 PM
40	Culinary Institute of America	6/14/2012 3:33 PM
41	Boston University	6/14/2012 3:25 PM
42	Eastern New Mexcio University	6/14/2012 3:21 PM
43	Texas Tech University	6/14/2012 3:16 PM
44	Texas Tech University	6/14/2012 3:13 PM
45	Pennsylvania State University	6/14/2012 3:12 PM
46	College of Coastal Georgia	6/14/2012 3:10 PM
47	Iowa State University	6/14/2012 3:10 PM
48	The International Culinary School at The Art institute of Dallas	6/14/2012 3:08 PM
49	Columbus State Community College	6/14/2012 3:06 PM
50	University of Guelph	6/14/2012 3:05 PM

Internationalization in US Based Hospitality and Tourism Management Programs

Q3 Does your institution offer its Hospitality and Tourism Management degree outside the U.S.?

Answered: 50   Skipped: 0

Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	26.00%	13
No	74.00%	37
Total		50

Q4 How many different countries is your degree offered in outside the U.S.?

Answered: 9   Skipped: 41
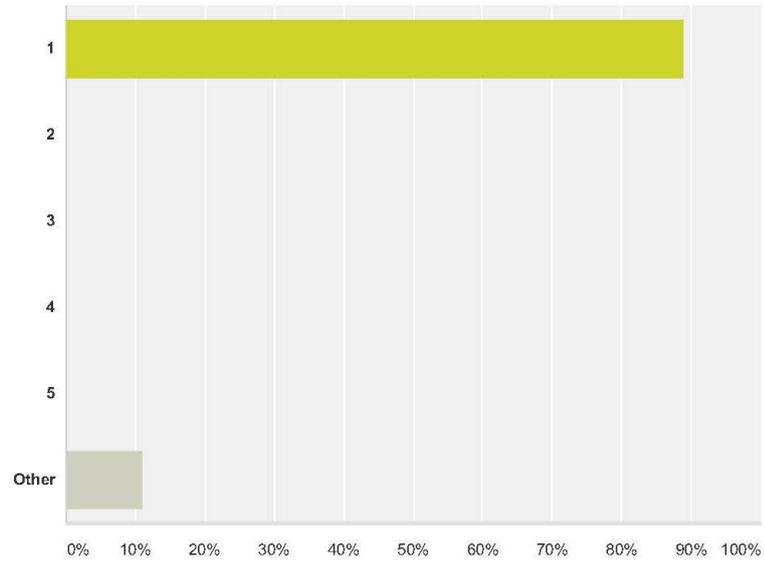
Answer Choices	Responses	
1	88.89%	8
2	0.00%	0
3	0.00%	0
4	0.00%	0
5	0.00%	0
Other	11.11%	1
Total		9

Q5 What geographic areas does your degree program get offered in outside the U.S.? (click all that apply)

Answered: 8   Skipped: 42
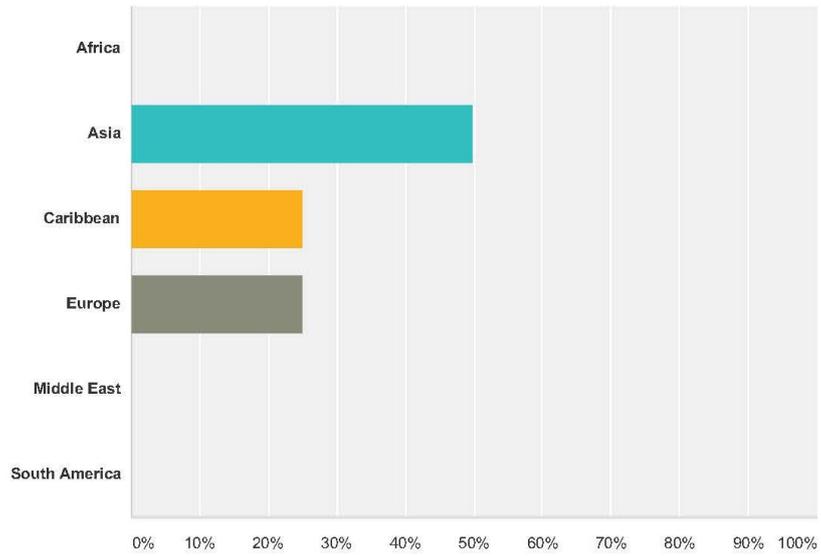
Answer Choices	Responses	
Africa	0.00%	0
Asia	50.00%	4
Caribbean	25.00%	2
Europe	25.00%	2
Middle East	0.00%	0
South America	0.00%	0
Total Respondents: 8		

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	students from any country can apply and takeour program via distance education	6/15/2012 3:42 PM

253

Q6 What are the total years of existence of your oldest overseas degree offering?

Answered: 9   Skipped: 41
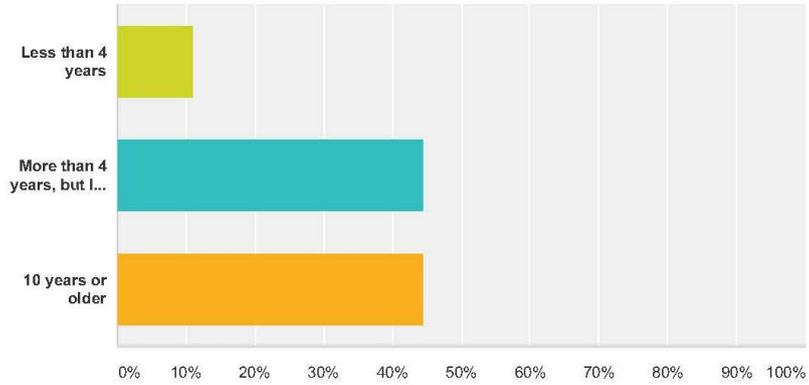
Answer Choices	Responses	
Less than 4 years	11.11%	1
More than 4 years, but less than 10	44.44%	4
10 years or older	44.44%	4
Total		9

Q7 What degrees do you offer in the overseas location(s) (click all that apply):

Answered: 9   Skipped: 41
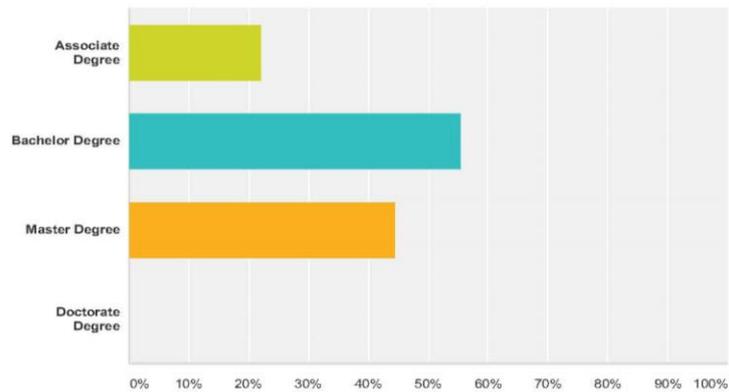
Answer Choices	Responses	
Associate Degree	22.22%	2
Bachelor Degree	55.56%	5
Master Degree	44.44%	4
Doctorate Degree	0.00%	0
Total Respondents: 9		

Q8 As of May 2012, approximately how many students are enrolled in all your overseas degree locations?

Answered: 9   Skipped: 41
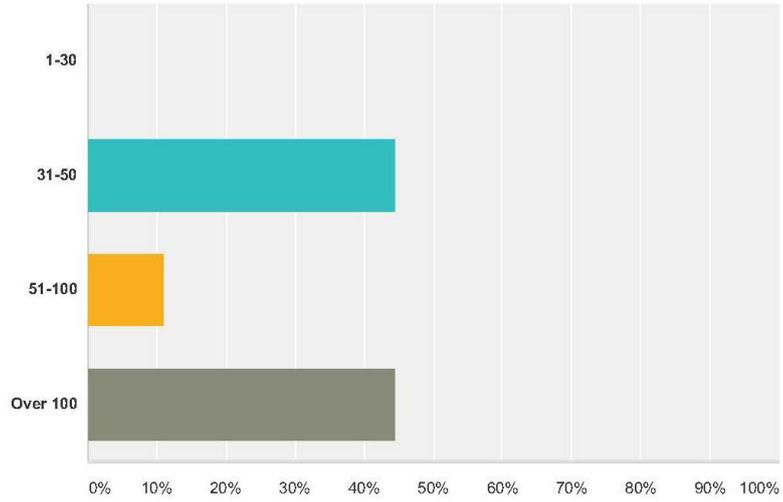
Answer Choices	Responses	
1-30	0.00%	0
31-50	44.44%	4
51-100	11.11%	1
Over 100	44.44%	4
Total		9

Q9 How many of your U.S.-based faculty have taught in your overseas degree location(s) since its inception?

Answered: 9   Skipped: 41
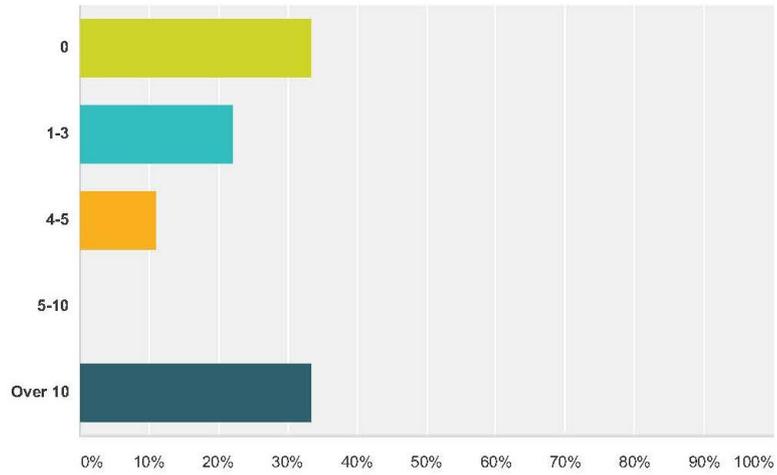
Answer Choices	Responses	
0	33.33%	3
1-3	22.22%	2
4-5	11.11%	1
5-10	0.00%	0
Over 10	33.33%	3
Total		9

Q10 What percentage of all your overseas courses are delivered through:

Answered: 9   Skipped: 41
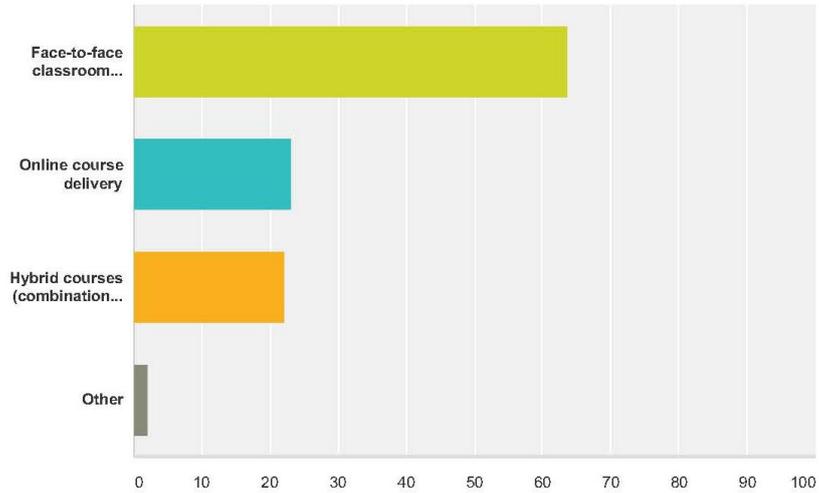
Answer Choices	Average Number	Total Number	Responses
Face-to-face classroom instruction in the overseas location	64	573	9
Online course delivery	23	162	7
Hybrid courses (combination of face-to-face and online)	22	155	7
Other	2	10	5
Total Respondents: 9			

#	Face-to-face classroom instruction in the overseas location	Date
1	20	6/19/2012 3:44 AM
2	80	6/16/2012 9:32 AM
3	0	6/15/2012 3:42 PM
4	40	6/15/2012 1:02 PM
5	100	6/15/2012 8:43 AM
6	80	6/15/2012 4:33 AM
7	80	6/14/2012 7:39 PM
8	75	6/14/2012 4:16 PM
9	98	6/14/2012 3:35 PM
#	Online course delivery	Date
1	100	6/15/2012 3:42 PM
2	30	6/15/2012 1:02 PM
3	0	6/15/2012 8:43 AM
4	20	6/15/2012 4:33 AM

Continued

5	10		6/14/2012 7:39 PM
6	0		6/14/2012 4:16 PM
7	2		6/14/2012 3:35 PM
#	Hybrid courses (combination of face-to-face and online)		Date
1	70		6/19/2012 3:44 AM
2	20		6/16/2012 9:32 AM
3	0		6/15/2012 3:42 PM
4	30		6/15/2012 1:02 PM
5	0		6/15/2012 8:43 AM
6	10		6/14/2012 7:39 PM
7	25		6/14/2012 4:16 PM
#	Other		Date
1	10		6/19/2012 3:44 AM
2	0		6/15/2012 3:42 PM
3	0		6/15/2012 1:02 PM
4	0		6/15/2012 8:43 AM
5	0		6/14/2012 4:16 PM

Internationalization in US Based Hospitality and Tourism Management Programs

Q11 What best describes your position?

Answered: 7   Skipped: 43
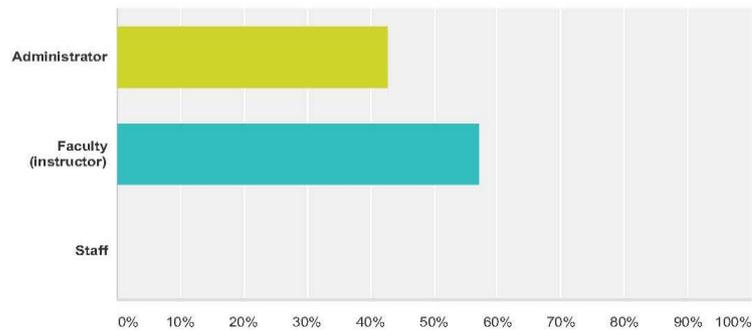
Answer Choices	Responses	
Administrator	42.86%	3
Faculty (instructor)	57.14%	4
Staff	0.00%	0
Total		7

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Dean	6/19/2012 3:44 AM
2	Director of the degree programme	6/15/2012 4:33 AM
3	associate dean of hospitality and beverage management	6/14/2012 3:35 PM

Appendix D: Online survey request - sample email

Subject line: Please assist in this short dissertation questionnaire

Dear William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration Faculty / Staff Member,

My name is Rick Lagiewski and I am a doctoral student researching hospitality and tourism degree programs which are delivered in foreign locations as part of my PhD program at Edinburgh Napier University in Scotland.

I have received support from your University colleague Associate Dean Dr. Patrick J. Moreo to reach out to you for help by taking part in my study.

The primary research question of my research is: How does the delivery of degree programs at international branch campuses contribute to the internationalization of the hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home (U.S.) campus?

My intent is purely academic for my degree requirements and I have gone through all of the required ethics in research applications at my university so that all appropriate research methods will maintain anonymity of the findings. By no means are you required to take part in this study and may choose not to at any time. All findings will be shown to respondents for review and approval prior to inclusion in my dissertation. No mention of respondents or the university by name will be used without prior written approval.

The first part is a short online survey which is attached below:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/UNLVBranchCampus

If you would please complete this survey by *March 8th* it would be greatly appreciated. If you have any questions or concerns please contact me via email below.

Appendix E: **Online survey to explore and determine potential home programme and IBC relationship**

This survey is intended to explore how Florida International University's (FIU) Tianjin, China campus has influenced FIU's Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management in Miami, Florida.

*1. Which best describes the area you work in at FIU?

◯ Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management in Miami, Florida

◯ All other academic and administrative areas at FIU in Miami, Florida

◯ Other (please specify)

*2. Have you ever taught at FIU's campus in Tianjin, China?

◯ Yes

◯ No

3. How many total semesters have you taught at FIU's campus in Tianjin, China?

◯ Less than one semester (study tour or summer short course, for example)

◯ One semester

◯ Two semesters

◯ Three semesters

◯ Four semesters

◯ More than four semesters

◯ Other (please specify)

*4. Have you ever traveled to FIU's campus in Tianjin, China on official FIU business besides a teaching assignment?

◯ Yes

◯ No

5. What were the main reasons for your non-teaching official trip(s) to the campus in China? Please check all that apply:

☐ To attend board meeting(s)

☐ To review curriculum

☐ To participate in research

☐ To participate in a quality assurance activity

☐ To participate in student admissions process

☐ To attend graduation

☐ To train local staff

☐ To attend career fair(s)

☐ Other (please specify)

6. How has FIU's campus in Tianjin, China influenced your work at FIU?

7. Do you believe FIU's Tianjin, China campus has been primarily a positive or negative influence on FIU's Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management in Miami, Florida?

○ Positive

○ Negative

Explain

8. What do you believe is FIU's main reason for delivering an academic degree in Tianjin, China? (Choose 1 answer)

- ○ Economic benefits for FIU
- ○ Improved reputation and status for FIU
- ○ Increase in FIU's overall student enrollment
- ○ Opportunities for increased international focus of programs at FIU
- ○ Study abroad opportunities for FIU students
- ○ To help provide educational opportunities for students in China
- ○ To help develop higher education in China
- ○ Other (please specify)

9. Has the existence of FIU's campus in Tianjin, China resulted in:

	Yes	No	Unsure
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at FIU's Miami campus?	○	○	○
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	○	○	○
International guest speakers to FIU's Miami campus?	○	○	○
Opportunities for Miami-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	○	○	○
Joint research for Miami-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	○	○	○
Publications for Miami-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	○	○	○
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at FIU's Miami campus?	○	○	○
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at FIU in Miami to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	○	○	○
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for FIU's Miami-based students?	○	○	○
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at FIU's Miami campus?	○	○	○
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	○	○	○
Increased interest by FIU to create additional degree programs abroad?	○	○	○
FIU's creation of other international programs overseas (outside of China)?	○	○	○
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the program in China?	○	○	○

10. Has the existence of FIU's campus in Tianjin, China resulted in:

	Yes	No	Unsure	Does not apply to my position
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	○	○	○	○
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	○	○	○	○
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	○	○	○	○
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	○	○	○	○
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at FIU's Miami campus?	○	○	○	○
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree program you teach in?	○	○	○	○
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	○	○	○	○
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree program you teach in?	○	○	○	○

11. Please enter the year you first became employed at FIU.

＊12. Which best describes your primary role at FIU?

○ Faculty

○ Staff

○ Administrator

○ Other (please specify)

---

13. I would be very grateful if you would be willing to include your name and email below in order to participate in a follow-up interview

(Please note: All responses to this study will be confidential and reported using anonymous coding).

Many Thanks,
Rick Lagiewski
PhD Candidate
Edinburgh Napier University

Appendix F: Raw online survey results IBCs (FIU, RIT, UNLV)

International Campus FIU CHINA

Q1 Which best describes the area you work in at FIU?

Answered: 15   Skipped: 0
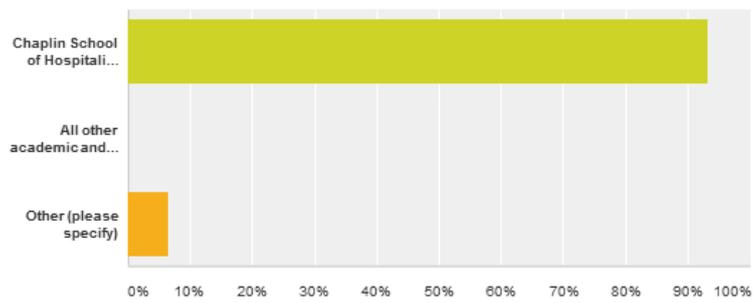
Answer Choices	Responses	
Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management in Miami, Florida	93.33%	14
All other academic and administrative areas at FIU in Miami, Florida	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	6.67%	1
Total		15

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management in Tianjin, China.	3/4/2013 4:38 AM

Q2 Have you ever taught at FIU's campus in Tianjin, China?

Answered: 15   Skipped: 0

Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	40.00%	6
No	60.00%	9
Total		15

Q3 How many total semesters have you taught at FIU's campus in Tianjin, China?

Answered: 6   Skipped: 9
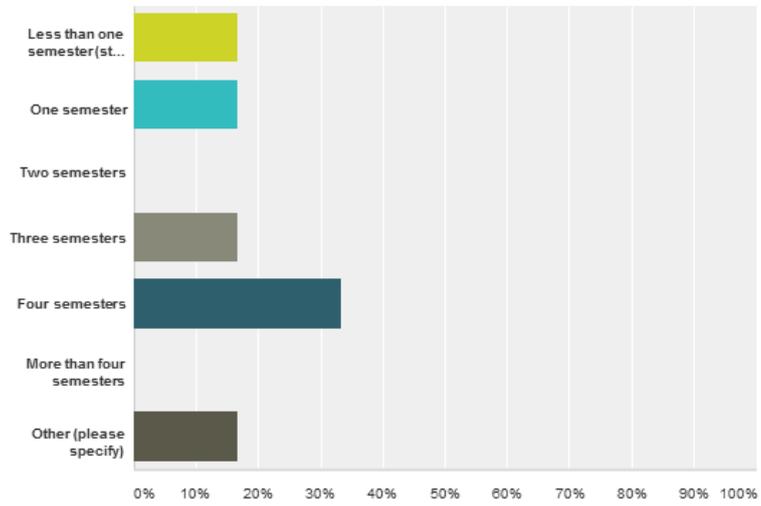
Answer Choices	Responses	
Less than one semester (study tour or summer short course, for example)	16.67%	1
One semester	16.67%	1
Two semesters	0.00%	0
Three semesters	16.67%	1
Four semesters	33.33%	2
More than four semesters	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	16.67%	1
Total		6

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Full semester course in 3 weeks	3/4/2013 7:27 AM

266

Q4 Have you ever traveled to FIU's campus in Tianjin, China on official FIU business besides a teaching assignment?

Answered: 15   Skipped: 0

Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	40.00%	6
No	60.00%	9
Total		15

Q5 What were the main reasons for your non-teaching official trip(s) to the campus in China? Please check all that apply:

Answered: 6   Skipped: 9
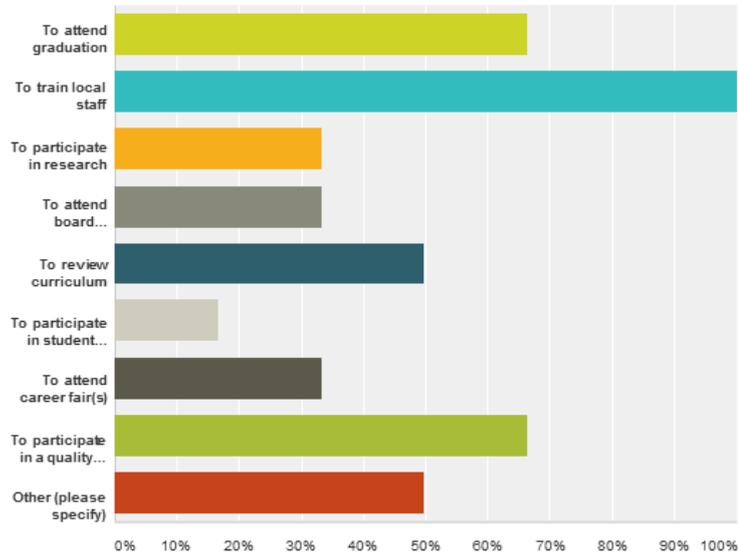
Answer Choices	Responses	
To attend graduation	66.67%	4
To train local staff	100.00%	6
To participate in research	33.33%	2
To attend board meeting(s)	33.33%	2
To review curriculum	50.00%	3
To participate in student admissions process	16.67%	1
To attend career fair(s)	33.33%	2
To participate in a quality assurance activity	66.67%	4
Other (please specify)	50.00%	3
Total Respondents: 6		

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Administrative and Budgetary Oversight	3/18/2013 2:30 PM
2	Monitor academic programs as Assoc. Dean of Academics and Interim Dean of the School	3/7/2013 4:57 PM
3	Infrastructure Design	3/4/2013 7:49 AM

Q6 How has FIU's campus in Tianjin, China influenced your work at FIU?

Answered: 10   Skipped: 5

#	Responses	Date
1	We have had a positive interaction with faculty from Tianjin.	3/18/2013 1:30 PM
2	Made it much busier and much more rewarding.	3/7/2013 4:57 PM
3	I do not think the Tianjin campus itself influenced my work very much.	3/7/2013 1:20 PM
4	It as increased my understanding of global issues and strategic planning. It has also helped me understand the local needs of hospitality operators.	3/5/2013 7:53 PM
5	The focus on China seems to take a toll on the availaility of key personnel at BBC. Othewise, no impact.	3/4/2013 7:28 PM
6	A more global perspective in all of my classes	3/4/2013 7:49 AM
7	Not at all	3/4/2013 7:28 AM
8	It hasn't since I work in China.	3/4/2013 4:41 AM
9	Strategically	3/3/2013 9:21 PM
10	I have been able to develop my teaching style to accommodate the large number of international students at FIU from the Tianjin program.	3/3/2013 7:50 PM

Q7 Do you believe FIU's Tianjin, China campus has been primarily a positive or negative influence on FIU's Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management in Miami, Florida?

Answered: 12   Skipped: 3
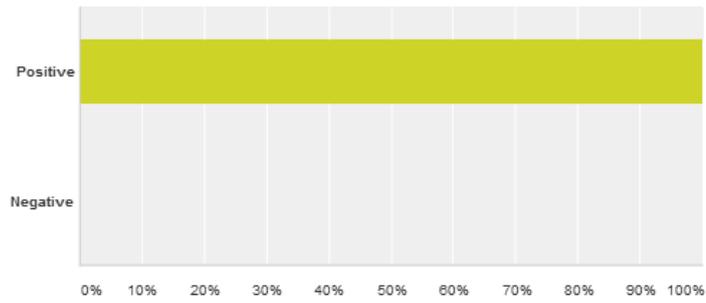
Answer Choices	Responses	
Positive	100.00%	12
Negative	0.00%	0
Total		12

#	Explain	Date
1	Tianjin has provided a different perspective on our academic subjects.	3/18/2013 1:30 PM
2	Expanded vision and reach of the program giving it greater depth and breadth,	3/7/2013 4:57 PM
3	Overall positive since student enrollment is high. However, I think this question is not direct enough and difficult to answer.	3/7/2013 1:20 PM
4	Our students are obtaining great positions in the industry and are being sought after by global-international companies.	3/5/2013 7:53 PM
5	Industry recognition.	3/4/2013 7:28 PM
6	increased enrollment in grad program	3/4/2013 7:28 AM
7	It's been a good source of cash flow. The undergraduate program sends Chinese student to study in Miami for grad school. Students employed by multi-national hotel companies build the FIU brand.	3/4/2013 4:41 AM
8	See previous answer.	3/3/2013 7:50 PM

270

Q8 What do you believe is FIU's main reason for delivering an academic degree in Tianjin, China? (Choose 1 answer)

Answered: 11   Skipped: 4
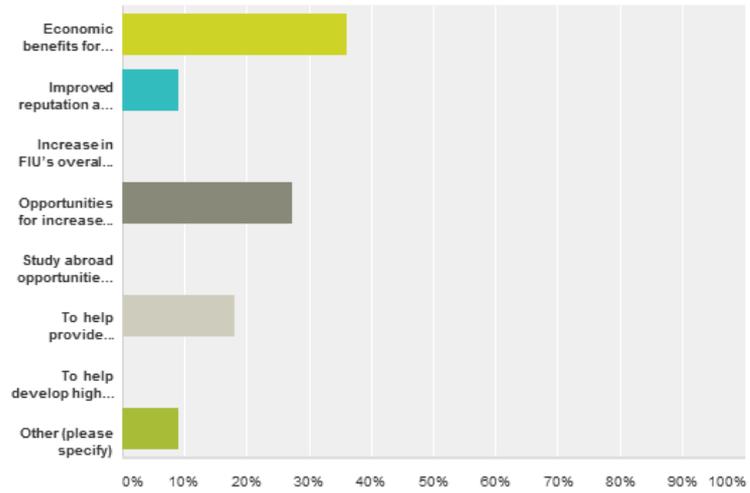
Answer Choices	Responses	
Economic benefits for FIU	36.36%	4
Improved reputation and status for FIU	9.09%	1
Increase in FIU's overall student enrollment	0.00%	0
Opportunities for increased international focus of programs at FIU	27.27%	3
Study abroad opportunities for FIU students	0.00%	0
To help provide educational opportunities for students in China	18.18%	2
To help develop higher education in China	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	9.09%	1
Total		11

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Equal sharing - points 1, 2 and 3 above	3/4/2013 7:28 PM

Q9 Has the existence of FIU's campus in Tianjin, China resulted in:

Answered: 11   Skipped: 4

	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at FIU's Miami campus?	36.36% 4	27.27% 3	36.36% 4	11
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	90.91% 10	0.00% 0	9.09% 1	11
International guest speakers to FIU's Miami campus?	27.27% 3	27.27% 3	45.45% 5	11
Opportunities for Miami-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	36.36% 4	36.36% 4	27.27% 3	11
Joint research for Miami-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	63.64% 7	9.09% 1	27.27% 3	11
Publications for Miami-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	27.27% 3	18.18% 2	54.55% 6	11
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at FIU's Miami campus?	100.00% 11	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	11
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at FIU in Miami to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	90.91% 10	0.00% 0	9.09% 1	11
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for FIU's Miami-based students?	72.73% 8	18.18% 2	9.09% 1	11
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at FIU's Miami campus?	36.36% 4	9.09% 1	54.55% 6	11
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	27.27% 3	54.55% 6	18.18% 2	11
Increased interest by FIU to create additional degree programs abroad?	90.91% 10	0.00% 0	9.09% 1	11
FIU's creation of other international programs overseas (outside of China)?	54.55% 6	9.09% 1	36.36% 4	11
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the program in China?	27.27% 3	27.27% 3	45.45% 5	11

Q10 Has the existence of FIU's campus in Tianjin, China resulted in:

Answered: 11   Skipped: 4

	Yes	No	Unsure	Does not apply to my position	Total
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	36.36% 4	36.36% 4	9.09% 1	18.18% 2	11
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	27.27% 3	36.36% 4	9.09% 1	27.27% 3	11
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	18.18% 2	54.55% 6	0.00% 0	27.27% 3	11
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	81.82% 9	18.18% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	11
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at FIU's Miami campus?	81.82% 9	18.18% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	11
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree program you teach in?	90.91% 10	9.09% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	11
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	81.82% 9	18.18% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	11
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree program you teach in?	54.55% 6	18.18% 2	18.18% 2	9.09% 1	11

Q11 Please enter the year you first became employed at FIU.

Answered: 11   Skipped: 4

#	Responses	Date
1	1993	3/18/2013 2:34 PM
2	2006	3/18/2013 1:37 PM
3	1990	3/7/2013 5:03 PM
4	2011	3/7/2013 1:22 PM
5	2008	3/5/2013 7:55 PM
6	2005 - Adjunct; 2012 Full time	3/4/2013 7:31 PM
7	2003	3/4/2013 7:52 AM
8	2007	3/4/2013 7:29 AM
9	2011	3/4/2013 4:45 AM
10	1984	3/3/2013 9:23 PM
11	2011	3/3/2013 7:54 PM

Q12 Which best describes your primary role at FIU?

Answered: 11   Skipped: 4
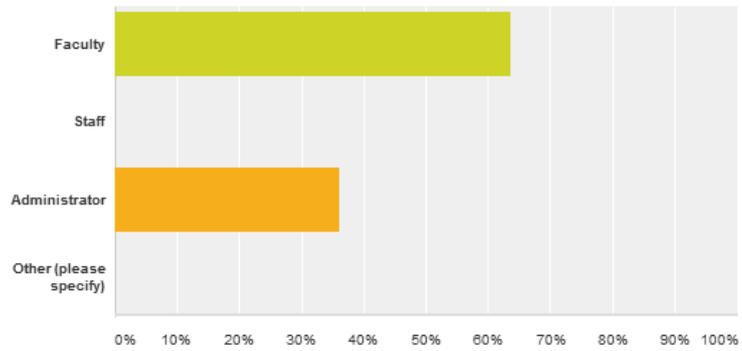
Answer Choices	Responses	
Faculty	63.64%	7
Staff	0.00%	0
Administrator	36.36%	4
Other (please specify)	0.00%	0
Total		11

#	Other (please specify)	Date
	There are no responses.	

Q13 I would be very grateful if you would be willing to include your name and email below in order
to participate in a follow-up interview (Please note: All responses to this study will be confidential and reported
using anonymous coding).
Many Thanks,
Rick Lagiewski PhD Candidate

Q1 Which best describes the area you work in at RIT?

Answered: 21 Skipped: 0
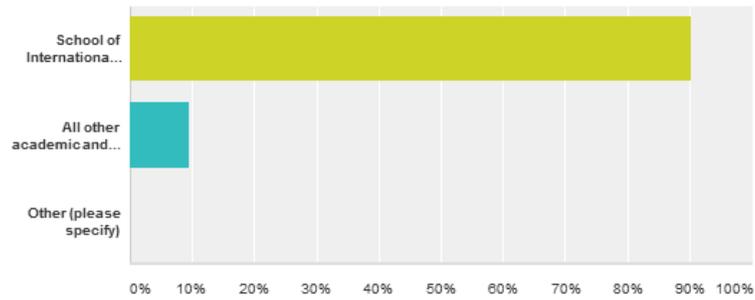
Answer Choices		Responses	
School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation in Rochester, New York		90.48%	19
All other academic and administrative areas at RIT in Rochester, New York		9.52%	2
Other (please specify)		0.00%	0
Total			21

#	Other (please specify)	Date
	There are no responses.	

Q2 Have you ever taught at RIT's campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia?

Answered: 21 Skipped: 0
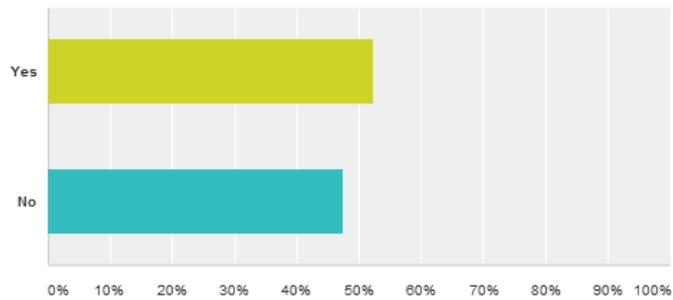
Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	52.38%	11
No	47.62%	10
Total		21

275

Q3 How many total semesters have you taught at RIT's campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia?

Answered: 11   Skipped: 10
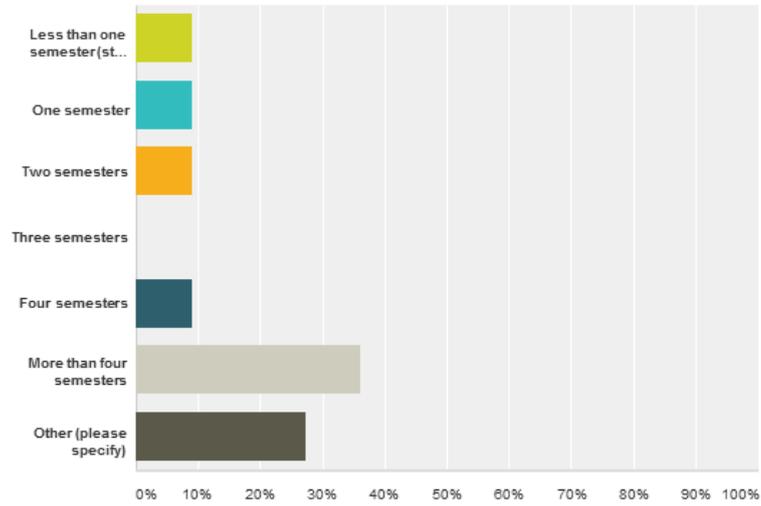
Answer Choices	Responses	
Less than one semester (study tour or summer short course, for example)	9.09%	1
One semester	9.09%	1
Two semesters	9.09%	1
Three semesters	0.00%	0
Four semesters	9.09%	1
More than four semesters	36.36%	4
Other (please specify)	27.27%	3
Total		11

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Delivered graduate courses in SLI for two cohorts. Presnetly, delivering two more in Zagreb - part of ACMT	3/2/2013 9:55 PM
2	Short courses three times, one in Dubrovnik and two in Zagreb	3/1/2013 11:54 AM
3	3 quarters, not semesters	3/1/2013 11:03 AM

Q4 Have you ever traveled to RIT's campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia on official RIT business besides a teaching assignment?

Answered: 21   Skipped: 0
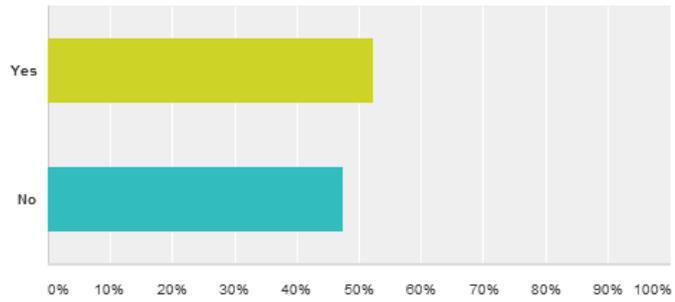
Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	52.38%	11
No	47.62%	10
Total		21

Q5 What were the main reasons for your non-teaching official trip(s) to the campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia? Please check all that apply:

Answered: 10   Skipped: 11
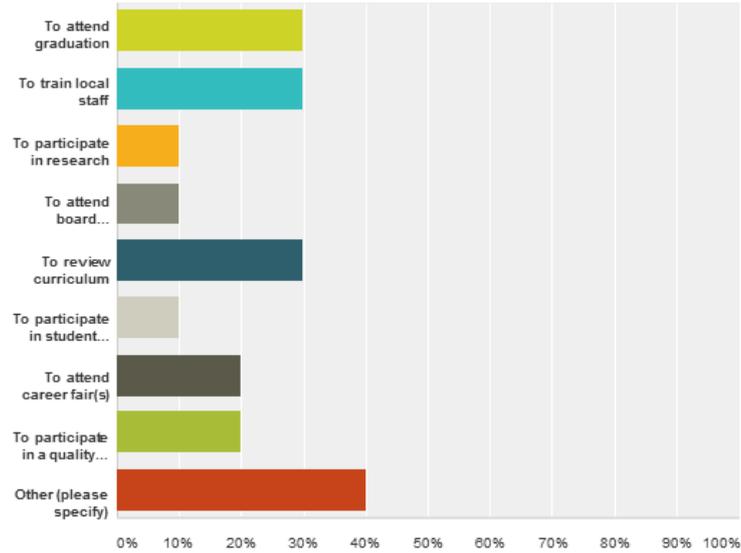
Answer Choices	Responses	
To attend graduation	30.00%	3
To train local staff	30.00%	3
To participate in research	10.00%	1
To attend board meeting(s)	10.00%	1
To review curriculum	30.00%	3
To participate in student admissions process	10.00%	1
To attend career fair(s)	20.00%	2
To participate in a quality assurance activity	20.00%	2
Other (please specify)	40.00%	4
Total Respondents: 10		

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Student study abroad trip.	3/4/2013 2:42 PM
2	Evaluate existing and new academic models for RIT expansion in emerging economies.	3/2/2013 11:11 AM
3	Deliver a paper at a conference	3/2/2013 3:20 AM
4	To become familiar with facilities and personnel	3/1/2013 12:48 AM

278

Q6 How has RIT's campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia influenced your work at RIT?

Answered: 18   Skipped: 3

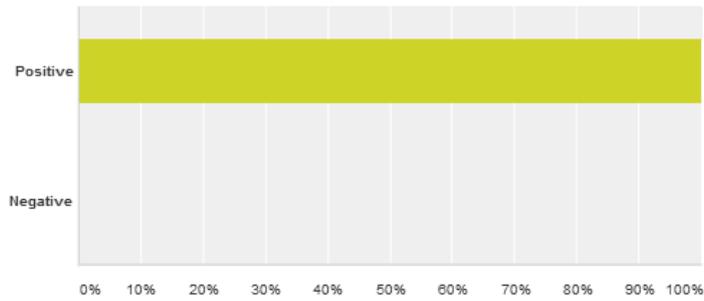| #	Responses	Date
1	Time actually spent 'on the ground,' in Dubrovnik, Croatia has given me a unique perspective on ACMT students, culture and the physical environment students live, attend classes and possibly work.	3/13/2013 2:15 PM
2	N/A	3/13/2013 11:38 AM
3	Interesting on global experience	3/12/2013 2:01 PM
4	More globally aware and included in curriculum	3/12/2013 11:15 AM
5	Communication to students on the opportunity to study at ACMT.	3/12/2013 9:50 AM
6	N/A	3/12/2013 9:36 AM
7	It certainly gave me a global perspective of teaching, Enhanced my cultural awareness and provieded a sense of accomplishement.	3/12/2013 9:19 AM
8	It has given me more and better examples of leadership and meeting management and business ethics from an international perspective.	3/5/2013 3:37 PM
9	The ability to see first hand how a sister program works affords one the ability to promote not only the American campus but also the sister campus when the opportunity presents itself	3/4/2013 4:13 PM
10	It has given me a more international perspective in teaching. It has enhanced my appreciation for understanding an eastern European perspective. It has also provided many useful examples and case studies that can be helpful in enriching student learning and experience.	3/4/2013 2:42 PM
11	Increase enrollment in SLI, added courses to be taught and research project work.	3/2/2013 9:57 PM
12	Allowed for comparative analysis of RIT students and students of Croatia as well as hospitality corporations.	3/2/2013 11:11 AM
13	It has helped me to see that there is not one truth, but many truths. More specifically, I think that we tend to assume that the way that we see things, or the conclusions reached by known (American) theorists are generalizable globally, while I now see that in many cases that is not true. It has helped me to see the role of culture in constructing knowledge.	3/2/2013 6:15 AM
14	It has allowed me to bring true international examples into the classroom.	3/2/2013 3:20 AM
15	Adapting the courses to appeal to a global audience rather than just for the US takes some time and really you cannot do this well until you have visited the campus to observe the culture.	3/1/2013 11:57 AM
16	It has given me insights into another culture as the operations of my own department at RIT	3/1/2013 11:06 AM
17	We were much more involved in the past with processing paperwork, etc. Great selling point!	3/1/2013 9:42 AM
18	It brings a global perspective of hospitality businesses and cultures. We were required to "dive into" a culture dramatically different from the US. This caused many courses to include a broader world view of their topic, and created opportunities for students in both countries to interact. Additionally, it was the driving force for online versions of courses, further developing instructional strategies that can be used in Rochester classes as well.	3/1/2013 12:48 AM

Q7 Do you believe RIT's Dubrovnik, Croatia campus has been primarily a positive or negative influence on RIT's School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation in Rochester, New York?

Answered: 19   Skipped: 2

Answer Choices	Responses	
Positive	100.00%	19
Negative	0.00%	0
Total		19

#	Explain	Date
1	Has provided diverse students for my Foods of the World class in Rochester, NY.	3/13/2013 11:38 AM
2	When the country needed our help maybe less now	3/12/2013 2:01 PM
3	Gives our students global experiences and also having their students here provides insight into their lives.	3/12/2013 11:15 AM
4	Students who study abroad are given the opportunity to learn about other cultures, languages, make new friends and learn more about themselves. It enhances their overal academic experience.	3/12/2013 9:50 AM
5	N/A	3/12/2013 9:36 AM
6	The location itself has been as asset, not to mention to talented students that attend this the school. Croatians and others are resilient individuals and have a tenacity to succeed so it is easy to see the influence	3/4/2013 4:13 PM
7	It offers a wonderful opportunity for faculty, staff, and students on both campuses to exchange learning opportunities in culture, cuisine, tourism policy, hotel management, and other areas. It gives both sides and international opportunity to grow.	3/4/2013 2:42 PM
8	Developed multicultural teams for business problem solving. Expanded student learning to include global markets and application of information technologies for marketing and human resource development.	3/2/2013 11:11 AM
9	I think that it has given faculty members a more international perspective which carries through into their teaching; certainly, it has enhanced the reputation of the programs in the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation; and of course, the campus in Dubrovnik provides opportunities for IHSI students to study abroad, which is invaluable for them (and part of RIT's overall vision to produce internationally competent graduates).	3/2/2013 6:15 AM
10	It gives our students a chance to study abroad, while still taking RIT courses. It also gives our Dept. a true international presence.	3/2/2013 3:20 AM
11	The ability to observe and interact with other cultures allows for a global perspective which extends into the classroom.	3/1/2013 11:57 AM
12	Actually both. It ties us to an overseas venture which is now prized at RIT even though globalization is contracting (Bloomberg News). It saved our department budget and enrollment for the nonce, but not in the long term.	3/1/2013 11:06 AM
13	Students have had such positive experiences there. It has become a selling point of our program in Rochester.	3/1/2013 9:42 AM
14	Although it was difficult at first for faculty to leave the US or develop online relationships with students, it was valuable to every faculty member who participated. They were challenged out of their comfort zone and they advanced their teaching skills to manage classes and include globally-relevant examples in a different way.	3/1/2013 12:48 AM

280

Q8 What do you believe is RIT's main reason for delivering an academic degree in Dubrovnik, Croatia? (Choose 1 answer)

Answered: 21   Skipped: 0
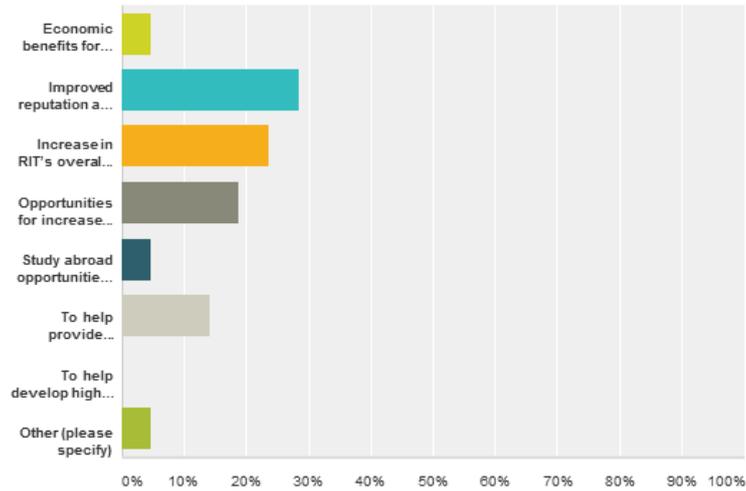
Answer Choices	Responses	
Economic benefits for RIT	4.76%	1
Improved reputation and status for RIT	28.57%	6
Increase in RIT's overall student enrollment	23.81%	5
Opportunities for increased international focus of programs at RIT	19.05%	4
Study abroad opportunities for RIT students	4.76%	1
To help provide educational opportunities for students in Croatia	14.29%	3
To help develop higher education in Croatia	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	4.76%	1
Total		21

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	At any given time, in the past, one or more reason listed likely served as a rationale for RIT's association with ACMT. At this point in time, we (RIT) has two viable reasons for continuing our association with ACMT: 1. Legacy (RIT/HTM has had an association with ACMT for over ten years or more (and there's no real justification not to continue); 2. (And) Opportunity (continuation of the relationship, between RIT and ACMT, provides an opportunity for students - primarily Croatian, Serbian, Eastern European, Western European and North American - to obtain an meaningful international education). The building of (or maintenance of) cultural bridges will have unforeseen, unpredictable, but positive implications for past, present and future students.	3/13/2013 2:15 PM

Q9 Has the existence of RIT's campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia resulted in:

Answered: 19   Skipped: 2

	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at RIT's Rochester campus?	47.37% 9	26.32% 5	26.32% 5	19
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	78.95% 15	15.79% 3	5.26% 1	19
International guest speakers to RIT's Rochester campus?	42.11% 8	42.11% 8	15.79% 3	19
Opportunities for Rochester-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	84.21% 16	0.00% 0	15.79% 3	19
Joint research for Rochester-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	47.37% 9	26.32% 5	26.32% 5	19
Publications for Rochester-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	31.58% 6	31.58% 6	36.84% 7	19
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at RIT's Rochester campus?	88.89% 16	0.00% 0	11.11% 2	18
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at RIT in Rochester to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	89.47% 17	10.53% 2	0.00% 0	19
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for RIT's Rochester-based students?	73.68% 14	5.26% 1	21.05% 4	19
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at RIT's Rochester campus?	36.84% 7	31.58% 6	31.58% 6	19
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	57.89% 11	21.05% 4	21.05% 4	19
Increased interest by RIT to create additional degree programs abroad?	88.89% 16	0.00% 0	11.11% 2	18
RIT's creation of other international programs overseas (outside of Dubrovnik, Croatia)?	89.47% 17	5.26% 1	5.26% 1	19
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the program in Croatia?	78.95% 15	5.26% 1	15.79% 3	19

Q10 Has the existence of RIT's campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia resulted in:

Answered: 19   Skipped: 2

	Yes	No	Unsure	Does not apply to my position	Total
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	31.58% 6	42.11% 8	5.26% 1	21.05% 4	19
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	10.53% 2	63.16% 12	0.00% 0	26.32% 5	19
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	5.26% 1	73.68% 14	5.26% 1	15.79% 3	19
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	89.47% 17	10.53% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	19
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at RIT's Rochester campus?	73.68% 14	21.05% 4	0.00% 0	5.26% 1	19
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree program you teach in?	68.42% 13	10.53% 2	5.26% 1	15.79% 3	19
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	73.68% 14	10.53% 2	0.00% 0	15.79% 3	19
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree program you teach in?	47.37% 9	26.32% 5	5.26% 1	21.05% 4	19

283

Q11 Please enter the year you first became employed at RIT.

Answered: 19   Skipped: 2

#	Responses	Date
1	2002	3/13/2013 2:22 PM
2	2006	3/13/2013 11:52 AM
3	1984	3/12/2013 2:05 PM
4	2001	3/12/2013 11:17 AM
5	2001	3/12/2013 9:53 AM
6	2011	3/12/2013 9:33 AM
7	1987	3/12/2013 9:32 AM
8	1985	3/12/2013 9:22 AM
9	1971	3/5/2013 3:47 PM
10	1991	3/4/2013 4:15 PM
11	1989	3/4/2013 3:15 PM
12	1990	3/2/2013 10:01 PM
13	1978	3/2/2013 11:18 AM
14	2011	3/2/2013 6:19 AM
15	2003 (in catering dept.) 2006 (as an adjunct) 2007 (as F/T lecturer)	3/2/2013 3:24 AM
16	2003	3/1/2013 12:00 PM
17	1977	3/1/2013 11:08 AM
18	1990	3/1/2013 9:45 AM
19	1972	3/1/2013 12:52 AM

Q12 Which best describes your primary role at RIT?

Answered: 19   Skipped: 2
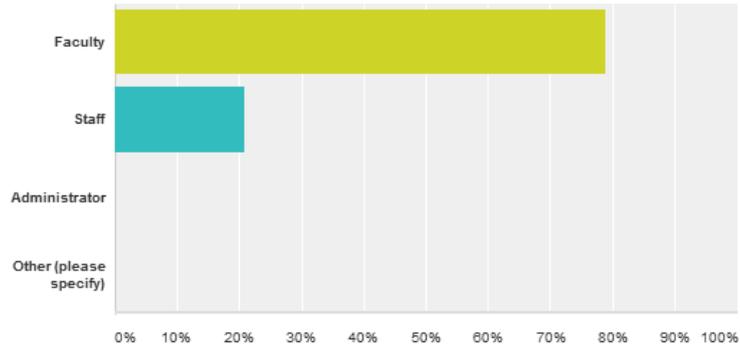
Answer Choices	Responses	
Faculty	78.95%	15
Staff	21.05%	4
Administrator	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	0.00%	0
Total		19

#	Other (please specify)	Date
	There are no responses.	

Q13 I would be very grateful if you would be willing to include your name and email below in order to participate in a follow-up interview (Please note: All responses to this study will be confidential and reported
using anonymous coding).
Many Thanks, Rick Lagiewski
PhD Candidate Edinburgh Napier University
Answered: 18   Skipped: 3

Q1 Which best describes the area you work in at UNLV?

Answered: 24   Skipped: 0
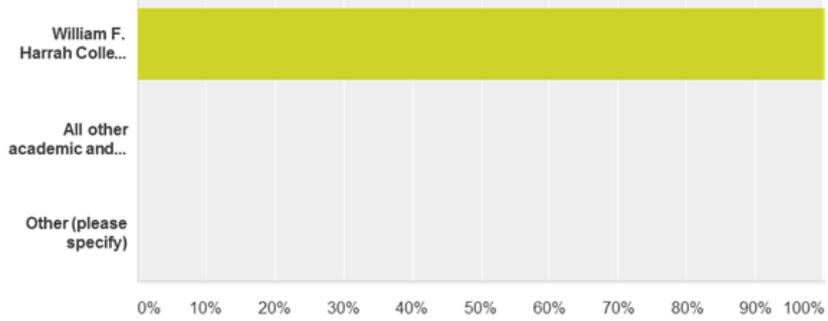
Answer Choices	Responses	
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administrationin Las Vegas, Nevada	100.00%	24
All other academic and administrative areas at UNLV in Las Vegas, Nevada	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	0.00%	0
Total		24

#	Other (please specify)	Date
	There are no responses.	

Q2 Have you ever taught at UNLV's campus in Singapore?

Answered: 24   Skipped: 0
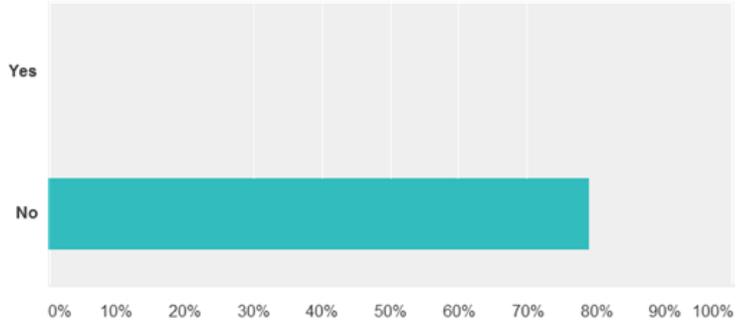
Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	20.83%	5
No	79.17%	19
Total		24

Q3 How many total semesters have you taught at UNLV's campus in Singapore?

Answered: 5   Skipped: 19
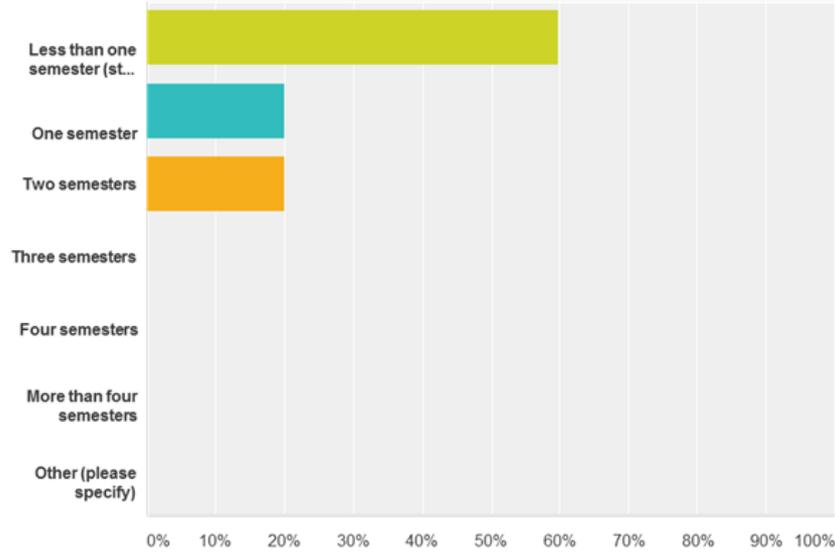
Answer Choices	Responses	
Less than one semester (study tour or summer short course, for example)	60.00%	3
One semester	20.00%	1
Two semesters	20.00%	1
Three semesters	0.00%	0
Four semesters	0.00%	0
More than four semesters	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	0.00%	0
Total		5

#	Other (please specify)	Date
	There are no responses.	

Q4 Have you ever traveled to UNLV's campus in Singapore on official UNLV business besides a teaching assignment?

Answered: 24   Skipped: 0
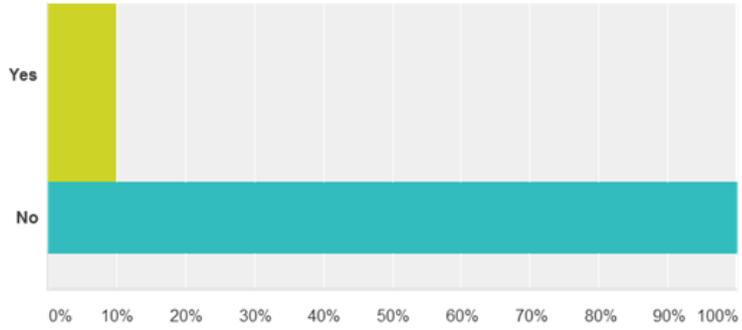
Answer Choices	Responses	
Yes	8.33%	2
No	91.67%	22
Total		24

Q5 What were the main reasons for your non-teaching official trip(s) to the campus in Singapore? Please check all that apply:

Answered: 2   Skipped: 22
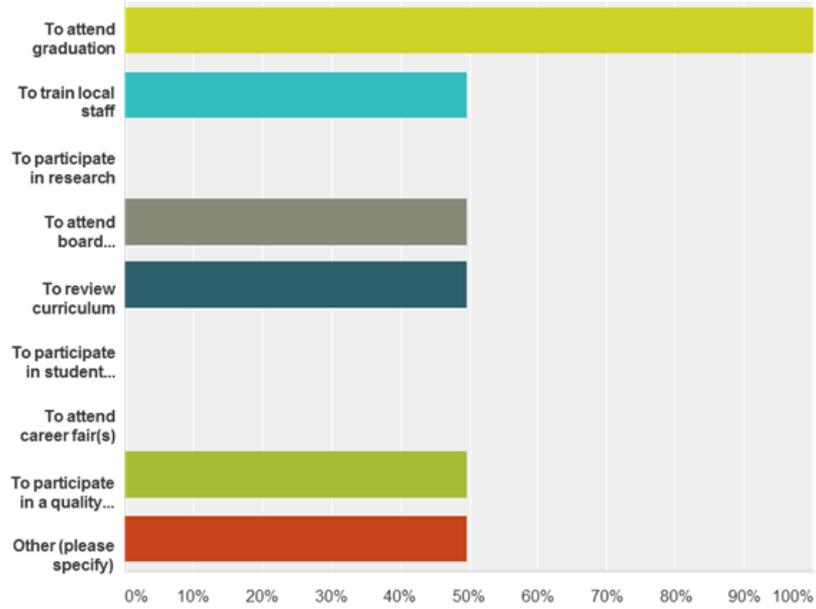
Answer Choices	Responses	
To attend graduation	100.00%	2
To train local staff	50.00%	1
To participate in research	0.00%	0
To attend board meeting(s)	50.00%	1
To review curriculum	50.00%	1
To participate in student admissions process	0.00%	0
To attend career fair(s)	0.00%	0
To participate in a quality assurance activity	50.00%	1
Other (please specify)	50.00%	1
Total Respondents: 2		

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Strategy development; meet with management and staff.	3/9/2013 2:34 PM

Q6 How has UNLV's campus in Singapore influenced your work at UNLV?

Answered: 18   Skipped: 6

#	Responses	Date
1	It hasn't	3/13/2013 8:43 AM
2	It has not.	3/12/2013 12:43 PM
3	I have been working with their administration to develop alumni programs and have been asked to assist with coordinating a few tours of the Singapore campus when donors travel to Singapore.	3/12/2013 12:32 PM
4	It really hasn't.	3/12/2013 11:20 AM
5	Reduced our resources and faculty	3/12/2013 10:34 AM
6	No influence.	3/12/2013 9:40 AM
7	It is part of the organization for which I have responsibility.	3/9/2013 2:34 PM
8	n/a	3/7/2013 2:58 PM
9	It has not had a lot of influence on my specific work, but it has influenced the overall amount of work, atmosphere, etc. for the college	2/26/2013 3:08 PM
10	It really has not other than students that travel here to take courses towards their degree	2/23/2013 8:49 PM
11	It really hasn't affected me at all.	2/20/2013 6:31 PM
12	I learned more about scheduling and support for the students.	2/20/2013 1:20 PM
13	not at all	2/20/2013 12:56 PM
14	No	2/20/2013 12:30 PM
15	Very little. I include more international material than I did years ago, but that's been due to the student body international diversity more than my experience in Singapore.	2/20/2013 11:48 AM
16	Access to new students via the online MHA program. Ability to work with students in Singapore on research projects.	2/20/2013 4:04 AM
17	Has not influenced my work	2/19/2013 10:40 PM
18	It has not	2/19/2013 9:56 PM

Q7 Do you believe UNLV's Singapore campus has been primarily a positive or negative influence on UNLV's William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration in Nevada, Las Vegas?

Answered: 20   Skipped: 4
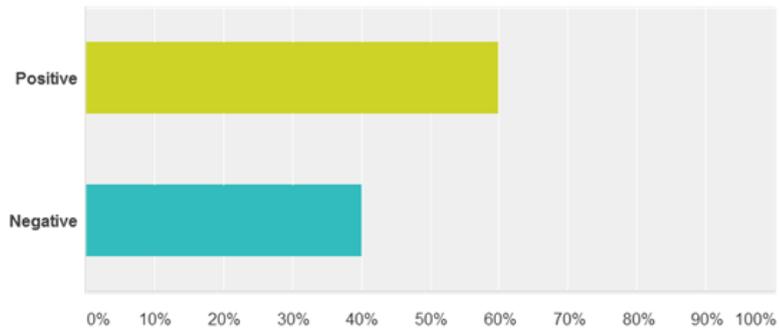
Answer Choices	Responses	
Positive	60.00%	12
Negative	40.00%	8
Total		20

#	Explain	Date
1	Don't know - I am new to the organization	3/13/2013 8:43 AM
2	not sure	3/12/2013 7:15 PM
3	A waste of money and manpower.	3/12/2013 12:43 PM
4	I believe it is good to have the UNLV brand in Asia. Most of our international students are from Asia, and hospitality is global.	3/12/2013 12:32 PM
5	It is cheapening our brand. It does not make money for us.	3/12/2013 11:20 AM
6	Takes away our faculty that are needed here.	3/12/2013 10:34 AM
7	The program has not been as successful as it should have been.	3/12/2013 9:40 AM
8	Both positive and negative.	3/9/2013 2:34 PM
9	international exposure	3/7/2013 2:58 PM
10	UNLV's Singapore campus has used a lot of administrative and faculty time, effort, and resources that I believe would have been more effectively used on our main campus.	2/26/2013 3:08 PM
11	International exposure is always a good thing. I believe that there could have been more consideration put into the logistics/finances/government agreement etc. as we are closing it in 2015. It is very important to properly leverage the brand and I am not sure that was done in the beginning.	2/23/2013 8:49 PM
12	Gives us an international foothold. We already have a huge international student base here in NV	2/20/2013 6:31 PM
13	positive in the sense it provided us a broader exposure	2/20/2013 12:56 PM
14	Draining resources, taking away faculty needed here.	2/20/2013 12:30 PM

15	The financial arrangements were unsustainable. The quality of the degree was diluted, particularly in Asia. The college was unable to deliver an education similar to the quality on the main campus. Incentives for experienced full time faculty to teach in Singapore were minimal. The demand was certain to decrease after the Singapore casinos were established. The admissions requirements were too low. I don't think a single Las Vegas campus student every traveled to Singapore.	2/20/2013 11:48 AM
16	It has not been financially beneficial.	2/19/2013 10:40 PM
17	No opinion 1 way or another	2/19/2013 9:56 PM

International Campus UNLV SINGAPORE

Q8 What do you believe is UNLV's main reason for delivering an academic degree in Singapore? (Choose 1 answer)

Answered: 24   Skipped: 0
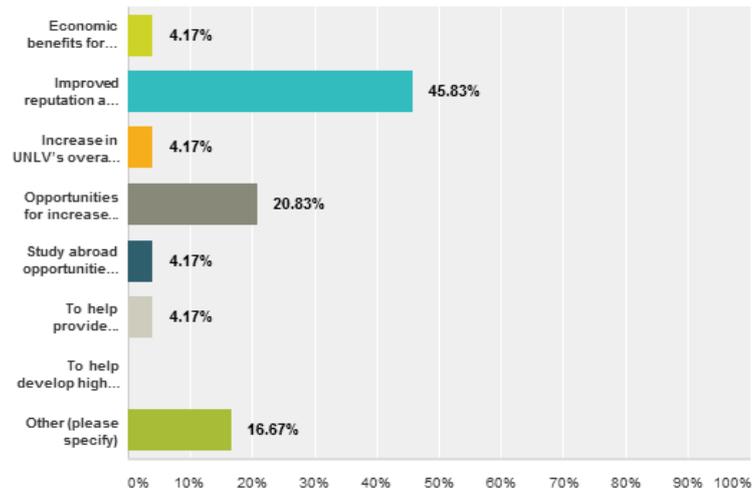
Answer Choices	Responses	
Economic benefits for UNLV	4.17%	1
Improved reputation and status for UNLV	45.83%	11
Increase in UNLV's overall student enrollment	4.17%	1
Opportunities for increased international focus of programs at UNLV	20.83%	5
Study abroad opportunities for UNLV students	4.17%	1
To help provide educational opportunities for students in Singapore	4.17%	1
To help develop higher education in Singapore	0.00%	0
Other (please specify)	16.67%	4
Total		24

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Not sure -- I was not here when the decision to open the campus was made	3/13/2013 8:43 AM
2	It was promised that it would be an economic benefit for the college. I never believed it.	3/12/2013 12:43 PM
3	The program was more the 'whim' of the previous dean.	3/12/2013 9:40 AM
4	all of these would apply to a certain degree. It was launched after 20 years of rapid expansion at UNLV, money was no object and the university, much like the strip had grown accustomed to decades of growth. Then the bottom fell out of the economy and wow, time to trim the hedges.	2/23/2013 8:49 PM

Q9 Has the existence of UNLV's campus in Singapore resulted in:

Answered: 22   Skipped: 2

	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at UNLV's Las Vegas campus?	4.55% 1	59.09% 13	36.36% 8	22
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	45.45% 10	36.36% 8	18.18% 4	22
International guest speakers to UNLV's Las Vegas campus?	13.64% 3	63.64% 14	22.73% 5	22
Opportunities for Las Vegas-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	27.27% 6	50.00% 11	22.73% 5	22
Joint research for Las Vegas-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	4.55% 1	59.09% 13	36.36% 8	22
Publications for Las Vegas-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	9.52% 2	57.14% 12	33.33% 7	21
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at UNLV's Las Vegas campus?	36.36% 8	45.45% 10	18.18% 4	22
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at UNLV in Las Vegas to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	45.45% 10	31.82% 7	22.73% 5	22
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for UNLV's Las Vegas-based students?	36.36% 8	40.91% 9	22.73% 5	22
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at UNLV's Las Vegas campus?	18.18% 4	54.55% 12	27.27% 6	22
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	4.55% 1	68.18% 15	27.27% 6	22
Increased interest by UNLV to create additional degree programs abroad?	13.64% 3	54.55% 12	31.82% 7	22
UNLV's creation of other international programs overseas (outside of Singapore)?	13.64% 3	45.45% 10	40.91% 9	22
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the program in Singapore?	31.82% 7	36.36% 8	31.82% 7	22

Q10 Has the existence of UNLV's Singapore campus resulted in:

Answered: 22   Skipped: 2

	Yes	No	Unsure	Does not apply to my position	Total
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	13.64% 3	54.55% 12	9.09% 2	22.73% 5	22
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	0.00% 0	68.18% 15	4.55% 1	27.27% 6	22
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	0.00% 0	68.18% 15	4.55% 1	27.27% 6	22
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	36.36% 8	36.36% 8	22.73% 5	4.55% 1	22
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at UNLV's Las Vegas campus?	45.45% 10	50.00% 11	4.55% 1	0.00% 0	22
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree program you teach in?	19.05% 4	57.14% 12	4.76% 1	19.05% 4	21
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	22.73% 5	59.09% 13	4.55% 1	13.64% 3	22
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree program you teach in?	4.55% 1	68.18% 15	9.09% 2	18.18% 4	22

Q11 Please enter the year you first became employed at UNLV.

Answered: 21   Skipped: 3

#	Responses	Date
1	1975	7/16/2013 1:06 PM
2	2004	3/18/2013 5:49 PM
3	2012	3/13/2013 8:44 AM
4	2005	3/12/2013 7:18 PM
5	1990	3/12/2013 12:47 PM
6	2004	3/12/2013 12:34 PM
7	August 2011	3/12/2013 11:36 AM
8	2000	3/12/2013 11:22 AM
9	1988	3/12/2013 10:36 AM
10	1977	3/12/2013 9:43 AM
11	2010	3/9/2013 2:38 PM
12	1994	2/26/2013 3:09 PM
13	2011	2/23/2013 8:52 PM
14	2012	2/21/2013 5:44 PM
15	1998	2/20/2013 6:34 PM
16	1996	2/20/2013 1:22 PM
17	1988	2/20/2013 12:32 PM
18	2001	2/20/2013 11:51 AM
19	2006	2/20/2013 4:07 AM
20	2008	2/19/2013 10:42 PM
21	2012	2/19/2013 9:59 PM

Q12 Which best describes your primary role at UNLV?

Answered: 22   Skipped: 2
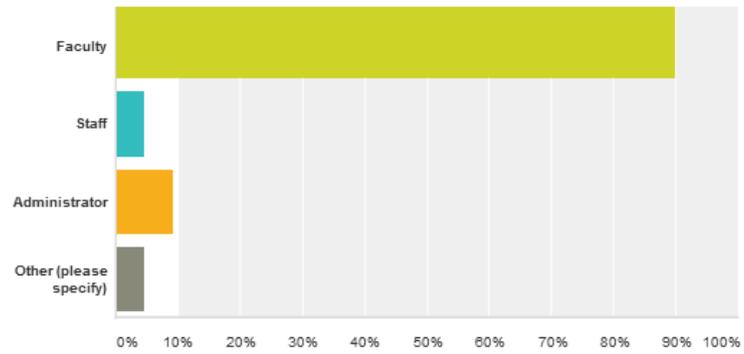
Answer Choices	Responses	
Faculty	81.82%	18
Staff	4.55%	1
Administrator	9.09%	2
Other (please specify)	4.55%	1
Total		22

#	Other (please specify)	Date
1	Teach two classes and serve as Executive Director of Graduate Studys	2/20/2013 6:34 PM

Appendix G: Telephone survey request – sample email

Subject Line: Help a doctoral student by assisting in a short phone interview

Dear xxx,

My name is Rick Lagiewski and I am a doctoral student researching hospitality and tourism degree programs in the United States which deliver their degrees in foreign locations as part of my PhD program at Edinburgh Napier University in Scotland.

This past spring, you received an online survey from me and now I kindly ask that you take part in a phone interview that would last approximately 20-30 minutes. I know summer is a time to take a holiday from work, but this is a crucial part of my research and any support would be greatly appreciated. You do not have to be working with or on a foreign branch campus to take part in the study.

Again, my intent is purely academic for my degree requirements and I have gone through all of the required ethics in research applications at my university so that all appropriate research methods will maintain anonymity of the findings. By no means are you required to take part in this study. All findings will be shown to respondents for review and approval prior to inclusion in my dissertation. No mention of respondents or the university by name will be used without prior written approval.

If you would please identify days and times that work best for you on the dates below and the best phone number to reach you at I would be very grateful.

Friday, July 19
Monday, July 22
Tuesday, July 23
Thursday, July 25
Friday, July 26
Monday, July 29
Tuesday, July 30
Thursday August 1
Friday, August, 2

Many Thanks,

Rick

Rick Lagiewski
Doctoral Candidate
The Business School
School of Marketing, Tourism & Languages
Edinburgh Napier University
09016929@live.napier.ac.uk

Appendix H: Sample interview guide

 "UNLV Singapore Campus"

Introduction to respondent:

- Introduce research subject

My name is Rick Lagiewski and I am researching hospitality and tourism degree programs which are delivered in foreign locations as part of my PhD program at Edinburgh Napier University in Scotland.

The primary research question of my research is: How does the delivery of degree programs at international branch campuses contribute to the internationalization of the hospitality & tourism faculty, students, and curriculum on the home (U.S.) campus?

Internationalization is defined as: Integration of an international or intercultural dimension into the function of the higher educational institution and or the composition of its curriculum, faculty, and students through a combination of activities, policies and procedures.

My intent is purely academic for my degree requirements and I have gone through all of the required ethics in research applications at my university so that all appropriate research methods will maintain anonymity of the findings. By no means are you required to take part in this study and may choose not to at any time. **All findings will be shown to respondents for review and approval prior to inclusion in my dissertation. No mention of respondents or the university by name will be used without prior written approval.**

Respondent Profile:

- When did you first start teaching at "UNLV"?

- Have you ever taught/been to the "Singapore" branch campus?

- If so, when? How often?

Proposed INTERVIEW Questions:

1) **Why do you think your program decided to offer its degree in Singapore?**

Potential follow-up Q: Has this reason changed over time?

2)   **What kind of impact do you feel the delivery of a degree overseas has had on your program in the U.S.?**

Potential follow-up Q: Has this been primarily viewed as positive or negative?

Please give some examples of positive and negative impacts.

3)   **How has the delivery of a degree overseas impacted your work at UNLV?**

Potential follow-up Q: Has this changed over time?

4)   **In what ways has the department's delivery of a degree overseas impacted your students studying at UNLV in the U.S.?**

Potential follow-up Q: For example, do students in the U.S. study or work there?

5)   **Has your curriculum or what you teach in classes been influenced by the department's delivery of a degree overseas?**

Potential follow-up Q: Do you find you are using more international examples in your lectures?

Or, has your program ever considered adding international courses or requirements due to the existence of this overseas branch campus?

6)   **What do you feel has been the main impact on your U.S. program as a result of your department's delivery of a degree overseas in "Singapore"? Why?**

Potential follow-up Q: Has it had any impact on finances, reputation, or the courses on the U.S. campus?

7) **Do you think the delivery of a degree overseas has made your program or you more internationally focused?**

Potential follow-up Q: Have you tried to add international content to your courses due to the existence of this overseas degree program?

Do you feel you have more or less interest to get involved with campus committees, clubs or organizations that are internationally focused as a result of this program overseas? Explain…

8) **How has offering your degree in the overseas location impacted the environment (socially, academically, economically, corporate) there in the overseas branch campus location?**

Potential follow-up Q: How has it impacted foreign students, faculty or industry professionals in that country?

9) **How has the existence of this program influenced your thoughts about UNLV offering your degree in other overseas locations?**

Potential follow-up Q: Has this program led to new branch campus locations or other international projects?

10) **What do you see for the future of this degree program in "Singapore"?**

Potential follow-up Q: Is it growing or requiring more resources to support it?

11) **Can you recommend anyone else I should speak to regarding your overseas program?**

Appendix I: Codes for faculty and staff interview participants

Participant Code	School	Experience at International Branch Campus	Year Employed at Home Campus
C1 I1	FIU	Administrative and In-person teaching	1993
C1 I2	FIU	None	2006
C1 I3	FIU	None	2011
C1 I4	FIU	Administrative and In-person teaching	1990
C1 I5	FIU	Administrative and In-person teaching	Mid-1970's
C1 I6	FIU	Primarily Administration	2010
C1 I7	FIU	Administrative and In-person teaching	2011
C1 I8	FIU	In-person teaching	2006
C2 I1	RIT	Short-Term Study Abroad Course	1988
C2 I2	RIT	In-person and Online Courses	2002
C2 I3	RIT	In-person and Online Courses	1985
C2 I4	RIT	In-person and Online Courses	1987
C2 I5	RIT	In-person and Online Courses	1988
C2 I6	RIT	In-person teaching	1984
C2 I7	RIT	In-person teaching	2005
C2 I8	RIT	Short-Term Study Abroad Course	2005
C2 I9	RIT	Administrative and Executive Short Courses	1978
C2 I10	RIT	Administrative and Online Courses	1972
C2 I11	RIT	In-person and Online Courses	1977
C3 I1	UNLV	None	2011
C3 I2	UNLV	Administrative	2010
C3 I3	UNLV	None	2000
C3 I4	UNLV	In-person teaching	2006
C3 I5	UNLV	None	2007
C3 I6	UNLV	Hybrid In-person combined w/online	2006
C3 I7	UNLV	In-person teaching	1996

Appendix J: UNLV: Identified influences of the international branch campus on the programme

	Yes	
	n	%
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at the programme's home campus to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	10	41.7
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	10	41.7
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at the programme's home campus?	8	33.3
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the programme at the IBC?	7	29.2
Opportunities for home-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	6	25.0
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for programme's home-based students?	4	16.7
Increased interest by the programme to create additional degree programmes abroad?	3	12.5
The programme's creation of other international programmes overseas (outside of IBC)?	3	12.5
Joint research for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	1	4.2
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at the programme's home campus?	4	16.7
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	1	4.2
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at the home campus?	1	4.2
International guest speakers to the programme's home campus?	3	12.5
Publications for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	2	8.3

Appendix K: FIU: Identified influences of the international branch campus on the programme

	Yes	
	n	%
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at the programme's home campus?	11	73.3
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at the programme's home campus to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	10	66.7
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	10	66.7
Increased interest by the programme to create additional degree programmes abroad?	10	66.7
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for programme's home-based students?	8	53.3
Joint research for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	7	46.7
The programme's creation of other international programmes overseas (outside of IBC)?	6	40.0
Opportunities for home-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	4	26.7
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at the programmes home campus?	4	26.7
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at the home campus?	4	26.7
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the programme at the IBC?	3	20.0
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	3	20.0
International guest speakers to the programme's home campus?	3	20.0
Publications for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	3	20.0

Appendix L: RIT: Identified influences of the international branch campus on the programme

	Yes	
	n	%
Opportunities for U.S.-based students at the programmes home campus to study abroad (semester/quarter length)?	17	81.0
The programme's creation of other international programmes overseas (outside of IBC)?	17	81.0
Increased numbers of foreign students studying at the programme's home campus?	16	76.2
Increased interest by the programme to create additional degree programmes abroad?	16	76.2
Opportunities for home-based faculty to present papers at international conferences abroad?	16	76.2
The exchange of faculty members between the two campuses?	15	71.4
The co-creation of international conferences or seminars with the programme at the IBC?	15	71.4
Overseas study tours (5 weeks or less) for programme's home-based students?	14	66.7
The consideration or requirement of foreign languages as part of the curriculum?	11	52.4
Joint research for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	9	42.9
The consideration of foreign experience when hiring new faculty and staff to work at the home campus?	9	42.9
International guest speakers to the programme's home campus?	8	38.1
Overseas work/internship opportunities for students studying at the programme's home campus?	7	33.3
Publications for home-based faculty with colleagues abroad?	6	28.6

Appendix M: UNLV: IBC influence on home programme faculty and staff

UNLV	Yes	
	n	%
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at the programmes home campus?	10	41.7
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	8	33.3
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	5	20.8
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree programme you teach in?	4	16.7
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	3	12.5
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree programme you teach in?	1	4.2
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	0	0
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	0	0

Appendix N: FIU: IBC influence on home programme faculty and staff

FIU	Yes	
	n	%
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree programme you teach in?	10	66.7
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	9	60.0
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at the programme's home campus?	9	60
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	9	60.0
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree programme you teach in?	6	40.0
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	4	26.7
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	3	20.0
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	2	13.3

Appendix O: RIT: IBC influence on home programme faculty and staff

RIT	Yes	
	n	%
Increasing your willingness toward working with international students?	17	81.0
Increasing your interest to work on international issues at the programmes home campus?	14	66.7
The addition of international context to courses you teach?	14	66.7
The addition of international context to courses offered in the degree programme you teach in?	13	61.9
The creation of new courses that emphasize an international aspect of the degree programme you teach in?	9	42.9
Opportunities for you to present papers at international conferences abroad?	6	28.6
Joint research for you with colleagues abroad?	2	9.5
Publications for you with colleagues abroad?	1	4.8

Appendix P: Conference Paper

THE ROLE OF EXPORTING HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM EDUCATION IN A TRANSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND INTERNATIONALIZATION

Richard "Rick" M. Lagiewski
Rochester Institute of Technology
Rochester, USA
E-mail: rxlisr@rit.edu

ABSTRACT

There is a growing importance that U.S. students need an international understanding of the world they live in to prepare them for a global workplace. With this need to internationalize students, colleges and universities have also gone through a period of growth in expanding their degree offerings overseas. While many Western countries have exported their degrees overseas under the pretext of internationalization, little is understood about how overseas programs impact the exporting (home) program. This paper looks at a single transnational educational case of a hospitality and tourism degree and identifies that the operation of an overseas program clearly internationalizes the faculty, their course content, and student opportunities.

Keywords: Internationalization; Transnational Education; Overseas Program; Hospitality and Tourism Education.

INTRODUCTION

Education is often seen as a change agent in developing economies and also environments transitioning from a socialist model toward an open market model. The educational models used to bring such changes are usually exported by Western institutions. This activity is deemed to be part of the globalization process of education. The creation of overseas educational programs by Western universities in turn is believed to internationalize the programs who export their programs abroad. With the advent of globalization, there is a need to better understand the processes and consequences of internationalization and its implications for hospitality and tourism education (Zehrer and Lichtmannegger, 2008). Since the 1990's, this internationalization of hospitality and tourism programs has involved institutions of higher education in the English-speaking world partnering with foreign institutions to export their programs abroad (Wilson and Vlasceanu, 2001). This activity by which an educational institution based in one country delivers education to a student located in another country is termed transnational education (McBurnie and Ziguras, 2007). The United States, United Kingdom, and Australia have been identified as the dominant exporting countries in transnational education (Rumbley and Altbach, 2007). In almost all forms of transnational education, a relationship must exit with a foreign partner in order to export the hospitality and tourism program abroad. The literature in this field tends to focus on how and why programs get

involved in transnational education, and less so on outcomes. Much of the literature surrounding exporting education abroad focuses on three themes: market entry, risks and benefits, and quality-control issues. Thus, much less is known about how exporting educational programs abroad impacts the home program. One such impact that has been identified as important to hospitality and tourism education is internationalization. Teichler (2009) states that in order to internationalize education, international border crossing activities must be integrated with mainstream activities offered at the home campus.

Thus, the aim of this study is to understand the influences that exporting hospitality and tourism education has had on hospitality and tourism programs involved in transnational education with emphasis on the internationalization of the home program. To better understand the internationalization of hospitality and tourism programs, the impacts of transnational education on faculty and curriculum are explored. The research design for this paper is a case study focusing on the role the American College of Management and Technology in (ACMT) Dubrovnik, Croatia has had on the internationalization of the faculty and curriculum at Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) in Rochester, New York. Emphasis will be placed on the Hospitality and Service Management program at RIT and whether its role in exporting education to Croatia has internationalized the home program in Rochester. A sample of RIT faculty and staff is used to determine how RIT's export of education overseas has internationalized home program activities.

CASE BACKGROUND

RIT opened its overseas program in 1997 as a partnership among RIT, the Croatian Ministry of Science and Technology, and the Polytechnic of Dubrovnik. This overseas program was named the American College of Management & Technology (ACMT) and is located at the southernmost point on the Adriatic Sea in Dubrovnik, Croatia. RIT was sought as a partner to help rebuild the intellectual capital associated with the tourism sector that was destroyed during the 1991-1995 war that broke up the former Yugoslavia. At its founding, ACMT was the first private college in Croatia and the first to offer degrees recognized by accrediting bodies in the United States and Croatia. In the early years of the overseas program, less than 1% of the students came from outside of Croatia. Today, students come from Australia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Canada, Germany, Macedonia, Montenegro, Poland, Sweden, China, and the United States. The enrollment has peaked at approximately 650 students. The founding of this program and the curriculum design for ACMT was led by the School of Hospitality & Service Management (HSM) housed in the College of Applied Science and Technology (CAST) at Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) in Rochester, New York. RIT was founded in 1829 and is one of the largest private, non-profit U.S. universities with more than 16,000 full- and part-time students located on its New York campus. Faculty, staff, and administration from the HSM in New York were responsible for setting-up the program in Croatia. This involved startup activities, such as student recruitment, securing infrastructure, and hiring local staff. In the first ten years of ACMT's operation, the faculty members at ACMT consisted of a combination of local native academics from the region and RIT-based American faculty. RIT faculty, based in New York, worked in Croatia for varying time periods ranging from 2-week blocks to multiple years. This author, for example, has worked with ACMT on the ground since 1998, ranging from single ten-week assignments to as long as a year in-country. Over time, adjuncts from all over the world were used to fill-in

when gaps in coverage occurred due to scheduling conflicts with RIT faculty, or when demand could not be met by RIT-based faculty. All classes are taught in English and class sizes are generally between 30 and 40 students. In the fall of 2005, ACMT moved into a newly-renovated building. This 1,300m2 facility contains 30 rooms that include faculty offices, a library, and 9 classrooms, along with 3 computer labs. Today, ACMT operates similar to a separate college within RIT. It has its own dean with responsibility over academic programs, student recruitment, and staff hiring. Since the founding of ACMT in 1997, RIT has gone on to take part in other transnational educational ventures in the Dominican Republic, Kosovo, and Dubai.

LITERATURE SUMMARY

Much has been published on the definitions pertaining to internationalization and transnational education. The definitions in these two areas have grown out of the broad literature on international education. This area can be divided into international studies, international exchanges, and technical assistance (Arum, 1987). This area of international education evolved toward the term internationalization as it was seen as a process that needed to be integrated at the institutional level (Knight, 2004). Knight's (2003) definition of internationalization (see below) is the most common starting point for many researchers in the literature:

The process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (Knight, 2003).

Internationalization activities are often divided in the literature between activities that occur on the home campus and the others that happened abroad, or, in other words, transnational (Knight, 2004). This cross-border or transnational education is often confusingly used as a synonym for internationalization in the literature, which neglects the fact that the at-home activities can be internationalized without physically crossing borders. Some researchers will even narrow their definition and view of internationalization to solely foreign students studying at the home campus vs. foreign students studying on a campus in a third country (Healey, 2007). A key problem in transnational higher education is terminology, since a variety of terms are often used to describe a complex range of activities (Caruana & Spurling, 2007). Transnational education, sometimes also referred to as cross-border, offshore, and global education, describes learners located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based (Vignoli, 2004). Simply put, the literature identifies transnational education as any education delivered by an institution based in one country to students located in another (McBurnies and Ziguras, 2007). It is important to note that internationalization is much broader than transnational education. It involves not just the export of education to other countries, but also the movement of students, academic staff and researchers between countries; internationalization of curricula to achieve better understanding of people and culture; and bilateral links between governments and higher education institutions in different countries for collaborative efforts (Harman, 2005).

One of the first topics widely discussed in the literature is why there is a need to internationalize higher education. De Wit (2010) states there are many specific rationales for internationalization in higher education (HE), but they seem to fall into the areas of political, economic, and educational. The American Council on Education's Commission on International Education states that all undergraduates require contact with and

understanding of other nations, languages, and cultures in order to develop the appropriate level of competence to function effectively in the rapidly emerging environment (Bartell, 2003, p. 49). One of the commonly repeated arguments for internationalization of higher education is that graduates need an international understanding to be competitive in the workforce. Hobson and Josiam (1995) pointed out that exporting domestic American service and management models were no longer enough to drive international growth in the hospitality sector; hospitality education needed to internationalize. Others also cite that changes in the American workplace will demand cross-cultural sensitivity and improved interpersonal skills (Hansen, 2002). Some researchers state there is added urgency for internationalization given the increased demands to prepare students for a globalized workplace (McCarthy 1998, Solem & Ray 2005, Armstrong 2007).

Another component that has received wide attention in the literature is how to measure or gauge internationalization in higher education. Hale and Tijmstra (1990) describe a fully internationalized business school as one that has: international faculty, international students, international course content; and offers programs in several different international locations. Black (2004) identifies four areas that contribute to internationalization at the program level: faculty, students, curriculum content, and international alliances. These appear to be the most common themes associated with measuring internationalization in the literature. Knight (2004) listed several academic program strategies for internationalization. These consisted of student exchange programs, foreign language study, international curricula, area or thematic studies, work/study abroad programs, international students, teaching/learning process, joint double-degree programs, cross-cultural training, faculty/staff mobility programs, visiting instructors and scholars. As in measuring internationalization, the key methods of internationalization from the literature consists of four main elements: faculty, students, curriculum, and cross-border activities. Brookes and Becket (2009) specifically research UK Hospitality Management Degree programs in order to add to the understanding of how to internationalize at the program level. They used a multiple case study approach of UK hospitality programs offering international hospitality management degrees. This study, however primary, relied on secondary data collected from the individual websites of 17 programs in the UK. Their metrics were based on seven dimensions of internationalisation. These are: curriculum, student experience, recruitment, partnerships and strategic alliances, international exchanges, research, and alumni relations.

There are many ways cited in the literature to internationalize the faculty. Recruiting foreign nationals, encourage faculty and staff to travel abroad, faculty exchanges, use of foreign guest lecturers, collaborative research, living abroad, and faculty work abroad (Black 2004). Bao's (2009) dissertation focused on how faculty short-term teaching assignments impacted internationalization of their home campuses. This study was based on interviews with 18 faculty members who took part in short-term teaching assignments in China. According to Bao (2009), faculty members contribute to home campus internationalization through the following areas: teaching, research, and service. Teaching consisted of curriculum design, classroom methods, and student advising. Research referred to research across countries and collaborating with foreign colleagues. Service in this study was defined as service to students, service to department and college communities, and campus and community-wide service. This research showed that faculty short-term teaching assignments resulted in internationalization in the areas of new course development, collecting data for research, adjusting teaching styles, working with international students, and

leading international programs and activities. Specifically, faculty identified that they were more suited to advise and engage international students when they returned from China. Additionally, they felt that this experience fostered an increased sensitivity toward international students on the home campus. Faculty also became advocates for both other faculty and students to take part in international experiences. The conclusion was that this faculty experience should be viewed as a gradual and continuous impact on campus internationalization. Very similar to the findings above, U.S. scholars returning from Fulbright international teaching exchanges are shown to internationalize their home campus in multiple ways. Some 99 percent report they share information about the host country with colleagues. 85 percent state that their experience has made them more aware of culture diversity. 80 percent have encouraged students to study abroad upon returning from their international assignment (O'Hara, 2009). Faculty members are thus seen as a crucial component if higher educational institutions looking to internationalize their home programs and institutions. Supporting Bao's (2009) and O'Hara's (2009) findings, Finkelstein, Walker and Chen (2009) found that faculty who spent one or two years abroad are almost twice as likely to incorporate international themes into their teaching than faculty who spent no time abroad. Regarding research, those faculty who spent time abroad were also shown to be three-to-five times more likely to have a research focus that was international. Some have suggested that faculty do gain some international understanding from just having international students in their classroom. Black (2004) argues that this is only a second-hand experience and cannot be a substitution for experiences outside a faculty member's home country.

One of the traditional methods for internationalization in higher education is related to student taking part in "study abroad". Traditionally, student exchange and mobility is synonymous with internationalization in early research. From a European perspective, internationalization is often associated with mobility of students supported by such efforts as the European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) program. From this paradigm of internationalization, Teichler (2009) identifies seven themes that the term internationalization is associated with in Europe. The first is the physical mobility of not only students, but also academic staff. The next, which is closely linked to student mobility, is the recognition that study in one country is viewed as equivalent to what is expected to be learned in another country. The third theme is related to the transfer of knowledge across borders, not only through the movement of people, but through other forms such as the media and e-learning. International attitudes is seen as another dimension to internationalization, since is often associated with the hoped outcome of student mobility.

The internationalization role of international students in the classroom is viewed as a way to bring international perspectives to courses (Black, 2004). Randall (2008) supports this view and points to the important role that international students play in bringing an international perspective to campus as a whole. She points out that the learning experience in Edinburgh is enriched by different cultural perspectives, new international problem -solving methods, and staff motivated by the global insights provided by their Indian students. Caruana and Spurling (2007), evaluating websites of UK HEIs, saw recruiting foreign students as the main method for embedding internationalization and global perspectives in strategy and curriculum across institutions. Hobson and Josiam (1995) wrote about the use of curriculum to internationalize hospitality and tourism education. They stated that two approaches are usually taken to internationalize the curriculum: the presence of international faculty and students, and having one or two internationally-focused courses.

Curriculum here is used rather broadly to likely mean program internationalization. The authors cite the following ways to internationalize the curriculum: foreign exchange, short study abroad trips, work placements, materials used, and extra-curricular activities. Overall, their model of internationalization of the curriculum was based on a case study of the Leeuwarden Hotel Management School in the Netherlands. To achieve program "curriculum' internationalization, Hobson and Josiam (1995) advocate for an integrated approach which synthesizes the following components: students, international partners, course content, resource materials, faculty, extracurricular activities, delivery methods and settings, and languages.

In regard to curriculum development in hospitality and tourism programs, Sangpikul (2009) identifies four levels of curriculum internationalization. Level one is identified as infusing international dimensions into existing courses. This is considered the basic building block of curriculum internationalization and may be done through additional lectures, readings, and projects containing an international context. The next level formalizes this course content by adding international courses to the curriculum. Adding a language course is also identified as another form of internationalizing the curriculum. The third level is to offer a degree in international hospitality. Here, it is implied, but not clearly articulated in the study what an international hospitality degree should consist of. Generally, however, the faculty, courses, and teaching methods should reflect an international context. The fourth level of internationalizing the curriculum is developing joint programs with foreign universities (Sangpikul, 2009). This is a unique perspective, since it implies that operating a joint program will have an internationalizing effect on the curriculum at the home program, and that the creation of a transnational program is the end goal of internationalization. This perspective in Sangpikul's (2009) work is likely explained by the fact that he is writing from the perspective of an Indian hospitality and tourism program and sees this as a method for potentially importing expertise into Indian higher education.

This last method of internationalization almost universally cited in the literature is some form of transnational education. Ziguras (2007) identifies three main forms of transnational education. These are: international distance education, partner-supported programs, and international branch campuses. These are sometimes generally called international alliances, since they usually require some form of partnership in the host country. Sangpikul (2009) states that international alliances are a core element of the internationalization process, since they are a major push factor for international cooperation. These alliances are all characterized by their financial arrangements and exchange of students and staff (Black, 2004). While this method of internationalization is an international activity, it does not guarantee integration of an international or intercultural dimension into teaching, research, and service. Philip Altbach, a leading scholar on transnational education, states that these cross-border activities provide little mutual exchange of ideas, long-term collaboration and exchange of students or faculty (Altbach, 2000). It is clear from the literature that if these offshore locations become places that faculty live and work in, it will have some internationalizing impact on their home environment. It's less clear how these international branch campuses influence the stakeholders at the home program who do not take part in mobility to the international location. Or, in the case where a cross-border partnership requires little or no mobility between locations by professors, does the international location provide any form of international integration into the home program?

Why nations, institutions, and academic programs become involved in academic endeavors that cross

international borders is rather diverse in the literature. The rise of English-language education internationally has been acknowledged as a pull factor for developing countries' increased demand for foreign education at home, and for the increase in government policies that attract foreign educators (Jones, 2009, p 3). Historic events and international relations have also been identified as motivating nations and institutions to foster transnational education. For example, the Cold War was seen as a driver of transnational education. Then, scholarships were used to secure future loyalty of client states (Healey, 2007). After World War II, study abroad and international exchange programs like Fulbright were established to enhance international understanding (McCarthy 1998, Teichler 2009). Transnational education has also been associated with developing mutual understanding between countries (Naidoo, 2010). One of the positive undercurrents of internationalization of European education has been its expected contribution to international understanding and peace (Teichler 2009). Links with prestigious foreign institutions is also one reason for partnering to deliver education abroad (Vignoli 2004, Armstrong 2007, McBurnie & Ziguras 2006). This can be seen as enhancing international reputation and visibility leading to the status as a 'world class university' (Echevin and Ray 2002, Teichler 2009). Vidovich (2004) goes further and points out that having an international curriculum was seen to generate an elite position in the local educational marketplace. Similarly, international alliances are also seen as critical to developing a sustainable competitive advantage for higher educational institutions (Sangpikul, 2009). The literature also points to pull factors which bring offshore education to foreign countries. This can often be motivated by governments seeking to provide wider choices for citizens (Vignoli, 2004). Singapore, Malaysia, Dubai, and China all have governments intervening to bring foreign educational providers to their shores (Healey, 2007). Another motivation for offshore education is it allows universities to either reach foreign students who previously were unable to afford the cost of studying at the home campus, or to enroll students offshore who could no longer afford or were no longer inclined to travel to the home campus due to an adverse external development (Healey, 2007). Due to the growth of middle class in developing countries, the demand for higher education typically grows faster than the capacity of the domestic higher education sector, setting the stage for offshore partnerships (Healey 2007, Ziguras 2007). It is the opinion of many authors that a key reason why institutions get involved in transnational education is to generate revenue and create new sources of income (Vignoli 2004, Altbach & Knight 2006, Armstrong 2007, Naidoo 2010). Some see the motivation toward internationalization as a way for universities to increase their market share, since in many cases their markets are either reaching maturity or in decline (Howe and Martin, 1998). Others argue that the commercial motivation often seeks to attract foreign students as revenue sources, with little care for internationalizing their own students (Teichler 2009). Along the lines of economic benefit, expanding overseas can be used as a location to transfer faculty during economically challenging times, thus easing the budgets of the home campus (Altbach & Knight 2006, Jones 2009). As a result of offering programs internationally, institutions are able to generate increased international student numbers from the countries where they deliver programs, and provide study abroad opportunities for their domestic students (Armstrong, 2007, McBurnie & Ziguras 2006). It has been mentioned in the literature that involvement in transnational education gives the exporting institution's faculty more international experience (Jones, 2009). Sometimes universities become involved in transnational education not so much through proactive policies and clear articulated motivations, but rather as a reaction to solicitations from overseas operations (Howe and Martin, 1998).

In regard to an overseas program, the mere existence of such transnational education is often deemed a measure that an exporting institution is internationalizing. However, it is unclear that this truly is a method *of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension* for the curriculum, students and faculty of the home (exporting) campus. Rather, transnational education continues to be associated with the logic that internationalization is synonymous with cross-border activities. Logic seems to support that a program could internationalize its learning outcomes without cross-border activities taking place, and that cross-border activities could take place with little internationalization occurring at the home campus. While this is likely untrue, there is little empirical evidence that suggests how overseas partnerships and branch campuses result in internationalizing activities for the exporting institution unless exchanges occur. The findings presented next seek to help close the gap in understanding how overseas programs internationalize the home campus.

METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLE

This paper is one of a two-part data collection sequence. The first, which is the basis for the paper, was completed through the use of an online survey administered using Survey Monkey. This survey consisted of a battery of open- and closed-ended questions based on the influences and outcomes associated with internationalization in the literature. The second part will include in-person interviews with members of the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation and be documented as part of a second stage to create depth of findings for this first sequence. Data was collected from 19 members of the School of International Hospitality and Service Innovation which included all but one member. This represented 13 respondents who identified their primary work role as faculty, followed by 5 staff members and one administrator. The average tenure of the respondents at RIT was over 18 years. More than half have taught to students at the branch campus in Croatia. The experiences teaching to the overseas program in Croatia ranged from 1 respondent who taught a 2-week executive masters course to another who has taught online 10 years to the overseas program. However, half of the respondents reported teaching at least three-to-over-four-quarters at the overseas campus. Besides traveling to the overseas campus to teach, respondents identified going there to: review curriculum, attend graduation ceremonies, take part in quality assurance activities, conduct research, and attend career fairs.

FINDINGS

In order to determine how RIT's overseas program in Croatia has impacted the program in Rochester, New York faculty and staff were asked to identify their views and opinions of this overseas venture. While the endeavor is generally viewed as a positive venture at RIT, respondents were nevertheless asked if they believed RIT's American College of Management & Technology in Dubrovnik, Croatia has had a primarily positive or negative influence on RIT's home campus in Rochester, New York. 100 percent of those who responded said that it was positive, while two skipped the question. Respondents identified the overseas program as positive for the home campus primarily for the benefits it brings the students at RIT. This was articulated through several statements similar to the following: *RIT Students who study there come back to RIT as better students and more enriched and thoughtful individuals; I think it opens our students up to an area of the world that they wouldn't know about if we didn't have the campus there;* and it's *a highly*

desirable international location for study abroad opportunities. Additionally, the recognition the overseas program has brought the New York campus was cited as a reason that this venture has been positive for RIT. The international experience gained by US-based faculty working at ACMT was also mentioned as a positive impact. In general, faculty see the value in the overseas program from how it helps their students directly, and indirectly through the experience they have been able to gain. An example of this is summarized by this response: *Not only is it very valuable in understanding different cultures, how they process information, but also how they view American society (and why). For most if not all academic disciplines, insight into different cultures and the way those same disciplines function internationally will be extremely valuable to RIT students if we wish for them to have a full understanding of their field of study.*

Since respondents likely have different knowledge of the founding and workings of the college since it opened in 1997, they were asked why they believed the campus was being operated by RIT. The majority felt (see Figure 1) that the overseas program presented an opportunity to support RIT's overall effort to increase its international focus. RIT has recently articulated that international experiences will be a key component of its educational mission moving forward. Thus, this recent focus by the University has likely influenced the views of the respondents. With this increased focus at RIT on international experiences, there also seems to come with it the belief that it will improve the status of RIT.

What do you believe is RIT's main reason for currently operating a campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia?
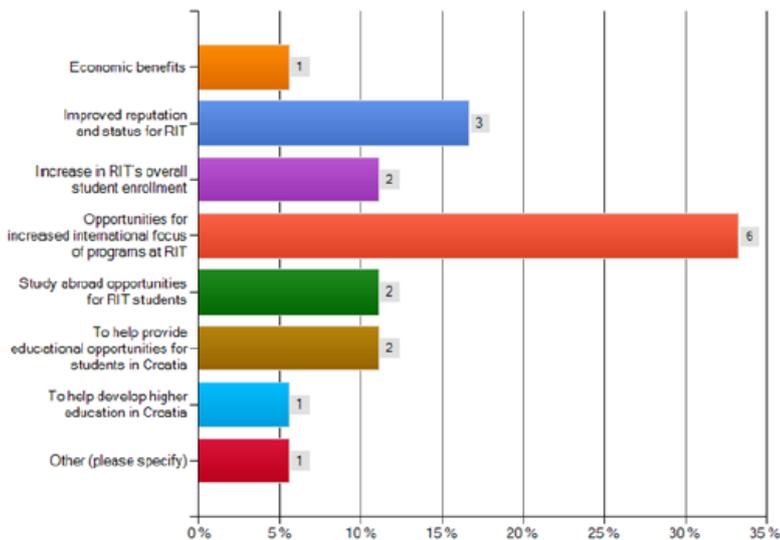

Figure 1

Respondents were asked an open-ended question about how the overseas program at ACMT has influenced their work at RIT. These responses fell into three general areas. The first and most common

response was that it influenced their teaching in the classroom at the New York campus. This influence was communicated through statements such as: *It has allowed me to use more international examples/experiences in the classroom; Has had a profoundly positive effect- providing a new culture to learn about, teach about and talk about with students, both current and prospective and other stakeholders such as alums and administrators; Teaching internationally provides me with a global perspective which I am able to bring back to RIT and include in my teaching on the Rochester campus.*

Next, respondents identified the culture and knowledge of customs gained from their experience with the overseas campus. For example, respondents stated that their work with ACMT gave them a broader perspective on another culture and the chance to adapt and succeed in that environment. Additionally, respondents pointed to an increased understanding of life in other countries and how these countries are catching up to Western lifestyles and expectations. The understanding of customs was specifically mentioned in cases and how this understanding of cultural differences was used when designing and planning curriculum. Lastly, some respondents stated that the overseas program had influenced their work, since it allows them to promote study abroad to students at RIT. Additionally, one respondent stated that s/he has also been more involved in working with overseas students wishing to come to RIT as a result of the overseas program.

Next, respondents were asked to identify the existence of overall impacts that the branch campus may have had on students and faculty at RIT (see Figure 2). It is expected that many of the respondents in the department would be aware that the branch campus is used as a place for their students to study abroad and thus this and short-term study tours ranked as two of the most mentioned influences. Since the branch campus is currently working on hosting the 2011 EuroCHRIE conference in Dubrovnik, it is also no surprise that 90 percent of the respondents indentified opportunities to present papers as an outcome of the branch campus. Next, over 80percent of the respondents stated that this branch campus has increased the number of foreign students studying at RIT. This seems logical, since ACMT has been gradually increasing the number of their students coming to the RIT campus to study in recent years.

Following this question, respondents were asked to identify whether or not the existence of the branch campus had impacted them specifically (see Figure 3). The most often case was that it had influenced their attitude toward working with international students.

It is not clear if this attitude is positive or negative, but it is likely that having had long sustained opportunities to work with international students from ACMT, both on the ground in Croatia and with those coming to study in Rochester, has allowed respondents to have an informed attitude. Three areas point to individual internationalization resulting from the existence of the overseas campus, meaning faculty have not only added international contexts to courses they teach, but also that international course content in the degree as a whole has resulted from the existence of the overseas program. Respondents also cited in many cases that the overseas program has increased their interest to work on international issues at the home campus in New York.

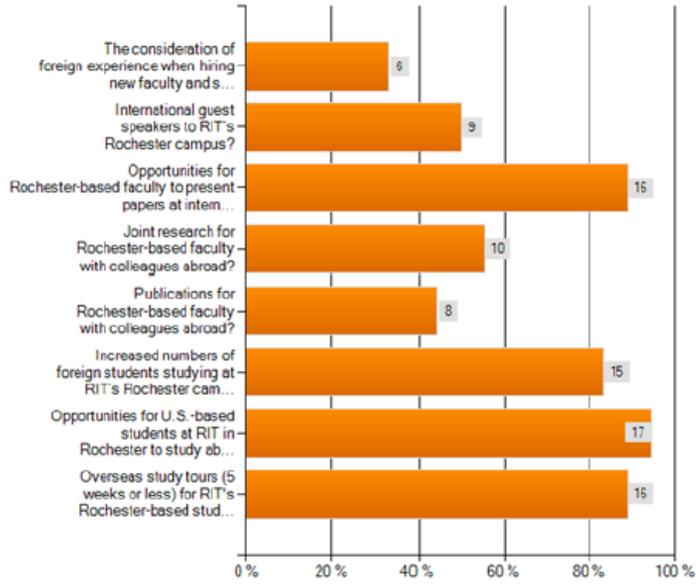**Has the existence of RIT's branch campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia resulted in:**

Figure 2

Has the existence of RIT's branch campus in Dubrovnik, Croatia resulted in:
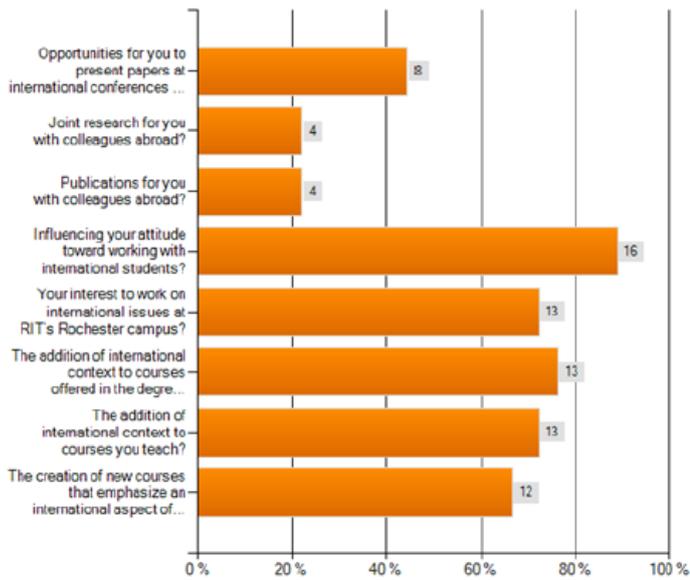

Figure 3

CONCLUSION

This paper helps support some of the assumptions associated with transnational education and the internationalization of the home program, and validates the many existing studies on the topic. It is clear that in this case, operating an overseas program influences the exporting program in many positive ways. First and foremost, it gives faculty the opportunity to both work in an international environment and also the chance to work with international students both at home and abroad. This translates into two outcomes. The first is the ability for faculty to gain first-hand international experience and knowledge, which they can incorporate into courses. Secondly, a greater understanding of culture and customs is gained, which helps them work better with and serve international students. On a broader scale, the overseas campus in this case provides some of the same overall benefits to the home campus identified in the literature. These are that it is believed to be a beneficial source for student exchanges, improves the reputation of the university, and provides faculty with scholarship opportunities. While it is clear that the ACMT overseas program in Croatia has resulted in the integration of international contexts into the academic program in Rochester, it is unclear how this experience has impacted the export into its other overseas programs in Dubai and Kosovo, for example. Looking at what was learned about the export process in general for this case, it is recommended for future research.

REFERENCES

Altbach, P. G. (2000). The Crisis in Multinational Higher Education. Change: *The Magazine of Higher Learning, 32*(6), 28-31.

Armstrong, L. (2007). Competing in the global higher education marketplace: Outsourcing, twinning, and franchising. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2007*(140), 131-138.

Arum, S., (1987). International Education: What is it? A Taxonomy of International Education of U.S. Universities." CIEE Occasional Papers on International Exchange, 23, 5-22.

Bao, L. (2009). *Faculty Development and Campus Internationalization: A Case Study.* Ed.D., Drake University, Des Moines, IA.

Bartell, M. (2003). Internationalization of universities: A university culture-based framework. *Higher Education, 45*, 43-70.

Black, K., (2004). A review of Factors which Contribute to the Internationalisation of a Programme of 6. Study. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 3*(1), 5-18.

Brookes, M. & Becket, N., (2009). An investigation of the internationalization of UK hospitality management degrees. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 21*(3), 17-24.

Caruana, V. and Spurling, N. (2007). The Internationalisation of UK Higher Education: a review of selected material. *Project Report.*

De Wit, H., Rationales for internationalization of higher education (I). Available online at: http://www.ipv. pt/millenium/wit11.htm. [Accessed February 16, 2010].

Échevin, C., & Ray, D. (2002). Measuring Internationalisation in Educational Institutions: Case Study: French Management Schools. *Higher Education Management and Policy, 14*(1), 95-108.

Finkelstein, M.; Walker, E.; Chen, R. (2009). The Internationalization of the American Faculty. In: Masayo Daikoku and Futao Hunag (eds) *The Changing Academic Profession, 1992-2007: International Comparative and Quantitative Perspectives*. Hiroshima, JP: The Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University.

Hale, A., and Tijmstra, S. (1990). *European Management Education*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Management Development Network (INTERMAN).

Hansen, H. (2002). In Internationalizing Higher Education: Building Vital Programs on Campuses. Bruce W. Speck & Beth H. Carmical (Eds.), 117, Spring 2002, Jossey Bass: San Francisco.

Healey, N. M. (2008). Is higher education in really 'internationalising'? *Higher Education*, 55, 333-355.

Hobson, J.S.P. & Josiam, B.M. (1996). An integrated approach to internationalizing the hospitality and tourism curriculum in the USA. *Journal of Transnational Management Development*, 2(1), 13-34.

Jones, R.C., (2009). Exporting American Higher Education. *Annual Conference of the American Society for Engineering Education*. June 14-17, 2009. Austin, Texas.

Jordan, F. (2008). Internationalisation in Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Higher Education (HLSTE): A Call for Further Reflexivity in Curriculum Development. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education,* 7(1), 99-103.

Knight, J. (2003). Updated internationalization definition. *International Higher Education*, (33), 2-3.

Knight, J. (2003). Internationalization of higher education practices and priorities: 2003 IAU survey report. *International Association of Universities*.

Knight, J. (2004a). Internationalization definitions. *International Association of Universities*. Available online at: http://www.iau-aiu.net/internationalization/i_defintions.html. [Accessed May 6, 2010].

Knight, J. (2004b). Internationalization Remodeled: Definition, Approaches, and Rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education,* 8(5), 5-31.

McBurnie, G., Ziguras, C., (2007). *Transnational Education - Issues and trends in offshore education*. 1st.ed New York: Routledge.

McBurnie, G., Ziguras, C., (2009). Trends and future scenarios in programme and institution mobility across borders. *Higher Education to 2030*, 2, OECD, 89-108.

McCarthy, J. S. (1998). *Continuing and Emerging National Needs for the Internationalization of Undergraduate Education*. Paper presented at the International Education in the New Global Era: Proceedings of a National Policy Conference on the Higher Education Act, Title VI, and Fulbright-Hays Programs, UCLA.

Naidoo, V., (2010). Transnational Higher Education: Why It Happens and Who Benefits? *International Higher Education,* 58(Winter) [online], Available online at: http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/Number58/p6_Naidoo.htm. [Accessed May 6, 2010].

O'Hara, S. (2009) Vital and Overlooked: The Role of Faculty in Internationalizing U.S. Campuses. *Expanding Study Abroad Capacity at U.S. Colleges and Universities: Vol. 6. Meeting America's Global Education Challenge* (pp. 38-45). New York: Institute of International Education (IIE).

Randall, S., (2008). Strategies for Internationalisation – Supporting Students through Overseas Collaborative Partnerships. H*ospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Network: Enhancing Series Internationali-

sation [online], Available online at: http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/assets/hlst/documents/case_studies/randall.pdf. [Accessed July 17, 2009].

Rumbley, L.E., Altbach, P.G., (2007). International Branch Campus Issues [online], Available online at: http://democrats.science.house.gov/Media/File/Commdocs/hearings/2007/full/26jul/altbach_appendix_1.pdf.

Sangpikul, A., (2009). Internationalization of hospitality and tourism higher education: a perspective from Thailand. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 9(1), 2-20.

Solem, M., Ray, W., (2005). Gauging Disciplinary Support for Internationalization: A Survey of Geographers. *AAG Report to the American Council on Education*, July 12.

Teichler, U., (2009). Internationalisation of higher education: European experiences. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 10, 93-106.

Vidovich, Lesley (2004) 'Towards internationalize the curriculum in a context of globalization: comparing policy processes in two settings', Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 34: 4, 443-461.

Vignoli, G., (2004). What Is Transnational Education? *Compiled Rome, February 2004.*

Wilson, L., Vlasceanu, L., (2001). Transnational Education and Recognition of Qualifications "Internationalization of Higher Education: an Institutional Perspective" Bucharest, 75-85.

Zehrer, A., Lichtmannegger, S., (2008). The Internationalization of Tourism Education – The Case of MCI. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 20(1), 45-51.

Ziguras, C. (2007). *Good Practice in Transnational Education: A Guide for New Zealand Providers*, Education New Zealand, Wellington, NZ.

351