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**The Nature and Processes of Internationalisation
at a French *Grande Ecole de Management***

Michael Bryant

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements of
Robert Gordon University
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

March 2013

ABSTRACT

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Globalisation has changed the higher education landscape dramatically in the past 20 years, especially for business schools. Accordingly, universities have had to adopt different internationalisation strategies in order to cope with this shifting context of globalisation and its many ramifications. In this thesis, a phenomenological approach has been adopted to examine how one French business school, ESC Clermont, has implemented internationalisation. Through this methodological approach the nature and processes of internationalisation have been examined using the lived experiences of participants at the school. The research shows how institutional engagement, strategic management, happenstance and a specific organisational structure shaped the internationalisation processes. An internal culture of openness and a commitment to language learning also contributed to furthering the internationalisation agenda. The findings show how the interaction between structure and agent were crucial in the school's internationalisation process. This research also demonstrated that individual initiatives only happen within a favourable context which is created essentially by the culture and driven by the leadership. This study has also demonstrated the need for integrative strategic management of the organisational processes and the faculty. An important finding of this research is that internationalisation is a complex process that requires constant interaction between the people in the institution and the changing environment. The thesis presents a framework to assist in understanding the dynamics between the various dimensions of strategy, operations and faculty management in the internationalisation process. These dynamics are complex and require sensitive, on-going strategic management and open policies to ensure that the faculty members buy into the internationalisation activities. Finally, this study has enabled the researcher to reflect on his own role in the internationalisation process.

Keywords: globalisation, internationalisation, higher education, business schools,
French *Grandes Ecoles*, phenomenology

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Overview

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| 1.1 | Introduction |
| 1.2 | Justification for the Research |
| 1.3 | Research Objectives and Research Questions |
| 1.4 | Methodology |
| 1.5 | Terminology |
| 1.6 | Summary and Outline of Research |

In this introductory chapter, I discuss the background to my research topic and the justification for undertaking such research in relation to the current literature. I present the specific research questions I am attempting to answer. A brief overview of the methodological approach is given, including some clarification of the terminology used in this thesis. Finally, this introductory chapter concludes with an overview of the chapters in the study.

1.1 Introduction

Globalisation has changed the worldwide higher education landscape dramatically in the past 20 years, especially for business schools. Globalisation has been defined as “the economic, political, and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement” (Altbach and Knight 2007 p. 290). Globalisation has also led to the emergence of an international higher education industry (Naidoo 2006). Kaskarelis (2009) has identified the ‘free market’ as a basic driving force behind globalisation. Accordingly, universities and business schools have had to adopt different internationalisation strategies in order to cope with this shifting context of globalisation (Massoud and Ayoubi 2007). Different institutions have seen the issues in different ways and have developed different strategies and different means of dealing with the many ramifications of globalisation. Maringe and Foskett (2010) have underlined this diversity in the global higher education landscape. In this thesis, I have adopted a

phenomenological approach to examine how one French business school, ESC Clermont, has implemented internationalisation. Through this methodological approach I will attempt to understand the nature and processes of internationalisation as they have been experienced by various participants at the school. By examining how these participants make sense of their experiences through their narratives, I aim to demonstrate the underlying processes involved in meeting the challenges of globalisation at one French business school.

In many ways responses to globalisation have been driven by local, contextualised elements. Indeed, as Altbach and Knight (2007 p. 291) have argued: "Globalization may be unalterable, but internationalization involves many choices". Maringe and Foskett (2010 p. 25) summarised some of the main conceptualisations of internationalisation, based on integration (Knight 2004), enhancing quality (Van Damme 2001), education (Altbach and Knight 2007), entrepreneurialism (Goddard 2006), mobility (Fielden 2008) and partnership development (Teichler 2004). In this thesis I have chosen to use the following definition proposed by Knight (2004) since this offers the most comprehensive conceptualisation with reference to my research questions:

"the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (p.11).

Research into the internationalisation of higher education has been described as "a relatively small and heterogeneous field" (Teichler 2005 p. 447). In fact, this research focus is a recent phenomenon that has only begun to gain in importance in the recent years. For example, the "Journal of Studies in International Education" was established in 1997 and has been instrumental in promoting and furthering research in this area. Research into the internationalisation of universities, and more particularly business schools, is important because of the growing impact of globalisation. Universities and business schools may continue to have missions which serve a very specific local need, but nevertheless they cannot ignore the wider global environment. Today's interconnected world impacts decisions and activities in all institutions of higher education. Research is also needed to understand the measures that institutions have undertaken in terms of strategic management and organisational change to deal with this new environment. Even more important is the need to understand how changes have actually been implemented on the ground. In this thesis I seek to contribute to the literature on the processes involved in coping with the globalisation of higher education at a micro- or institutional level.

This research is also important for the school which has been used as a case study. ESC Clermont has been developing its internationalisation over the past thirty years. It needs to take stock of the outcomes of this process in order to prepare the future internationalisation strategy in a more effective way. Accordingly, this study provides a forum to reflect on internationalisation processes and thus to help understand their nature and outcomes. Whilst the particulars of internationalisation are probably unique to ESC Clermont, some general patterns emerge that may have much wider application. This aspect is explored in some comparative cases.

The French business schools, the *Grandes Ecoles de Management*, are based on a unique French system of higher education. Consequently, globalisation has brought particular challenges for these institutions as they have attempted to adapt their business school model to the challenges and opportunities offered by these changes in higher education on a global scale. These challenges have included the impact of the Bologna process and the harmonisation of the higher education landscape in Europe. Because of their special history and status the French business schools deserve particular attention with regard to the impact of globalisation.

I aim to understand the internationalisation process at a micro-level by examining the interview narratives of those who have lived through the experience at one business school in France. The aim is not to generalise the findings to all the French *Grandes Ecoles de Management*, but rather to use one case study to gain deeper insight into the internationalisation process at one institution. Through this understanding I may be able to generalise my findings towards a broader theoretical framework.

1.2 Justification for the Research

Most research on the internationalisation of higher education has concentrated on universities in general rather than business schools in particular (de Wit 1995; Knight 2004; Luijten-Lub et al. 2005; Agarwal et al. 2007; Altbach and Knight 2007). There has been considerable work on the impact of globalisation and supra-national organisations such as the European Commission (Teichler 2007). In general, most research has emanated from 'Anglo-Saxon' countries, especially the UK. Internationalisation in these countries has mainly meant recruitment of international students (Middlehurst and Woodfield 2007). The focus has therefore been on issues related to this main topic and some of the consequences of this internationalisation such as student

integration and teaching practices (Turner 2006; Coverdale-Jones and Rastall 2008; Turner 2009).

Researchers have also examined the strategic implications of globalisation for universities and for certain members of the institutions such as the faculty (Stromquist et al. 2007) and the university management in general (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Mollis and Marginson 2002; Teichler 2007; Turner and Robson 2008). Countries such as Australia and the United Kingdom have been in the forefront of exploiting the opportunities of globalisation by implementing internationalisation policies to increase revenues through exporting their educational services (Tremblay 2005; Adams 2007). This has led to massive recruitment of international students and off-shore activities (Verbik and Merkley 2006).

As a consequence of this globalisation of the higher education market, researchers have become increasingly interested in the implications of these internationalisation policies on universities. Some researchers have discussed internationalisation in terms of organisational culture and structure (McNay 1995; Bartell 2003; Burnett and Huisman 2010). Various dimensions have been described as a way of assessing and measuring the degree of internationalisation (Elkin et al. 2008; Turner and Robson 2008). Some have examined the internationalisation of business schools from a strategic point of view (Cavusgil 1993; Rudski 1998; Durand and Dameron 2008; AACSB 2011; Bennett and Kane 2011). Others have investigated the role of the curriculum (Mestenhauser 1998; Scherer et al. 2003; Ghemawat 2008). Researchers in France have discussed the changes to the French *Grande Ecole* model in an age of globalisation (Nioche 1994; Abdessemed 2007; Blanchard 2009). In particular, they have examined the impact of accreditation and rankings (Nioche 2007; Dameron and Manceau 2011). However, very little research has been done on the actual processes of internationalisation within institutions, in particular from a historical and organisational development point of view.

Furthermore, most studies into internationalisation tend to be descriptive commentaries which are not necessarily based on any new data but rather on previous findings. Some research is based on more quantitative approaches using surveys and questionnaires to gather data (Bennett and Kane 2011). The bulk of the research on the internationalisation of higher education concerns the 'Anglo-Saxon' countries, in particular the United Kingdom and Australia. Research on the internationalisation of French business schools falls into two main categories. The majority is based on descriptive commentaries without any new empirical data (Bergadaa and Thietart 1990; Abdessemed and De Leersnyder 1998; Lazuech 1998; Basso, Dornie and

Mounier 2004; Abdessemed 2007; Burlaud 2007; Nioche 2007). Other researchers have based their studies on interviews and qualitative methodologies. However, these methodologies tend to use data from the decision makers in French business schools (Blanchard 2009; Dameron and Manceau 2011). This thesis is based on a phenomenological methodology and therefore brings a new contribution to the understanding of the internationalisation by basing the research on the perceptions of the main participants in the process, the faculty members, rather than just the decision makers. The contribution, therefore, is to add to what we already know by investigating how we can better understand the internationalisation process at an institutional level.

Finally, as a participant in the internationalisation process at ESC Clermont, I have been able to bring my own professional experience to the research process. Rather than denying my role as an active participant and driver of the international development at the school, I have sought to maintain a certain harmony between my deep interest in my professional activities and my research project (Van Manen 1990; Strauss and Corbin 1990; Moustakas 1994). I discuss in more detail my personal role and insider researcher status in Chapter 5.

1.3 Research Objectives and Research Issues

This study aims to examine how participants at one French business school, ESC Clermont, understood the internationalisation process as it happened over the past three decades. These perspectives will provide an account of the reasons why ESC Clermont internationalised and the way in which it developed its international activities. The study will chart and analyse the respondents' understanding of the main internal and external factors and events that impacted on the internationalisation processes and actions. These events and processes will be contextualised in the light of the roles played by the agents of change. Furthermore, by interpreting the respondents' understanding of the motivations of the various director generals who have led the school over the past three decades, the research will attempt to identify the main drivers in the processes. By adopting a chronological approach to the development of internationalisation, the different key stages and phases will be identified and analysed. Thus, the objectives will be to map the processes and to try to understand why they occurred in that way. It is anticipated that the lessons learnt from this research could be applicable in other contexts. Finally, the study aims to assess the outcomes of the internationalisation process and to discuss the future challenges.

1.4 Methodology

My research aim is to provide some understanding of how internationalisation happened at one French *Grande Ecole de Management*, ESC Clermont. This research objective has driven my approach to methodology and methods. Therefore, I have taken a phenomenological approach in order to collect the necessary data in terms of the respondents' lived experience. This qualitative approach appears to be the most appropriate since it allows for deeper questions and subsequently richer data, compared with a quantitative method such as surveys. ESC Clermont has been used as a case study to examine the phenomenon of internationalisation. The research design is based on interviews using a purposive sampling strategy. In addition to the main case study, three comparative case studies have been included with interviews with respondents from other *Grandes Ecoles de Management*. The purpose of the comparative cases was to strengthen the reliability of the research findings by seeking to confirm as well as to refute the findings from the main case study. These comparative case studies also provided additional triangulation. All the interviews have been transcribed verbatim. These transcripts have served as data for analysis and interpretation using an iterative approach. The methodology chapter gives more details on the data collection and sampling strategies, triangulation with documentary evidence, ethical issues and study limitations.

1.5 Terminology

This thesis is based on a case study of one French business school, ESC Clermont. This school belongs to the group of schools known as the *Grandes Ecoles de Management*. The nature and specific roles of the *Grandes Ecoles* are dealt with in Chapter 4. For the purposes of this study, the following terms are used interchangeably to refer to ESC Clermont and schools of a similar type:

- *Grande Ecole de Management*, abbreviated to 'GEM'.
- *Ecole Supérieure de Commerce*, abbreviated to 'ESC'.
- French business school.
- French school of management

The term 'faculty' is used to refer to the academic staff at the school, usually the full-time teachers. All the full-time faculty at ESC Clermont are referred to as '*professeurs permanents*'.

They have tenured status after one or two years' probation after which they obtain guaranteed life-time employment similar to a state employee or civil servant.

1.6 Summary and Outline of Research

This research project contributes to the literature on the internationalisation of French business schools by adopting a methodology – phenomenology - that attempts to understand the phenomenon through the lived experiences of the participants.

Chapter Two presents the historical background to the globalisation of higher education in order to show that this process has its roots in previous centuries. The discussion then examines how the nature of globalisation has changed in recent decades. The chapter leads onto an analysis of the opportunities and challenges that institutions of higher education are now facing in this new context.

Chapter Three deals with the literature on the internationalisation of higher education in general, the internationalisation of business schools in particular and the internationalisation of the firm. The final part of the literature review concerning companies has been included in order to provide additional knowledge about some of the internationalisation models that have been developed in the business world. The aim in this chapter is to identify the work that has been done on internationalisation of higher education and to understand what has been learnt. This will enable me to show what still needs to be examined. In this way I will be able to justify my own research and show how my findings contribute to the literature on the internationalisation of French business schools.

Chapter Four concerns the internationalisation of the French *Grandes Ecoles de Management* (GEMs). As an introduction to this topic, a background section is included to help the reader understand some of the unique aspects of the nature of the French *Grandes Ecoles* system, and the GEMs, in particular. Finally, this chapter presents a brief historical overview of ESC Clermont since this is the unit of analysis for my case study. This chapter serves as a backcloth to the methodology chapter where I explain how I undertook the task of trying to understand the nature and processes of internationalisation at ESC Clermont as it was lived and experienced by the main participants at the school.

In Chapter Five, I present the philosophical framework for my research and the justification for the methodology based on the phenomenological approach. The research design is discussed with reference to the choice of a qualitative method and to my personal role as insider researcher. Details are given about the data collection and sampling strategies. This includes discussion on the interview data and documentary evidence, followed by a presentation on how I handled and analysed the data. Finally, I examine some ethical issues related to my research and some study limitations.

Chapter Six presents an initial narrative analysis of my data. The first part examines the themes that emerged from the preliminary interview data. Direct quotes from the interviews are used to illustrate these themes. Initial coding of the preliminary data helped to focus on some significant themes that also emerged in subsequent interview data. Finally, these themes are compared with data from the comparative cases.

Chapter Seven concerns the analysis of the data presented in the previous chapter at a higher level in a more focused manner. The research questions are addressed systematically in relation to the data. Subsequently I discuss differences that emerged from the data at the comparative cases at other French business schools. The final section presents some conclusions and leads on to Chapter Eight.

Chapter Eight builds on the data analysis presented in the previous chapter. The three main themes that emerged from the data are discussed in relation to the literature. A framework is proposed to help understand the internationalisation process at the school in relation to the external context of globalisation and the interaction with the strategic management, the operational processes and the faculty involvement. The final section presents some preliminary conclusions and leads on to Chapter Nine, the final, concluding chapter.

In the final chapter, I present the broad conclusions of the key findings of my study with reference to my research questions. The contribution to the literature and the implications of my research are also discussed. Some of the limitations of the study are then addressed, together with recommendations for areas of further research. The final concluding remarks include a brief statement on my personal and professional motivations for undertaking this research project.

CHAPTER TWO

GLOBALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Overview

- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2 Historical Background**
- 2.3 Opportunities and Challenges in the Globalised Higher Education Market**
 - 2.3.1 Opportunities**
 - 2.3.2 Challenges**
- 2.4 Summary**

In this chapter, I discuss the historical background to the globalisation of higher education in order to show that this process has its roots in previous centuries. The discussion then examines how the nature of globalisation has developed in recent decades. The chapter leads onto an analysis of the opportunities and challenges that institutions of higher education are now facing in this globalised environment.

2.1 Introduction

Higher education has always played an important part in the development of societies and economies. Over the centuries the main institutions of higher education, the universities, have been impacted by different economic, political, religious and social influences at different times in their history. For this reason, it is useful to examine briefly the international development of higher education institutions from a historical standpoint. This will provide the background to some of the issues that individual institutions are confronting in the early 21st century. The discussion will show how the globalised environment has challenged many of the traditional assumptions about the role of universities in society. More particularly, this new context has impacted the way in which universities, and specifically business schools, have redefined their strategies and reorganised their activities. In this research, internationalisation is discussed as a response to globalisation which presents both opportunities and challenges. Maringe and Foskett (2010) have described “globalization and internationalization as mutually reinforcing

ideas...Globalization largely provides the external impetus for accelerated institutional internationalization. On the other hand, the intensification of university internationalization activity reinforces accelerated globalization” (p. 17).

2.2 Historical Background

Globalisation in higher education has existed in various forms for many centuries. It is the intensity of this phenomenon that has been accelerated over recent decades. In the Middle Ages, students and faculty at European universities were already engaged in educational mobility. Latin, the global language and the precursor of English as the ‘lingua franca’, enabled Desiderius Erasmus and other scholars to enjoy the benefits of studying abroad. In England during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance period, travelling abroad was a typical part of education for the aristocracy (Hoffa 2007).

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries studying in foreign universities was actively discouraged and seen as “sources of religious and political contamination” (De Ridder-Symoens 1992 p. 419). Descartes (1637) warned against the inevitable alienation effect for those returning home from an extended sojourn abroad. The Enlightenment period then led to a more positive view of education and international experience, but with more emphasis on cultural experience rather than academic objectives (Kolasa 1962). The cross-fertilization of ideas and thinkers was often considered a necessary rite of passage not only in higher education, but also as a preparation for a full life (Von Goethe 1796).

Some writers, however, criticize the idealized view that the Middle Ages were a golden period of international education. Scott (1998a) points out that the university was only ‘universal’ in a very narrow sense since there were very few universities. Neave (1997) considers that the notion of international mobility in the medieval period as inaccurate. On the other hand, Kerr (1990) argues that there was some form of universal education in the Middle Ages and that this ‘convergent’ model was transformed into a more ‘divergent’ approach with the rise of nationalism in the nineteenth century. States used the universities to create new national identities. By promoting national languages, barriers were created to internationalisation (Brown 1950) and studying abroad was definitely discouraged (Hammerstein 1996).

During the twentieth century, particularly after the First World War, a shift occurred in the internationalisation of higher education with emphasis away from nationalism towards cooperation and exchange (de Wit 2002). Organisations were founded such as the Institute of International Education in the USA (1919), the Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst (1925) and the British Council (1934). In 1921, the newly formed League of Nations set up the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, a predecessor of UNESCO which was founded after the Second World War. More recent developments have reflected the global context and actions by organizations such as the European Union to promote international cooperation in curriculum development, student and faculty mobility and university-industry networks. Economic rather than political rationales are used to argue for internationalisation (Harari 1992; Neave 1992; Callan and de Wit 1995; Van der Wende 1997).

Neave (1992) has identified three main stages in the internationalisation of higher education since 1945. In the immediate post-war period, student mobility was “overwhelmingly voluntarist, unorganized and individual” (p.15). This was followed by a period from 1964 to 1981 of decolonialisation, expansion of higher education in terms of numbers and the idea of universities as generators of human resources, in addition to being centres of scholarship. According to Wächter (2003), post-Second World War “internationalisation moves from the level of the individual person (Phase 1), to that of academic units (Phase 2), to the institutional level (Phase 3), and finally to the system level (Phase 4)” (p. 7). However, in attempting to generalise the internationalisation process, these authors overlook the fact that at a local, institutional level alternative strategies have been adopted that did not necessarily correspond to these relatively rigid categorisations.

Today, globalisation is considered in contrast to internationalisation (Altbach 2004) even though the terms are often used interchangeably. Altbach and Knight (2007) define globalisation “as the economic, political, and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement” (p.290). They examine the implications of the emerging knowledge society, both within the service sector and manufacturing, and how this has created a resulting dependence on knowledge products and the need for highly educated personnel to support economic growth. Internationalisation, therefore, concerns the responses to the developing external forces. These responses can be found at supranational, national and institutional levels.

Globalisation in higher education means that there are new kinds of international relationships at various macro and micro levels which are considered as ‘market’ relationships (Scott, 2005).

This is seen in contrast to more traditional academic links where the term 'international' would seem more appropriate (Beck 2000). The debate surrounding globalisation also raises political and economic issues such as the neoliberal agenda, the dominance of economic objectives and the Westernisation of higher education (Dixon 2006; Marginson 2006). More specifically, there is a growing body of research into the influence of US values and pedagogy on non-US higher education systems both in developed and developing countries (Cameron et al. 2003; Engwall 2004; Kieser 2004; Tiratsoo 2004; Usdiken 2004; Neal and Finlay 2008). Much of this literature tends to assume implicitly that all Western and US-driven influences are essentially negative. In fact, many countries have used such ideas and pedagogical materials to improve their own systems and then develop their own, more local responses to internationalisation.

The development of a global market for higher education products has led to the preparation of new regulations. Just as the buying and selling of manufactured products are regulated by the GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade), the higher education 'products' and 'services' are to be managed within the terms of the GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services) (World Trade Organization – <http://www.wto.org>). The implications for stakeholders in higher education are widespread as education has become a commodity to be traded on a global market (Knight 2005).

Maringe (2010) proposes a comprehensive definition of globalisation that attempts to bring together some of the main ideas in the literature:

"Globalization is a multidimensional concept that relates to creating a world in which the social, cultural, technological, political and ideological aspects of life become increasingly homogeneous and in which economic interdependence and growth are driven by the principles of the free market" (p. 24).

In this thesis, I use this broad definition when referring to globalisation as a general concept. Such a definition would seem to be more appropriate in the context of a phenomenological methodology whereby I attempt to avoid any pre-conceived assumptions about the phenomenon being examined. In the next section, I discuss some of the implications of this multidimensional view of globalisation in terms of opportunities and challenges for individual institutions.

2.3 Opportunities and Challenges in the Globalised Higher Education Market

The emergence of a globalised higher education market has had a considerable impact on national education systems and on individual institutions. This new higher education environment offers a number of opportunities for universities to develop their activities (Van der Wende 2007). At the same time, institutions are confronted with new challenges which ultimately lead to a reassessment of the role of the university in society. In table 2.1 I summarise some of the main opportunities and challenges that have emerged in recent years because of the impact of globalisation on universities. These issues are discussed in the sections below with reference to the relevant literature.

Table 2.1 Summary of Main Opportunities and Challenges in a Globalised Higher Education Market

Opportunities
Academic cooperation: faculty and students mobility; research; double degree programs
International recruitment: faculty and students
Curriculum development: courses; pedagogy; credit transfer
Economic development
Off-shore campuses
Exporting of degree programs
New institutional organisations – virtual universities; distance learning
Institutional autonomy
Promotion of global citizenship and intercultural skills
Challenges
Internal
Dilemma – academic and business objectives
Integration of international students - pastoral; academic
Convergence of teaching styles
Domination of English as the medium of instruction
Sustainable financing
Changing role of the university in society
Changing role of faculty - workloads, employment status
External
Quality assurance and rise of international accreditation
Increased competition
Faculty shortages
Immigration and visa controls
Professionalisation of management
Geo-political events and natural disasters

2.3.1 Opportunities

A range of opportunities is emerging for higher education institutions in this new globalised higher education market. The basic activities of the university may remain teaching, learning and research, but changes in the way institutions operate can be discerned. For example, nowadays faculty are recruited from around the world and engage in research across borders, especially since English has become the new lingua franca both in business and academic exchanges (Crystal 2003). New developments in IT have enabled scholars to communicate with extraordinary speed and ease. Academic cooperation is leading to new developments in curriculum and joint degree programmes. The modularisation of higher education, introduced in the United States early in the 20th century, has facilitated the transfer and, in some ways, the homogenisation of academic 'products' (Trow 1999). The MBA degree is the best example of a global product with a distinct brand image. In business education, there has been a convergence in the type of education offered and in the delivery form (Neal and Finlay 2008).

Globalisation has also opened up vast new opportunities for student recruitment. In the post-Second World War period the Fulbright scholarship scheme attracted talent from around the world to universities in the United States. Prestigious universities from the developed world can envisage exploiting their brand image and their research capital by moving into new markets (Edwards 2007). In recent years, the European Union has adopted a more aggressive policy as a response to the opportunities of globalisation. The Bologna Process (or Bologna Accord) aims to harmonise university degree standards and quality assurance processes in Europe. A further objective is to facilitate not only European student mobility, but also to render the higher education area more attractive and more accessible to non-Europeans (Van Der Wende 2000). The introduction of a streamlined system for assessment (ECTS – European Credit Transfer System) and the standardization of reporting degree levels and curricula (Diploma Supplement) are part of this process. Partly in order to compete with the American Fulbright scholarship scheme, the EU entered the global talent market in 2004 by setting up the ERASMUS Mundus programme which encourages institutions to cooperate to offer top quality joint Master's degrees to non-EU candidates. ERASMUS Mundus is a co-operation and mobility programme in the field of higher education which "aims to enhance quality in higher education through scholarships and academic cooperation between Europe and the rest of the world".

http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-programmes/doc72_en.htm (retrieved 30/07/11). As with the Fulbright scheme, there is considerable funding to support students.

Other European initiatives include the EHEF (European Higher Education Fair) which promotes European education through international student fairs.

Individual countries have also identified the student higher education market as a strategic focus for universities to contribute to national economic development (Tremblay 2005). Economic benefits are obtained not only for individual institutions, but also for the wider economy by attracting international students to study in a country. The United Kingdom has been a forerunner in this area, especially since the early 1980's when Margaret Thatcher introduced the notion of differentiated tuition fees for 'overseas' (i.e. non-European) students. More recently, Australia and New Zealand have invested considerably in international student recruitment (Adams 2007). The German DAAD, the Dutch NUFFIC and, since 1999, the French EduFrance agency (name changed to CampusFrance in 2007) are also actively involved in the promotion of their respective national education systems. The main objective of these agencies and organisations would appear to be to increase fee income from international students to compensate for the lack of investment by national governments. At the same time, these agencies are also exploiting a globalised opportunity on the market. For those countries where fees are low or almost non-existent, such as in German or French state universities, the main drivers for international recruitment would seem to be national prestige for the respective higher education system and increased local economic development.

On the institutional level, many universities and business schools have entered the global recruitment market. For some, the motivation corresponds to an internationalisation policy based more on academic objectives such as creating a community of students and scholars on the campus. For others, however, international student recruitment has become big business and an essential component of the financial viability of the university. Universities in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom are prime examples (Adams 2007). The trend is towards an ever increasing number of institutions searching for sustainable funding on the global market. As in any market some players have distinct competitive advantages. According to student surveys, academic quality and degree reputation play a significant role when students look for universities abroad (Middlehurst and Woodfield 2007). Well-established institutions, especially in the United States, can use their reputation for excellence, their financial muscle and their marketing savvy to recruit successfully around the world (Kirp 2003). These well-endowed institutions are well-placed to have a distinct advantage in an increasingly competitive market.

This market dominance is based on substantial financial resources. Many US universities have suffered considerably from the 2008 financial crisis because of the reduction in value of their endowments (Financial Times October 15th 2009 <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/19ffc10a-b9a9-11de-a747-00144feab49a.html>). However, the top universities, and in particular the top business schools, still manage considerable endowment funds which allow them to recruit top faculty and award scholarships to students from around the world. As Colin Mayer, Dean of Saïd Business School at Oxford University, has pointed out (Economist.com February 9th 2009), a big difference between the US and Europe can be explained by cultural differences. In the US there is a long tradition of businessmen and alumni making donations to universities. In Europe, education has traditionally been seen as a service funded by the state. US universities also dominate through their research output as measured, for example, by articles published in peer-reviewed journals (Mangematin 2004).

The so-called 'borderless education market' has also led to new entrants, with new organisational and institutional structures; the University of Phoenix, based in the USA, is one example. The university provides online courses around the world, exploiting new technologies and using faculty in different locations. In this way, it meets the needs of many students who are looking for conveniences such as flexible scheduling and continuous enrolment (http://www.phoenix.edu/about_us/about_university_of_phoenix.html). The Open University in the UK provides similar distance learning opportunities. Many universities have become involved in a wide range of new initiatives including branches abroad, mergers and acquisitions, take-overs, joint-ventures and franchising (Altbach and Knight 2007). Universities have adopted some of the international development strategies of the corporate world (Johanson and Vahlne 1977; Oviatt and McDougall 1994). As the market has become global, traditional national development strategies are not sufficient. India is a case in point. Higher education is expected to be a lucrative market in the coming years. At first, in an effort to protect its national education system, the country was very reluctant to allow foreign universities to set up campuses on its territory. However, in June 2009 the newly elected Indian government lifted all restrictions and the Kerala Monitor reported: "Recession Hit Foreign Universities Flock to India as Foreign Direct Investment in Education is Liberalised" (retrieved on 18/10/09 from <http://www.keralamonitor.com/foreignuniversities.html>). At the same time, innovative universities in India, such as Amity, are providing learning solutions based on new technologies (http://www.amity.edu/Admission/m_hi-tech_campus.asp).

As universities exploit the opportunities of the global higher education market, they have also followed the paths of businesses and corporations by developing their immediate local markets. This trend is also being driven by the accreditation bodies. 'Contribution to the Community' is a criterion for EQUIS accreditation (EQUIS Standards and Criteria: downloaded on 28/03/12 http://www.efmd.org/images/stories/efmd/EQUIS/2012/equis_guide/equis-standards_criteria-jan-2012-final.pdf). As a result, serving the local community has become a 'must' for many business schools as they develop their activities and services. 'Glocalisation' is happening and a knowledge of local needs and culture is essential (Friedman 2005). To operate in this global environment an increasing number of researchers is arguing for students to have linguistic as well as intercultural skills (Williams and Chaston 2004; Deardorff 2006) and the values of a "global citizen" (Lunn 2008).

National higher education policies are also adapting to the new global context. As universities act local and think global, there is a change in role for national governments. In the past, higher education in most countries was dominated by national government policies with a specific national agenda. Today, in regions where there was previously considerable government regulation, such as in most European countries, universities are being given more autonomy to enable them to operate in the new global context (Neave 1988; Estermann et al.2011).

2.3.2 Challenges

Many of the authors in the literature cited above also consider the more negative aspects of the internationalisation opportunities. In this section, I examine some of the literature which is more critical concerning the effects of globalisation. This critical assessment stands in contrast to the more optimistic viewpoints presented in the section 2.3.1. Indeed, the emergence of a highly competitive, volatile and de-regulated higher education market raises some important issues, especially for traditional institutions. Some are internal factors, others are external.

Internal challenges: As they enter the international market for student and faculty talent universities may be faced with the choice between financial and academic considerations. They need to consider how many overseas students can be absorbed into the home university. Universities need to pay particular attention to selecting qualified international students onto their degree programmes. After admission, there is a moral obligation to provide the appropriate counselling to enable students to assist them in completing their studies successfully

(Snider 2001). Language and cross-cultural competence are important issues that need to be addressed if international students are going to be given a reasonable chance to succeed in their studies at the foreign university. Increasingly, scholars, especially in the UK, are investigating the repercussions of a more internationalised student body (Spencer-Oatey and Xiong 2006, Turner 2006).

The global higher education market is leading to global classrooms where faculty and students are brought together from around the world. The emerging models in teaching and learning are pulling in two directions. Some researchers have identified trends towards convergence as the US model is exported to an increasing number of countries (Cameron et al. 2003; Neal and Finlay 2008). Other researchers show how the UK universities have developed their own models where US influence can be detected, but is not necessarily dominant (Constable and McCormick 1987; Tiratsoo 2004). In Europe, there are attempts to show a “European” model (Durand and Dameron 2008). However, whilst other models exist, the US one seems to have been the one that has had the most success in being exported and adopted in other countries, especially with the MBA degree which has been used as a measure of globalisation of a business programme (Alon and McAllaster 2009).

At the same time, a growing number of researchers has been examining how the presence of international students is impacting the curriculum and the teaching styles of faculty members (Turner 2006; Coverdale-Jones and Rastall 2008). Globalisation is raising questions about linguistic diversity. English is the universal medium of instruction and many institutions have set up programmes taught in a non-national language, i.e. English, to attract international students. These universities have now entered the market traditionally dominated by countries such as the US, the UK, Australia and New Zealand. The growing use of English as a common teaching language is raising new issues and challenges, especially in countries where it is a non-national language (Woolf 2005). These issues include the waning interest in languages others than English and the question of which variety of English to adopt. Sticchi Damiani (2005) argues that foreign languages, other than English, are necessary to understand other cultures. De Wit (2005) examines the challenge to faculty teaching in their non-native language. This challenge is more than linguistic since these faculty often use textbooks from another academic culture. At the local level, therefore, institutions may need to be more proactive in defending their own academic and linguistic traditions, but at the same time they may also need to find their own specific role within a globalised environment.

In order to attract top students, universities also have to decide on how much of their operating budget they should use to pay market rates to attract top faculty. Institutions which operate as a real business with a profit objective need to pay particular attention to their pricing policies. Decisions are taken on what level of tuition fees will attract the best students and contribute to the university's operating budget.

Many of these questions lead to a discussion on the role of the university within society. Van Rooijen (2008) asks whether it is still true that "universities want to be relevant and make a positive contribution to society" (p.9). Collini (2012) is particularly critical about changes within the UK higher education system. However, globalisation is a reality today and it would appear to be more constructive to reflect on how universities can move forward and deal with these challenges. For example, Scott (2006) maintains that "Today, rapid globalization and postmodern society point toward a future *internationalization* mission for the university as a service to the body of worldwide nation-states" (p. 33). Nevertheless, for many institutions, there may be a fundamental discord between the publicly vaunted mission statement of commitment to internationalisation and the reality of the marketing and recruitment campaigns.

There is a growing body of literature dealing with the effects of globalisation and internationalisation on the faculty. Some researchers have identified the faculty as key players in the internationalisation process and have called for various incentives to improve their involvement (Brustein 2007; Stohl 2007). Others have pointed to the changing role of the faculty in an increasingly demanding environment (Houston et al. 2006) and the resulting pressures and dissatisfaction linked to neo-liberal managerial policies (Fredman and Doughney 2011). It is clear that the faculty have been particularly challenged by the impact of globalisation on the institutions where they work and consequently on their professional activities.

External challenges: As the very nature of higher education institutions changes and becomes so much more diverse, quality control and assurance become central issues. Questions have been raised about who should ensure the quality of the institutions and the academic degree recognition (Knight 2005). The market for higher education, and especially business education, is expanding fast. The diversification and massification of higher education have led to increased numbers of students in higher education (Trow 1999; Teichler 2007). The established players are facing fierce competition from new entrants who are often well endowed financially. The Middle East market is a good example.

National governments usually play a role in guaranteeing the quality of the education in their particular countries, but this traditional role is also changing. Indeed, the quality assurance issue is a good example of one of the consequences of the public sector reducing financial support for higher education. Increasingly, transnational recognition is being provided by the private sector such independent, usually peer-established, accreditation agencies. Competition amongst business schools is making international accreditation a necessity (Beckett 2002). In the business area, the main global accreditation organizations are AACSB International (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business), EFMD (European Foundation for Management Development) and AMBA (Association of MBAs). These associations have themselves had to confront the consequences of the globalization of higher education and they now compete in an increasingly competitive accreditation market (Durand and McGuire 2005; Scherer et al. 2005).

As universities compete on a global scale the divide between North and South, between developed and developing countries, is being widened. The wealthier, more established and better endowed universities, usually in developed countries, have a distinct competitive advantage. They have the academic prestige, the best faculty, the best facilities and very often the best marketing savvy. Not only do these business schools attract excellent students, they are also well placed to recruit top faculty in a competitive employment market. The global shortage of PhD candidates and graduates (AACSB 2003) is pushing up faculty salaries as an increasing number of institutions recruit from a shrinking pool of human resources. At the same time, national quality agencies and international accreditation organizations are forcing schools to prove their research record. In turn, the schools are expecting their faculty members to become increasingly proficient and productive in research activities and in publishing in peer-reviewed journals that are recognised by the international academic community (Scherer et al. 2005).

Another challenge is posed by national immigration policies. Some countries facilitate visa applications for student recruitment. In contrast, other countries adopt an opposite position and thereby restrain the increase in international recruitment. In some cases, governments are sponsoring projects and schemes to expand higher education provision outside their own country to try to reduce illegal immigration. In France, for example, some business schools are seizing the opportunity to set up branches or enter joint-venture alliances on the African continent to take advantage of government funding and thus continue their internationalisation efforts.

Finally, a global higher education market raises issues of the legal responsibilities of institutions (Birtwistle 2008). New rules apply to the new situations that are emerging. Universities are recruiting professional managers to run their international operations (Poole 2001). Student and faculty exchanges, international recruitment and development projects can no longer be left to faculty members who just happen to be interested in internationalisation. Associations such as the EAIE (European Association for International Education) and NAFSA (Association of International Educators) are providing professional training for this new breed of international managers in universities.

2.4 Summary

Chapter 2 has given a brief overview of some of the issues facing higher education in a changing, globalised environment. Universities have always operated in a global academic environment. However, it is the nature of globalisation that has changed in recent decades. Institutions of higher education are now confronted with new opportunities and challenges. Multiple players are influencing individual institutions at the supranational, national and local level. One of the justifications for this research project is precisely the complex environment created by the globalisation of the higher education landscape. The nature of these changes brought about globalisation and the responses of the *Grandes Ecoles de Management* provide the background to this study.

In Chapter 3, I examine the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, and business schools in particular. A brief overview of the literature on the internationalisation of the firm has been included in order to provide additional knowledge about some of the internationalisation models developed in the business world.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW: INTERNATIONALISATION

Overview

- 3.1 Introduction**
- 3.2 Internationalisation of Higher Education**
 - 3.2.1 Internationalisation at Macro-environment Level**
 - 3.2.2 Internationalisation at National Level**
 - 3.2.3 Internationalisation at Institutional Level**
- 3.3 Internationalisation of Business Schools**
 - 3.3.1 Global Context**
 - 3.3.2 French Context**
- 3.4 Internationalisation of Firms**
- 3.5 Summary**

In Chapter 3, I discuss the literature on the internationalisation of higher education in general, the internationalisation of business schools in particular and the internationalisation of the firm. The final part of the literature review concerning companies has been included in order to provide additional knowledge about some of the internationalisation models that have been developed in the business world. The aim in this chapter is to identify the work that has been done on internationalisation of higher education and to understand what has been learnt. This will enable me to show what still needs to be examined. In this way I justify my own research and show how my findings contribute to the literature on the internationalisation of French business schools.

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the literature on internationalisation in broad terms. There are several reasons for taking a broader approach. Firstly, researchers have only really been examining the issues of the internationalisation of higher education in the past two decades. Only recently have attempts been made to promote a research agenda (Kehm and Teichler 2007) and Bunnell

(2007) has proposed a conceptualisation of the international education industry. In fact, globalisation has been one the main drivers for this research agenda. Secondly, relatively little literature exists on the internationalisation of business schools, and especially concerning French business schools. It has been necessary, therefore, to include a more detailed discussion of the internationalisation of higher education in general. Finally, research into the internationalisation of firms is more advanced compared to the research on higher education. Consequently, this literature may provide some conceptual insights into the understanding of the internationalisation of business schools, and more particularly, ESC Clermont.

I undertook the literature review in two stages. At the outset of my research the literature review enabled me to understand better what is already known about the internationalisation of higher education. It also allowed me to refine my research objectives by helping me to identify gaps in the current literature. In this thesis, the literature review provides a backcloth and a context for the study. In this way, it clarifies some of the important issues. On this point, I have attempted to identify the issues that are of relevance to my research topic (Maxwell 2006). The second stage of my literature review took place after completing my data collection and analysis. This helped me to make the connection between my own findings and the literature. The framework for discussing the literature is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Literature Review for Internationalisation of Higher Education, Business Schools and Firms

3.2 Internationalisation of Higher Education	
3.2.1 Internationalisation at Macro-environment Level	International and Supra-national organisations
3.2.2 Internationalisation at National Level	National Governments Globally National Governments in Europe Contrasting Philosophies in Europe
3.3.3 Internationalisation at Institutional Level	Organisational Changes
3.3 Internationalisation of Business Schools	
3.3.1 Global Context	
3.3.2 French Context	
3.4 Internationalisation of Firms	

I begin by examining the literature on the Internationalisation of Higher Education. Internationalisation in this context is considered as the responses to globalisation at three levels: international and supra-national; national; and institutional. I then give an overview of the internationalisation of business from a distinctly global basis and from the perspective of schools in France. Finally, I present a brief discussion on the internationalisation of firms compared to the internationalisation of business schools.

3.2 Internationalisation of Higher Education

In this section I deal with the literature on the internationalisation activities undertaken in response to globalisation issues identified in the previous section. Agarwal et al. (2007) suggest that internationalisation should be considered not only as a reaction to globalisation, but also as an agent of globalisation. In this study, I am treating the two concepts as separate but related, in a similar way to Agarwal et al. (2007). They are separate because globalisation concerns the external environment and internationalisation refers to the strategic and organisational responses of higher education institutions. At the same time, the two concepts are interrelated because of the impact of internationalisation decisions on the parameters of globalisation.

Knight (2004) identifies internationalisation at two main levels: national and institutional. It would also seem useful to include international or supranational agencies in an examination of the macro-environment. The main focus of this research is to examine the institutional internationalisation strategies and development of one French business school at the micro-level. However, before addressing the literature from this aspect, it is important to consider the wider context of internationalisation in terms of the macro-environment.

3.2.1 Internationalisation at Macro-environment Level

I have chosen to discuss the influence of several important international and supra-national organisations on the globalisation of higher education because these organisations have shaped the macro-environment within which national policies are developed. They have therefore had a direct or indirect impact on the internationalisation of higher education at national and institutional levels. Spring (2008) has argued that these organisations have contributed to the development of a certain neo-liberal educational discourse concerning the globalisation of higher education. They have also played a critical role as 'linking-pin' organisations that serve to

further the development of higher education on a global scale (Bassett 2010). Indeed, “linking-pin organizations are structurally critical in their role of connecting inter-organization networks” (Doreian et al. 2004).

In the second part of this section, I discuss the more direct and specific influence of institutions such as the European Union that have shaped the way in which institutions have internationalised their strategic and operational activities.

International and Supranational Organisations

Since the Second World War, several supranational organisations have been actively involved in researching and promoting the internationalisation of higher education. In this section I have deliberately limited my discussion to the leading organisations listed below:

- OECD (Organisation for Economic Development and Co-operation):
- UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization)
- World Bank
- WTO (World Trade Organisation)
- EU (European Union)

OECD: The OECD is one of the more important organisations that have had an impact on the internationalisation of higher education. “The Organisation provides a setting where governments compare policy experiences, seek answers to common problems, identify good practice and coordinate domestic and international policies”. (<http://www.oecd.org> retrieved 28/07/08). The main aim of the organisation is to stimulate economic development and trade. The member countries are committed to the ideas of democracy and promoting the market economy. The OECD plays an important role in collecting and disseminating trends in higher education. Given its mission to promote economic development within a market economy philosophy, it reflects its members in promoting a more neo-liberal approach to higher education.

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization): UNESCO “is the only UN body with a mandate in higher education. The Organization supports governments and institutions worldwide in building capacity and formulating policies and strategies, so that higher

education fully contributes to sustainable national development” (<http://portal.unesco.org/education> retrieved 10/08/08).

World Bank: The World Bank (<http://www.worldbank.org>) provides funding for education projects and therefore has some influence on the internationalisation of higher education in developing countries.

WTO: “The WTO deals with the global rules of trade between nations. Its main function is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably and freely as possible.” (<http://www.wto.org> retrieved 22/02/12). The organisation impacts higher education developments through its policies, especially given the decision to treat the educational market as a service with WTO rules applying as with any service.

These supra-national organisations have influenced higher education in the post-war period and they have continued to shape national educational policies and informed institutions in their internationalisation strategies. In many ways, these supranational entities have contributed to pushing nations into adopting various neo-liberal policies in higher education, such as introducing tuition fees (Marginson and Rhoades 2002). These authors also show how the World Bank, “through its promotion of institutional independence and market-like behaviour, as well as managerial flexibility and control”(p. 296) has had considerable influence on the evolution of higher education around the world. As institutions of higher education adapt to globalisation, it will certainly be necessary to further analyse the influence of these supra-national organisations as they continue to promote an essentially market-orientated interpretation of how universities need to respond to globalisation. There may well be alternative paths to follow. Indeed, as Bassett (2010) has pointed out, it is their ‘linking-pin’ roles that need to be emphasised more than their promotion of a particular economic philosophy.

European Union: In contrast to the supra-national organisation cited above, the European Union has pursued an alternative social and political agenda in encouraging and supporting cooperation amongst European universities over the past 40 years. Consequently, it has played a critical role in the internationalisation of European higher education. The EU states on its website that “[t]op-quality education and training are vital if Europe is to develop as a knowledge society and compete effectively in the globalising world economy. Education policy as such is decided by each EU country, but together they set common goals and share best practice” (http://europa.eu/pol/educ/index_en.htm retrieved 10/08/08). Programmes have

aimed to assist in academic cooperation. At the same time, this form of cooperation has also helped to achieve some of the goals of European integration. The Joint Study Programme (JSP) launched in 1977 was in effect the precursor of the first ERASMUS programme launched a decade later. The JSP encouraged institutions to cooperate in offering joint programmes in three or more countries thus enabling students to complete part of their education abroad. Faculty were also involved because the programme encouraged academics to engage in discussion about their respective curricula and to cooperate in order to offer students a coherent study programme.

The ERASMUS programme intensified institutional cooperation by providing funding for networks. These networks brought together faculty from all over Europe to set up student exchange agreements. The ERASMUS programme targeted faculty members, rather than university vice-chancellors or presidents. This bottom-up approach ensured that the key drivers to student mobility – the faculty – bought into the programme from the beginning and encouraged their students to study abroad as part of their university degree programmes. Students were further motivated by the ERASMUS scholarship scheme which provided financial support to all participating students, at least in the early years. Funding was also provided for faculty mobility and the creation of joint programmes.

The revised ERASMUS scheme within the follow-up programme, SOCRATES, aimed to redistribute funding to institutions which were really involved in internationalisation at home through curriculum innovation, in particular the introduction of European content within the academic programmes (Wächter 2003). Financial support was also targeted more specifically at institutions that developed joint programmes. Funding for students was reduced. The Commission realised that it could not continue to maintain funding in the form of scholarships to an ever-increasing number of students. In fact, the ERASMUS programme had turned out to be too successful. Support for institutional networks also ceased since the programme had achieved one of its main aims: cooperation between faculty members. The newly ‘converted’ faculty members no longer needed additional funding to maintain their exchange agreements as long as their respective institutions had accepted student and faculty mobility as part of their mission and strategic objectives.

Several other European programmes, such as TEMPUS, COMETT, LEONARDO, provided additional support to the internationalisation, or at least the Europeanization, of higher education. Universities became involved in assisting in the training of faculty members from

Eastern Europe, in extending links towards the business community and in encouraging students to incorporate some form of professional training into their academic degree programmes. In many ways, the European programmes not only promoted, but also reflected trends in higher education in general with a gradual move towards more recognition of the value of professional education. Teichler (2007) describes how the “divide between academic and professional or vocational study programmes...became blurred” (p. 18) during the second half of the twentieth century.

The European Commission today continues to promote internationalisation through programmes such as SOCRATES and TEMPUS which provide financial support to institutions to become actively involved in international projects. Today’s programmes emphasise outcomes assessment and evidence of ‘value for money’. Indeed, close scrutiny and auditing during the 1990s revealed some serious issues concerning the financial management of several European educational programmes. Consequently, reforms were introduced in the way in which these programmes were managed, often resulting in complex administrative processes for operational staff in universities.

In continental Europe, the Commission has played an important role in establishing a certain form of internationalisation which has been described in the literature as based on cooperation and collaboration. (Van der Wende 2001; Luijten-Lub et al. 2005). Most European countries have adopted national policies which have tended to facilitate exchanges and cooperative improvement in higher education. Turner and Robson (2008) refer to this cooperative approach as ‘reciprocal internationalisation philosophy’. The Bologna accord is an obvious example of countries cooperating to facilitate student mobility within Europe. “The Bologna Process aims to create a European Higher Education Area by 2010, in which students can choose from a wide and transparent range of high quality courses and benefit from smooth recognition procedures (http://ec.europa.eu/education/higher-education/doc1290_en.htm retrieved 22/02/12).

This agreement has set in motion a complete reform of the higher education landscape in Europe. Most countries have completely changed or considerably revised the way in which they organise their higher education in terms of degree structure and academic expectations. The generally accepted uniform system of assessment – ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) – and the introduction of the Diploma Supplement (a detailed description of a university degree including courses, placements and internships, study abroad) will help graduates as they seek employment in the open European labour market.

Teichler (2007) argued that the real effects of the Bologna process are still in the process of being analysed, but it would seem that there continues to be considerable diversity in the European higher education landscape. He also maintains that governments will need to decide which aspects of the system should continue to maintain this diversity and which should continue to be more homogeneous.

In addition to the supranational institutions discussed above, several international organisations have contributed to the internationalisation of universities and business schools. The role of associations such as AACSB and EFMD are discussed in more detail below. As mentioned in Chapter 2, two associations, in particular, have promoted the internationalisation agenda: NAFSA (Association of International Educators) and the EAIE (European Association for International Education). Both these associations have enabled individual institutions to professionalise their international activities, especially through their development and training programmes.

3.2.2 Internationalisation at National Level

National governments around the world continue to play an important role in setting the local context for higher education institutions. Governments have responded in different ways to the opportunities and challenges of the globalisation of higher education. Taylor (2010a p. 94) has summarised some of these responses which correspond to whether globalisation is perceived as an opportunity or a threat. In the next section, I discuss some of the higher education strategies and policies that governments have implemented as a response to globalisation.

National Governments Globally

Some of the most aggressive strategies in terms of exploiting globalisation opportunities for selling higher education services abroad have come from the English-speaking, developed countries, more particularly the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand (Adams 2007), and to a lesser extent the United States which occupies a particular position due to its overwhelming influence in higher education. Europe, excluding the United Kingdom, has entered this market rather later. These strategies to promote the higher education of individual countries or regions have often been instigated, or at least, strongly supported by national government policies and agencies.

The United Kingdom government began pushing institutions towards a more market-oriented approach to internationalisation in the 1970s when national funding of universities was already failing to keep up with development requirements (Teichler 2007). In the early 1980s Margaret Thatcher confirmed this trend by forcing universities to charge full tuition fees, i.e. market rates, to non-European, ie. overseas, students. The logic was simple: the UK taxpayer should no longer subsidize the education of non-UK students. In fact, Thatcher wanted to charge all non-UK students the full cost tuition rates, but European rules do not allow any discrimination amongst students from member countries.

In Australia, reform came in the 1990s. A new law made it illegal to charge international students tuition fees below the cost price (Adams 2007). The Australian taxpayer, just as in the United Kingdom a decade earlier, would no longer subsidize higher education for international students. The New Zealand government followed a similar policy.

In terms of viewing the globalised higher education market from a competitive point of view, the United States has occupied a slightly different position compared to the three countries cited above. American universities have dominated higher education, in particular since the Second World War. The United States, whilst being a major destination for international students, has engaged less aggressively in the promotion of its higher education. This can be explained by the fact its universities already have an excellent global reputation and naturally attract some of the best students through their well established brand image. Although early initiatives such as the Fulbright programme aimed at bringing the brightest and the best to the United States, there has not been an aggressive marketing of American higher education by the US government. This is understandable given the fact that the government tends to intervene rarely in higher education. Promotion of the system and recruitment of international students have been the responsibility of individual universities. The most prestigious have experienced little difficulty in attracting applications from some of the world's best talent, especially to graduate and doctoral programmes.

The political repercussions of the 9/11 terrorist attack had a considerable impact on the recruitment of international students to US universities. Firstly, the government introduced drastic new screening procedures for the issue of student visas. These new rules made it more difficult to obtain the necessary permission to enter the country. Secondly, these new procedures increased the administrative costs for the universities. In turn, they passed on these increases to the prospective students, thus raising the overall cost of an education that is

amongst the most expensive in the world. Finally, the new post-9/11 climate in the US made the country less welcoming for foreigners. Although figures for the US have started rising in recent years (Global Education Digest 2011 <http://www.uis.unesco.org/publications/GED2011>), Europe became more attractive and more welcoming as a destination for students seeking higher education abroad.

National Governments in Europe

European governments have increasingly integrated international dimensions into their national education policies. Many countries have restructured their systems to align them with the demands of the Bologna accord. This has been an opportunity for some to introduce more control of what programmes are offered to students. In France, for example, new auditing processes were introduced to conform to the European desire to improve quality assessment (Berlin Communiqué 2003). As a result, the accreditation of many Masters programmes was refused and French universities were compelled to manage their programme development in a more rigorous way. The new quality assessment processes have been introduced in conjunction with increased institutional autonomy. This has also led to the universities being more accountable (Luijten-Lub et al. 2005). Some have argued that whilst the pressure for more quality has led to more effective management of universities, there may be a danger of uniformity of programmes and development strategies across institutions (Dameron and Manceau 2011).

At the same time, other factors have also motivated European countries in their internationalisation. Some countries, such as France, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Luijten-Lub et al. 2005) are exploiting their historical links to promote their own higher education systems to students from their ex-colonies. One such organisation is the AUF (Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie - <http://www.auf.org>) whose aim is to promote French-speaking programmes in universities around the world, especially in areas of post-colonial influence, such as the African continent. The ACU (Association of Commonwealth Universities - <http://www.acu.ac.uk>), comprises nearly 500 universities from 54 English-speaking countries, all members of the Commonwealth. In this way, the United Kingdom also plays a role in encouraging students from the former colonies to look favourably at the 'mother' country when choosing a destination to study abroad.

Whilst the European Commission, together with most national governments, has encouraged cooperation in higher education, the United Kingdom stands out as the exception in Europe. Indeed, recent figures for student mobility (<http://ec.europa.eu/education/ERASMUS/>) within more traditional exchange programmes reflect a continuing decline in UK students studying abroad. At the same time, figures for international students in the UK, not only exchange students, but more particularly fee-paying overseas students have increased considerably (Middlehurst and Woodfield 2007). Herein lies a fundamental difference in national approaches to internationalisation. The United Kingdom is the exception in Europe and reasons are explained in the following section.

Contrasting Philosophies of Internationalisation in Europe

Researchers have distinguished between two fundamentally different approaches to internationalisation. The first group concerns the so-called Anglo-Saxon countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States) and the second group concerns the continental European countries. The first group has adopted a more competitive and market-oriented approach in comparison to the second group where one finds more cooperative strategies based on partnerships and exchanges (Van Vught, Van derWende, & Westerheijden, 2002; Luijten-Lub et al. 2005; Turner and Robson 2008). De Wit et al. (2008) consider some of the changing dynamics of international education as they affect other areas of the world such as Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, the Middle East and Latin America. These areas are not as far developed in their internationalisation. However, there are indications that in the coming years countries in these areas will exploit their competitive advantages: for example, the considerable resources available in the Middle East and the relatively lower costs in some parts of Asia.

Anglo-Saxon Countries: The Anglo-Saxon model of internationalisation is driven by some key success factors. Language is an obvious advantage. Crystal (2003) has already been cited concerning the role of English as the global language. Countries in the English-speaking areas have understood how to exploit the growing demand for programmes taught in English. Nevertheless, as Marginson (2006) points out, there is growing competition for students as more and more non-English speaking countries offer high quality programmes taught in English.

This model also benefits from the dominance and the attractiveness of the US educational structure based on modularisation. This structure is well-suited to attracting students from

diverse backgrounds and cultures because of its flexibility. Researchers have identified a certain convergence in terms of pedagogy, curriculum and teaching styles (Cameron et al. 2003; Engwall 2004; Kieser 2004; Tiratsoo 2004; Neal and Finlay 2008), dominated by the US educational structure in universities based on modularisation. Marginson (2006) shows how the UK, Australia and New Zealand have all been influenced by the US model and have exploited this in their aggressive internationalisation of student recruitment.

National educational development strategies have been an advantage for the Anglo-Saxon group, except for the US because of the post-9/11 measures. Middlehurst and Woodfield (2007) discuss how universities in the UK have been encouraged by the government to actively pursue a policy of increasing the recruitment of international students. However, enrolments of international students have decreased recently because of tougher visa regulations. (<http://www.guardian.co.uk/higher-education-network/blog/2011/nov/03/international-students-ucas>, The Guardian November 3, 2011). Tremblay (2005) and Adams (2007) discuss the Australian government's policy in the 1990s to attract international students. As a result, many Australian universities rely heavily on international student tuition fees as an essential element of funding. A decline in applications is having a negative effect on the universities that depended to a large extent on tuition fees from international students (The Economic Times, India Times, May 12 2010 http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2010-05-12/news-by-industry/27631489_1_skilled-migration-tony-pollock-skilled-occupation-list).

Another key factor for the Anglo-Saxon group was a firm financial commitment to marketing and professional recruitment. Education UK, the promotional arm of the British Council, has a much larger budget for the promoting and selling of UK higher education than its counterparts in Europe. The Australian government became actively involved in developing the marketing of its higher education services around the world with the establishment of Australian Education International (AEI) as part of the Department of Education (Adams 2007). In addition, IDP Education, a non-profit organisation, was set up by the universities to recruit international students. Furthermore, governments in these Anglo-Saxon countries, excluding the US, adopted positive immigration policies to facilitate the admission of international students to their universities. In recent years both Australia and the United States have adopted tighter visa restrictions for international students. A recent report by the British Council (2011) shows how these policies resulted in a fall in international students and consequently a negative economic impact in terms of revenue for the universities and the economy in general. The report predicts

a similar decline to be expected in the United Kingdom following the introduction of more stringent visa rules in 2010/2011.

It is clear from the review of literature concerning changes in higher education in Anglo-Saxon countries that political and economic factors have played important roles in determining how universities have been able to adapt to globalisation. A combination of opportunities and challenges has forced universities to adopt an increasingly market-driven strategy in terms of internationalisation. There is a danger that one of the educational aims of universities, especially in terms of preparing students adequately for their future roles as citizens in a global workplace, may be given less importance compared with the need to continuously find new funding and new customers.

Western European Countries: In contrast to the Anglo-Saxon universities, European institutions have adopted a more traditional approach to internationalisation. De Wit (1995) identified cooperation between institutions as the underlying philosophy driving the internationalisation of higher education in Europe over the past 30 years. Luijten-Lub et al. (2005) show how this internationalisation was essentially based on student and faculty mobility, but also on joint curriculum development. As a result, European universities have tended to be less market-orientated in their international development. Projects have been motivated by a desire to internationalise the learning experience for the home student rather than seek additional income by recruiting foreign students. Table 3.2 shows the outgoing and incoming student mobility for the ERASMUS programme in 2009/2010.

Table 3.2 Outgoing and Incoming ERASMUS Student Mobility 2009/2010

Countries	Percentage of total ERASMUS students hosted	Percentage of total ERASMUS students sent abroad
France	12.3	14.1
Germany	10.5	13.5
Italy	8.5	9.8
Spain	16.6	14.6
United Kingdom	10.6	5.4

Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/education/ERASMUS/doc/stat/0910/students.pdf>.

During the academic year 2009/2010 a total of 213,266 students participated in the ERASMUS mobility scheme. The figures show that the UK universities sent fewer students abroad than their counterparts on the continent. Indeed, the Council for Industry and Higher Education has called for universities to encourage more students to gain experience abroad as part of their studies (Fielden 2007). However, despite these alarm calls over the past decade, Anglo-Saxon universities have basically continued to pursue market-driven strategies in their internationalisation. In some ways, this may be inevitable, but at the same time universities also may need to re-affirm some of their traditional roles within society as centres for the pursuit and transfer of knowledge (Collini 2012).

Nevertheless, several political decisions at European and national levels have set the scene for a modification to the more traditional model of internationalisation at Western European universities, based on a philosophy of reciprocal internationalisation (Turner and Robson 2008). The introduction of the Bologna process in 1999 was motivated essentially by a realisation that the diversity of European higher education systems and structures presented a considerable obstacle to the mobility of students from within and from outside Europe (Teichler 2007). By attempting to harmonise the higher education systems in Europe, the EU is aiming to make study programmes more transparent and more accessible to fee-paying, international students.

Other developments are transforming the European model and pushing or pulling universities to the marketplace. Generally, national governments have been unable to keep up with the expansion of student numbers in higher education and have therefore reduced their financial support in various ways. As a result, universities are turning increasingly to international student recruitment as a means to complement their income. In some countries, this trend is hardly noticeable. Scandinavian countries, for example, have traditionally not charged tuition fees, mainly because it has been illegal. However, change is on the way and several countries in the region have already introduced tuition fees. In Germany, tuition fees of 1000 euros maximum can now be charged in public universities, but in several Länder university education remains free. In other countries, too, access to higher education has traditionally been considered a right for those who have successfully completed secondary education (Denmark, Finland, France, Italy, Netherlands, Spain) Education in public universities, therefore, remains free or is charged at a fairly low tuition rate.

In many ways, the move towards a more market orientated approach to higher education has come from the academic areas of the universities where the most income is to be obtained: the

business schools. The degree of independence of the business school within the university structure depends on the country and the institutional strategy adopted. Some agencies such as the EFMD actually promote more independence for business schools by insisting in their EQUIS accreditation standards that the institution has full autonomy in deciding its own strategy.

Some universities strive to keep their business schools as an integral part of the different disciplines or academic schools. Others have created almost separate units that operate as profit centres with a clear mission to generate income for the business school and the university as a whole. In Europe, several business schools, especially the private institutions with international ambitions, have been in the forefront of marketing their programmes abroad and charging high fees to top international students.

As the European universities also become more market orientated the very idea of the university is under debate. The traditional models – British, French and German, and in the twentieth century, the US model – are more or less distant from the market model when we examine their underlying philosophies (Teichler 2007). Discussion comes down to questioning the very role of the university in society and, more particularly, its relationship to market forces. Indeed, Teichler (2007) asks whether it is still an institution “with a twofold function: not only teaching and learning but also “research”, i.e. the creation and preservation of systematic knowledge” (p.11). Internationalisation of higher education is precisely the development that compels universities to reconsider their roles and objectives within a globalised context. As knowledge itself becomes a commodity, faculty are forced to embark on research that will lead to some form of commercial value (Etzkowitz et al. 2000). Furthermore, massification and the expansion of student numbers (Trow 1999) have required changes in the way the university organises the curriculum.

As a conclusion to this section of the chapter, table 3.3 summarises the influence of supra-national, international and national organisations on the macro-environment for higher education institutions as they adapt to the opportunities and challenges of globalisation that were discussed in section 2.3.

Table 3.3 Impact of Supra-national, International and National Organisations on Macro-environment of Higher Education Institutions

Opportunities	
Issues	Influences
Academic cooperation: faculty and students mobility;	EU; Bologna Accord;
International recruitment: faculty and students	OECD; EU; Bologna Accord
Curriculum development: courses; pedagogy; credit	EU; Bologna Accord
Economic development	OECD; UNESCO; WTO
Off-shore campuses	World Bank
Exporting of degree programs	WTO
New institutional organisations – distance learning	
Institutional autonomy	OECD; World Bank; National
Promotion of global citizenship and intercultural skills	UNESCO
Challenges	
Internal	Influences
Dilemma – academic and business objectives	OECD; World Bank
Integration of international students - pastoral; academic	EU; UNESCO;
Convergence of teaching styles	
Domination of English as the medium of instruction	AACSB; EFMD
Sustainable financing	OECD; World Bank; National
Changing role of the university in society	OECD; National Governments
Changing role of faculty - workloads, employment status	AACSB; EFMD
External	
Quality assurance and rise of international accreditation	EU; Bologna Accord; AACSB;
Increased competition	OECD;
Faculty shortages	AACSB; EFMD
Immigration and visa controls	National Governments
Professionalisation of management	EAIE; NAFSA
Geo-political events and natural disasters	

3.2.3 Internationalisation at Institutional Level

The previous sections of the literature review dealt with the globalisation of higher education and the resulting internationalisation decisions at supranational and national levels. At the institutional level individual universities have been compelled to change their way of operating to take account of globalisation, including the supranational and national policies. The traditional university models, based on teaching and research as the key activities, no longer meet the

needs of today's higher education environment. Some of the reasons for this change in paradigm have been mentioned above: massification, increase in student numbers, reduction in state funding, pressures to generate more income from international recruitment and applied research.

The administration of higher education institutions has undergone important changes in recent years. These changes have been particularly marked for non-Anglo-Saxon universities. The new organisational model has been referred to as the 'managerial university', or 'entrepreneurial university' (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Deem 2001) with "the emergence of a new logic of power, decision-making, and day-to-day administration in higher education" (Teichler 2007 p.69). Universities are now compelled to make strategic decisions. The new governance model means that presidents, vice-chancellors and deans need to manage their resources, in particular their faculty. In some countries, this represents a fundamental change to the roles of the different actors in the university. Franck and Opitz (2006) discuss the 'bureaucratic' and 'market' models of higher education, with particular attention to implications for professors.

The new university managers are "drawn mostly from academic ranks but embedded with a new spirit of business enterprise and continuous re-engineering" (Mollis and Marginson 2002 p. 322). As far as internationalisation is concerned, these new academic managers may implement market driven changes that may only lead to pragmatism where there is no real strategic choice or they may lead to deeper internationalisation stemming from entrepreneurial visionary strategies. Pragmatic choices very often mean improved marketing to recruit more students, especially from abroad. More visionary approaches aim at establishing an international reputation from which more long-term development can occur. This may lead to more research funding, outstanding faculty and high quality students. Overall, the professionalization of higher education has not only been a necessary change in response to globalisation, but it has also been a positive development in improving organisational processes. However, these new managers need to have a good understanding of the academic context and staff development programmes are essential (Taylor 2010b). It is not sufficient just to adopt strategies and practices from the business world.

Knight (2004) presents a framework to examine internationalisation through organisational strategies and programmes at institutional level. This framework categorises the internationalisation strategies and processes in a very comprehensive manner according to academic programmes, research and scholarly contributions, governance, operations, external

relations, extracurricular activities, services and human resources. Most universities today include internationalisation in their mission statement, but do not always translate this into concrete policies and actions. Indeed, genuine internationalisation may be seen in terms of processes and strategies as opposed to activities such as faculty or student mobility (Knight 2004). Turner and Robson (2008) discuss the commitment to internationalisation based on Bartell's conceptualisation (2003), measuring various dimensions along a continuum ranging from 'Symbolic' to 'Transformative' (Turner and Robson 2008):

"In this notion, Symbolic internationalization is exemplified by an institution with a basically local/national character and way of doing things, but which is populated by a proportion of overseas students and staff. At the other end of the scale, Transformative internationalization characterizes institutions where an international orientation has become 'deep', embedded into routine ways of thinking and doing, in policy and management, staff and student recruitment, curriculum and programmes" (p. 26).

Public statements on internationalisation frequently correspond to a desire to build up the image of the university and today that inevitably involves internationalisation. In many institutions, there is only superficial tinkering with the academic programme. Ghemawat (2008) examined the top-ranked MBA programmes for the use of case studies that involved global issues and discovered there were no fundamental or real changes in the content of the curriculum. In fact, Ghemawat's research showed how many of the top business schools are merely pandering to the rankings when they declare themselves 'global' or 'international'. Very few programmes really integrate the global or international dimension into their teaching or course materials. However, whilst Ghemawat is making a valid point on the need to address global issues in the business school curriculum, his findings are based on a fairly limited sample. More research needs to be done on how internationalisation is, or is not, affecting all dimensions of a business school.

Another major change within non-Anglo-Saxon universities has been the dramatic increase in the use of English as the language of instruction. Many universities now offer courses and degree programmes taught entirely in English. For the Anglo-Saxon universities this corresponds to a natural marketing of a service in demand (Howe and Martin 1998). For non-English speaking universities offering such a service has become a necessity if they wish to compete in the global market. There is often a demand from the home students for programmes taught in English. In 2008, the top Italian business school, Bocconi, changed its dual language MBA programme, in English and Italian to English-only (The Independent June 12 2008). Surprisingly, the majority of students enrolled are speakers of Italian as a native language.

Furthermore, institutions of higher education have changed their recruitment policies to take account of globalisation and national policies. For some countries, the recruitment of international students can be viewed as a follower strategy given the globalisation of this market today. Whilst the Anglo-Saxon model reached the market earlier, there are now many competitors, not only from Western Europe, but from elsewhere, too. This in turn has led to the recruitment of international faculty as a means to providing teaching in English. Furthermore, pressure has come from organisations such as the EFMD. The EQUIS accreditation programme requires that business schools demonstrate the implementation of genuine internationalisation strategies and adherence to a comprehensive range of internationalisation processes which go far beyond the traditional student exchange programmes to include international faculty, international research, cooperation with international firms and off-shore operations. This is intended to ensure that internationalisation is not just a buzzword in the school's marketing materials.

Some schools have chosen to cooperate internationally through strategic alliances or networks. A programme that is offered on two or three campuses and that leads to a joint degree aims to show true international cooperation. Faculty must agree on curriculum and assessment issues, usually with some joint teaching, often facilitating joint research projects. Networks can operate as looser associations which nevertheless enable institutions to build up and exploit social capital for academic and pedagogical development. Setting up an alliance or participating in an international network usually indicates some form of institutional commitment (Knight and de Wit 1995; Chan 2004).

Institutions have increasingly become involved in transnational education. This has expanded considerably in recent years (Naidoo 2008), raising questions of academic quality control and degree recognition (Altbach and Knight 2007). Australian and UK universities have been particularly active in offering degree programmes abroad. Indeed, the capacity to export educational services can be considered a sign of advanced internationalisation (Adams 2007). The motives for this type of activity are usually economic and the financial benefits can be transferred back to the home university to fund further development such as research. This model is well demonstrated by the Australian universities (Adams 2007). Branches are part of cross-border activity enabling universities to offer their programmes abroad, often at Bachelor level, with the prospect of recruiting the most able students onto Masters programmes at the offshore or even home campus.

Non-profit motives can also drive universities to transfer knowledge and experience to institutions that are still developing their higher education. These types of programmes often involve faculty from the home university teaching abroad and assisting in curriculum development. Universities engaged in such a strategy are seeking to build up their image as responsible institutions of higher education by contributing to global quality improvement. The European TEMPUS programme is driven by this philosophy of capacity building.

As institutions pursue their internationalisation policies, some researchers (Taylor 2004; Turner and Robson 2008) support the idea that the teaching and promotion of foreign languages as an important dimension of internationalisation. They argue that English should not be considered a foreign language since it is now the 'lingua franca' of the global business community. Institutions can elect to include the study of other foreign languages as a compulsory part of the degree programme. In this way students become aware of global issues to a deeper level. Williams and Chaston (2004) argue that speaking another language is an extremely valuable competence when we are aiming to prepare our students to be global citizens. It allows students to gain insight into the way in which other societies operate and see the world. Unfortunately, however, given the dominant position that English now holds, both in the academic and the business world, there appears to be decreasing interest in promoting other languages, particularly in business schools.

On an academic and organisational level, internationalisation has affected the way in which universities operate. Many institutions purport to be international, but in reality they may not actually infuse the institution with a truly international orientation. With the numbers of international students studying on campuses abroad on the increase, researchers have been showing a growing interest into what actually goes in the classroom in terms of pedagogy and teaching approaches (Turner 2006; Coverdale-Jones and Rastall 2008). Middlehurst and Woodfield (2007) have argued that universities need to do more than just internationalise the faculty and the students in order to be considered as 'international'. Middlehurst and Woodfield (2007) and Turner and Robson (2008) also argue for the need for administrative staff to be culturally sensitive to international students' needs. The UK universities seem to have made particular efforts in this direction, even if there is still room for improvement (ibid.).

On the micro-level globalisation has had a profound effect on individual behaviour. Levin (2005) has pointed out how students, the main consumers or clients in higher education, can now

search the globe to find the educational service which meets their needs, provided that they can pay the price. At the same time, students are also treated as commodities. Both factors have changed the way that institutions view and treat their students. The dangers both for students and institutions have been discussed by Oplatka and Hemsley-Brown (2010) who point out how “prospective students cannot ‘see’ the real activities taking place in courses, and therefore need to rely heavily on symbolic aspects of HE” (p. 77) which are determined heavily by marketing and brand building.

For faculty, there are also new opportunities, especially for business professors given the global shortage of adequately qualified staff (AACSB 2003). For those who are willing to move, universities are competing for some of the best talent through remuneration packages and working conditions (Altbach et al. 2012). However, Stromquist et al. (2007) demonstrate how conditions for faculty members in less reputable institutions are becoming more precarious. It would appear that in this field the gap between the ‘star’ faculty and the others is widening. Table 3.4 summarises the institutional internationalisation responses to the globalisation issues.

Table 3.4 Institutional Internationalisation Responses to Globalisation Issues

Issues	Institutional
Academic cooperation: faculty and students mobility;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internationalisation as part of strategic management. • Entrepreneurial and professional management. • New ‘academics’ combining teaching and administration. • Curriculum development – global issues and global skills. • Teaching in English. • Teaching foreign languages. • International accreditation. • Alliances and partnerships. • Improved student services. • For-profit universities. • Off-shore initiatives.
International recruitment: faculty and students	
Curriculum development: pedagogy; credit transfer	
Economic development	
Off-shore campuses	
Exporting of degree programs	
New institutional organisations – distance learning	
Institutional autonomy	
Promotion of global citizenship and intercultural skills	
Dilemma – academic and business objectives	
Integration of international students - pastoral; academic	
Convergence of teaching styles	
Domination of English as the medium of instruction	
Sustainable financing	
Changing role of the university in society	
Changing role of faculty - workloads, employment status	
Quality assurance and rise of international accreditation	
Increased competition	
Faculty shortages	
Immigration and visa controls	
Professionalisation of management	
Geo-political events and natural disasters	

3.3 Internationalisation of Business Schools

Business schools around the world, and more particularly in Western countries, have faced very similar issues to universities and firms in general over the past few decades. Given the competitive market with which business schools operate, globalisation has perhaps put even more pressure on these institutions to adopt appropriate internationalisation strategies within their higher education contexts. Indeed, the impact of globalisation has been recognised as “one of the most significant forces of change for business” (AACSB 2011, p.1). Much has been written about the globalisation of business. In contrast, “...comparatively little is known about the globalization of management education” (ibid.).

Many top-ranked business schools in the world are to be found in the United States. However, in terms of internationalisation, these schools have been severely criticised over the past two decades for not educating future managers with the necessary knowledge and skills to enable them to operate in a global business environment. Internationalisation was already a concern to the authors of the report “Management Education and Development: Drift or Thrust into the 21st Century?” (Porter and McKibbin 1988). Cavusgil (1993) presented a model for business school internationalisation which includes institutional strategy and climate, resource allocation, curriculum and instruction, faculty, students, linkages to the business community and collaboration with other colleges (p. 5). The degree of internationalisation is analysed through value adding processes such as curricular innovations, knowledge creation and experiences. Internationalisation achievements and progress are measured through outputs such as alumni and graduates, knowledge of International Business, and finally, through indicators concerning the school program – peer ratings, reputation, longevity, size and growth. Kwok and Arpan (2002) based their assessment of business school internationalisation on strategic objectives, organisation, curriculum and faculty.

Cellich (1993) introduced a more complex framework to identify business school internationalisation, using a life cycle concept similar to the Uppsala model (Johanson and Vahle 1977). He uses the following variables: substance of International Business teaching or curriculum, International Business research, institutional organisation, faculty, students, language studies, language of instruction, institutional orientation of research and teaching, attitudes of administrators and staff, and finally, the culture of the school. These are measured on a continuum of stages: starting, development, growth and maturity. It is interesting to note how Cellich includes languages skills as part of the internationalisation process. This factor is

rarely highlighted as a priority and yet it contributes to the soft management skills which business students would seem to lack (Pfeffer and Fong 2001 and 2004; Friga, Bettis and Sullivan 2003; Mintzberg 2004; Bennis and O'Toole 2005).

Scherer et al. (2003) concentrated on the internationalisation of the business curriculum, a key tool to the internationalisation process. However, as Ghemawat showed (2008), the top business schools may pay lip-service to the internationalisation of their curricula as witnessed through their curriculum content, especially their minimal use of case studies dealing with global issues. Nevertheless, these authors only deal with the US context and do not take into consideration alternative approaches to internationalising the curriculum in business school. This may reflect a certain US-centric approach to internationalisation which is also found in the AACSB's recent discussion of the globalisation of management education (2011).

In their research findings on the internationalisation of business schools, Elkin et al. (2008) observed "that those schools with complete strategic focus had higher levels of current internationalisation and greater aspirations for even higher levels of internationalisation than schools without a complete strategic focus" (p. 239). The main dimensions of internationalisation include faculty, research, mobility, curriculum development and a general institutional commitment to international activities. Elkin et al. (2005) used a model of internationalisation to show how business schools with a complete strategic focus in the area of internationalisation were more successful in achieving their ambitions. In a more recent article (2008), Elkin et al. refined the earlier model. They suggest assessing the degree of internationalisation by using nine dimensions: undergraduate international students, postgraduate international students, student exchange programmes, staff exchange programmes, staff interaction in international context/attendance at conferences, internationally focused program of study, international research collaboration, support for international students, and international institutional links (p.242).

However, it would seem necessary to include other dimensions of internationalisation which have emerged as part of the global higher education scene. For example, transnational and cross-border developments have increased dramatically with business schools setting up offices, branches or new campuses abroad. INSEAD and ESSEC both now have campuses in Singapore. INSEAD was originally set up by the Paris Chamber of Commerce and has now become a globally recognised business school. ESSEC is one of the leading French *Grandes Ecoles de Management*.

In their recently published report (AACSB 2011) the authors argue for a definition of a global business school on the basis of three measurable outcomes: the degree to which students are prepared to operate “competently and confidently in a world of global business competition and inherently global issues”; research insights; innovation and continuous improvement through harnessing diverse cultures and practices (ibid., p.7).

Business schools have also become more international through the pursuit of international accreditation and global recognition. This is part of a strategy to ensure quality and to increase international student recruitment by selling a reputable brand of higher education. Accreditation works in both directions. On the one hand, the process aims to promote an internal commitment to continuous improvement policies. On the other hand, the successful outcome of the process can enhance the school’s global image.

For the European schools, globalisation is one of the key forces driving management education and forcing schools to adopt appropriate institutional strategies and market positioning which thereby define their internationalisation (Thomas 2007). There is also the challenge concerning the type of business school model to develop for the future within the globalised higher education context. Some would argue that the US model is becoming less dominant and that a European model is emerging (Dameron and Durand 2011). Interestingly, despite the search for a model of internationalisation with defined criteria to be met, there is a recognition that “Each school’s mission and environment provide a unique set of circumstances that require a customized approach to globalization” (ibid. p. 8).

3.4 Internationalisation of Firms

It would seem useful to examine some of the models that have been developed to explain the internationalisation of firms over the past 30 years. This may be of relevance in identifying some of the factors involved in the internationalisation of higher education, and more specifically of business schools in France.

Uppsala Internationalisation Process Theory

One of the most influential theories of the internationalisation of the firm was proposed by Johanson and Vahlne in 1977. The main assumption of this model is that the internationalisation

of the firm takes place in stages at a gradual, incremental pace. The firm moves from domestic business to exporting through an agent, to establishing a sales subsidiary and possibly to setting up production facilities in the host country. Firms follow a particular time pattern in their internationalisation. This is related to the psychic distance between home and import/host country (Hörnell, Vahne et al. 1973). "The psychic distance can be defined as the sum of all the factors that prevent the flow of information from and to the market" (Johanson and Vahlne 2003 p. 24). The authors give as examples any differences in language, the education system, the way in which business is carried out, culture in general and the level and type of industrial development. Their research shows that firms follow an internationalisation path which takes into consideration the psychic distance.

The Uppsala Model (Johanson and Vahlne 1977) is also based on the argument that an organisation reacts in incremental stages to any changes inside or outside the firm. The reason for this incremental development is explained by the lack of knowledge of new, non-national environments. Knowledge gained from experiences is identified as important in the internationalisation process. The key elements of the model are based on state and change aspects. The state aspects refer to the market knowledge and the market commitment. The change aspects refer to the commitment decisions and current activities.

Innovation-related Model

The innovation-related internationalisation model (Bilkey and Tesar, 1977; Cavusgil, 1980; Czinkota, 1982; Reid, 1981) emerged as a development and extension of the Uppsala model. Both models are essentially based on the behavioural orientation of the firm (Cyert and March, 1963). In the innovation-related model firms see internationalisation in terms of innovation and change. The process is similar to the Uppsala model with certain modifications with regard to the motivation for engaging in internationalisation. Bilkey and Tesar (1977) and Czinkota (1982) see exporting as a result of unsolicited orders from abroad and the firm therefore reacts to the market. Cavusgil (1980) and Reid (1981) take a more proactive approach by considering the move towards exporting and internationalisation as a positive step which is the result of the firm exploring new opportunities outside the home market.

Criticisms of Early Models

Both these models of internationalisation have been criticised by later researchers. Andersen (1993) claims that these frameworks do not stand up to theoretical and methodological scrutiny. He advocates further research based on more scientific data. Sullivan (1994) puts forward arguments to improve the reliability of measures of the degree of internationalisation. He maintains that researchers “are unable to create a cumulative structure of theoretical, derived and empirical concepts that provide purpose to subsequent studies” (p. 325). In reviewing the Uppsala model, he claims that “estimating the degree of internationalization (DOI) of a firm remains arbitrary” (p. 325).

For Sullivan “an elemental issue of international business is whether diversifying internationally improves the financial performance of a firm” (p. 327). He researched the Forbes “Most International” 100 American firms based on total foreign revenues and used a number of research variables to show that the following factors provided a meaningful measure of DOI: FSTS – Foreign Sales as a Percentage of Total Sales; FATA – Foreign Assets as a Percentage of Total Assets; OSTs – Overseas Subsidiaries as a Percentage of Total Subsidiaries; TMIE – Top Managers’ International Experience and PDIO – Psychic Dispersion of International Operations. He concluded by arguing for more research to establish the construct validity of this initial approach.

International venture or entrepreneurial approaches

Criticism of the Uppsala model has also come from another research stream, the international venture or entrepreneurial approach (Oviatt and McDougall 1994). These researchers present a critique of Johnson and Vahlne (1977) and argue for a modification and extension of the Uppsala model. They argue that the idea of a model based on gradual stages of internationalization no longer seems appropriate given the development of other examples of internationalisation that do not correspond to the traditional Uppsala framework. They describe firms that begin as global ventures known as ‘born globals’. These new ventures are able to compete successfully in the international arena. Oviatt and McDougall (1994) demonstrate how the business environment changes rapidly especially with reference to social and technical factors. They cite Porter (1990) to support their argument that in a globalised market “dramatic increases in speed, quality and efficiency of international communication and transportation have reduced the transaction costs of multinational interchange” (Oviatt and McDougall p. 51). They also

propose “a theoretical framework that is traditional in its reliance on transaction cost analysis, market imperfections and international internalization of essential transactions to explain the existence of the MNE” (p. 52). However, they also introduce concepts from entrepreneurship and strategic management to identify how competitive advantage is developed and sustained. The authors show how new ventures are able to internationalise rapidly through minimal use of internalization and greater use of transaction governance structures, social interaction through networking and knowledge management.

Other researchers have identified other factors linked to successful and rapid internationalisation of the born globals. Madsen and Servais (1997) show how the international behaviour is dependent on the macro-economic environment, organizational structure and the personal strengths and competences of the founder. The authors conclude that whilst the traditional process models do not fully explain the internationalisation of born globals, there is a link to the evolutionary development of these firms.

Eriksson and his colleagues (1997) examined the components of experiential knowledge in the internationalization process. They investigated the effect of the lack of knowledge in the areas of foreign business, foreign institutions and firm internationalization. They showed that lack of internationalization knowledge has a strong impact on the lack of both business and institutionalization. The authors argue that acquiring experiential knowledge of foreign markets “requires durable and repetitive interactions abroad” (p. 534).

Diversity in Models and Methodological Approaches

Defenders of the differing streams continued into the new century with Johanson and Vahlne (2003) modifying their model to include networking and Oviatt and McDougall (2005) re-assessing their model to demonstrate the importance of considering international business in a wider sense and extending research issues to include other fields such as entrepreneurship. Recent research seems to reflect a certain convergence in showing how the development of the firm depends on capitalising and managing knowledge. There is also continuing and growing interest in social capital and organisational learning. Forsgren (2002) takes a critical look at the Uppsala internationalisation process model and argues for a research approach based on a broader concept of organizational learning. This argument is further developed by De Clercq et al. (2005).

Autio and his colleagues (2000) examined the international growth of entrepreneurial firms. On

the surface, the born globals seem to challenge the traditional process theories of the firm. However, this research shows how there are two closely related, but distinct, issues. Firstly, they consider the time lag between the founding of the firm and its initiation of international operations. Secondly, they examine the speed of a firm's subsequent growth. The authors develop a knowledge and learning-based framework to study how international growth and development are affected by the age of a firm when it first begins selling internationally, its knowledge intensity, and the imitability of its core technology. They argue that foreign experiential knowledge is the key regulator of resource commitment to foreign market, corresponding to the process theory of the firm, and that entrepreneurial knowledge and vision are seen as keys to aggressive international opportunity seeking, developed in the new venture theory of internationalisation.

In the last decade the debate seems to have been quite open with no generally accepted models emerging. Many research findings seem to be based on one particular country, with very specific conditions and in specific industries. For example, Autio and his colleagues (2000) examined the effect of age at entry, knowledge intensity and imitability based on the electronics industry in Finland. In addition, the macro-economic conditions at a particular time in history seem to play an important role in limiting the generalization of any particular research findings. Much of the research has continued to be based on the positivist methodology with reliance on measurable data such as sales volume and other readily available statistics.

However, there also seems to be an increasing use of more qualitative approaches, employing interviews and case studies, for example, to try to understand the internationalisation process (Welch and Welch 2004; Rialp et al. 2005; Laanti et al. 2007; Gabrielsson and Pelkonen 2008;). Indeed, the *Journal of International Business Studies* (Volume 42, Issue 5, 2011) devoted a whole issue to articles based on qualitative approaches in research on international businesses. There seems to have been much more interest in an organisational development approach based on knowledge development and social capital. Coviello and Jones (2004) argue for a more multidisciplinary approach to international entrepreneurship, with more dynamic research designs that integrate positivist with interpretivist methodologies and incorporate time as a key dimension. Rialp et al. (2005) analyse a range of theoretical approaches to internationalisation and "make a call for more focused research based on case studies to better understand the nature and processes of early internationalizing firms, as well as the organizational structures and designs appropriate for such businesses" (p. 162).

Internationalisation of Higher Education and Firms: Parallels?

Some scholars make links between the internationalisation of the firm and the internationalisation of higher education (Scott 1998b, Altbach 2002, Healey 2008). Healey (2008) takes an economic approach in analysing the internationalisation strategies of higher education in the so-called Anglo-Saxon countries (UK, Australia, New Zealand, USA). However, his model of the internationalisation process of the firm is based solely on the Uppsala theories. Furthermore, he uses a restricted definition of the internationalisation of universities in terms of their operations concerning foreign students on the home campus and those studying for the university's awards on a campus in a third country. In contrast, the universities on continental Europe continue to have a much wider interpretation of internationalisation based on cooperation and competition (de Wit 1995, Luijten et al. 2005) and on organisational development.

3.5 Summary

It seems that both in firms and in business schools organizational factors are crucial. There are issues about how social capital and networking are used and how experiential knowledge is harnessed both by individuals and organisations to promote internationalisation. The business school would seem to be a knowledge-intensive organisation 'par excellence'. However, fundamental differences exist between firms and business schools in the motivation for internationalisation. Firms are basically driven by a need to make their business profitable and viable. Business schools would seem to be driven by multiple dimensions, with profit or resource rationale being only one dimension. Furthermore, business schools continue to be part of a higher education system with its academic traditions and practices. Globalisation has obviously impacted higher education with practices and strategies from the business world, but universities operate in a wider educational context and need to continue to promote the creation and transfer of knowledge.

To sum up, the models of internationalisation of firms provide only a broad understanding of the issues involved in business schools' internationalisation. Some form of incremental development is usually followed by business schools. Furthermore, knowledge, social capital and networking also play an important role in facilitating and developing internationalisation at business schools. However, the structure of the higher education environment is much more complex and

affected by national and local challenges and opportunities. In Chapter 4, I describe how the French GEMs have adapted to globalisation within the national *Grandes Ecoles* structure.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTERNATIONALISATION OF FRENCH GRANDES ECOLES DE MANAGEMENT

Overview

- | | |
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| 4.1 | Introduction |
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| 4.4 | The Internationalisation of the GEMs |
| 4.5 | A Brief Historical Overview of International Development at ESC Clermont |
| 4.6 | Summary |

In Chapter 3, I discussed the main literature concerning the internationalisation of higher education, the internationalisation of business schools and the internationalisation of firms. In this chapter I discuss the internationalisation of the French *Grandes Ecoles de Management* (GEMs). As an introduction to this topic, a background section is included to help the reader to understand some of the unique aspects of the nature of the French *Grandes Ecoles* system, and the GEMs, in particular. Finally, this chapter presents a brief historical overview of ESC Clermont since this is the main unit of analysis for my case study. This chapter serves as a backcloth to the methodology chapter where I explain how I undertook the task of trying to understand the nature and process of internationalisation at ESC Clermont as it was lived and experienced by the main participants at the school.

4.1 Introduction

The French *Grandes Ecoles* have always occupied an important role in the higher education landscape in France. The *Grandes Ecoles* are specialised university-level institutions which form a fairly unique system of schools which has its roots deep in French history and culture. At the same time, the schools have served the business community over several decades with highly trained managers and administrators (Blanchard 2009). In order to understand the main trends in the internationalisation of these schools, in particular the business schools, in recent decades,

it is useful to explain briefly the historical development of these schools within the French higher education system.

4.2 The French *Grandes Ecoles* System

The French higher education system is comprised of universities and other institutions called the *Grandes Ecoles*. A major difference between the state universities and the elite *Grandes Ecoles* remains the selection of students for admission. These specialized institutions “were founded by the French State in the mid-18th century to provide qualified technicians not only for the army, but also for administrative and strategic economic sectors, such as energy and agriculture” (Blanchard 2009 p. 587). The established universities were not providing this type of education at the time. In line with the ideas of the French revolution, the state introduced a competitive entrance examination system based on meritocratic principles to counteract the traditional privileges of the nobility (Charle 2006). The first *Grandes Ecoles* were set up in engineering, followed by management schools at the beginning of the 19th century. Today, about 40 business schools are recognised within the federation of *Grandes Ecoles*, called *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles*, and recruiters continue to prefer hiring graduates from these management schools in contrast to the state universities (Barsoux and Lawrence 1990; Blanchard 2009).

However, by the late 20th century the *Grandes Ecoles* system had become the target of social criticism for reproducing an elite from the same privileged backgrounds (Bourdieu and Saint Martin 1987). From a sociological standpoint, the system has been criticised as a structured social ‘field’ that reproduces generations of privileged citizens (Bourdieu 1989). In recent years, pressure has increased, especially coming from the government, to make the schools more accessible to students from more diverse social backgrounds (Dardelet 2010). Even more importantly, globalisation is adding to the pressure to reform: “as the business world becomes more international, so the value of a French elite diploma begins to lessen....With globalization, the bright *énarque* (graduate from ENA – *Ecole Nationale d’Administration*) or *polytechnicien* (graduate from *Ecole Polytechnique*) thus faces a challenge which will require all his Grecian wisdom in the new climate of industry” (Ardagh 1999 p. 100).

4.3 The *Grandes Ecoles* of Management (GEMs)

Despite the historical overview of the *Grandes Ecoles* system presented above, the French business schools suffered for many years as the poor cousins of the engineering schools. Although some business schools were admitted to the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* when it was established in 1973, in many ways they only really gained the status of *Grandes Ecoles* when the reform of the competitive entrance examination system was introduced in 1996. This brought the business schools in line with the engineering schools where a two-year preparatory programme had been in place for decades. In comparison with the top elite schools such as ENA and the *Ecole Polytechnique*, the French business schools are really '*petites*' (small) *Grandes Ecoles*.

Table 4.1 gives a summary of the chronology of the main events in the development of the French business schools over the past two centuries. The first business school in France, the *Ecole Spéciale de Commerce*, was founded in Paris in 1819 to provide vocational training. Other schools were set up during the 19th and early 20th century. From the outset these schools enjoyed close links with the business world. The academic model was based on the practical, applied approach of the engineering schools rather than that of the universities (Grelon 1997). In 1889 the French government passed a law allowing students at these business schools to complete only one rather than three years' military service. Thanks to this law, more schools were set up, but they had to be recognised by the state for students to benefit from the special conditions for military service. The state controlled these schools further by determining the exam system and the length of studies which remained at two years up until after the Second World War. Despite this official state legitimacy, these professional, 'trade' schools were not recognised as being on a par with the traditional universities but rather as extensions of secondary education. Indeed, according to Thietart (2009) "For many years, up until the early 1970s, French business schools were considered as trade schools rather than academic institutions" (pp. 712-713).

Table 4.1 Chronology of Main Events in the Development of the French Business Schools

Date	Event
1819	Creation of first business school - <i>Ecole Spéciale de Commerce</i> Paris
1871	Creation of ESC Le Havre and ESC Rouen
1872	Creation of ESC Lyon and ESC Marseille
1881	Creation of HEC Paris
1889	State recognition for business schools
1947	Decree recognising business schools as institutions of higher education
1964	New legal status and name – ESCAE (<i>Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce et</i>
1985	Creation of the <i>Chapitre des Grandes Ecoles de Management</i>
1991	Break-up of the ESCAE network
1996	Reform of the <i>classes préparatoires</i> programmes
1997	ESSEC – first French business school to be accredited by AACSB
1998	HEC Paris – first French business school to be accredited by EFMD - EQUIS
2001	Launching of a state-run quality assessment process

In 1947 the government recognised these business schools as part of the higher education system and fixed the length of studies at three years. Competition increased as the engineering schools began providing some management training as part of their programmes. Furthermore, the first university degree programmes in business and management were launched in 1955. In response to these changes, the French *Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce et d'Administration des Entreprises*, (ESCAE), as they were called from 1964 onwards, introduced competitive entrance examinations similar to the admissions process to engineering schools. This innovation created the need for special programmes – *classes préparatoires* – to prepare students for these examinations. Selection on entry distinguished the schools from the universities and attracted the brighter students. It also raised the status of business education. At a time when the democratisation of higher education was leading to an expansion of student numbers in the universities, the bourgeois families sought out the distinctive *Grandes Ecoles* of engineering and of business as institutions apart from the universities (Bourdieu 1989). Indeed, at the time, the economics faculty members at state universities tended to adopt a Marxist approach to their discipline which aggravated the prejudice against state university education and its graduates on the part of parents and employers. At some universities these faculty rejected management science as a mere service to capitalism and refused to allow it to be taught until well into the 1970s.

By the end of the 1970s “there was a structured field of business schools, divided into three groups: the Paris schools (HEC, ESSEC, ESCP), struggling for the leadership, the 17 ESCAEs, and the other schools” (Blanchard 2009 p. 592). These other private schools had various statuses,

some officially recognised by the state, others not, offering programmes of three to five years in duration. This hierarchy of schools led to increasing national competition from the 1980s onwards. The ESCAE began recruiting nationally rather than locally. The overall number of business schools, managed by the Chambers of Commerce or private organisations, increased from 78 in 1980 to 297 in 1992 (Blanchard 2009). In order to maintain 'brand image' within this growing market, a select group of the *Grandes Ecoles* of management created an inner circle of institutions within the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles*, called the *Chapitre des écoles de management*. It was set up in 1985 with 12 founding members and by 2012, 40 GEMs belonged to this select group.

Competitive tensions led to the break-up of the ESCAE network in 1991. Schools gained more independence and began issuing their own degrees, but still under the control of the government. The names of the schools were changed again, this time to *Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce* (ESC). Competition increased further as a growing number of schools attempted to attract more students from a diminishing pool of candidates from the *classes préparatoires*. The hierarchy of schools was determined essentially by the percentage of top candidates that were admitted from these preparatory classes.

In 1996 a reform of the national competitive entrance examination system was introduced. Until then, students had traditionally spent one year after the *baccalauréat* (end of secondary education certificate) in a *classe préparatoire* and then took the national entrance examination to an ESC business school to follow a three year programme leading to the award of the *Diplôme ESC* – the ESC final degree. However, the engineering schools had always recruited candidates from a two year preparation programme. Consequently, the management schools were considered the poorer cousins in the system since they only required one year's preparation for the entrance examination. Officially, the final degree at the management schools was not recognised as being at Master's level. The 1996 reform brought the ESC schools in line with the engineering schools, but it exacerbated the shortage of candidates. Schools therefore began to diversify their recruitment by attracting students who had completed two-year university degree programmes such as the DUT (*Diplôme Universitaire de Technologie*) or DEUG (*Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Générales*) or even the BTS (*Brevet de Technicien Supérieur*) which were offered in the *lycées* (secondary schools) at post-baccalauréat level. In general, these programmes, equivalent to Associate Degrees in the US and HND (Higher National Diploma) qualifications in the UK, tended to be less selective and less academically-oriented than the traditional *classes préparatoires*.

Outside of France, the dual system of universities and *Grandes Ecoles* had always been difficult to explain. Again national issues impacted on internationalisation. Partners abroad did not understand the level of the final degree awarded to the students in ESC system. Some argued that it was an undergraduate level degree; others accepted that it was a Master's level qualification. The 1996 reform clearly positioned the *Diplôme ESC* at the post-graduate level. This recognition was later reinforced by the Bologna regulations and by a newly introduced French government accreditation system. This quality assurance process was imposed by the Bologna agreement and it led to an audit system that recognised the GEM degrees at Master's level by granting the *Grade Master* (Master's level certification) for their ESC or *Grande Ecole* degrees.

The intense competition between the French business schools was heightened by the increasing popularity of rankings which really began in the 1980s and grew significantly in 1990s. As Blanchard (2009) has shown:

“...rankings appear to be cause and consequence of the new competition between business schools. They became popular because they helped families to be enlightened ‘consumers’ of education and promoted new criteria, such as ‘degree of internationalisation’, ‘selectivity’ or ‘presence of a permanent faculty’” (p. 595).

At the same time, rankings may also have contributed to a certain isomorphism amongst the French business schools (Wedlin 2007).

The last decade has brought multiple changes to the business schools in France. Some have sought to position themselves more distinctively on the national and international market by re-branding themselves with new names. Some have broken away from the chamber of commerce sphere by adopting new governance structure. In fact, by the end of 2012 very few of the GEMs remained under the direct aegis of the chambers of commerce which were themselves re-organised into regional units. The French business schools are entering a period of considerable re-structuring and consolidation with several mergers and take-overs leading to bigger units with the aim of increasing visibility and international credibility (Blanchard 2009).

Faculty at the GEMs have come under increasing pressure to meet a range of new obligations. The majority of full-time faculty members are now expected to hold doctoral degrees, to conduct research, if possible internationally, and to publish in top-ranked journals. Traditionally, research has not been recognised as a priority in the *Grandes Ecoles* (Teichler 2007 p. 57).

Faculty are also encouraged to become involved in international activities and, if possible, teach in English at home and abroad. They are under pressure to innovate in their pedagogical practices and to adapt their teaching to diverse student populations with different ways of learning. In addition, faculty members have been called upon to take on more organisational tasks as schools diversify their portfolios of degree programmes. Consequently, faculty morale, in general, is not high (Basso et al. 2004).

To summarise, the French business schools which were part of the *Grandes Ecoles* system have undergone considerable changes in the post-Second World War period. They have changed their names from *Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce et d'Administration des Entreprises*, (ESCAE), to *Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce* (ESC) to *Ecole de Management* (EM) which is used more frequently today. These name changes are more than symbolic. They are part of a strategic re-branding of the French business schools to reflect the changes in the roles and nature of these schools (Ramanantsoa 2007). More importantly, these new brand names aim to position the schools on the global business school market. Over the same period, the schools have faced the challenge of maintaining a very unique higher education tradition, the *Grandes Ecoles* system, in the face of growing globalisation and internationalisation (Lazuech 1999; Abdemessed 2007). The next section of this chapter deals with this transformation.

4.4 The Internationalisation of the GEMs

The intensification of national competition in the 1980s drove the French GEMs to seek out local distinctiveness in an attempt to create differentiation on the business school market. Internationalisation emerged as a key to establishing such distinctiveness. The main objective was to attract the best students through offering study abroad opportunities on an exchange basis with no supplementary fees. In this way, schools could maintain a better position within the rankings. Furthermore, schools were spurred on to adopt internationalisation strategies following the 1985 European Act to create a Single Market in 1992. A need had arisen to train managers educated with the appropriate skills and knowledge to operate successfully in this integrated European economic context (Lazuech 1999). The importance of these schools in preparing students for managerial positions in a more diverse, international context has been recognised (Tregaskis and Dany 1996).

During the 1980s and early 1990s, internationalisation concerned mainly student mobility. This was understandable since internationalisation was used to improve market position and attract the best students by promising them opportunities to study abroad. The GEMs were well placed to include international experience in their programmes since the students all have to master two foreign languages as an entry requirement (Bryant 1993). The French management schools also seized the opportunities offered by the ERASMUS programme that was launched in 1987. Indeed, business students quickly became the dominant group benefiting from the mobility grants offered.

At the same time, schools extended their international partnership agreements to give more students opportunities to study abroad as part of their management education. As an integral part of preparing students for study and work abroad, schools increased the emphasis on multicultural content in the curriculum with the aim of developing a certain mindset in their students so that they would be open to other cultures. Internationalisation at home was also driven by the introduction of the new ERASMUS-SOCRATES programme in 1996 (Wächter 2003). Brussels could no longer meet the financial demands of the very successful ERASMUS scholarship programme. As an alternative to going abroad, internationalisation at home promoted curriculum innovations with more global and cross-cultural contents delivered by visiting faculty in a foreign language.

Another dimension of internationalisation involved welcoming international students onto the campuses in France. During the 1980s and 1990s, these international students were predominantly exchange students attending the host school thanks to reciprocal partnership agreements whereby students paid their tuition fees at the home university. The idea of recruiting fee-paying degree-seeking students only began to take on importance towards the end of the 1990s. Schools were happy to welcome exchange students because their presence helped to internationalise the campus and create some form of multicultural experience for students and faculty alike.

From a national point of view, therefore, the GEMs were driven into internationalisation because of the fierce competition between business schools on the French market. Schools emphasised their international dimension in their marketing in the struggle to recruit students. At the same time, however, globalisation was impacting the European schools, and in particular the French GEMs, in another way. Compared to business schools around the world, the French GEMs were, and still are, relatively small, lacking the critical size to compete on a

global market (Bergadaà and Thietart 1990; Lazuech 1999). During the 1980s, the US model for management education – the MBA degree - had become a globally recognised passport to an international career. As a result, European schools struggled with two options. Some chose to import the MBA model, considering that this was the hallmark of an international school. Others have argued for the creation of a European model (Durand & Dameron 2008). In 1989, one of the leading French GEMs, HEC, set up its European dual degree programme, the Community of European Management Schools (CEMS). This network now comprises 17 leading European business schools and offers students a programme that includes one year study at a member school and a joint Masters certificate (<http://www.hec.fr/HEC-Paris/Relations-internationales/Doubles-Diplomes/CEMS-MIM>). A similar network, EMBS (European Master of Business Sciences) Consortium, was set up in 1991 (www.embs-consortium.com).

Partnership agreements were also a way of gaining legitimacy abroad for the French GEMs. Many other schools, in addition to HEC, reinforced their international standing both with partner institutions and potential candidates by setting up double degree programmes (Lazuech 1998). Some schools such as the *Ecole européenne des affaires* (EAP) or the European Business School (EBS) set up networks across Europe to enable students to spend part of their studies abroad within an integrated degree programme. By the end of the century, most schools could boast dozens of university partners abroad and flourishing student exchange programmes. For many GEMs, a minimum six months in a university or in a company were mandatory to graduate. Since almost all the schools had introduced this international experience requirement, study or work abroad, student mobility had become a commonplace dimension of internationalisation at the French business schools. Student exchanges were therefore no longer considered a competitive advantage.

In the past decade, international accreditation has become a key strategic objective for the French business schools as they compete both at home and abroad. The main international accreditation agencies for business schools – AACSB International (the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business) and EFMD (the European Foundation for Management Development) - were well placed to offer their quality labels to schools in France. During the 1990s, the AACSB had run a pilot scheme for accrediting non-US business schools. It was trying to determine how the standards, based on the US business school education model, could be modified to take into account the wide diversity of management education systems around the world (Flesher 2007). One of the top French GEMs, ESSEC, based near Paris, was the first school outside North America to achieve AACSB accreditation in 1997 (Nioche 2007). This was a clear

sign to other GEMs that this accreditation was within their reach. Another factor drove the French GEMs towards the AACSB accreditation path. Following its pilot study, the AACSB introduced new standards in 2003 which reflected a new philosophy in its accreditation processes (Thompson 2004). The new standards enabled applicant schools to demonstrate quality within their own cultural and educational environment, rather than conform totally to a US-centric model. For the GEMs this was an opportunity to show the international community the quality of management education in France.

The EFMD had set up the European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS) in 1997 in direct competition to AACSB. In fact, this was an important reason why the latter organisation was forced to revise its accreditation standards if it wished to compete on the global market. The EQUIS accreditation has had a noticeable influence on the internationalisation of the French GEMs. The accreditation criteria require that schools demonstrate internationalisation on an institution-wide basis. This requirement has brought considerable changes to the GEM model. Schools began to internationalise their faculty by recruiting abroad. They have also been insisting on French faculty with fluency in English. Research has become a critical dimension for schools to gain international recognition (Dameron and Durand 2008; Thietart 2009). Schools have been scrambling to improve intellectual contributions both quantitatively and qualitatively. Above all, under the EQUIS standards, schools must show that they undertake joint research outside their home country. The ability to attract and recruit international students has become another key component in the accreditation process. Programmes and curricula must reflect international content. Schools must establish effective partnerships not only with universities abroad, but also with international companies.

In fact, international accreditation has been driven more by local, national, factors than external influences such as globalisation (Nioche 2007). The local, French, market had been extremely competitive. The national rankings began to include international accreditation as a criterion. Dameron and Monceau (2011) demonstrate how the French business schools have sought international accreditation to gain more visibility in a complex market. Table 4.2 shows the main findings of the study carried out by these authors on the effects of accreditation on the French business schools.

Table 4.2 Main Impacts of Accreditation on French Business Schools

Strengths/Opportunities	Weaknesses/Threats
Mission and objectives clearly defined	Growing gap between research and teaching
Formalisation of the strategy development	Focus on top-ranked peer-reviewed journal
Improved strategic management	Standardisation and reduced innovation
Research as a priority	Strategic confusion – accreditation as the goal
Focus on branding the business school	Institutional isomorphism
Accreditation as financial bargaining lever	Growing gap: academic and business world
Improved leadership	
Enhanced culture of quality	
Increase in doctorally qualified faculty	
Change in governing structure – freedom	
Mergers + alliances critical size + visibility	

According to Dameron and Monceau (2011), accreditation has helped to make the schools more professional. The leadership and strategic management have improved considerably. A new focus has been put on research. Schools have used accreditation to improve their brand image as a sign of quality and as an important argument to be used in a very competitive recruitment market. As the French schools increasingly recruited international students on a fee-paying basis, accreditation labels have also become a necessary tool to signal the quality of the education being offered, especially to potential candidates abroad who knew little, if anything, about the elite French GEMs. Schools have been able to use accreditation as a lever to obtain additional funding. Furthermore, driven by the accreditation criteria, especially the EFMD EQUIS process, schools have gained management autonomy and broken away from the restrictive chamber of commerce system.

At the same time, Scherer et al. (2005) and Dameron and Manceau (2011) have identified some challenges for schools in their race to gain international recognition through accreditation. The gap between teaching and research is growing. The business schools are running the risk of losing one of their prime competitive advantages compared with the French universities, their close cooperation with the business world. Some schools are also making accreditation their strategic goal rather than using this to achieve broader institutional objectives. Finally, schools are tending to follow similar strategic development agendas thus confirming the trend towards isomorphism in the French business school field (Blanchard 2009).

In recent years, the GEMs have become increasingly involved in off-shore activities. The motivation is not only driven by the EQUIS accreditation process, although these activities are

recognised criteria to demonstrate genuine internationalisation. French schools have set up branches and separate units to develop their international presence, especially in Eastern Europe, Asia and on the African continent. The Francophone areas such as the Maghreb countries and Western Africa are providing new opportunities for French schools to set up and do business. A school's ability to export and operate abroad is now recognised by accreditation agencies and rankings as an indicator of internationalisation and participation in a global business education market. Schools are judged like business units that have decided to do business abroad after building up a strong presence on the national market. The successful schools therefore export their services in different ways. They increase their international recruitment or they set up off-shore activities such as branch offices or even fully-fledged campuses. In this way they can be considered to have moved along to one more stage in the internationalisation model of the firm (Johanson and Vahlne 1977).

By the year 2000, indicators of internationalisation at French GEMs had evolved far beyond student exchanges, languages and courses in international business and cross-cultural competencies (Echevin and Ray 2002). The French GEMs were adapting to the challenges of globalisation (Kumar and Usunier 2001). *The Chapitre des Ecoles de Management de la Conférence des Grandes Ecoles*, the association that groups together all the GEMs, published a white paper in 2006 (Duvergé 2006). This publication shows how the French management education model has been able to meet the challenges of globalisation through adaptation and innovation. This is demonstrated by the activities of the 29 GEMs who were then members of the association. The GEMs claim to provide a high quality pre-experience management education at Masters level which includes the following international components and concerns 60,000 students (figures are from 2005/2006): compulsory study of two or three foreign languages; international experience for the vast majority of students; almost 25% of the students at the GEM campuses of international origin; 483 full-time international faculty and 809 visiting faculty from abroad; a range of Masters programs (MBA, MSc., etc.) taught entirely in English; more than 2,400 international exchange and partnership agreements; 15 schools holding at least one international accreditation: AACSB, EQUIS or AMBA (Duvergé 2006). Updated figures were published in 2009 (Conférence des *Grandes Ecoles* 2009) showing how deeply internationalisation has permeated the French business schools.

Within this changing context, ESC Clermont has changed as an institution and has developed its own internationalisation strategies. The aim of the next section is to present a narrative overview of the school's historical and international development.

4.5 A Brief Historical Overview of International Development of ESC Clermont

Historical Origins

The *Ecole Supérieure de Commerce Clermont-Ferrand* was founded in 1919 with the support of the Ministry of Trade, the city of Clermont-Ferrand, the Puy-de-Dôme General Council, the Clermont-Ferrand Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and numerous companies associated with the *conseil d'administration* (board of trustees) (Fanget 2004). The first faculty appointments included two part-time language teachers, one for English and one for German. In the first years of the school's existence, the curriculum included a special 'colonial section' to promote trade with France's colonial possessions. In 1923, two students completed internships in Argentina to undertake professional placements in companies in that country. In 1935, the school organised the annual conference of the "17 Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce de France et d'Algérie". In 1949 the school signed its first international cooperation agreement with the University of Kansas at Lawrence. Over the past 60 years this has involved hundreds of students and many faculty members.

Period: 1970 - 1980

During the 1970s a number of initiatives were undertaken that prepared the way for internationalisation as part of the school's strategic development. Full-time faculty staff were appointed in various management disciplines, including two English language teachers. The school contacted partners in the United Kingdom and Germany to explore the idea of international cooperation in student exchanges.

In 1979 a new director general was appointed. He identified internationalisation as a key component for future development. An Institute for International Business was set up offering a post-graduate specialisation in this subject area. Local companies were offered advice and consultancy services in exporting. International Affairs was introduced as a compulsory part of the curriculum for the school's main degree. All candidates for admission to the school passed a national entrance examination including two languages: English and either German, Italian, Russian or Spanish. This is still the policy today with languages such as Arabic, Italian and Russian accepted as second languages. Evening classes were organised to enable students to begin a 'rare' language such as Chinese or Japanese. A compulsory six-week experience abroad was introduced for all students.

The school agreed to participate in an European pilot scheme called the Joint Study Programme, which was created in the late 1970s on the initiative of the ministers of education from the then nine members of the European Community. This programme later led to the launching of the ERASMUS programme in 1987. The Joint Study Programme involved cooperation with two other institutions of higher education, one in the United Kingdom, the other in Germany, to develop a joint programme allowing students to spend one semester in a partner school. Academic recognition was given for this study abroad. The courses followed were developed jointly by faculty members from the three institutions.

Period: 1980 - 1990

ESC Clermont had always recruited students from its region. In 1982 the school began recruiting nationally. In 1985 the school was admitted into the select chapter or group of management schools within the *Grandes Ecoles* system called the *Chapitre des Ecoles de Commerce de la Conférence des Grandes Ecoles*.

In 1987 the Auvergne regional council agreed to fund a scholarship scheme to enable up to 20 students every year to attend universities in the United States to obtain an MBA degree. The scholarships provided the students with adequate funding to pay for out-of-state tuition fees and living costs in the US business schools. ESC Clermont was able to negotiate agreements with several prestigious American universities, such as Cornell, since there was no question of reciprocity, the basis of traditional student exchanges.

In 1988 a Specialised Master in European Human Resource Management was created. Visiting faculty taught mainly in English, but also in Spanish. This programme contributed to the school's academic reputation in the human resource management area, not only in France, but also in Europe.

Period: 1990 - 2000

The international development led to organisational changes. In 1990, when the Head of Languages resigned, two appointments were made to replace him: one in languages and a new post of Head of International Relations. The Head of International Relations was made a permanent member of the management committee and was able to participate in discussions on strategic decisions.

As a result of the US double degree programme, the school established a reputation in France as an institution with opportunities for study abroad, and more generally for its international outlook. In 1990, the school was awarded the first ERASMUS prize for the quality of its exchanges jointly with a network of 12 European institutions. The school continued to develop its international networks, thus opening new opportunities for students to study in different countries in Europe. The school participated in the founding of the European Masters in Business Sciences scheme of study. The EMBS consortium initially comprised six business schools from the UK, Germany and France. Today there are 16 participating institutions from 8 different European countries.

The 1990s were a period of increased international development. Additional funding from the Auvergne regional council enabled the school to select and recruit students from Poland where, at that time, French was still widely taught. The programme later included students from Russia where the school had signed a cooperation agreement in 1989 with the University of Sochi. In 1991, the school set up a new Master's in International Project Management, originally in collaboration with the University of Auvergne. In the early 1990s the school agreed to house a study abroad programme, which is still running today, with students from a liberal arts college in the United States. The first part of the decade also involved a considerable expansion in the number of international partners and the study abroad for the students. Destinations for semester study abroad were now more diverse. Double degree, or double qualification, opportunities were increased with the emergence of the EMBS programme. Students could now study in Europe, as well as the United States, and obtain a second qualification, ratified by the EMBS consortium.

A turning point for the school occurred in 1995 with the retirement of the Director General who had managed the institution for 17 years through an important development phase. The following five years began a period of more focus on internationalisation at home. Attempts were made to increase the amount of management teaching in English, primarily to maintain student exchange flows since fewer and fewer international students were learning French in non-Francophone countries. At the same time, there was a growing demand from the French students to follow more courses in English at home. The intensive International Week programme was set up in 1997. The basic idea involved inviting visiting faculty from partner institutions to teach management subjects in their own languages, using their own teaching styles. Today, during the International Week, all teaching in French is suspended for all

programmes and 30 to 35 visiting faculty deliver business modules to over 800 students in English, German, Italian and Spanish.

Teaching management subjects in a language other than French increased over the years. New developments included a one semester programme taught in English and modules called International Specialisation Certificates in the final year of the Master in Management (MIM) degree programme. The school sought out faculty at partner institutions ready to cooperate on 'pedagogical engineering' through the joint academic construction and delivery of new modules.

In 1997 the school entered into an alliance with three other ESCs to create a consortium of French business schools, named *Avenir ESC*, with the ultimate aim of merging into one unit. This objective included leveraging the strengths of the four individual schools to enter the international market as one institution with multiple campuses in France. International cooperation was also reinforced through a global network – NIBES (Network of International Business and Economic Schools) – which had been set up by one of the consortium schools. During a four-year period, *Avenir ESC* signed over 20 international cooperation agreements, many of them outside Europe. The school benefitted by adding a considerable number of new partners to its international portfolio of partnerships, thus extending study abroad opportunities for its students.

At the end of the 1990s the school began investigating the possibility of increased funding through the recruitment of international students. It became actively involved in the newly established EduFrance, a government-sponsored agency that aimed at assisting higher education institutions in France in their efforts to attract students from abroad to their campuses. The school participated in several recruitment fairs in Asia and Latin America. In order to attract international students, the school developed its academic programmes taught in English. These programs attracted a growing number of international fee-paying students.

The end of the 1990s marked a significant change in the school's organisational structure. An attempt was made to modernise processes through an integrated management information system. Two new posts were created: Dean of Faculty and Director of Programmes and International Relations. The latter post brought together all the services that worked on providing an educational experience to students: recruitment, development and management of programmes, work placements and internships, study abroad, placement and recruitment by

companies. The author was appointed as the new Director of Programmes and International Relations.

Three language faculty members who had had part-time contracts with responsibility for managing the English, German and Spanish sections respectively were given full-time posts. Part of their job specifications now included responsibility for the development and operational management of exchange agreements in defined geographic areas. These faculty members also served as academic advisors and tutors for outgoing and incoming international students. In addition, they worked closely with the administrative assistant in the International Office.

Period: 2000 - 2010

The nature of international partnerships and exchanges began to change more rapidly in the new century as the school felt the impact of more intensive national competition driven by the impact of globalisation. More complex exchange agreements were negotiated. Increasingly, the school had to use its own budget to pay for tuition abroad for its own students who studied for part of their program abroad. In 2000, the school launched a scholarship scheme to welcome doctoral students from abroad to spend one to two semesters at the school. These visiting scholars taught small groups of students in their area of specialisation, but also utilized their time in Europe to collect data and complete their dissertations.

The school governance changed in 2001 with the Clermont/Issoire Chamber of Commerce becoming the major stakeholder, willing to finance the school's development projects. A new Director General was appointed, of Spanish origin, a linguist with a PhD in philosophy. He established the strategic priorities: faculty development, research, national and international partnerships, programme and institutional development. The school began to recruit faculty members with doctoral degrees who were able to produce significant intellectual contributions. Research became an integral part of the new strategic direction. Resources were provided for faculty development and recruitment. The number of full-time faculty members was doubled between 2001 and 2006. By the end of 2010 over 80% of the full-time faculty held doctoral degrees.

International partnerships continued during this period, with new exchange agreements for semester study and double degree programmes. There was an expansion of agreements with partners in Latin America. More students were studying Spanish, rather than German, as a

second language so there was increased demand for programmes in Hispanophone countries. At the same time, universities in Latin America were internationalising fast and looking beyond their traditional destination, the United States which had become less welcoming in the post-9/11 era. International cooperation also became more diversified geographically. In contrast to the school's traditional international development, exchange agreements were signed with areas of the world, such as Lithuania, Georgia, Turkey, Jordan and Indonesia. These destinations provided more 'exotic' study abroad opportunities.

A renewed effort was made to increase revenues through international recruitment. The school worked for the first time with an agent who was hired to bring in Chinese students. There was a sudden inflow of students and an inflow of new issues to be confronted including the recruitment process, the presence of one dominating nationality in the classroom and a host of logistical questions concerning housing, visas, and the students' general well-being and attitude to learning.

As part of the strategic management plan launched in 2002, the school set about preparing for AACSB accreditation. In 2005, the school was the tenth French *Grande Ecole* to achieve this international accreditation. This quality assurance process enabled the school to improve its national standing and to intensify its international recruitment of students. Curriculum development continued with two new Master of Science degree programmes, based on post-graduate programmes that had been taught for several years in French, were updated and offered in English - one in International Business Development, another in International Project Management - and the mainstream Master in Management degree programme was also offered with two tracks, one in English, one in French. 2006 saw the launching of a Master of Science programme in Finance, Auditing and Risk Management taught in English.

The development of new international initiatives continued. With the help of European funding from the Tempus programme, the school coordinated a programme in collaboration with a university in Slovenia to transfer one of its MSc. programmes to a university in Serbia. Students and faculty were given training opportunities in Clermont and Ljubljana. The Serbian students completed the Master's programme with the objective of being recruited onto the faculty back home where they would help in the setting up and running of a similar Master's programme. Serbian faculty members monitored classes at ESC Clermont for periods of up to three weeks.

In 2004, the school cooperated in the setting up of an *Ecole de Commerce* in Cameroon, based on the French *Grande Ecole* model. The school provided the academic oversight, taking responsibility for the selection and admission of students through a competitive entrance examination, the provision of syllabi and the organisation of end of semester assessments. Visiting faculty from the school also taught in Cameroon. Material aid was given through gifts such as computers, books and other pedagogical materials. The school also became more deeply involved in the African continent, in addition to the project in Cameroon. The school successfully won a contract to lead a consortium of French schools to assist in a cooperation agreement to modernise higher education in Algeria. Funding was provided by the French Minister of Foreign Affairs. Agreements have been signed with schools in Morocco and Tunisia. Close cooperation with institutions in Senegal have been established to help develop business education in that country. Finally, a faculty member from Senegal has been appointed to develop projects in Africa.

In 2007 the school launched a Bachelor in International Business. The program included a considerable proportion of teaching in English. In addition, a compulsory one year period of study at a partner university abroad was an integral part of the programme. In this way, students graduated with a double degree.

Over the past decade the alumni association has continued to strengthen the effectiveness of its network of graduates abroad. The school's alumni work in over 50 countries with regional representatives coordinating activities in their respective geographic areas. They also serve as the link between the school and the membership on the ground.

To summarise, ESC Clermont witnessed a turbulent decade where external forces impacted considerably on the school's internationalisation agenda. The pressures to adapt and innovate came from the national competitive environment as well as the state regulatory agencies. Further pressures came from globalisation through the accreditation organisations, rankings and the demands of international students, faculty and university partners. In many ways, the school was confronted with the challenges that other GEMs faced. Internationalisation changed the role of the faculty considerably, with the requirements to have doctoral qualifications and to engage in research. The French business school environment underwent considerable structural changes in terms of the organisation of management education in general.

4.6 Summary

In this chapter, I have described the unique role that the *Grandes Ecoles* play in the French higher education system. Over the past 50 years, the *Grandes Ecoles de Management*, in particular, have faced considerable challenges both from national and international pressures. Indeed, the GEM system has shown itself to be innovative and reactive to these changes in the higher education landscape. The brief historical overview of ESC Clermont's internationalisation has demonstrated how the school has evolved in recent decades. The next chapter deals with the methodological approach that has been adopted to attempt to understand the internationalisation process. The phenomenological approach has been chosen as way to understand the process through the experiences of the main participants at the school.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY, RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Overview

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In this chapter, I present the philosophical framework for my research and the justification for the methodology which is based on a phenomenological approach. The research design is discussed with reference to the choice of a qualitative method and to my personal role as insider researcher. Details are given on the data collection and sampling strategies. This includes discussion on the interview data and documentary evidence, followed by a presentation on how I intend to handle and analyse the data. Finally, I examine some ethical issues related to my research and some study limitations.

5.1 Introduction

In chapters 2 to 4 I presented some of the background information to my research topic and discussed the relevant literature. This chapter addresses the approach that I have adopted in

terms of the methodology, the research design and the methods used to address my research questions. My research aim is to provide an understanding of the internationalisation processes at one French *Grandes Ecoles de Management*, ESC Clermont. This research objective has driven my approach to methodology and methods. In this chapter, therefore, I discuss the background to my research objectives, and how and why I have adopted a phenomenological approach in my methodology. Furthermore, I clarify how I have dealt with my role as insider researcher in carrying out this research. I discuss the methods adopted for my data collection, some initial reflections on the interview transcripts and some ethical considerations impacting my research. Finally I reflect on the study limitations.

The globalisation of higher education raises a number of issues, especially for business schools. These problematics have been discussed in chapters 2 to 4 dealing with the globalisation and the internationalisation of higher education. Various key elements of globalisation have led to the emergence of an international higher education market. In order to face this new globalised context universities and business schools have adopted different internationalisation strategies and practices. In addition to the factors that have driven the emerging internationalisation strategies in business schools, a key question is how this process has been experienced and understood by the main participants. Bennett and Kane (2009) have pointed out that “at the institutional level there is allegedly much confusion regarding ‘what internationalization is’ ” (p.2). My own study attempts to fill some of the gaps in the research into the internationalisation of French business schools at institutional level.

I am examining how participants at one French business school understood the internationalisation process as it happened over the past three decades. These perspectives will provide an account of the reasons why ESC Clermont internationalised and the way in which it developed its international activities. By interpreting the respondents’ understanding of the internationalisation, the research will attempt to identify the main drivers in the processes. The objective will be to map the processes and to try to understand why they occurred in that way. Finally, the study aims to assess the outcomes of the internationalisation process and to discuss the future challenges.

As explained in the review of the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, and of French business schools in particular, considerable research has been undertaken on ‘what’ internationalisation means and ‘why’ it has taken place. Little evidence exists of empirical inquiry into ‘how’ French business schools have undertaken and implemented internationalisation

strategies at an institutional level. My aim has been to contribute some insight into this gap in the literature. I have adopted a phenomenological approach since this methodology seems to be the most appropriate in trying to understand internationalisation by examining the lived experiences of the main actors in the French GEMs. The appropriateness of this methodology is explained and justified in this chapter.

5.2 Philosophical Framework

Guba and Lincoln (2005) identify five main inquiry paradigms that have dominated social science research since the early part of the 20th century: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, constructivism and participatory approach. Positivism is based on the ontological and epistemological assumptions that objective reality can be investigated and explained through experimental verification and testing hypotheses, mainly adopting research methods used in natural sciences, in particular quantitative methods. Post-positivism essentially takes a more critical stance towards positivism and accepts that findings can be modified and falsified by future research. Critical theory is based on historical realism where “virtual reality is shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values....crystallized over time” (ibid., p.193). Constructivism is based on relativism where reality is constructed in specific, local contexts and the researcher attempts to interpret meaningful human behaviour. The participatory approach develops on constructivism with the idea of a shared experience and interpretation of the world where the outcome of inquiry leads to some form of action.

My research is embedded in a constructivist epistemology since I am interpreting the internationalisation process through interaction with informants by using their own ideas and experiences of the process. My philosophical approach is based on phenomenology which is both a philosophy and a method (Creswell 2009 p.13). Gill and Johnson (2010 p. 241) define phenomenology as “A study of how things appear to people – how people experience the world”. The aim is to try to understand the internationalisation phenomenon as it is described by informants from a business school in France as a case study and three other schools as comparative cases. My interpretative approach to the data provided by the informants is based on hermeneutics, the theory of interpretation (Smith, Flowers and Larkin 2009 p. 21). The way the researcher views the world, in other words his or her philosophical outlook and standpoint, impacts the way in which the research design is managed and organised. “The gendered, multiculturally situated researcher approaches the world with a set of ideas, a framework (theory, ontology) that specifies a set of questions (epistemology) that he or she then examines

in specific ways (methodology, analysis)" (Denzin and Lincoln 2005 p.21). Researchers must therefore "make their preferences clear" (Miles and Huberman 1994 p.4). The researcher's standpoint is also defined by the inquiry paradigm (Guba and Lincoln 2005); the way in which the researcher engages in the task. It encompasses an ontology which reflects the assumptions that the researcher is making about questions such as existence itself, and the meaning and nature of objects (Denzin and Lincoln 2005). Having defined how one can understand reality and what can actually be known, the researcher must decide how knowledge can be constructed. Epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge and how this is acquired. The researcher defines what is considered to be knowledge and what is to be known or investigated. The researcher's ontology and epistemology "create the context in which the research is actually conducted" (Cope 2005 p.165) and informs the methodology.

My approach to my research is based on a phenomenological approach "because it offers a method for accessing the difficult phenomena of human experience" (Giorgi 1997 p. 238). The phenomenological approach implies certain ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. Phenomenological research enquiry has its foundations in the philosophy of phenomenology and was developed by Edmund Husserl, and further extended by Alfred Schutz and Martin Heidegger. Cope (2005 p.164), quoting Pivcevic (1970), states that "the aim of phenomenology is to bring out the 'essences' of experiences or appearances (phenomena), to describe their underlying 'reason'". Guthrie (2007) extends this to include the way in which the inquiry is undertaken. The phenomenological approach is seen as a way of seeking to understand phenomena "in a manner which is free of all misconstructions and impositions whether religious, cultural or scientific" (Guthrie 2007 p.18). Moran (2000) defines phenomenology as "an attempt to get to the truth of matters, to describe phenomena, in the broadest sense as whatever appears in the manner in which it appears, that is as it manifests itself to 'consciousness', to the experienter" (ibid. p. 4). What is important is 'consciousness' and the researcher must try to understand this to reach objective reality. This reality is embodied in how phenomena have been perceived. Phenomenology, therefore, means acknowledging and embracing the way in which individuals experience and perceive their social reality. Husserl developed the concept of 'epoche' from the Greek word meaning "to refrain from judgement, to abstain or stay away from the everyday, ordinary way of perceiving things" (Moustakas 1994 p. 33). "No assumptions are made about what is or is not real; rather descriptions begin with how one experiences things" (Cope 2005 p. 165). Indeed, one major aspect of Husserl's philosophy is that it is free of presuppositions. From a phenomenological stance, the researcher needs to stand back and not give explanations before the phenomenon has been understood 'from

within' (Moran 2000). According to Sokolowski (2000), this means that the researcher needs to adopt a 'phenomenological attitude', a role of detached observer. (I will return to this issue later).

Important concepts in Husserl's philosophy are also the idea of *Lebenswelt* or the lived-world and the notion of 'essence'. Existential phenomenologists such as Heidegger and Sartre developed the concept of *Lebenswelt* to encompass the totality of the human experience. From the researcher's standpoint, there is a need to "describe experience as it emerges in some context(s), or to use phenomenological terms, as it is 'lived' " (Thompson et al. 1989 p.135).

Within this philosophical framework, I used interviewing as the main primary data gathering technique in my research to allow my respondents to describe and explain their experiences of internationalisation. My role was to listen carefully to their accounts and to elicit further information if necessary. Recordings were made so that I could go back over the respondents' statements. Furthermore, the interviews were transcribed into text which allowed me to attempt to interpret the statements from a later, iterative and reflective standpoint. The overall aim was to understand the emerging themes concerning the phenomena by listening to my respondents, by re-reading the transcripts and by interpreting these written narratives.

5.3 Research Design

The choice of a qualitative research design was not only driven by my philosophical outlook discussed above. Quantitative and qualitative methods correspond to very particular world viewpoints. As such, these corresponding research designs must be coherent with the corresponding methods. However, "qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be viewed as polar opposites or dichotomies" (Creswell 2009 p. 3). Indeed, Creswell (2009) argues for mixed methods as a third type of research approach.

Quantitative methods are traditionally adopted by researchers using a positivist approach to their studies. Positivism is based on the assumption that objective knowledge or facts can be obtained through "direct experience or observation" and that it "separates facts from values" (Robson 2011 p. 21), especially the subjectivity of the researcher, and therefore claims to be 'value-free'. Science is based on quantitative data that are gained through the application of strict rules and procedures. Since scientific propositions are based on facts, hypotheses can be tested against these facts. The aim of science is to develop laws that have universal applications

that explain causal relations. The positivist approach has been particularly successful in explaining natural phenomena and some researchers believe that it is possible to transfer the same natural science methods to human or social science.

In contrast to positivist approaches, researchers who adopt a constructivist world view seek to understand reality through multiple participant meanings (Cresswell 2009 p. 6) and aim to generate, rather than verify, theory. Qualitative methods are used to understand “the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Cresswell 2009, p. 4). Researchers in international business, for example, have been exhorted to make more use of qualitative methods which “can once again play a critical role to interpret and understand the complex plurality of contexts – institutional, cultural, organizational and so on, brought about by globalization” (Birkinshaw et al. 2011 p. 574). These authors go on to say (ibid. p. 575) that “qualitative research is particularly suited to ‘unpacking’ phenomena of interest because it encompasses a diverse set of ‘interpretive techniques’ that can provide a deeper and richer understanding of the issues under investigation (Van Maanen 1979 p. 520)”. For these reasons my research is based on qualitative methods since these seem the most appropriate to address my research problematic.

I have taken a phenomenological approach in order to collect the necessary data in terms of the respondents’ lived experience. Tensions clearly emerge from taking a phenomenological approach. Since this approach is based on individuals’ experience and perception of events, the researcher has to interpret the data findings (Holstein and Gubrium 1994 p. 264). In order to try to understand the meaning of what is going on as understood by the informants, a qualitative approach appeared as appropriate. The key objective is to understand the views, the meanings and the experiences of the respondents. However, descriptions of phenomena “are at best ‘here and now’ accounts that represent a ‘photographic slice of life’ of a dynamic process that, in the next instant, might represent a very different aspect” (Lincoln and Guba 1985 p. 155). Accordingly, the generalisability of my findings may be limited because they are linked to a very specific context, one French *Grande Ecole de Management*, and to a specific time period, and to the way in which my respondents describe their experience. The generalisability is discussed further under sampling strategy below. Nevertheless, I have tried to collect a wide range of views, understandings and perceptions. Furthermore, because I had relatively easy access to most of my informants, I was able to organise follow-up interviews in certain cases and go deeper as I re-visited my data. In this way, I was able to clarify points which only became clear

during the analysis of the data. The possibility of revisiting issues meant that aspects that only became significant after the interviews could be discussed and expanded.

By using appropriate strategies in the analysis, such as triangulation, extreme cases, negative evidence and getting feedback from informants (Miles and Huberman 1994 p. 266 – 276), I was able to counterbalance what may be considered some of the weaknesses of a phenomenological approach. Here, as elsewhere, there are tradeoffs and in addition to using analytical tactics to refine my findings, I have adopted critical reflection in the approach to data analysis.

5.4 Personal Role and Insider Researcher Status

An important question affecting the research design of this study has been my personal and professional role as insider researcher. I was motivated to undertake this research because of my passionate interest in the topic itself and because I have spent a substantial part of my professional life managing and promoting several aspects of the internationalisation strategy at my school. Van Manen (1990) argues that the research method that is adopted should maintain “certain harmony with the deep interest that makes one an educator (a parent or teacher) in the first place” (p. 2). My career has always been in teaching and in education. Strauss and Corbin (1990 pp. 35-36) have argued the following:

“Choosing a research problem through the professional or personal experience route may seem more hazardous than through the suggested or literature routes. This is not necessarily true. The touchstone of your own experience may be more valuable an indicator for you as a potentially successful research endeavour”.

Indeed, what is important is to “recognize and take account of the personal goals that drive and influence your research” (Moustakas 1994 p. 19). Moustakas, referring to Marshall and Rossman (1995 pp. 25-30) and Strauss and Corbin (1990 pp. 42-43), points out how the personal connections to the research study can provide “a valuable source of insight, theory, and data about the phenomena you are studying” (1994 p. 19).

An insider researcher can be defined as somebody who has an extensive knowledge of “the community and its members” (Hellawell 2006 p. 483). In this context “the word ‘community’ has wider implications than a single organisation” (Drake with Heath 2011). Having worked in the French business school community for 30 years, my personal experience and knowledge are therefore valuable components of my research design. This is in contrast to the traditional viewpoint that considers that the researcher’s experiential knowledge presents a bias and

should be eliminated (Moustakas 1994 p. 37). Moustakas argues that “the researcher is the instrument of the research” (pp. 37-38). The inclusion of the researcher’s identity and experience has now gained much wider acceptance (Berg and Smith 1988; Jansen and Peshkin 1992; Denzin and Lincoln 2005). Drake and Heath (2011) argue that the insider researcher needs to manage tensions inherent in producing new knowledge by “combining understandings from professional practice, higher education practice and the researcher’s individual reflexive project” (p. 2). As a result, the insider researcher also needs to adopt “a fluid and flexible stance with respect to each domain” (p. 2), and also with respect to the research methodologies which Drake and Heath refer to as “grounded methodologies” (p. 33). There is a growing recognition in recent literature on insider and work-based research that the researcher has “an opportunity to move away from traditional social science approaches and use rigour in research in a more adaptive and appropriate way” (Costley, Elliott and Gibbs 2010).

In my research I have been able to use my own experience as a context for the study. But more importantly, embarking on this as a study has created a different viewpoint. Rather than being only a participant, my role has shifted to a participant observer. This new position has forced me to look differently at the issues, as a research problem rather than the everyday events of my professional activities. It has caused me to stop and check my assumptions, to step outside the everyday world and examine how others might interpret it. Consequently I have been able to avoid using my experiences as an ‘end’ and deploy them as a ‘means’. Indeed as I have pointed out, my own views, perception and understanding of the processes have now changed considerably.

Qualitative researchers have had to deal with three main issues since the emergence of this type of research at the beginning of the 20th century. Firstly, an assumption that observers can give an objective report on their own observations of the social world and the experience of their informants. Secondly, an assumption that the individual subjects who are present in the world can give a report on their own observations. Thirdly, an assumption that the researcher can produce an analysis of an event by blending the researcher’s and the informants’ observations through interviews, case studies and life stories. However, as Denzin and Lincoln (2005) point out: “There are no objective observations, only observations socially situated in the worlds of – and between – the observer and the observed” (p. 21). “Any view is a view *from some perspective*, and therefore is shaped by the location (social and theoretical) and ‘lens’ of the observer” (Moustakis 1994 p. 39). Accordingly the critiques described earlier, may also hold true even for positivistic approaches (Anderson and Starnawska 2008).

It is clear that I am not an outside researcher. In fact, in some ways I am much more of an observer-participant than a participant-observer (Tedlock 1991; Soulé 2007). I have been deeply involved in the institution for nearly 30 years, especially in implementing internationalisation. In this study, my role as insider researcher was both clear and at the same time ambiguous. I was clearly recognised as a key player in the school, but as a researcher, I adopted a more ambiguous and unfamiliar role. Drake and Heath (2011) discuss the idea of “inhabiting the hyphen” (p. 25) which refers to managing tensions between various roles or ‘hyphens’ such as participant-observer or insider-outsider. The insider researcher is constantly pulled along a continuum in the role of insider and at the same time as an outsider trying to think critically about his or her observations. The insider researcher therefore needs to acknowledge and manage this insider-outsider tension through reflexivity (Humphrey 2007).

There are advantages and disadvantages to my position as insider researcher. The advantages include intimate knowledge about the organisation, its history, its functioning and the people who work there (Hockey 1995) and a good working knowledge of the current theoretical concepts in the area I am researching. Being an informed insider researcher facilitated the interviewing process and allowed for effective discussions that went deeper into the topic and led to collaborative research. Given my background in languages and business, and my international experience, I was able to adopt a multidisciplinary approach to my research questions and to use my investigative skills in interviewing. Finally, I had access to numerous colleagues within the wider network of French GEMs.

However, there are also disadvantages linked to my insider researcher status. Informants may not have given entirely honest answers to my questions because of my role within the school. They may have had difficulty in distinguishing between me as the person deeply involved in internationalisation and me the researcher. I did make a conscious effort to bracket my own knowledge and experience, but nevertheless my relationships with my informants may have been strained. My own self-generated data may have interfered with my ability to be more objective in interviewing my informants and, more importantly, in analysing their comments. My sampling strategy could have suffered if I had chosen to interview like-minded colleagues. However, I did deliberately include several colleagues who I knew to have differing views on internationalisation. Finally, I have had to pay particular attention to the ethical aspects of my research, in particular “the power relations as well as the social relations between colleagues” (Drake with Heath 2011, p.55). These relations are complex at the best of times, but they become even more complex in conducting confidential interviews.

In order to try to counteract these disadvantages, I constantly reminded myself of biases that I was bringing to the project. In my interviewing, I made sure that I listened carefully and added questions in order to enable my informants to pursue the topics further as and when they thought fit. I learnt from the preliminary interviewing phase not to interrupt the informants unnecessarily. I made a conscious effort to interview negative informants to reduce any bias and increase the reliability of my findings. Above all, I respected the confidentiality of the interviews that I conducted. I also adopted a critical reflection approach in my data analysis strategies (see below). Some colleagues gave me informal feedback as I progressed through my research. Overall, I have attempted to achieve 'credibility' rather than 'internal validity' (Gill and Johnson 2010 p. 228) in my approach to my research. In summary, it should be stated that there is always a trade-off in being an insider researcher. On balance, I believe that I was able to achieve more in this role since I integrated the strategies discussed above into my research approach and I tried to adopt a 'phenomenological attitude' as a detached observer (Sokolowski 2000).

5.5 Data Collection and Sampling Strategies

The case study approach would seem to offer the most appropriate method for collecting data using a phenomenological approach since the aim is to help explain the internationalisation phenomenon. Yin (2009 p. 8) identifies the case study method as particularly suitable to answer "how" questions which mirrors my research objective. A case study can be defined as an empirical, in-depth investigation into particular phenomena. In particular, it is suited to research that aims to understand how an organisation has evolved over time. This corresponds to my research objective. A case study also deals with real life situations which are fairly bounded within a particular context (Yin 2009 p. 18). Furthermore, this research corresponds to a case study since it "relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion" (ibid. p. 18).

I adopted a purposive sampling strategy. Robson (2011) argues that "The principle of selection in purposive sampling is the researcher's judgment as to the topicality or interest" (p. 275). This choice of sampling strategy has been determined by the basic unit of analysis for my case study. I am trying to understand how internationalisation happened at ESC Clermont. I included a broad group of respondents with a variety of backgrounds and profiles. The aim with this purposive sampling was to gain insights "about the phenomenon, not empirical generalisation from a sample to a population" (Patton 2002, p.40). Those respondents with a long experience in the

institution were able to provide stories and narratives to enrich the chronological account and provide insight into the processes they experienced.

The choice of respondents was also made for several other reasons. Firstly, I have worked in the school for nearly 30 years, holding various posts of responsibility. Secondly, as a member of the institution I have had direct access to those respondents still employed at the school and I have been able to interview previous colleagues who have either retired or resigned. This has meant an efficient use of time in collecting the interview data. Moreover, being bilingual English-French, I was able to conduct interviews in both languages. Thirdly, I have had continuing access to respondents for any necessary follow-up interviews. Finally the school shares a number of dimensions with a group of similar schools in France (Blanchard 2009), defined in terms of 'organisational field' (DiMaggio and Powell 1983) and 'field' according to Bourdieu (1979). I identified three other schools in this group as part of a larger family of schools called *Grandes Ecoles de Management* (GEMs). These schools are part of the GEM 'family' and they were selected because they offered the possibility of comparing the different case studies in terms of internationalisation, using rival and contrasting explanations (Yin 2009).

To summarise, in my purposive sampling selection I based my choice on one school that I knew very well and where I had considerable access to key players who I considered were able to contribute to my research efforts. I chose a number of individuals as key informants for the interviews that represented the main method for data collection. The sampling strategy here was based on purposefully selected informants (Creswell 2009, p. 178). These informants were therefore not representative of a population, but they were important for my research as key informants about the institutions and/or in the internationalisation implementation. As Smith, Flowers and Larking (2009) argue when discussing this type of sampling: "Participants are selected on the basis that they can grant us access to a particular perspective on the phenomena under study. That is, they 'represent' a perspective, rather than a population" (p. 49). The data gathered helped me to generalize conceptually from the sample to compare and possibly extend the findings to a broader theory. By contrast, in a quantitative approach, statistical sampling takes a sample of a population and aims to generalize the findings to the wider population as a whole (Yin 2009 p. 38). I have also sought out informants who have shown themselves to be somewhat hostile to, or outwardly less involved in, the internationalisation process. These informants, as purposeful 'negative cases' have helped to counteract some of the bias and possible danger of soliciting only those informants with a positive attitude to internationalisation.

I used the same sampling strategy to select three schools as comparative cases (Yin 2009). These schools are members of the GEM 'family' and demonstrate similarities to the main case study, ESC Clermont, in terms of their organisational structure and their roles within the *Grandes Ecoles de Management* system. They were deliberately selected as part of the research design to provide confirmation or contrary data to compare with the data collected at ESC Clermont. The aim was to strengthen the reliability or credibility of my findings by seeking to confirm or refute the data and findings from the main case study. Furthermore, in selecting this sample I sought out negative cases where internationalisation seemed to have been implemented by different means. The respondents from the comparative cases gave their understanding of how internationalisation had happened in their respective schools. Their responses provided additional triangulation and helped to develop some theoretical propositions through analytical induction. By adopting a strategy involving multiple cases, I believe I have strengthened the chain of evidence that emerges from multiple sources (Yin 2009 p. 122). Indeed, using comparative cases is part of the "iterative nature of explanation building" (ibid. p. 143).

Given the phenomenological philosophy underpinning my methodology, I used one main type of data: extended interviews which were written up and transcribed verbatim. These data were supplemented with documentary evidence, including internal and external reports/audits, some of which are not publically available. I adopted an iterative approach to collecting and analysing the data (Eisenhardt 1989; Miles and Huberman 1994; Strauss and Corbin 1998). This approach also meant that I remained open to discovering new issues underlying the object of my research.

Cope (2005) has emphasised the need to 'bracket' the researcher's own experience in the 'phenomenological interview'. According to Cope, researchers who use interviews within a phenomenological approach need to stand back and not let their own knowledge about the subject interfere in the conversations with the respondents. This issue is clearly important in my role as insider. Moustakas (1994) also uses the term "phenomenological interview". He understands this as using "informal, interactive processes andopen-ended comments and questions" (p. 114). Moreover, he states that the "interviewer is responsible for creating a climate in which the research participant will feel comfortable and will respond honestly and comprehensively" (p. 114). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) define the qualitative research interview as an attempt "to understand the world from the subjects' points of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations" (p. 1).

The number of interviewees was not determined in advance of the data collection, especially since I adopted a flexible design for the study. Robson (2011, p. 154) points out that the “ ‘How big a sample’ question disappears” when the methodology comprises an iterative approach and the real issue is a matter of saturation. Patton (2002 p. 244) claims that “There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry”. Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006, p. 59) found that “saturation occurred within the first twelve interviews, although basic elements for metathemes were present as early as six interviews”. Given that I adopted a qualitative approach to the data collection and analysis, I was more concerned with reaching data saturation (Strauss and Corbin 1998), rather than aiming at a numerical sample size as in quantitative studies. Indeed, after interviewing 21 colleagues at ESC Clermont, I realized that no significant new themes were emerging from the data. Additionally, I conducted nine interviews with colleagues from the three comparative schools. In total, therefore, I conducted 30 interviews with respondents that I felt could contribute to answering my research questions. Full details on all the interviews are given in Appendix 1. The information includes information about the school where the interviewees worked, the date of the interview, their gender, the number of years working at the school, whether they were alumni or not, the posts held, the interview language, the position held at the time of the interview and the nationality or nationalities.

5.6 Preliminary Interviews

The purposive sampling strategy described above was applied when selecting informants for the preliminary interviews. Seven informants were selected because of their roles as key players in the internationalisation process at ESC Clermont and at one of the schools chosen as a comparative case. The main aim in the preliminary interviews was to understand the chronology of the internationalisation process at the school. Therefore, I included respondents with long experience in this preliminary group. I interviewed the two director generals who managed the school from 1979 to 2000. The third director general who managed the school from 2001 to 2010 was interviewed later. Two other respondents were academic directors covering the period 1990 to 2009. The language professor has been at the school for over 30 years and held the post of head of department for over a decade. He has always been closely involved in international activities throughout the period of 30 years. One non-faculty member was included because he had been closely involved in internationalisation in the early days.

The first of the seven preliminary interviewees was from one of the comparative schools. He was chosen because of his experience in a similar school in the GEM system where he was intimately involved in language teaching and internationalisation for nearly 40 years. His perception helped to understand better the scope of my research and to provide a comparative story as a backcloth to the stories and emerging themes from the ESC Clermont informants. The very last interview in my data collection, interview number 30, was with the same respondent. By interviewing him again at the very end of my interviewing I was able to be more focused in my questions and to allow him to respond to some of the emerging themes from my other interviews. His interview data were included in the analysis of the comparative cases.

The preliminary interviews each lasted between 90 and 120 minutes. Detailed transcripts were made and an initial analysis identified common emerging themes. I carefully re-read the initial interview transcripts several times before continuing with further interviews. At the same time, I wrote more systematic comments and memos on the contents. The aim was to try and understand the replies to my questions at two levels. Firstly, the replies provided certain information about each respondent's perception of the internationalisation processes. Secondly, I needed to reflect critically on the answers in the context of my own relationship to the informants and my own perception of their standpoints.

In these preliminary interviews I adopted an interviewing approach which can be described as fairly open and somewhere between semi- and non-structured. This style was in line with the methodological choice I had made in adopting a phenomenological approach. This kind of interview seeks to obtain "descriptions of the interviewees' lived world with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena" (Kvale and Brinkman 2009 p.327).

These initial interviews enabled me to gather a wide range of perceptions and experiences from key participants in the internationalisation process over the past 40 years. They also indicated some important themes. I was therefore able to progressively concentrate more on these emergent themes in subsequent interviews. Two of the preliminary interview respondents gave written feedback to their interview transcripts and addressed the questions to which I had asked them to provide further details. These informants confirmed the facts and events as their understanding of the internationalisation processes. In this way, I involved the interviewees in the research process (Gubrium and Holstein 2003).

In analysing the interviews conducted in the preliminary stage the aim was to identify patterns and themes in the informants' answers. I decided to use the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo, to help in organising the emerging themes. This is discussed further below. I also used the preliminary interviews to understand better my own interviewing technique. I realised that I needed to listen more and avoid questions which led my informants towards certain interpretations. The preliminary interviews enabled me to review and refine my approach to questioning and to eliciting answers that helped me to understand their experience of the internationalisation processes. These interview experiences, therefore, helped me to improve my interviewing techniques which have been recognised as an important 'craft' of qualitative research interviewing (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009).

As a final note, I should point out that I took particular care in organising the interviews. I allowed the interviewees considerable flexibility in choosing the date and time. Where possible interviews took place at the end of a work week or during holiday time. This allowed respondents to be more relaxed and gave them more time to participate fully in the activity. Where possible, the interviews took place in 'neutral territory', that is to say, in a teaching room rather than in my office or in the respondent's office. This was not always feasible, especially with the retired colleagues or those I interviewed in other cities. For all the interviews, I made sure that I was not sitting opposite my respondent, but rather at an angle. In this way, I wanted to reinforce the idea that we were conducting a discussion between colleagues in a spirit of co-construction. Above all, I wanted to avoid any suggestion of a formal interview or interrogation.

5.7 Interview transcripts

At the beginning of each interview, respondents were asked if they objected to the interview being recorded. Permission to record was therefore obtained orally. Interviewees were then informed that a transcript would be made of the interview. They were also told that they would have an opportunity to react and make comments on the transcript. Out of the total of 30 interviews, one interviewee at one of the comparative cases reacted negatively when he received the transcript of his interview. He had agreed to the recording of the interview, but he had not been informed that a transcript would be made and he demanded that a written request should be made for any quotes from the transcripts to be used in any published document. Consequently, I decided not to use any quotes from his interview data in my thesis.

Transcripts were made of all the interviews. These transcripts were completed by the same research assistant for all the interviews. The disadvantage of not completing the transcriptions myself was the risk of not getting into the real spirit of the interviews and of missing some of the more subtle details. Furthermore, it has been pointed out that “researchers who transcribe their own interviews will learn much about their own interviewing style...and will already have started the analysis of meaning of what was said” (Kvale and Brinkman 2009 p. 180). However, time constraints were an important issue since I was conducting my research on a part-time basis and meeting the obligations of my full-time professional activities. Sub-contracting the transcriptions was therefore a trade-off. It gained precious time that I was able to devote to re-reading and examining the narrative transcripts several times. Since the same research assistant transcribed all the interviews there was a consistent approach to the transcribing.

The decision was made to transcribe all statements verbatim and to include all hesitations and pauses. This added some authenticity to the data. However, no particular transcription code or form was used since this depends on “the intended use of the transcript” (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009 p. 181). My aim was to use the transcripts to identify the emerging categories and themes corresponding to the topics touched upon by the respondents so that a thematic analysis could be made (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach and Zilber 1998).

The narrative transcriptions were first checked for any mistakes in the form. I listened to the original recordings and made corrections to the text in Word format. At the preliminary stage, I then printed out the transcripts and re-read them using a rough coding system to identify emerging categories that bore relevance to my research questions. These categories were copied onto small cards and short quotes were added from the different interviewees. The main categories at this stage of the research centred on the emerging themes presented in the next section. At a later stage, the Word documents were imported into the qualitative software NVivo and coded using the initial categories identified at this preliminary stage.

Following an initial analysis of the six preliminary transcripts with respondents from ESC Clermont, I began to interview a wider circle of respondents. This included faculty members who had been in the school a considerable time, but who were also less involved in international activities. One held the post of program director. One group included language faculty who had become deeply involved in the operational side of international activities over the past decade. Another group concerned faculty who had joined the school more recently and therefore brought different perspectives through their experiences. Three respondents contributed their

perceptions as faculty members from the United States and the United Kingdom. One American faculty member had become dean of faculty after six years at the school and the other was on a one year sabbatical, but knew the school well as he had already spent one year as a doctoral student and had returned regularly on an annual basis to teach on the school's International Week program. The third colleague, from the UK, had been recruited recently. Finally, the third director general was interviewed a few months before he resigned from his post. In this way, I was able to complete interviews with the three director generals who had managed the school over a period of more than 30 years.

Initial analysis of the data led to the identification of certain recurring themes that emerged. These themes centred on strategic orientation, organisation, management, motivation and general impediments to internationalisation. The director generals, as could be expected, placed more importance on strategic issues such as positioning the school within the competitive environment. A recurring pattern in the responses given by the faculty members concerned workloads, language skills and opportunities for involvement in international activities. Some faculty members felt they were clearly excluded from these activities. They explained this as a consequence of the way in which international activities were managed and the degree to which they felt solicited by the top management. Another theme that emerged was the way in which respondents felt they were personally motivated or engaged in the internationalisation. As these pattern and themes were gradually identified through repeated re-reading of the interview transcripts, I decided to use a more structured approach to the interviewing. In this way, I was able to ask more directed questions to help me to understand to what extent respondents thought the emerging themes were important to them. The protocol questions are included in Appendix 2. However, it should be noted that these questions were not asked systematically in the order shown. I used them to guide the interview. The aim was to attempt to explore in more detail some of the emerging theory that I was able to identify as I studied the transcripts.

In general, colleagues were very happy to be interviewed. It was an opportunity to talk about themselves and their work, in addition to answering my questions and discussing their perceptions of internationalisation. Indeed, at times it was challenging for me as an insider researcher to conduct these interviews. As Costley, Elliott and Gibbs (2010) have pointed out: "...interviews with colleagues (participants) can act as a kind of 'therapy', whilst colleagues may also take the opportunity to air a grievance" (p. 34). I had to use my professional tact in allowing my respondents to air their views and complaints about the general management of the school and then bring them back to the topic under discussion.

5.8 Documentary evidence

The documentary evidence was used as research data in addition to the interviews and transcriptions. This documentary evidence included several audits which were conducted by outside consultants or agencies over the past 20 years. Some of these audits were commissioned as part of a review of the organisational development of the school, the financial management or the strategic direction. Others concerned reports by national or international accreditation agencies which give additional external viewpoints on the school's management and development. These documents provided some triangulation to the interview data. An example of triangulation is demonstrated in the use of the report that was written by the second general director when he left office in 2000. In this report, he summarised his strategic actions and achievements during his period as general director. This included various innovations and developments in the field of internationalisation. I was able to use this report after I had interviewed him nearly ten years later as part of my research. In this way, factual information either present or missing in the interview transcript was corroborated or completed through the activity report. A summary of the documentary evidence is included in Appendix 3.

Another example of triangulation is shown through two publications concerning two GEMs. The first presents a history of higher education in the Auvergne region from 1884 to 2004 (Fanget 2004). The second concerns an historical account of one of the comparative schools (Chapuis 2000) on the occasion of the school's 100th anniversary. These publications were used to confirm information provided by respondents from both schools, especially those who had been present in the school for over 30 years. These books also provided additional information contextualising the interview data.

5.9 Self-generated Data

As part of the preparation for the preparatory interviews, I wrote my personal chronology of internationalisation at ESC Clermont with the aim of objectifying my recollections of the 'story'. A resulting risk was that this account would be 'the' explanation of the phenomenon I was researching. At the same time, however, this exercise also enabled me to 'bracket' my perception of the events. Given my knowledge of current theoretical approaches to internationalisation, writing this chronology involved comparing current constructs about internationalisation with the processes as I perceived them. The challenge was to bracket not

only my chronology, but also my theoretical frameworks. Van Manen (1990) questions how the researcher can best suspend or bracket his or her knowledge about the phenomenon being studied. He argues that:

“it is better to make explicit our understandings, beliefs, biases, assumptions, presuppositions, and theories. We try to come to terms with our assumptions, not in order to forget them again, but rather to hold them deliberately at bay and even to turn this knowledge against itself, as it were, thereby exposing its shallow and concealing nature” (p. 47).

My ‘history’ of events as seen by me as the insider researcher served several additional purposes. It forced me to become aware of my status and my preconceptions. My aim was to challenge these preconceptions through the data collection rather than merely accept them as the unquestioned version of the historical evolution of internationalisation at the school. This self-generated history also served as the starting point to the data analysis section. I was able to track the chronological development of the major stages in the school’s history by comparing my version with the data that emerged from the interview transcripts. The self-generated data served as a basis for section 4.5. which presents a narrative background to ESC Clermont’s historical development in terms of internationalisation.

This self-generated material can be viewed in terms of a *vignette*. Miles and Huberman (1994) describe a *vignette* as a “focused description of a series of events taken to be representative, typical, or emblematic in the case you are doing” (p. 81). Erickson (1986) also mentions *vignettes* and describes them as a “vivid portrayal of an event of everyday life, in which sights and sounds of what was being said and done are described in the natural sequence of their occurrence in real time” (pp. 149-150).

5.10 Data Handling and Analysis Strategies

Since I chose to adopt a phenomenological approach to my research, I analysed my interview data, the transcripts, by trying to identify significant meaning held by the individual informants. The aim was to develop some form of ‘essence’ description (Moustakis 1994). This approach was essentially interpretive. However, I was also aware that such an essence did not necessarily exist, or at least did not exist as an essence. Hence identifying themes in the accounts provided an alternative account for theorising. As Miles and Huberman (1994) state:

“Phenomenologists....assume that through continued reading of the source material and through vigilance over one’s presuppositions, one can reach the *Lebenswelt* of the informant, capturing the essence of an account” (p. 8).

In taking this iterative approach to my data, I began by “playing” with the data (Yin 2009, p. 129). This involved adopting some of the techniques suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) such as using different ways of displaying the data with matrices of categories or themes, flowcharts and graphics. I began to look for patterns in the transcripts, using marginal remarks and memoing (Miles and Huberman 1994) in order to stand back from the data and reflect on the material. This process led to the collection of emerging themes or dimensions of internationalisation. As I continued to read and re-read the interview transcripts I modified these initial themes.

I used the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo, for several reasons. First, this software helped me to organise and store my data in an effective way. Second, the interview transcripts were saved in the software and then coded. My approach to coding was also iterative since I was adding and modifying themes as I coded the data. However, as I worked through the transcripts and moved back and forth from the original recordings, the transcripts and the emerging themes, my NVivo was no longer helping me to make progress. NVivo was useful at the descriptive stage when I was basically identifying patterns. In the next stage, I was taking an analytical approach to the data and I realised that it was more useful to build up a chronological account of the way in which the themes developed over time. I therefore constructed a time framework based on my self-generated data and linked this to the emerging themes. This approach is described in more detail in Chapter 6 (section 6.5).

5.11 Ethical Issues

Ethical issues arise at each stage of the research process from the initial definition of the research problem and purpose, through data collection, analysis and interpretation to the final report (Creswell 2009, pp. 87-92). The research problem should offer some value to the participants (Punch 2005). In carrying out their research, researchers should be clear about the purpose of their study and the use that will be made of the data collected. In summary, researchers must respect and protect the participants and act in an honest fashion in all aspects of the research process.

My research meets several of the ethical criteria enumerated above. The subject of my research is of interest to the decision makers at my workplace. I believe that there is intrinsic worth in

using my professional knowledge and experience in order to better understand how the school has internationalised its activities. In this way, my research project is justified in terms of my aims and objectives, and the potential beneficial effects for my employer and my own development (Costley, Elliott and Gibbs 2010).

As an insider researcher I have been particularly careful in acting in an ethical way when conducting my research. This has not always been easy. As Kelly (1989) has pointed out the insider researcher has to take a stand that “lies uncomfortably between that of the internal evaluator whose main loyalty is to colleagues and the organisation and the external researcher for whom informal comments and small incidents may provide the most revealing data” (p. 63). I had to pay particular attention to making sure that my colleagues and respondents did not feel betrayed by any abuse of insider information or power (Drake and Heath 2011). During my research, I had to juggle between being a colleague, a hierarchically superior colleague, a friend and a researcher. The literature on insider research has identified the potential dangers for the research when playing such multiple roles (Stacey 1988; Gorman 2007).

At the outset, I obtained permission from my institution to carry out interviews with current and former colleagues. This was particularly important since two of my informants were previous director generals at the school. I adopted the same approach when interviewing at other schools. Before beginning any interviews, I asked my informants if they were willing to participate in my research by answering questions and sharing their perceptions about internationalisation. I also asked them for permission to record the interview and produce a written transcript. At the beginning of each interview, I always began the discussions by confirming their permission to record and my promise to share the interview transcripts with them for additional comments or corrections. I clearly stated the purpose of my research and the objectives of my doctoral studies. As soon as the transcript was completed, I checked for any errors by listening to the recording and by re-reading the text. I then sent an electronic copy of the transcript by email and invited each participant to comment on the form and contents of the transcript. In particular, I asked them to clarify any points which they felt had not been expressed as they had intended. In some cases, I also asked for supplementary written comments on certain themes that I had identified. I informed all respondents that the interviews and the written transcriptions of our discussions remained confidential. In my thesis I have maintained anonymity for all interview informants. Finally, I involved critical colleagues in reading parts of my draft thesis at various stages to challenge the accuracy of my analysis.

5.12 Study Limitations

Qualitative research methods provide advantages and disadvantages. Firstly, qualitative approaches allow the researcher to focus on understanding and on trying to explain complex phenomena using different perceptions from multiple viewpoints. Compared to quantitative methods such as surveys, for instance, a qualitative approach method helps to deal with complexity and leads to a 'thick description' of phenomena (Geertz 1973). Furthermore, in qualitative methods theories or conceptual explanations emerge from a careful data analysis.

A qualitative approach can be criticised as being less rigorous and more biased because of the researcher's specific data collection strategies. Nonetheless, it can also be argued that qualitative research forces the researcher to adopt a more rigorous, or even scientific, approach in demonstrating transparency in explaining and justifying the way in which data have been collected, processed and analysed.

In this study, I adopted a purposeful sampling strategy in my data collection by identifying those respondents that were likely to contribute usefully to helping me to answer my research questions. During the interviewing, I listened carefully to my respondents and tried to bracket my own assumptions and knowledge about the issues being discussed. The audio interviews were carefully transcribed to give an honest written 'narrative' of the discussions, including all hesitations and pauses. This research provides a detailed 'audit trail', faithfully reproducing excerpts from the transcripts to support my narrative analysis and my interpretations as shown in the following chapters. As an insider researcher I adopted a reflexive and critical approach in analysing the data and interpreting the themes and patterns that emerged.

A weakness of this research could be the fact that I used one main case study. Indeed, I have interpreted the perspective of a specific population (ESC Clermont faculty) and in a particular context (ESC Clermont as part of the *Grandes Ecoles de Management* system). However, I include a comparative analysis of three other schools in the GEM 'family'. The research has used phenomenological methods which can be seen as a strength. Smith, Flowers and Larking (2009) argue that "IPA (Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis) utilizes small, purposely-selected and carefully-situated samples, and may often make very effective use of single case analyses" (p.29).

Despite these disadvantages linked to a qualitative method, certain data collection and analysis techniques can be applied to overcome some of the so-called shortcomings. The relative strengths and weaknesses of these data collection strategies are summarised by Yin (2009 p. 102). For documentary evidence, he argues that the main strengths are the stability and broad coverage of the information; the exactitude of the factual information. Yin also argues that interviews and participant-observation can be targeted and insightful in order to provide perceived causal inferences and explanations. For Yin, all sources of evidence run the risk of bias in the selection of data, and in the way questions and information can be manipulated. The researcher must be open and transparent in admitting these possible weaknesses and must accept a trade-off with the advantages and strengths of using these data sources. Indeed, all methods and all research designs incur some sort of trade off (Anderson et al. 2009). I have attempted to demonstrate and justify the strength of my research by the depth of the work.

5.13 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the background to my research questions, and how and why I have adopted a phenomenological approach to my methodology. Furthermore, I have discussed some of the issues concerning my role as insider researcher and how I confronted these issues in carrying out my research. I have explained the reasons for adopting the methods used in carrying out my data collection. I have also included some initial reflections on the interview transcripts and some ethical considerations impacting my research. Finally I have discussed some of the study limitations. In the next chapter I present a narrative commentary on the interview transcripts and the main themes that have emerged from the data.

CHAPTER SIX

INITIAL NARRATIVE ANALYSIS

Overview

- 6.1 Introduction**
- 6.2 Emerging Themes from Preliminary Interviews**
- 6.3 Main Thematic Areas**
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- 6.5 Chronology**
- 6.6 Main Themes**
 - 6.6.1 Internationalisation Drivers**
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 - 6.6.4 Internationalisation Outcomes**
- 6.7 Similarities with Comparative Cases**
- 6.8 Summary**

In this chapter I present an initial narrative analysis of my data. Section 6.2 examines the themes that emerged from the preliminary interview data. Direct quotes from the interviews are used to illustrate these themes. Initial coding of the preliminary data helped to focus on some significant themes that emerged from subsequent interview data. Finally, these themes are compared with data from the comparative cases.

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I discussed my research methodology and the methods adopted to collect data. In this chapter I conduct an initial narrative analysis of the data collected. An analysis is provided of the main categories and themes that emerged from the analysis of the interview transcripts. This narrative includes short quotes from the transcripts and these are complemented with extracts from the documentary sources that were examined to address the research questions.

The first part of this narrative analysis examines the transcripts for the six preliminary interviews and the emerging themes. Following this initial analysis, I discuss the reasons and justification for concentrating on certain dominant themes that emerged from the data. I also examine how the nature of these dimensions of internationalisation changed over time. In the second part of the chapter the remaining interview transcripts are analysed. Finally, data are presented from comparative cases where certain themes emerged that were similar to the ESC Clermont data. Tentative conclusions are presented in the final section.

6.2 Emerging Themes from Preliminary Interviews

The following themes emerged during the initial analysis of the six preliminary interviews conducted with respondents from ESC Clermont.

- Strategy: drivers for internationalisation; competitive environment; accreditation.
- Organisation: management style and people.
- Faculty: personal involvement; profiles; constraints; visitors; languages.
- Students: international experience; exchanges.
- Pedagogy and curriculum.
- Professionalisation and international development: European programmes; networking.

The emerging themes corresponded to the main preoccupations of respondents involved in the preliminary interviews. These respondents had all been at the school for more than 20 years, except for Charlie. Four of them (Thomas, Oliver, Harry and Jack) were alumni and as a result very attached and involved in the school. They had all held managerial posts in the school. Jack and Charlie had been the two director generals from 1979 to 2000. The main issues in the interview discussions therefore revolved around the school's development, especially the strategy and the students. Faculty issues were also discussed but mainly concerning the reasons why they were less involved in internationalisation. Additional issues emerged in later interviews which included a wider range of faculty members from junior to senior faculty, with or without academic or administrative responsibilities.

In the following sections I deal with the six themes that emerged from the preliminary interviews. All quotes from the transcript data are reproduced in boxes. All names have been changed to ensure a certain anonymity. Each quote begins with the pseudonym of the

respondent and a page number. This page number refers to the corresponding page in the interview transcripts. In the case of Daniel, two interviews were conducted. In line with phenomenological approaches, all the transcripts are available for consultation. Interviews held in English are reproduced verbatim and the transcript extracts are followed by the abbreviation **ENG**. Interviews in French have been translated into English by the author and the transcript extracts are followed by the abbreviation **FR**. Information in brackets has been added by the author to facilitate understanding by providing some of the context of the discussion. Some excerpts have been used a second time at later stages in Chapters 6 and/or Chapter 7. This repetition of transcript excerpts has been limited to a minimum and has only been used to facilitate understanding of the arguments being presented. Any quote that is used a second time is noted with the sign: **R****.

Strategy: drivers for internationalisation; competitive environment; accreditation

Strategy and vision played an important role in setting the school on an internationalisation track. The strategic aim had been to build up the school's reputation and to attract high quality students. The main focus of my research covers the last thirty years in the school's history, beginning in 1979 with the arrival of the first director, Jack, who articulated a strong vision for the school.

Jack p.3: *"..when I took over as director general of the school (in 1979) I wanted to accentuate the international aspect...for many reasons. Reasons of effectiveness of the training, because I wanted us to break away from a Franco-French culture...profit from what is good in France, but also what is good in the United States.....I wanted the school to have an international image to break out of the.....hierarchy of schools which is often artificial and based...in fact on the hierarchy of the cities".* **FR**

Respondents reported how the external environment influenced why the school internationalised and how it operationalised the strategy. References were made to the local business environment which included several multinational companies that were embracing the globalisation challenge. The school also needed to respond to this changing environment. At the same time, internationalisation offered an opportunity to gain a distinctive advantage in an increasingly competitive business school environment in France, especially in the 1980s and into the early 1990s. The school aspired to improve its national image by attracting top students through the international opportunities. These students also helped the school's international

development by achieving excellent academic results at partner universities abroad. In this way the school's international reputation was also improved.

Jack p.12: *"...there was really, in this strategy, the willingness to internationalise the school, because in our own environment, but you see, Michelin next to us is after all a company that is pretty internationalised, Limagrain, etc....."*. **FR**

Oliver p.17: *"...there was competition between, also, with the other schools, but we said that one of the specificities of Clermont could also be the richness of its international exchanges,...and from 1975, 1980 we said we needed to develop...international exchanges"*. **FR**

The data show how the school developed its international agreements through a mixture of strategic direction and opportunities. The strategy was pragmatic and often corresponded to Mintzberg's concept of "the interplay between intended and realized strategies" (1978, p. 934).

Jack p.11: *"...so, the international agreements, there was a willingness, a strategy, and opportunities..."*. **FR**

Thomas p.88: *"We have always been very pragmatic, er, action, er, the action very often preceded the reflection and the strategy. We did the strategy afterwards"*. **FR**

Respondents recognised how the school gradually lost the distinctive, competitive edge that it had established through the strategy and vision of the first director general. The second director general's comments show that he felt that the school had failed to develop its internationalisation further. It had a strong position in terms of student exchanges, but needed to develop other aspects of internationalisation.

Harry p.6: *"up until 1984-85, something like that, we had been forerunners (in internationalisation)"*. **FR**

Charlie p.28: *"...I think that, er, at Clermont at that time (1996), er, we were well advanced concerning (international) exchanges, but for the rest we were at the same point as everybody else"*. **FR**

By the beginning of the 21st century, change was coming from international drivers such as accreditation. The faculty, in particular, were wary of what they called the 'Anglo-Saxon' influence in faculty qualifications, research and pedagogy. However, respondents recognised that international had to be part of the strategic development both in terms of internal change and in terms of positioning in the national, European and wider global marketplace. They also

showed that globalisation and international forces were having an impact on the French business schools in general.

Thomas p.89: *"...globalisation is pushing us ...towards the Anglo-Saxon model...what I am finding, er, more and more is what I discovered in Kansas in 1969 (as a student)". FR*

Thomas pp.66+67: *"Some colleagues didn't understand the reasons for this action (AACSB accreditation). Er, they thought it was an Anglo-Saxon take-over of the school....but I think it was a false fear.....the accreditation standards can be adapted everywhere....on the contrary,...it has helped (us) to reflect". FR*

Thomas p.69: *"That's globalisation. We can see the model....in higher education the majority of faculty must have a doctoral qualification". FR*

Charlie p.64: *"...I really think that internationalisation has been a powerful factor in the transformation of the (French business) schools". FR*

Charlie p.16: *"...if you look at how the French business schools have internationalised in the last 15 to 20 years, it's quite remarkable (considering their budgets) and actually they proportionately they are the ones that have been the most successful in the EQUIS or AACSB accreditation processes". FR*

Thomas p.90: *"...I think that despite globalization there is still, er, it's a question of, how should I say, of willingness and of strategic choice, and policy, er, there is still a place, er, for if not a French, at least a European model". FR*

At the same time, there were those who doubted whether the school was able to meet the challenges of internationalisation. Resources were an important issue. There was also questioning about the school's ability to implement an innovative, distinctive strategy when most of the schools in the *Grandes Ecoles* system seemed to lack any distinctive advantage.

Thomas pp.90+91: *"..the school has reached the position it's at today thanks to the over-investment of its staff..mainly the academic staff....but the chambers of commerce have never given us the necessary resources to do what we wanted...compared to what one sees in other schools". FR*

Harry p.60: *"It's the environment that determines the strategy ...all the schools (of management) look alike". FR*

Charlie pp.51-53: *"...to internationalise a school that is one amongst thousands...you have to choose topics that are up-to-date...something distinctive that has a value on the international market". FR*

From the respondents' comments it is clear that the school found it increasingly difficult to implement a distinctive internationalisation strategy from the 1990s onwards.

Organisation: management style and people

Several respondents, especially those who had been at the school from the early days, commented on how the school's organisational culture, practices and size had facilitated and shaped its international development. In the 1980s there was a distinctly collegial atmosphere, a sense of excitement and a feeling of doing something new and innovative. The smaller size of the school and the relatively small number of full-time faculty meant that there was more involvement in international activities on a day to day basis. For those who had lived through the early days of internationalisation there was also a touch of nostalgia.

Harry p.8: *"because there were fewer people at the school, so proportionately there were more people who were involved (in international)...when we went to Germany we rented a mini-bus..."*. **FR**

Joshua p.2: *"It was a nice little triangle of exchange programs that was very, very, er, enriching because we got to know the faculty in each country, and we got to know the faculty in a much wider sense, we got a feeling for the school, we almost felt as if we kinda belonged to those two different schools, so it was a very, very nice, er, experience, to come, frosting on the cake so to speak, with the teaching side and then a little bit of international, er, that was a long time ago, ah"*. **ENG**

Harry p.34: *"...I liked those famous one-week stays, in September, because we went with colleagues from school, we got to know people in the evening, that, that, well, it was a breath of fresh air. Afterwards we had to return to the everyday reality, and well, it was finished"*. **FR**

Respondents also talked about the changes in management style over the decades, especially in relation to promoting and supporting internationalisation. In the early days the director general marketed the school through internationalisation. The language faculty were also closely involved and they continued to work with the second director general. Business faculty were not really directly involved in the process. Personal involvement and commitment played an important role. The third director general recognised the importance of internationalisation, but relied more on the international team to operationalise the activities.

Joshua p.5: *"...he (the first director general) certainly saw the marketing advantage for his, er, fine school,... so that we could market our school better on a national and international level...For sure, absolutely. If he (the first director general) had not been behind the scenes, er, there would not have been (this internationalisation)"*. **ENG**

Charlie p.16: *"...but actually, the drivers (of internationalisation) at the beginning, er, because it has changed now, but at the beginning were people outside of the traditional (business) faculty....either ambitious directors, like me, who tried to make (things change)...or language faculty who themselves already came from other cultures and who wanted to make things change".* **FR**

Joshua p.16: *"and of course he (the second director general) is, was a very very well-travelled, er, very extremely cultivated person himself, who spoke fairly good Russian, believe it or not, but I believe he also spoke good German...he did not take languages lightly, he, he saw the importance of languages".* **ENG**

Thomas p.53: *"When he (the third director general) arrived, it (internationalisation) made a big leap forward....But, er, sincerely, I am not sure that he, er, he was really the real booster, and the real strategic actor in this...I don't think he got involved...not in the same way as the previous directors in their time".* **FR**

The data from this section demonstrate how the strategic dimension and the leadership impacted on the school's internationalisation. This issue is developed later during the analysis of the subsequent interview transcripts from respondents both at the school and in comparative schools.

Faculty: personal involvement; profiles; constraints; visitors; languages

In all my interviews, issues surrounding faculty were prevalent. These preliminary interviews were particularly focused on personal involvement and how the school managed its faculty in terms of internationalisation. The respondents identified certain tensions and contradictions. On the one hand, the school offered opportunities for faculty to pursue their own personal interests or motivation for being involved in internationalisation. On the other hand, senior management did not motivate faculty in any explicit way or in terms of career development.

Joshua p.13: *"I've always enjoyed , er, that component of my, of my job, I must admit, the international... So the Russian side was very very pleasant for me,... And, so, I was really really delighted to see, um, to have that opportunity to promote, er, knowledge, exchange and I think all of that is, with, there's the background of the two super-powers and of course I had been brought up, we were looking at the other side of the planet, it was the Soviets, it's the US or it's the Soviets, and so for me, it was overcoming something that I had lived with throughout my entire, um, youth... the cold war and that was always in the background".* **ENG**

Oliver p.30: *"No, I am going to be honest, it didn't".* (reply to question: Did the institution encourage or motivate you to go abroad?) *"...but perhaps our development hasn't been the best on that aspect".* **FR**

Several respondents identified two major obstacles to faculty involvement in internationalisation. First, they commented on the general low level of language ability, especially in English, and the fear of being forced to communicate in a language other than French. Second, they highlighted the resistance to any change coming from the outside, especially through internationalisation. Oliver, in particular, shared his positive and negative experiences, some of them at another business school in France.

Oliver pp.31+32: *"...there is not one trip abroad that has not been, er, how should I say, beneficial, profitable, even if I have sometimes suffered terribly because of my problems in the level of my English..."*. **FR**

Jack pp.24+25: *"..there were certain professors who ...were frightened of ...comparisons...So this led to reluctance (to engage in internationalisation)"*. **FR**

Oliver pp.47-49: *"...what posed a lot of problems for me...was my reluctance to welcome foreign professors because I didn't master the language well enough, the English language...and I remember a dinner where I welcomed some Koreans who only spoke English...I swear to you, it was a suffering, as much for the difficulty of speaking the language as for absorbing all the alcohol that was absorbed that evening, it was for me an ordeal"*. **FR**

There were several explanations for this reluctance to speak English or to become engaged in internationalisation. For some it was a "constraint" (Harry), or a lack of understanding of the importance of internationalisation (Thomas). Some faculty just kept together in Franco-French "cliques" or "groups" (Joshua), some were natural "globetrotters" while others were just "stay-at-home types" (Thomas). Others pointed out that it was natural to resist change (Thomas). Nonetheless, Charlie was more optimistic about the language abilities of the coming generations of business faculty.

Harry p.28: *"There are those for whom internationalisation was a constraint, it was...'but why learn English', why this, why that. And there are some people who plunged right into it...who have said to themselves: 'ah, but it's also..it's good for the students, but it's also an opportunity for me"*. **FR**

Thomas p.51+52: *"There's a whole range of reasons (for the faculty's attitude to international).. ..The fact that a certain number of them were not at ease in English...the fact that they were not aware of the importance of international exchanges...that the globalisation of firms was already happening....Change in any institution...generates resistance"*. **FR**

Joshua p.15: *"...there were little cliques, there were little groups and, er, there was always the group of, er, the Franco-French people, who were not necessarily or forcibly French, but that really, really obviously were having anything to do with, er, the foreign, er, with the international program, nothing"*. **ENG**

Thomas p.48: *"...at the time (1997) the faculty was dominantly Franco-French, or even Franco-Auvergnat, er, how should I say it, not convinced of the international dimension"*. **FR**

Thomas p.61: *"...some are more willing (to travel) than others...more globetrotters...some are more stay-at-home types than others ..."* **FR**

Charlie p.9: *"...I think that linguistic aspect is in the process of changing because there are many (professors) who have understood that in their profile as teachers and researchers it's an indispensable dimension"*. **FR**

One respondent gave a cynical explanation for the faculty's lack of involvement.

Joshua p.4: *"Well, I hate to be cynical but I think that, maybe, er, maybe they (the business faculty) were interested in making money and they saw all these (international) meetings (in the early 1980s)..as being non-money-making...the business teachers, er, were actually just like add-ons, they were tacked on, they enjoyed the ride, they took what they could from it, they gave to it too, for sure...but I don't see any business faculty in our school, I can't remember any, that really played an important speared-headed role, in promoting or, er, in helping operationally the international program, no. I can't remember any, sorry"*. **ENG**

The second director general, Charlie, was critical of the faculty's lack of involvement in internationalisation. He compared his ESC Clermont experience to another French *Grande Ecole* where he had found a similar resistance and conservatism, but also a lack of interest in anybody coming from the outside, especially from abroad, bringing new ideas and speaking a different language. He explained this resistance as something particular to the French and to French faculty in *Grandes Ecoles*. These faculty members had survived over the years in a fairly protected environment. Globalisation, in particular through international standards and expectations such as research and publications, was impacting this closed world. As a result, internationalising the faculty was a difficult goal to achieve. In fact, his comments reflect his own experience at the school which was difficult in terms of managing the faculty.

Charlie pp.4-6: *"later in another school which resembled Clermont in many ways...there was a very old faculty culture, very stable, very well-established, er, very conservative, er, and, how should I say it, also regionally anchored ...they are people who are not interested from a human point of view in meeting somebody who comes from elsewhere, who is going to explain things perhaps in a different way, they are not interested in that"*. **FR**

Charlie p.11: *"... I think the classic (management) business school professors have lived too long in a closed circuit...in a way more than the university professors, and because of that they have not been forced to look outside (their world)"*. **FR**

Charlie p.6: *“at the time (1996) research activities were very weak and if people are not obliged to publish then they were not confronted with international journals nor the need to publish in English, so they had no real interest in entering the international stage, in exchanging”*. **FR**

Joshua offered a rather emotional reaction on the issue of internationalising faculty reflecting the depth of passion of some of those directly involved in the international activities.

Joshua p.24: *“so what can we do next? What should we be... ? and then, what I can say is this: well, get, have those teachers, get those teachers, get their arses out of this fu__ing place, get them to go to Sweden or to, to, to Peru, or to, to participate in help managing the exchange programs or to, to, to do, to get their fingers wet and to get them excited, get them doing and that will help, that will help, that will help, er.... So, I guess that's about it”*. **ENG**

Harry also referred to the faculty and made a comment which I will follow up on later in the analysis. He suggested that there had been a lack of real management of the faculty in terms of internationalisation. Charlie also looked back to his period as director general and realised that he should have managed the faculty in a more strategic fashion. At the same time, he deplored the lack of resources.

Harry p.29: *“There wasn't a strategic reflection on how we could get all the faculty members to internationalise their course or, or, or....get involved in the programmes”*. **FR**

Charlie p.13: *“(in order to internationalise) we would have had to recruit 5 or 10 foreign professors, bring them to Clermont, integrate them in the faculty, in the academic meetings, in one go you could begin to make things move forward because people would have been forced to change...but we didn't have the resources”*. **FR**

Data in this section have shown that the management of the faculty was a key element in the internationalisation process. The lack of a strategic approach to motivate and facilitate faculty involvement is discussed in more detail in the analysis chapter.

Students: international experience; exchanges

All respondents shared the school's vision in terms of providing the students with an international education with a broad humanistic philosophy. The first director, Jack, expressed his deep convictions on management education:

Jack p.17: *“And then there is a cultural reason (for internationalisation), er, I wanted our students...I wanted them to be the well-educated and cultured men of the 20th century ...that means having an international culture...somebody who reasons, who is capable of reasoning internationally, who is capable of speaking two languages,who has sufficient knowledge to appear competent in any country in the world”.* **FR**

There was also recognition that international experience is an integral part of this international education. From an early stage in its history, the school had embraced experiential learning both at home and abroad through internships and academic study. Several of the respondents used vocabulary that reflects the school’s social contract and its mission statement, either consciously or unconsciously: terms such as ‘open-minded’, ‘inquisitive’, ‘innovative’ and ‘humility’.

Oliver p.7: *“and I think there has always been, I would say, the idea of, of open-mindedness...of the need to, to send our students elsewhere, er, for, for enrichment. Well, it a complicated sort of alchemy.....the richness of our students was more than learning subjects and knowledge...it was the richness of personalities, of the open-mindedness of the people we educated, of the inquisitiveness”.* **FR**

Joshua p.6: *“ we were multiplying the contacts, the ERASMUS, er, scholarships, enabled students to go to so many other (partners)... And we also came to the conclusion that sending hordes of our students to England, or to Spain, or to Germany, together, with say 15, 20, sometimes 30 French students from the same institution, gravitating on the same campus, abroad, this was not conducive to getting them opening up, ... birds of a feather, to stay with their own people, and not to break out”.* **ENG**

Oliver p.64: *“What seems to be the most important in the, in the exchanges and the, is to go and see elsewhere and go as see in fact, to confront one’s own culture with others, which is what our students do, but there is also, er, to learn lessons of humility abroad”.* **FR**

However, some respondents expressed doubts about the school’s objectives and practices in terms of requiring all students to complete an international experience. They thought that students today were very different compared with even ten years before. Respondents contrasted the changes in attitudes with the early days of internationalisation in the 1980s. They wondered whether the students were still benefitting from this rich learning experience. They also thought that exchange programmes might have become another mundane part of the curriculum.

Thomas p.65: *“ I am not sure that frankly today the students, in particular, have the spirit, er, of personal, how should I say, emotional, intellectual, er, human discovery, as at another time. And perhaps it’s the same for the faculty”.* **FR**

Charlie pp.29+30: *“What do students really get (out of studying abroad) in terms of competences? ...Have we really identified these competences? Have we really made sure that the students have really acquired these competences through the exchanges? I am not sure”*. **FR**

Thomas p.79+80: *“I wonder if, er, how should I say, the little bit idealistic almost utopian period of international exchanges is finished, is behind us....now it’s routine...the students are consumers”*. **FR**

On a final note on students, Charlie brought up the issue of recruiting international students and made a link with the internationalisation of the faculty. The faculty had to buy into internationalisation, either because they came from abroad or because they have had international experience. Only in this way could the school begin to offer a satisfactory learning experience to international students who had made a conscious choice to apply for admission and who are ready to pay full tuition fees.

Charlie p.14: *“...but you need to internationalise the faculty quite rapidly and then you can begin a policy of recruiting international students which is credible because it projects an image that fits today’s economic reality”*. **FR**

Respondents made fewer references to the student exchanges in general. Since I had interviewed faculty rather than students, themes revolving around the faculty themselves inevitably became more prominent in the data. Furthermore, the student experience was in fact tangential to understanding the internationalisation process. Therefore, I made the deliberate choice to concentrate on the other themes that emerged from the data.

Pedagogy: curriculum; teaching styles

The school has a number of different programmes where the curriculum deals with different international issues. All students are also expected to study foreign languages and culture. Respondents mentioned the international components of the curriculum. Others discussed the question of teaching management subjects in a foreign language, in particular in English. The first director general, Jack, who had been visionary in student exchange programmes, doubted the need to teach management modules in English. On the other hand, Joshua saw the issue in terms of maintaining international student exchanges. Thomas almost denied that there was an issue and said that he did not remember that the question had been discussed.

Jack p.5: *“the first decision I took when I took over the management of the school was to create international post-graduate programmes...and to give all our programmes a real international dimension”*. **FR**

Joshua p.14: *“...area studies are still part of the common core program...we can show students, we can start opening windows for them, er, making them curious to look into these areas, er, of be it Russia, be it Japan, we have exchanges with Japan, China...”*. **ENG**

Jack p.19: *“...pff...it (teaching management in English) didn't seem to me to be a priority, you see, it seemed to me more like communication than something really interesting. And anyway, I wanted the school, even though it was international, to keep its...we are a French school...”* **FR**

Joshua p.15: *“(Teaching management in English) was necessary if we really wanted to conti... survive. I don't see how we could've continued to attract (international students)... And I'm not sure that many of the permanent teachers, in the 1990s, saw that”*. **ENG**

Thomas p.36: *“I have little memory of that (arrival of first visiting faculty from abroad)...I remember him arriving, but, er, not the circumstances in which he did his first lessons nor the impact that it had”*. **FR**

From an organisational point of view student exchanges had always posed problems. They impacted on the programmes and the timetabling.

Oliver pp.39+40: *“How could we adapt to the emergence of the multiplication of these international exchanges?...indeed, it meant changing the programmes, changing the timetables...The integration of these international exchanges...well, it posed problems, but like, by the way what brought us to a clash and to my resignation, like the fact of integrating, and I was in favour of this, the year out between the 2nd and 3rd year posed problems”*. **FR**

Charlie remembered how he had tried to internationalise the curriculum by involving home faculty in co-constructing new modules with international faculty from partner institutions. He had failed to convince the faculty in this internationalisation project. Ultimately this curricular innovation was abandoned.

Charlie p.12: *“I rushed ahead with the idea of creating international modules...since we wanted them in English, we wanted them taught by visiting professors...it was a way of internationalising through the programme and through the faculty, ...but I should have put in place a real internationalisation plan for the faculty...so that they would see things differently. It's very difficult because there are people, you can't change them”*. **FR**

Thomas p.44: *“There were two reasons, er, in my opinion (for the failure of the certificate innovation). ...it was a compromise...imposed by the director general. ...and secondly, there were too many, how should I say it, er, colleagues amongst the full-time faculty, who, for whom the international dimension,...international management, er, it was, hum the least of their worries....it pissed them off, they didn't see the point. ...I heard them say at the time, let the language faculty deal with those issues in the language classes”*. **FR**

The comments on pedagogy and curriculum brought my analysis back to the theme of faculty involvement. This reinforced my feeling that this part of the data needed further analysis.

Professionalisation and international development: European programmes; networking

Many respondents referred to the importance of languages and, in particular, language faculty in the internationalisation process. Since the school had developed its international activities in a fairly pragmatic and entrepreneurial way, the language faculty were, and still are, an integral part of the development of new opportunities and the operationalisation of student and faculty exchanges. Respondents mentioned how many of the day-to-day activities of welcoming students and preparing them to go abroad were implemented in an unstructured and adhoc manner. International development was being driven by the language faculty. Growth was almost organic as participation in international organisations and networks inevitably led to more contacts and more partnerships.

Joshua p.2: *"(I was involved in international) welcoming the students.. er, we had to find lodgings for them and we did that ourselves for a while, there weren't that many students and we were able to, er, to help them, er, ourselves, rolling up our sleeves,... and then of course integrating them, we did different types of pedagogical activities, if I remember correctly, trying to integrate them into the... with the locals, the foreign students to feel more comfortable with the locals".*

ENG

Harry p.14: *"Finding 10 to 15 internships every year for the foreign students required more work than for 110 or 115 students at the school at the time. ...Plus the housing...There was no real international office".* **FR**

Thomas p.27: *"And then without really being head of international exchanges, they (the two permanent faculty in charge of languages) helped us (develop exchanges in the 70s)...(in 1979) the head of languages...was given a clear brief to develop international exchanges and sign partnership agreements".* **FR**

Joshua p.5: *"and, of course, once the language people were associated (with international) and got involved, this shored up and gave, this gave an emphasis and momentum".* **ENG**

Jack p.13: *"...as soon as we were in a network, where we had an agreement with a British university, this same university had agreements with German universities.....this had a considerable multiplying effect which allowed us to better choose and develop our agreements".*

FR

As the number of partner schools and the number of exchange students grew during the 1980s there was a need to create the post of head of international relations in 1990. When this happened, faculty in general became less involved and tended to see the international office as

an independent unit. Several respondents referred to the fact that over the past two decades many of the international activities had become much more formalised.

Harry p.25: *"(The last 15 years) I have felt two things, rationalisation of our actions ...and the pressure of the market...'yes, your students must have this international culture'". FR*

Thomas p.29: *"Indeed, er, the faculty, globally, was, er, er, finally,er, less involved (in the 1980s) than in the pioneer period of the 1970s...and it (international relations) became more and more the job of one person". FR*

Thomas pp.37+38: *"...so it (the international relations) was structured and became a separate department....and finally, curiously, er, er, everybody distanced themselves a little. Whereas, when it started in the 70s, if you like, er, everybody was involved in everything. It was a small team. Everything had to be built up. It was really a business creation, the creation of the school in all its dimensions". FR*

Thomas p.48: *"(1997)...er, international exchanges were not yet seen as something that functioned, yes, that was necessary, but that functioned next to or parallel to, er, the, let's say, Franco-French activities. Er, a bit, a bit like an autonomous business". FR*

The change from informal to formal processes in international activities is discussed later. This development runs parallel to the changes in strategic approach and faculty involvement.

6.3 Main Thematic Areas

The analysis above shows how the data from the preliminary interviews included numerous references to the strategic dimensions of internationalisation with particular references to how the school organised and implemented its strategy. Key players in the internationalisation were the language faculty under the various leadership styles of the director generals. Issues such as student exchanges, programme development and curriculum were mentioned less often. As a result of this initial analysis of the preliminary interview transcripts, three main thematic areas emerged as presenting interest for further analysis:

- Strategic management
- Organisational processes
- Faculty involvement

Strategic Management refers to the way in which the top management initiated internationalisation policies and activities. Organisational processes refer to the way in which

the internationalisation activities were organised, including the people who took responsibility for driving the internationalisation forward. Faculty involvement refers to the degree to which all the faculty members were actually involved in the international activities.

After examining the initial data from the preliminary interviews, my interest began to focus on the chronological development of the three dimensions of internationalisation that had emerged. These three dimensions evolved over the period that I was investigating in my research. In fact, three distinct phases could be identified that corresponded to the periods during which the three director generals held office. The three phases were therefore identified as follows:

Phase 1: 1979 – 1995

Phase 2: 1996 – 2000

Phase 3: 2001 - 2010

At this stage in my research, internationalisation appeared to have been experienced by these respondents as having developed along these three dimensions, with three phases corresponding to the respective director generals. As I moved forward with my analysis, I needed to try and understand whether the international development was the result of a proactive strategy and deliberate policy action or as a result of seizing opportunities or whether things had just evolved through happenstance. These were significant issues that I needed to explore in the data in the next stage of my research. From the preliminary interviews it was clear that the internationalisation processes had become more formal. I needed to investigate the impact of this increased formalisation on the involvement of the main participants, the faculty.

In the next phase of interviewing I decided to include some more focussed questions exploring the idea of formalisation in the internationalisation process and its consequences. Indeed, the later interviews provided new insights into the way in which the faculty experienced the school's internationalisation activities.

6.4 Initial Coding

After the preliminary six interviews, I completed a further fifteen interviews with colleagues from ESC Clermont and nine from three comparative schools. As I have explained in my

methodology chapter, I decided to use the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo, for two main reasons. First, it enabled me to record most of my data in one place. However, for the documentary evidence it was not practical since I only had hard copies of most of the reports that I was using. It did not seem useful to scan all these reports to include them in NVivo for more formal coding. Second, I used NVivo to carry out more systematic coding of the interview transcripts. I transferred the preparatory study transcripts and coded them using the categories that I had identified when working on the paper version of the transcripts. The second coding activity enabled me to refine the initial coding and to add new categories.

I then began work on the main body of interviews with the colleagues at ESC Clermont. The narrative transcripts prepared by the research assistant were checked for accuracy in the Word document and then imported into NVivo. I then coded the transcripts, adding new categories when necessary.

After analysing a total of 21 interview transcripts, including those from the preliminary stage, I had identified the following categories which are presented in Table 6.1:

Table 6.1 Categories Identified in NVivo

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Alumni- Benchmarking- Communication- Competitive advantage- Constraints- Drivers- English language skills- Faculty career development- Faculty culture + resistance to change- Faculty international experience- Faculty management- Faculty training- Faculty workload- Finance and funding- French higher education- Geographic location- Globalisation- Individualism – collectivism- Innovation- Insider - outsider- Institutional commitment- International curriculum- International education |
|--|

- International faculty
- International partnerships
- International students
- Language faculty
- Languages
- Leadership
- Multicultural environment + atmosphere
- National environment
- Networking and Partnerships
- Organisation
- Participant-observer researcher
- Participative processes
- Pedagogy + teaching styles
- People and personality
- Personal + professional life
- Personal engagement and motivation
- Professionalisation of international activities
- Programme development and innovation
- Publications in English
- Recognition
- Research
- Size and growth
- Social dimensions
- Students
- Stakeholders
- Strategy – proactive vs. reactive
- Student international experience

One of the new categories or themes that emerged in this phase of data collection was that of “insider – outsider”. Some respondents clearly felt that the way in which internationalisation had been managed had led to an insider group of people who profited from their status to become directly involved in international activities. Consequently, the outsider group did not feel part of the internationalisation.

6.5 Chronology

At this stage in my research, I re-assessed the usefulness of NVivo. Although it had helped in the initial categorisation step, I was beginning to analyse the data in a different way. I was re-reading the transcripts and noting a more chronological development in the themes. I decided to go back to the original self-generated data which consisted of my own history of internationalisation at the school. This chronological account included a purely narrative section and also my own commentaries. I had written this account before beginning to collect data through interviews. This was a way to ‘bracket’ my own interpretation of the school’s internationalisation. (See also

Chapter 5 dealing with methodology). This chronology was divided into the main periods in the history of the school, and more particularly the internationalisation over the period 1979 – 2010. This corresponded to three main periods or phases that were dominated by the three director generals who managed the school over this time. A more detailed breakdown of the recent history of internationalisation was identified as shown in Table 6.2:

Table 6.2 Chronological Development of Internationalisation at ESC Clermont

1919 – 1979	Laying the foundations for future international development
Phase 1: 1979 – 1995	
1979 – 1982	Internationalisation strategy for national recognition
1982 – 1987	Growing pains
1987 – 1990	External funding to boost international development
1990 – 1995	Professionalisation, academic degree recognition and partnership
Phase 2: 1996 – 2000	
1996 - 2000	Faculty involvement and curriculum development
2000 - 2001	Transition
Phase 3: 2001 – 2010	
2001 - 2005	International accreditation driving improvement in faculty and research
2006 - 2010	Programme development at home and abroad

The narrative chronology and my comments were imported into a document with four columns. The four columns were labelled as follows: Data Categories; Narrative; Researcher Observations; Respondents Observations. This document is available for consultation. I decided to re-examine the interview data and the categories to see how they provided evidence for the development of internationalisation over the 30 year period. I also recorded the categories and emerging themes for each period. This was included in column one. In this way I started building up a document which summarised the data in categories and themes as they emerged over time. I linked these themes to the observations made by respondents by copying transcript extracts into the fourth column. At the same time, I noted my own observations both on the themes that had emerged from my initial narrative analysis. In this iterative approach, I constantly returned to the data in order to try to make sense of the respondents' observation. This re-examination of the data led to the identification of six explanatory themes:

- **Drivers**
- **Constraints**
- **Personal motivation - engagement**
- **Leadership and Institutional commitment**
- **Proactive – Reactive strategies**

- **Formal – Informal processes**
- **Insider – Outsider**

All the initial categories that had emerged from the coding of the interview transcripts were included in the above mega-themes. They also presented opportunities to analyse in more depth dimensions which would help to answer my research questions. These dimensions and the corresponding research questions are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Main Themes from NVivo Coding and Research Questions

6.6 Main Themes	Research Issues
6.6.1 Internationalisation Drivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reasons why ESC Clermont internationalised its activities? - The main drivers for the school’s internationalisation?
External drivers	
- National competition	
- Globalisation	
Internal drivers	
- Director generals	
- Language faculty	
- Business faculty	
6.6.2 Internationalisation Constraints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Respondents’ understanding of how the internationalisation happened at the school.
External constraints	
- Chambers of Commerce	
Internal constraints	
- Language skills	
- French faculty	
- Psychological factors: Openness, change	
- Resources – human, financial, temporal	
6.6.3 Institutional Dimensions	
- Strategic management	
- Organisational policies and processes	
- Faculty management	
6.6.4 Internationalisation Outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The outcomes of this internationalisation and the future challenges.
- Insider-Outsider	

The following narrative analysis follows the structure of Table 6.3 and is based on the data transcripts from which the themes emerged.

6.6 Main Themes

In this section I present an analysis of the data from the whole set of interviews, including the preliminary interviews and the subsequent interviews conducted with respondents from ESC Clermont. In section 6.7 I adopt a similar approach to analysing the data from the comparative cases.

6.6.1 Internationalisation Drivers

The internationalisation process has been driven by external and internal factors, and especially by the people working in the institution.

External drivers

National competition

In the early days, the 1980s, pressure to conform to certain expectations concerning the choice of international partners came from national forces, in particular the newly created, elite group of management schools called the *Chapitre*, which brought together the so-called 'best' business schools in France. At the same time, rankings began to have an impact on the national environment.

Jack p.10: *"We were in the first 10 or 12 schools to belong to the Chapter. So for Clermont it was very important in terms of image, of valorisation, so I couldn't allow myself to go against the decisions of the Chapter, even if I did not necessarily approve them. That's why, to my great disappointment, the breaking-off of the agreements with..."*. FR

Harry p.18: *"(so we were told) '..if you want to stay in the Chapter, since you've been admitted to the Chapter, you are amongst the elite, er, you need elite partners'. And because of that we had to say to our partners 'well, it's finished'..."*. FR

Joshua p.6: *"Cutthroat competition, rankings became all important, er, in ensuring that, er, the, let's say the renowned, the perceived, er, quality of the school. They became so important that having agreements with schools that didn't have the same level of ranking as, er, as ours, would devalue our school in the long-run ...and we started encouraging exchanges with schools that had better rankings in their own countries"*. ENG

There were also references to national and international competition. Respondents demonstrated that internationalisation was a distinctive feature used to attract the best students. It could not be envisaged that a school did not offer students the possibility of studying abroad as part of their management education. Indeed, students chose to apply to a school

according to the opportunities to spend part of their degree programme at another university abroad. They behave as consumers purchasing an education package which includes an international experience. The school also benefited from external financial support to drive the internationalisation process. This enabled the school to attract better quality French students and improve its reputation for internationalisation.

Harry p.27: *“The student when he comes to a school, he buys a package which is complex, but in that package there is international training”*. **FR**

Jack p.4: *“the Regional Council...helped a lot of students and it helped the school since (the scholarships) attracted high quality students who came here to obtain the double degree and we got that thanks to the Regional Council – Giscard d’Estaing”*. **FR**

Globalisation

At ESC Clermont, the first visible impact of globalisation was really the arrival of international students. At first, these students were part of academic exchange programmes. Later the school actively recruited degree-seeking students who paid tuition fees and brought added revenue to the school. Referring to the 1990s, and later, respondents talked more about globalisation and internationalisation as inevitable processes. This meant that schools such as ESC Clermont had no real choice in ignoring such a trend. This external environment included new business models, rankings, accreditation, communications and image building. Several respondents made references to the expectations of the business world. The school was compelled to train and educate students for careers in a globalised business environment. The new partners on other continents also reflected the globalisation trends. Partner universities abroad were no longer just in Europe or the United States.

Jack p.23: *“We recruited Polish students. ..It was an initiative by Giscard. ..He’s the one who wanted...us to train Polish students at the school because he had been in Poland.... They spoke French very well”*. **FR**

Dylan p.4: *“...in the globalised world in which we live there is no place for a school that is not in the logic (of internationalisation)”*. **FR**

Thomas p.89: *“..globalisation is pushing us ...towards the Anglo-Saxon model...what I am finding, er, more and more is what I discovered in Kansas in 1969 (as a student)”*. **FR R****

Chloe p.11: *“For me internationalisation or globalisation, I don’t know, it’s an inevitable, continuous, historical process...So today it is unthinkable for a school like ours could not have an international dimension, it’s unimaginable”*. **FR**

Charlie p.64: *"...I really think that internationalisation has been a powerful factor in the transformation of the (French business) schools".* **FR R****

Olivia p.5: *"(The driver) It's the, it's the pressure, er, from the press and the rankings".* **ENG**

Olivia p.33: *"I guess that process, the accreditation process has forced people to think about learning."* **ENG**

Oscar p.30: *"International has become an area in its own right, before it was a bit exotic, we said 'we do international' etc. It was marginal. Today it is after all a little bit at the heart of the strategy of schools. We have to develop languages, we have to develop the intercultural dimension, we have to send people abroad because we know that careers are no longer linear as in the past".* **FR**

James p.10: *"I think it's a matter of, I think it's recognition of the reality of the world, that the business world operates, er, in, in, er, in more than just our local environment".* **ENG**

James pp.40+41: *"Business, business... (sigh) business schools need internationalization. ..And what makes a good manager is, er, is empathy. OK? ... It means being able to see the world from a different perspective. How do we, how do we build en..., empathy? Well we can't teach empathy in classes...The quickest way to b... build empathy is to have an international experience, where you're the minority and you're required to see the world from somebody else's perspective".* **ENG**

Ethan p.10: *"...exchanges in the period, er, er at the end of the 70s it was England, Germany, Spain, we didn't stray too far from our home base....now we are experiencing globalisation, it was really striking when we started going to, I'm not talking about the States, but Central America, South America, afterwards, er, Asia, er, etc., and now Africa".* **FR**

International partners also put pressure on the school to internationalise with management courses taught in English. In order to maintain a flow of incoming exchange students the school had to change in this respect.

Joshua p.15: *"(Teaching management in English) was necessary if we really wanted to conti... survive. I don't see how we could've continued to attract (international students)... And I'm not sure that many of the permanent teachers, in the 1990s, saw that".* **ENG**

In order to attract faculty from France or abroad, it was necessary to adopt an internationalisation strategy.

Oscar p.33: *"International must be an element (to recruit new faculty)....There's no other solution, er. Even if we wanted to do it differently, I think that competition imposes it on us. We don't have the choice".* **FR**

The geographic location of the school, in the very centre of France, was also a driver in pushing the school to develop internationalisation.

Oliver p.8: *“Our geographic location must have, I think, played a certain role so we said: ‘but (even though we are in the middle of the Massif Central) we can be open to the world’ ”*. **FR**

Ethan p.34: *“Wasn’t it our isolation that made us (open to the outside)?...it was almost an obligation”*. **FR**

Internal drivers

The data show how the student population has always pushed the school to internationalise. In the 1980s it was a way of selling the school to recruit the best students who then expected the products and services that they had been offered. In the 1990s the students expected more internationalisation at home through management courses taught in English and visiting faculty in the classroom. Some respondents argued that student expectations cannot be ignored in today’s context. These students have chosen to apply to the school because it offers particular opportunities to study abroad and because the internationalised programmes prepare them for their future careers.

Olivia pp.5+6: *“And then the internal pressure, once we sell something to students or once we advertise it...it’s very hard, it’s very embarrassing then, then we’re gonna have students on our backs...and then from an ethical point of view we feel like we, we’re not you know, we’re...this is misleading advertising”*. **ENG**

Max pp.20+21: *“When we call ourselves a ‘business school’ that’s already an English word. When we do management, it’s after all essentially Anglo-Saxon. When we train managers, who perhaps in 80% of the cases will be expected to speak English. When we send them to Anglo-Saxon auditing companies, KPMG, er, etc. Well, we have no choice, we have students at General Electric, things like that. We have no choice, we have to push to towards international. And students are asking for it as well”*. **ENG**

People

It was evident from the interview data that certain people had been particularly active in driving the school forward on the internationalisation agenda. Firstly, the three director generals played active, but different, roles in promoting the internationalisation agenda. Secondly, the language faculty were intimately involved in managing and stimulating the international development. Finally, the business faculty played a mixed role as drivers in the internationalisation process.

The Director Generals

The director generals in the *Grandes Ecoles de Management* system enjoy considerable autonomy in managing their schools. Given their positions at ESC Clermont, the director generals were particularly well placed to be directly involved in the internationalisation process. The data showed how they did indeed impact the way in which the school implemented its internationalisation.

First Director General: Jack

In 1979 the then recently appointed director general brought a new strategic direction to the school and internationalisation was identified as a key component for future development. Internationalisation was more than just part of the strategy to improve the school's academic and professional image and so improve student recruitment. The objective was to integrate the international dimension into the heart of the organisation through his personal involvement and motivation.

Joshua p.5: *"...he (the director general) certainly saw the marketing advantage for his, er, fine school and he thought 'let's take one step ahead of the rest them and let's get a good international program, off the ground here, operational right away', so that we could market our school better on a national and international level...For sure, absolutely. If he had not been behind the scenes, er, there would not have been (this internationalisation)".* **ENG**

Sophie p.44: *"I think that Jack was (director general) at a time when things were easy for the business school...but he understood very quickly, and in my opinion we have to thank him for that, the importance of international and he put in place processes to give the school this image".* **FR**

Harry p.11: *"Jack's arrival did indeed bring a change, not a change, a new direction, a greater awareness in the school of international, that's clear".* **FR**

Oliver p.12: *"Jack, I think, was, er, in addition to knowledge, I think was in fact a, a director who was very attached to, er, the human richness of our, our students I think".* **FR**

Jack p.17: *"And then there is a cultural reason (for internationalisation), er, I wanted our students...I wanted them to be the well-educated and cultured men of the 20th century ...that means having an international culture...somebody who reasons, who is capable of reasoning internationally, who is capable of speaking two languages,who has sufficient knowledge to appear competent in any country in the world".* **FR R****

Some of the respondents were a little more critical in their assessment of the first director's role in the internationalisation.

Oliver p. 58: *"I think that Jack played the game, but once again, of the valorisation of international to valorise the school to valorise himself"*. **FR**

Oscar pp.17+18: *"Jack was a pure Auvergnat product, I mean he was the director, previous model, who, who, who had the intelligence to let things happen, it seems, with you. I think he was an opportunist. He wasn't somebody who had a well-defined strategy, it seems to me, because I knew him well...It seems to me that he was somebody who, if you like, who was, er, you know well enough, when he could collect...the glory, the rewards, he took them, so of course, he didn't refuse"*. **FR**

Second Director General: Charlie

The second director general took up his appointment in 1996, a turning point for the school with the retirement of the previous director general who had managed the institution for 17 years through an important development phase. The following five years began a period of more focus on internationalisation at home. Charlie was committed to pursuing the internationalisation agenda by moving the school forward and away from its dependence on student exchanges. He was recognised by some colleagues as being really committed to internationalisation. He had personal experience abroad, spoke foreign languages and was open to the world. He was also recognised for his attempt to make internationalisation part of his strategic management of the school.

Charlie p.12: *"I rushed ahead with the idea of creating international modules...since we wanted them in English, we wanted them taught by visiting professors...it was a way of internationalising through the programme and through the faculty, ...but I should have put in place a real internationalisation plan for the faculty...so that they would see things differently. It's very difficult because there are people, you can't change them"*. **FR**

James p.25: *"Charlie was a driver for international"*. **ENG**

Joshua pp.16+17: *"and of course he (Charlie) is, was a very, very well-travelled, er, very extremely cultivated person himself, who spoke fairly good Russian, believe it or not, but I believe he also spoke good German...he did not take languages lightly, he, he saw the importance of languages...he was doing everything he could to promote the exchange program with Russia"*. **ENG**

Isabelle pp.32+33: *"Charlie was somebody who believed in the necessity (of international) because he was a very open person who had lived abroad and above all somebody who reflected a lot and I think that he had understood the importance of international....He was sure of himself...so when he spoke bad English with his accent or a few words of Spanish he didn't lose his legitimacy as director general of the school"*. **FR**

Oscar pp.20-22: *"...I think Charlie was, I would say the most strategic of the directors we have had until now...He was the one who had the concept of fit between objectives and resources"*. **FR**

As with the first director general, some of the respondents were critical in their assessment of the first director's role in the internationalisation.

Ethan p.28: *"...it's a bit difficult (to say) because he stayed a short time, but Charlie, I don't have the impression that he had any particular action in the area (internationalisation)". FR*

Harry p.29: *"There wasn't a strategic reflection on how we could get all the faculty members to internationalise their course or, or, or....get involved in the programmes". FR*

Another explanation was given by one respondent. This issue will be dealt with later in the discussion on constraints and barriers to the internationalisation process.

Thomas p.48: *"...at the time (1997) the faculty was dominantly Franco-French, or even Franco-Auvergnat, er, how should I say it, not convinced of the international dimension". FR*

Third Director General: Noah

Several respondents, particularly those who had worked for previous director generals, commented on Noah's involvement in, and commitment to, internationalisation.

Thomas p.54: *"I don't think he (the third director general) got involved in it (internationalisation)not in the same way as the previous directors in their time". FR*

Isabelle p.32: *"Oh, Charlie (the second director) I see him as very international...(whispers) Noah (the third director), I don't see him as international at all". FR*

Oscar pp.25+26: *"...but Noah, it's true, well, I don't think he was a strategist, he was somebody who was a bit all over the place. ..he let things happen. It's clear. But actually, it was a bit of opportunism, too....the least strategic of our directors...he was traumatised by accreditations. I think he experienced a traumatism at X (his previous school)". FR*

Thomas pp.58+59: *"...it's strange, er, this sort of, how should I say, er, of drawing back he (the third director general) has in using Englishlike a sort of allergy...in the second half of his mandate, one has the impression that suddenly he has an passion (for travelling),...but to countries where he can understand the language". FR*

Joshua p.19: *"I feel, that the international and I also feel that languages, er, are more deeply enrooted in this institution than ever before, but that has not necessarily and exclusively got to do with the director, if, er, at least the guy hasn't come in and pulled the, the rug out from under our feet... at least". ENG*

Sophie p.4: *"For me, with Noah, we have been living on our acquired capital for 10 years". FR*

Ethan p.28: *“And I don’t think Noah (had a particular action) in the area (internationalisation)....at the international level....it’s actors like you who, how should say, have structured this movement”*. **FR**

Sophie p.43: *“For me, Noah doesn’t give a damn about international”*. **FR**

Isabelle pp.35+36: *“I think Noah is an observer, he’s outside, he sees what has to be done and then he says ‘we must do this’...because it’s his job...that’s different from empathy...I don’t think Noah does anything without a reason and which is above all to profit from all the opportunities that appear”*. **FR**

The Language Faculty

The language faculty were often native speakers of languages other than French. They provided a natural and an effective resource to make initial contacts with colleagues abroad. In addition to the linguistic skills, these faculty members also possessed skills in coping with different cultures. Finally, they were all living in a ‘foreign’ country and had had to learn a new language – French.

Joshua p.5: *“and, of course, once the language people were associated (with international) and got involved, this shored up and gave, this gave an emphasis and momentum”*. **ENG**

Harry p.15: *“It was the language faculty (that looked after international relations)”*. **FR**

Charlie p.4: *“...you and your colleagues (fellow language faculty), you actually took on the international development very quickly, and in fact, very efficiently”*. **FR**

The language faculty respondents revealed how they were very often motivated by a commitment to enriching the students’ learning experience. This personal involvement in internationalisation stemmed from a deeper philosophy of life and a desire to promote certain values such as openness, curiosity and empathy.

Isabelle pp.8+9: *“I can say that what makes me happy about it (international) is that....to see the added value for the students (after an international experience)”*. **FR**

Isabelle pp.25+26: *“I think that you have to have the feeling (to be involved in international), but the feeling develops....you have to be somebody who has empathy because if you don’t you’ll never be interested in the partners...empathy is very important. To want to be interested, to get to know, to be known, to create professional links, er, I think that international is above all human and the objective is human...It’s like teaching, the human dimension is at the centre of everything. If you are not interested in that, if you don’t put your heart into it, it’s, pff, it’s, it’s impossible”*. **FR**

Joshua pp.13+14: *"I've always enjoyed , er, that component of my, of my job, I must admit, the international...area studies are still part of the common core program...we can show students, we can start opening windows for them, er, making them curious to look into these areas, er, of be it Russia, be it Japan, we have exchanges with Japan, China..."*. **ENG**

Olivia p.16: *"We (the international team) seem to take it (internationalisation) seriously and we, we seem to, er, to just almost make it a mission and we're just gonna just really get at the heart of it...and we just gonna do everything possible to make it work, er, and from all the different angles"*. **ENG**

At the same time, the language faculty also found individual and professional fulfilment in driving the internationalisation agenda. On the one hand, international activities enabled language faculty to find personal satisfaction in their jobs. On the other hand, these activities enabled them to improve their status in comparison with the management faculty. They gained recognition and legitimacy in the business school.

Isabelle pp.9+10: *"(being involved in international) for me personally, has valorised me, as a person,...I have changed my opinion about myself,it has allowed me to fulfil myself"*. **FR**

Isabelle p.11: *"It's international ...that's given us (the language teachers) legitimacy in this school, not languages"*. **FR**

Oliver p.44: *"Wasn't this (language faculty using management content in their courses) a way for the language faculty to legitimatise their position in the institution?"* **FR**

The Researcher – Head of International

Some respondents made explicit references to me, the researcher, in my role as head of international. Some pointed to the 'fragile' situation that had been created because of my own deep involvement and commitment to my work. This fragility refers to the fact that many of the international activities were managed directly by myself, or my close colleagues. Respondents suggested that the institution could be threatened if I left my post without transferring some of my knowledge and experience to the institution. I will develop this later in the reflexive part of my analysis.

Isabelle p.20: *"...you (the researcher) showed a lot of open-mindedness, and the proof is (bangs on the table), Charlie (the second director) told me: "they (the faculty) are putting a spanner in the works concerning his (the researcher's) international role. He (the researcher) must be programme director"*. **FR**

Charlie p.31: "...yes, it (the international dimension) was put in place by a small group, er, essentially you, your language faculty colleagues and me, and not really supported by the others, ...but the students found a lot of advice and counselling from the language team, er, the international team, much stronger than from the traditional (business) professors". **FR**

Chloe p.21: "I criticise you, you have built up a lot of things, it's linked to your personality, to your strong commitment, but it's in your head, in your heart, it's in the human relationships that you have built up, but if that stops, if you leave and you will leave one day, what will happen afterwards?". **FR**

Lily p.33: "The question of whether internationalisation is institutionalised at ESC Clermont. I don't know. Because for me something is institutionalised when it is perennial...and it is fragile when it depends on one person, etc. In other terms, recently with my colleague, we asked ourselves: 'But if Mike leaves, what will happen to international?'". **FR**

James p.8: "I thought you were the driver in the school, OK? Before...kind of individual agent of change, an individual, er, er, what's the name of the guy with the lantern looking for, you know, going around, saying: "here's what we gotta do"...what you've been able to do is you've established, er, an area, it's developed into a real area, a real set of expertise that we have and, um, the push for internationalisation now is coming from the, from the outside for the recognition. And people are finally waking up to the fact that yes, you've been saying this for 20 years or 25 years that we have to be open to this, well now finally people are, er, are waking up to that. You can never be a prophet in your own land". **ENG**

The Business Faculty

Some of the business faculty became involved in internationalisation for different reasons, sometimes linked to their personalities, their personal experience, their language skills or their interests.

Thomas p.61: "...some are more willing (to travel) than others...more globetrotters...some are more stay-at-home types than others ...". **FR**

Lily p.17: "...(internationalisation) is stimulating...it's stimulating, I have always liked that...I have family abroad..I like speaking other languages, I like exchanging with others, other cultures". **FR**

Lily p.25: "I think it's really my personal intellectual curiosity". **FR**

Thomas p.33: "I remember going there (Germany) with a colleague, er, er, to do a module for one week...in 1991, I think....and I went, it must have been 1993 I think, er, for one week to Wales....I did it, er, because there was an opportunity and I was interested". **FR**

Joshua p. 4: "It seems that there were members of the staff,...that would participate (in the exchanges), not systematically or, but on occasion, er, ...and there was other primarily French teachers but not exclusively, er, that would never participate, er, in any of the activities, unless

they were absolutely obliged to, forced to (laugh). So, really, for us there was a divide, there was like a Berlin wall, in this institution (laugh). **ENG**

For some faculty members, internationalisation offered opportunities to meet colleagues from abroad and engage in professional networking. This is what motivated them to become involved. For others, international activities corresponded to certain educational or personal beliefs. Gradually the driving force for internationalisation became more formalised with particular consequences. This will be discussed in the next part of my analysis.

Jacob p.17+18: *"My motivation for going abroad was I got to know Leo (a US business school dean). I hadn't thought about it. But I got to know him and he's the one who gave me confidence. So it works through the links we create with people. It's very important. So I said to myself, we talking about social capital and networks".* **FR**

Dylan p.39: *"I get involved in international....in anything that is different and that can bring us richness. Er, for me international is a richness".* **FR**

Thomas p.29: *"Indeed, er, the faculty, globally, was, er, er, finally,er, less involved (in the 1980s) than in the pioneer period of the 1970s...and it (international relations) became more and more the job of one person".* **FR**

In the past ten years, however, the business faculty have been compelled to confront the internationalisation more directly. The context, in particular, accreditations, has forced faculty to become involved. There was a realisation that their own professional development needed to become more involved in international activities.

Sophie p.5: *"...faculty were encouraged to become involved in international activities because there are the accreditations, er, and programmes in English, quite simply, international programmes".* **FR**

Charlie p.9: *"...I think that linguistic aspect is in the process of changing because there are many (faculty) who have understood that in their profile as teachers and researchers it's an indispensable dimension".* **FR**

Sophie p.5: *"...before this period...I don't think the faculty, er, I don't have the impression that people had, er, in their, how should I say, in their employability, in their, er, professional project within the school to go abroad or do international things".* **FR**

6.6.2 Internationalisation Constraints

In contrast to the external and internal drivers for internationalisation, respondents referred to external and internal factors that hindered or hampered the internationalisation process. These are now discussed before addressing the organisational processes.

External constraints

The main external constraint that respondents identified was the chamber of commerce which basically acts as the governance structure for the school. This relationship between the school and the chamber of commerce resembles the relationship that exists in most anglo-phone countries between a business school and the larger university. The principle role of the chamber of commerce is to serve its members. These consist of representatives of businesses, large and small, which are based in the region. For this reason, the chamber of commerce expects the local business school to support local businesses. The business school's internationalisation activities may not be well understood by the chamber of commerce.

Charlie p.15+16: *"they (the chamber of commerce) didn't really understand (internationalisation) at that time because it wasn't really, it wasn't really in their culture....They are accountable to their members and they want their schools to show, how should I say, a return to the regional economy"*. **FR**

Dylan p.8: *"...we have a governing chamber of commerce that is totally out touch with this type of preoccupation (ambitious international development)"*. **FR**

Thomas p.91: *"...the chambers of commerce have never given us the necessary resources to do what we wanted...compared to what one sees in other schools"*. **FR**

Noah p.16+17: *"...we are caught up in our daily activities....when I say constraints, I mean our contracts in France, the constraints of our own structure (chamber of commerce legal contract)"*. **FR**

Even when the chamber of commerce supported the internationalisation process, it cannot always provide the necessary financial resources. Indeed, internationalisation was seen as an activity that required substantial budgets. Most French business schools, even the most prestigious such as HEC, do not have such budgets at their disposal.

Noah p.31: *"The chamber of commerce wants to share our ambition, but for reasons of constraints and of considerable constraints, well, the resources don't come"*. **FR**

Charlie p.17: *"...amongst the problems (of internationalisation) are the budgets of these schools, the price of a human resource policy which is really international, this is very difficult today, that is it is not within the means of many schools,..and I would say even in certain schools, for example HEC". FR*

Internal constraints

Respondents referred to a wide range of internal constraints that prevented, or at least hampered, the internationalisation process.

Language skills

Many respondents cited the ability to speak a foreign language, more particularly English, as an essential skill if one wanted to become involved in international activities.

Chloe p.10: *"...there's the language barrier, er, me, I'm not very fluent in English". FR*

Max p.8: *"...I'll throw myself into teaching in English the day when I really think that I have the capacity to bring to students, not my level in English, but a technical level in English, of the methods, to be capable of giving a class, I would say, 100% in English, in this language. That's not the case today. There we are. So that's why I don't do it. It's not because it frightens me, it's because I don't find that, er, reasonable". FR*

Jacob p.21: *"There are people who want to get involved but who are, who are frustrated, who are frightened of looking ridiculous speaking English. I think there's a lot to be done to give them confidence". FR*

Oliver p.47: *"...what posed a lot of problems for me...was my reluctance to welcome foreign professors because I didn't master the language well enough, the English language". FR*

Dylan p.27+28: *"I haven't always replied 'yes' (to international activities) because of linguistic questions...to go and negotiate in a language you don't master, I don't feel like doing that. Er, go and do a course in a language you don't master, it's not great either". FR*

Jacob p.25: *"The first constraint is the language which is a sort of very Franco-French inhibition". FR*

Language issues were also cited by some of the international faculty who were either full-time or on sabbatical. Their inability to communicate adequately in French also had an impact on the relations they had with the French-speaking members of the school.

James pp.1+2: "(On first arriving in the school) *because I spoke no French, I had very little interaction with people outside of my little cloister, which were the other doctoral students....And we, we socialized, we socialized with the, er, international department quite a bit. Hum, I was in the management group, management department and that was, they were welcoming, er, but there was a barrier...there was a language barrier*". **ENG**

Jessica p.6: "*I just can't follow them (my colleagues when they speak French). So, yeah, in that sense I'm an add-on, I'm an inconvenience to them. Hum, on a good day they'll have a lot of patience and on a bad day they just carry on and I'm kind of like "wow, ah"..., following behind them, you know, in the conversation, so..*" **ENG**

William p.5; "*Hum, am I being integrated more into the faculty? Yes. Are the French-speaking faculty, er, talking to me more than they used to? Well, yes, my French is better and, and I think some of their English is better*". **ENG**

French faculty

Criticism of the French business faculty, in particular, emerged in several interviews. However, it was not just a matter of the French faculty. Faculty were also recognised as a 'breed apart' forming a professional 'microculture' (Schein 2010 p. 67).

Emily p.10: "*This French perfectionism is sometimes really annoying, to go and see other people*". **FR**

Joshua p.15: "*...there were little cliques, there were little groups and, er, there was always the group of, er, the Franco-French people, who were not necessarily or forcibly French, but that really, really obviously were having anything to do with, er, the foreign, er, with the international program, nothing*". **ENG**

Charlie p.7: "*..all the experience that I have had since, since we've known each other, in fact, because that's when I really began (to understand) that the French are difficult on this subject (international relations)*". **FR**

Thomas p.48: "*...at the time (1997) the faculty was dominantly Franco-French, or even Franco-Auvergnat, er, how should I say it, not convinced of the international dimension* **FR R****

James p.19: "*I think there's, there's obviously a French part of it, but I think faculty are faculty no matter where you go*". **ENG**

Psychological barriers: openness, resistance to change and fear of comparison

Several respondents cited psychological barriers to becoming involved in internationalisation. These obstacles included fear of travelling by plane, fear of taking risks, fear of the unknown. For the faculty there were also issues for losing their legitimacy if they found themselves in an unfamiliar environment where they could not master the language. There was also the

suggestion that some faculty just did not understand the meaning of internationalisation. Finally, it seems that individual personalities play an important part in determining each person's involvement in such activities.

Emily p.9: *"and there are those people who are afraid of travelling, of taking a plane"*. **FR**

Noah p.17: *"Going abroad means taking risks...it's incertitude, the discomfort...we prefer our comfort"*. **FR**

Isabelle pp.13+14: *"And why don't they (the faculty) want to go abroad? They are afraid of the language, they are afraid of going away, they are afraid of being alone, they are afraid of not being able to survive. And once they have left, it has triggered something and that's, that's success, those people there. ...for the international week when they (the faculty) don't come to speak with the others....they hide...because they are afraid of losing their legitimacy because of their accent....Then there are those who are inquisitive when they go abroad, er, they would prefer to be tourists"*. **FR**

Emily pp.8+9: *"Certain people who have not had this international experience, they obviously are resisting because they are afraid of not being up to it, of not understanding, of not being integrated, of being separated. I think this is very human. For me it's not a problem of (teaching) management or languages. It's rather this lack of understanding of what international is...when one wants to move physically, one already has to project oneself mentally. And for certain people it's really a handicap. And it's not linked to the teaching area, but it's really linked to the person"*. **FR**

Some respondents were critical of their colleagues for their lack of interest in others, their professional pride, introversion and self-satisfaction. These colleagues believed that what is done at home cannot be matched abroad in terms of quality. Other respondents thought that faculty were not open enough to embrace the inevitable comparisons and benchmarking that are inherent in internationalisation.

Charlie p.6: *"...they are people who are not interested from a human point of view in meeting somebody who comes from elsewhere, who is going to explain things perhaps in a different way, they are not interested in that"*. **FR**

Isabelle p.22 *"There's the language problem and there's also, er, they don't believe that elsewhere it can be like here or better. It's the pride of the professor who thinks that he or she is the only one in his or her area"*. **FR**

Emily p.15: *"In general, the French don't like travelling too much....It's not good this argument that the outside is not as good as France. Because we feel so good in France, because we have everything, we don't need to go elsewhere"*. **FR**

Dylan p.17: *"...er, I think that our academic teams, er, are teams that are intellectually closed, er, around their little subject world, around their little pedagogical ways of working, er, and above all, if we don't change anything for them, that's fine. Er, so to bring international into all this, it's a terrible upheaval because it means questioning oneself, one's methods, one's linguistic skills, ...a need to re-work the, the subject, the module, to bring it up to the standard expected". FR*

Resources – people, finance and time

Many respondents referred to the problem of finding time to devote to international activities given their workloads. Personal obligations were also given as reasons for not being able to be more active in international activities, especially assignments abroad.

Sophie p.43: *"...I'd love to be (involved in international), but I haven't got the time". FR*

Thomas p.61: *"...faculty are reluctant to invest the (extra) time necessary to prepare a module even of 12 hours in English". FR*

Emily p.9: *"...there is a risk for me that some people who want to go abroad.....cannot easily manage their workload". FR*

Noah pp.24+25: *"...the constraints (in sending administrative staff abroad) are many, financial, of course, time constraints, ...children, husband, etc...". FR*

Some respondents cited the relatively small number of faculty and administrative staff to cope with the increasing numbers of students.

Noah p.15: *"But as we are a small team, we are under constraints". FR*

Thomas p.92: *"...the mass of students is developing...and at the same time each student wants to be treated as an individual". FR*

6.6.3 Institutional Dimensions

Respondents referred to the need to react appropriately to the external drivers for internationalisation and to harness the internal drivers, the people, in appropriate ways. There needed to be strategies, organisational policies and processes that also took into account these external and internal constraints and resources. The implementation of these strategic dimensions and processes depended on the management and ultimately the leadership of the school.

Strategic Management

When the first director general took over the management of the school in 1979 there was a clear articulation of the strategic direction and the vision for the school.

Jack p.3: *"...when I took over as director general of the school, (in 1979), I wanted to accentuate the international aspect..."*. **FR**

Jack p.12: *"...there was also the willingness to better position the school in France, because if we hadn't had that positioning, that international specificity, we wouldn't have recruited such good students as we did...and those students wouldn't have been very good in the American universities, wouldn't have served as references, etc.....it's a spiral of development"*. **FR**

Harry p.11: *"Jack's arrival did indeed bring a change, not a change, a new direction, a greater awareness in the school of international, that's clear"*. **FR**

Jack put the school on the internationalisation track, even though the environment may have been a little less complex at that time. The internationalisation was based essentially on student exchanges.

Sophie p.44: *"I think that Jack was (director) at a time when things were easy for the business school....but he understood very quickly, and in my opinion we have to thank him for that, the importance of international and he put in place processes to give the school this image"*. **FR**

Dylan p.8: *"...If I take Jack, the question of international didn't present itself in these terms. The globalisation of the world had not been completed. International consisted in sending students abroad, that's all. Or possibly welcoming them here"*. **FR**

The strategic approach during this period was proactive. The school took specific initiatives in the internationalisation domain.

Jack p.5: *"the first decision I took when I took over the management of the school was to create international post-graduate programmes...and to give all our programmes a real international dimension"*. **FR R****

Harry p.10: *"companies didn't say to us 'go on, you must train people for international business'...the creation of the IFCI (Institute for Training in International Business)..it was the school that said 'we must deal with this problem'....and then the association of Auvergne exporters had a need, so they participated in the setting up of the programme"*. **FR**

When Charlie arrived in 1996, he recognised the achievements in international exchanges, but he attempted to put into place a more focussed strategy. This corresponded to a reaction to

developments in the market. This strategy was based on reinforcing internationalisation at home by putting in place management programmes taught by visiting professors. There was also an attempt to encourage faculty members to create new modules by cooperating with partners abroad.

Charlie p.28: *"...I think that, er, at Clermont at that time (1996), er, we were well advanced concerning (international) exchanges, but for the rest we were at the same point as everybody else".* **FR R****

Charlie REPORT p.3: *"A strategy focused on the quality of the ESC degree, at Master's level.....three main objectives...internationalise all the activities offered to the students".* **FR**

Charlie REPORT p.15: *"We created the 'International Weeks of Groupe ESC Clermont'. During these weeks, about 15 faculty members from our partner universities are invited to teach in Clermont, in their language and in their specialism....a semester totally in English for the second part of the second year (optional programme 'International Business'; the possibility to study a third language from a choice of ten, without additional tuition fees....academic cooperation with foreign universities led to the creation of International Certificates of Specialisation, a major innovation in internationalisation".* **FR**

Charlie set up a scholarship scheme to welcome doctoral students nearing the end of their research. This was an innovation and brought international elements into the departments.

Thomas p.51: *"(the arrival of 4 doctoral students from abroad) that was, you see, in my opinion, a significant event...I think that made us cross a threshold".* **FR**

The third director general began his term of office in 2001 and he continued to support the school's commitment to internationalisation. The strategic objectives included faculty development, research, programme development and accreditation.

Noah p.26: *"What is an international school? I say it's a school that practices international, at every level.....international is not restrictive vision that says "this is not international".* **FR**

Noah p.11: *"We need more foreign faculty (to be international)".* **FR**

Noah p.16: *"A faculty member who is known around the world infuses his/her institution (with internationalisation)".* **FR**

Thomas p.69: *"That's globalisation. We can see the model....in higher education the majority of faculty must have a doctoral qualification".* **FR**

Oscar p.31: *"We need to recruit faculty who are capable of teaching in English...so that we can have people who have today's profile, today's model, people who are exportable".* **FR**

Noah p.7: *"...when we put in place...the tracks taught in English, I think there was a gap there, we had to do it. It went fairly quickly, but we had fallen behind"*. **FR**

Emily p.32: *"...accreditation is, is political, for me, it's strategic and political because for us it's almost survival. We have to be in the rankings...a school like ours has to be visible through that"*. **FR**

Noah p.33: *"...(AACSB) accreditation allowed us to compare ourselves to an international standard...and to improve a number of things we did with quality, but in this way it made us progress"*. **FR**

However, the perception of the objectives and value of the internationalisation strategy has not always been clear to some respondents.

Sophie pp.59+60: *"(in international) things happen...but it's done in a segmented way, very individualistic too. And what's the objective? How does it help the general objective? How does it assist our students?"*. **FR**

Organisational policies and processes

As the school developed and grew in size over the thirty year period, the processes for internationalisation also grew and developed in specific ways. The language faculty were given the brief to look after the operational side of international exchange activities, but there was nobody officially responsible for internationalisation in the organisational chart. A head of international relations was appointed in 1990. The language faculty became the international team managing the internationalisation processes, especially in terms of student exchanges. This rationalisation was seen as a necessary step in order to gain in efficiency, even though there are still improvements to make. Ultimately, a team of experts has emerged.

Thomas p.27: *"And then without really being head of international exchanges, they (the two permanent faculty in charge of languages) helped us (develop exchanges in the 70s)...(in 1979) the head of languages...was given a clear brief to develop international exchanges and sign partnership agreements"*. **FR**

Thomas pp.37+38: *"...so it (the international relations) was structured and became a separate department (in 1990)"*. **FR**

Charlie p.31: *"...yes, it (the international dimension) was put in place by a small group, er, essentially you, your language faculty colleagues and me, and not really supported by the others,but the students found a lot of advice and counselling from the language team, er, the international team, much stronger than from the traditional (business) professors"*. **FR**

Emily p.24: *"Of course, what we are lacking is having more time to go deeper into certain things, to do them serenely. We cannot do that. So we have to rationalise".* **FR**

Ethan p.11: *"There is an effect of professionalization".* **FR**

Harry p.25: *"(The last 15 years) I have felt two things, rationalisation of our actions ...and ...".* **FR**

Olivia p.5: *"(International Week) It was sort of informal at first and then it became formal. That's, that's great".* **ENG**

Lily pp.45+46: *"...the other schools, I don't know, perhaps they are more aggressive, perhaps they are more structured. I don't feel that we are structured enough to maintain these (international) relations over the long term....we still function in an artisanal way".* **FR**

Ethan pp.10+11: *"...from that time onwards, a real group of international experts was created. Er, things had become so serious, er, er, and there such a process of globalisation that amateurism was no longer acceptable. It was no longer the era of pioneers." FR*

At the same time, there was a suggestion that the international department should play a role of 'spreading' or 'infusing' the school with internationalisation.

James p.21: *"Internationalisation in this school and in most schools, the international department is seen as a service area. OK? Uh, just like we have the service enterprises, we have the service international, we have the service scolarité, it's a service area, OK? Now, because of who you are, because of your relationship in this school, uhm, it's spread deeper".* **ENG**

Noah p.18+19: *"We need an international department, just as we need a company relations department....but we need to have the company everywhere in the school...it must be a preoccupation...If we claim that international...that we want to train managers with this open-mindedness, this spirit, er, of otherness, of meeting other cultures, then that means that international must infuse everybody and everything we do".* **FR**

There were also concerns about the negative effects of this formalisation and rationalisation of the internationalisation processes.

Thomas p.48: *"(in 1997)...er, international exchanges were not yet seen as something that functioned, yes, that was necessary, but that functioned next to or parallel to, er, the, let's say, Franco-French activities. Er, a bit, a bit like an autonomous business".* **FR**

Noah p.21: *"As soon as you have somebody who looks after something (internationalisation), then it's one preoccupation less, well, why should I get involved".* **FR**

From the interview data, therefore, there seems to be a general feeling that the setting up of a formal international office has gradually led to a certain detachment or distance from the school's mainstream activities. Over time, the international office not only took responsibility for

student exchanges, it also coordinated faculty mobility, especially the International Week programme. The language faculty were formally assigned particular geographic areas to develop. All these developments took place in parallel to the other departments in the school, but at times seemed somewhat separate.

Faculty management

For certain respondents, the lack of a more proactive strategic approach to faculty management has not helped the internationalisation of the faculty. There was a suggestion by some that the faculty should have been pushed in a more direct way. Some were not ready 'intellectually' for internationalisation, others needed to be compelled to see for themselves out in the field so that they could better understand the external environment. By teaching abroad, for instance, some respondents could begin to appreciate the reasons for the internationalisation drive in the school. There were clear statements about the school's lack of a real faculty development policy not only to encourage but also to facilitate involvement.

Sophie p.6: *"...perhaps the top management has not encouraged people (to go abroad), that's one thing, and secondly, we have the workloads...So as we don't have time, and perhaps intellectually we are not completely ready, er, so things don't happen". FR*

Isabelle pp.13-15: *"The faculty, I think if there were an obligation to go abroad every two years, they would see. ...They can only adhere (to the idea of internationalisation)...we should have been more insistent at the academic management level, for example, for the training in English. Like for the students.....every company, every institution has a role to play in training and managing people's careers". FR*

Lily p.7: *"...the school does nothing to facilitate (internationalisation), it does nothing to balance perhaps the professor's workload". FR*

Oliver p.30: *"No, I am going to be honest, it didn't". (reply to question: Did the institution encourage or motivate you to go abroad?) "...but perhaps our development hasn't been the best on that aspect". FR R***

Noah p.14: *"Our faculty need to be invited more (to teach abroad). But....to be invited more you need to be known a bit and you have to master the language totally at least to teach in English, or German or Spanish". FR*

The lack of institutional recognition was seen as a constraint for faculty to become fully involved in internationalisation. Furthermore, given the lack of a deliberate policy for faculty development, becoming involved in internationalisation was perceived as an individualistic act. Each faculty member needed to take his or her own initiative.

Jacob p.25: “*And a second constraint is the recogn....the legitimization of this idea, of this desire (international) by the institution*”. **FR**

Sophie p.7: “*...the organisation does not encourage, er, I mean self-actualisation in the sense of overall international self-actualisation of people. So everybody is in a very operational and very individualistic logic. There are people who have come to the school, who have been recruited, who say today: ‘I am getting involved in international’, er, they know the ways to be able to leave for a week, a month, 6 months, a year*”. **FR**

6.6.4 Internationalisation Process and Internal Outcomes

In this section I deliberately concentrate on one aspect of the internationalisation process that has had a particular impact on the way in which faculty perceived the process. This does not mean that the data did not show other outcomes. There were several references to various successful outcomes and these are discussed in 7.2.4. At this point in the analysis, the focus is on the way in which faculty members felt themselves to be insiders or outsiders in the internationalisation process.

Insider-Outsider

Some respondents expressed a feeling of being excluded from the internationalisation process. This exclusion was seen as a result of the professionalisation and formalisation of the international activities. This outsider feeling was also expressed in terms of a ‘mafia’ or ‘tribe’. In order to be an insider you had to prove yourself or ‘deserve’ membership of the group. The colleagues involved in international were criticised for not sharing the fruits of their activities.

Ethan p.11: “*There is an effect of professionalisation which, which, which has had an impact, or at least a little, a, euh, a...perhaps a little bit strong to say exclusion, but I have the impression now... but I heard somebody say: ‘they have carved up the world between themselves’*”. **FR**

Chloe pp.7+8: “*(When I arrived at the school) I had the impression that international was a sort of protected area perhaps, that it wasn’t shared by everybody, it was the business of professionals, of people who were specialised, who know their business well*”. **FR**

Chloe p.13: “*At one point, I was ironic, we can make fun sometimes, but it’s true, I have a story I tell, I said: ‘anyway, international is not for us, they’ve divided the world between them’, and it makes me laugh, I have the impression that it’s a little bit a private hunting ground. You have to deserve it*”. **FR**

Ethan p.10: *“a feeling, er, and again one has to be careful in using language that is a little too excessive, but, but a sort of mafia or tribe, er which, through its good relations, er facilitates that you can participate in conferences or teaching assignments (abroad) if you don’t belong to these groups you can never go”*. **FR**

Sophie p.21: *“I have the impression that there are loads of people who are doing things and who move around and who do good things, like you, but, but there is no sharing”*. **FR**

One respondent linked the emergence of a specialised group of international experts – the ‘mafia’ – to the lack of official processes in the school. At the same time, he identified one of the dangers of developing networks. The people who create these networks end up excluding others, often unconsciously.

Jacob pp.30+31: *“(The mafia objection) I don’t think it’s wrong. Why? Because our school, always the same thing, lacks official processes...At the beginning, the network allows you to open doors and to have a little bit more labour, the dark side of the network is that it creates circles of people who keep things to themselves, er, sometimes without realising it...Access to an activity can be judged valorizing by others, but from which they feel excluded even if in reality there is no express desire to exclude the people. But they experience it like that. It’s rather a perception”*. **FR**

Others, usually those who considered themselves more directly involved in the international activities gave alternative explanations for the exclusion thesis such as lack of language skills. The reactions were at times quite passionate. Olivia explained how she had suffered in going through the process of moving from outsider to insider status.

Isabelle p.20: *“I don’t think we are a mafia and that you (the researcher) showed a lot of open-mindedness”*. **FR**

Olivia pp.10+11: *“he (another faculty member) feels like an outsider...for international. I think it’s partly jealousy....if we held his hand and him in he’d still feel like an outsider because he, he’s uncomfortable with, with, er, and I hate to say it, he’s uncomfortable with the language”*. **ENG**

Olivia pp.53-54: *“(talking of becoming more involved) And it is like you say, almost like a rites, the rites of passage, you know, I’m becoming part of this team. ... but I have to go through, it’s almost like boot camp for a marines, you know, you gotta go through one year of this horrible experience, you might not like it, you’ll have pains and suffering, at the end you’ll be happy. But it must be that way for everybody”*. (laughs) **ENG**

One respondent pointed to the fact that the international team was made up of mainly non-French colleagues. She linked the feeling of being an outsider on the part of certain faculty members to their inherent fear of the unknown. This included fear of foreignness and foreigners.

Isabelle pp.18+19: *"I think we are different...the international team...we share this difference. I don't think we are closed, and that we are a mafia....And I suppose that those who say that are those who never go anywhere and never dare put a foot outside the school. And they are frightened of us....It's a defensive act...And we are different because we are foreigners, and we travel abroad, we go elsewhere, and we don't have complexes about looking ridiculous (when speaking a foreign language). FR*

Isabelle p.46: *"It's xenophobia. That's it. It's a fear of differences....we frighten them because make them leave their frames of reference. ...as soon as we show another framework which works just as well, but is not their own, it destabilizes. And I think they are frightened of that". FR*

One respondent referred to the contradictory situation in which the school has successfully internationalised the student experience but had failed to address adequately the internationalisation of the faculty. The result could be a considerable gap between the students with their international experience and the faculty who had not benefited from such experiences.

Ethan p.11: *"...there is a cleavage...almost a contradiction between a very very strong internationalisation, a massive internationalisation of the students, and, in my opinion, a relatively reduced internationalisation of the faculty. FR*

Ethan pp.6+7: *"Nothing has been put in place, in terms of organisation, for example to replace people, to allow faculty to teach (abroad)...whilst the students have had, er, this fantastic mobility. In my opinion, at some time, there is going to be a gap, er, a cultural break....between the students and the faculty". FR*

At the same time, he recognised that future generations will integrate the international dimension in their career trajectory from the outset.

Ethan p.32: *"I belong to a generation where we said to ourselves 'if I invest in a specialism, an area of expertise, er, notably research, I won't have time to go abroad....But today people are in a new model, they won't ask themselves this question because they will think, at the same time,...of internationalisation and research....And I think that that is cleavage that is to going to explode completely. People will have that double profile from the beginning". FR*

6.7 Similarities with Comparative Cases

In Chapter 5, I discussed the methodological arguments for adopting a case study approach that included comparative cases to help to explain a phenomenon. Analysis of the interview transcripts with colleagues at three schools in the *Grandes Ecoles* system has revealed some similarities and some differences concerning the main themes identified at ESC Clermont. Table

6.4 presents a summary of the similarities and differences at the schools used as comparative cases concerning the themes that have been discussed with reference to ESC Clermont. In the three columns on the right of the table a tick (**√**) indicates that the theme was touched on in the interviews and revealed a similarity to the data that emerged at ESC Clermont. A large **X** indicates that the theme was touched on but that there is a fundamental difference in the way that the dimension was perceived by the respondent. A **0** in the columns indicates that the theme was not mentioned during the interviews.

Table 6.4 Summary of the Similarities and Differences at Comparative Case Schools

Dimensions/Themes	Comparative	Comparative	Comparative
Internationalisation Drivers			
External drivers			
- National competition	√	√	√
- Globalisation	√	√	√
Internal drivers			
- Director generals	√	√	√
- Language faculty	√	X	√
- Business faculty	0	0	0
Internationalisation Constraints			
External constraints			
- Chambers of Commerce	√	X	X
Internal constraints			
- Language skills	√	√	√
- French faculty	√	√	0
- Psychological factors: openness, etc.	√	√	√
- Resources – human, financial, time	√	√	√
Organisational Dimensions			
- Strategic management	X	X	√
- Organisational policies + processes	√	X	√
- Faculty management	X	X	0
Internationalisation Outcomes			
- Insider-Outsider	X	X	0

The similarities with the themes at ESC Clermont are reported below. Differences, and the possible reasons for the differences, will be discussed in the analysis chapter.

Internationalisation Drivers

External drivers

National competition

All three schools faced similar pressures from the national competitive environment during the 1980s and into the 1990s. Internationalisation meant student exchanges and was a means to attract the best candidates. The opportunities for studying at universities and business schools abroad played an important role in the choice of school for candidates applying to enter a GEM. One respondent, George, argued that GEM graduates could no longer present themselves as 'French' products from a select 'Grande Ecole'. They needed to sell themselves as international managers.

Case 1 - Alfie p.6: *"(In the 80s) it was the era (of internationalisation). We couldn't stay only, er, (local), eh. We had to expand all over France and internationalise"*. **FR**

Case 1 - George p.17: *"Our environment was a French environment; it's become an international environment from the point of view of outputs. That is to say, today, er, if your students don't speak English, they are penalised....and if you say, er, 'there's a nice tasting French lamb', er 'there's a nice tasting Grande Ecole programme', er, you are going to be completely out of phase with the expectations of clients who are the companies and therefore the needs of the market"*. **FR**

Case 2 - Joseph p.6: *"(Internationalisation was for) conformity because from 1985 onwards the schools were international in order to convince students. In other words, the only way to convince a student to come was to offer exchanges or an international policy or an international image. And so, well, we did like everybody else, er, a policy of student exchanges"*. **FR**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.13: *"strategy there meant "how can I, er, make my product more attractive?" ... er... "how can I get people to dream?"... strategy there was: 'How can we have a competitive advantage over the others?', so, international became something where the directors were interested in order to improve their competitive position vis à vis their recruitment in France. They were not interested in their image in the world, they were interested in influencing the students and the parents"*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.12: *"So, er, then, gradually (in the 80s), in the business schools, internationalisation with the appearance of rankings became, er, became a competitive argument"*. **ENG**

Globalisation

Similarly, all three schools were driven to internationalise because of globalisation which included the growing importance of English as the business *lingua franca*, the decline in the numbers learning French, the demands of the business world and international accreditation.

Case 1 - Isabella p.15: *“Management courses in English were progressively put in place because of the demand of the students who came on exchange. This made it necessary. So I had to, initially I had to really fight with the departments, er, at the end of the 90s, to say: ‘...we cannot continue like this because we cannot want to send more student abroad and then receive more from our partner universities if we only offer them courses in French. So we really have to set up courses in English’...”*. **FR**

Case 2 - Samuel pp.2+3: *“(Why is the school so international?) ... let's say we take it up from the roots, one is X. is really, er, an international city, er, there're 500 foreign companies in X., 128 of them, I think the official figure is, 128, hum, hum, American companies based here. ...so, so of course the city in itself is quite international. Hum, the figures I give out, I think there're 62 000 students and 9 000 international. So, er, just the environment itself is international”*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.39: *“A lot of the things that have happened recently and especially under the influence of accreditation, which I have been advocating for years, are very good”*. **ENG**

Internal drivers

Director Generals

In all three comparative schools the director generals played an important role in driving, with more or less enthusiasm, the internationalisation process. Over the last three decades different styles of leadership have affected the schools. The respondents were clear about the support given by the director generals in their respective schools.

Case 1 - George pp.25+26: *“The school has gone through tremendous trials and tribulations...with lots of changes in directors...so obviously people were relatively traumatised”*. **FR**

Case 1 - Isabella p.53: *“Of course (having a director general who supports international has a positive effect on the faculty)”*. **FR**

Case 2 - Joseph p.71: *“Here we are a school with a strong ideology, and strong leadership. Why? Because if you want to start from zero and enter the elite club, you need leadership for one reason, it's to gain time”*. **FR**

Case 2 - Samuel p.11: *“Then, then it comes down to leadership... I mean. Joseph has done a huge amount of stuff...it's been a great sort of symbol”*. **ENG**

Case 2 - Amelia p.5: "I also think that Joseph has carried that in him forever. Cause he's, he's an international soul anyway and he's always had this idea that the school needed to develop. But I would say that, hum... Well, you know, the, the international aspects have been really carried by people who've had that vision, you know. First there was Joseph and then there was X". **ENG**

Case 2 - Samuel p.2: "*In terms of changes (in my new job), er, firstly was to have a director who's very international, cause I, my, former director was, hum, somebody who didn't speak English and, and was frightened travelling on a plane...so actually having a director who really knew, er, the international side, knew what he was doing, had done, you know, been doing it for 25 years. So that makes a huge difference*". **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.5: "(Getting involved in internationalisation) *Well, it's a combination of individuals, er, X, as a language teacher then the director general was obviously, er, a bit like yourself, when you were running the ESC program, you didn't need to be convinced*". **ENG**

Language faculty

Respondents from cases 1 and 3 demonstrated the role of the language faculty in the internationalisation process.

Case 1 – Isabella p.5: "*in 97, when X, left, the then director of international relations and the languages department...his post was split in two*". **FR**

Case 3 - Daniel p.4: "*I was Head of Languages for a long time until such time as, er, the international life of business schools especially with ERASMUS became more and more a job for professionals. You could no longer do that on a part-time basis in a way, as a sort of add-up to your language service, so I left the language department, moved on to international*". **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.6: "*I moved into international for the simple reason that when people started wanting to go abroad...all the meetings were always in English, ...so, er as happened in many business schools, the only guy who could accompany the director side, who could answer in English or type letters, answer by fax or to letters in English, was the language teacher, it so happened, they had a bilingual at their disposal, exactly your story and this is how it happened*". **ENG**

Business Faculty

None of the respondents mentioned the business faculty as far as internal drivers were concerned.

Internationalisation Constraints

There was little mention by the respondents from Case 1 with reference to the role of the chamber of commerce in the internationalisation process.

Internal constraints

Language skills

In all three comparative cases, language issues were mentioned by respondents.

Case 1 - George p.35: *“English is a barrier...Yes and no in the sense that (our project) has made lots of people jump in the water and realise that they were not as bad as that...(teaching abroad) makes them lose their linguistic inhibitions completely”*. **FR**

Case 2 - Samuel p.5: *“if you're talking faculty, hum, I think, possibly, the pockets of resistance would be, er, sometimes it's fear, er, in the, you have French professors who'd only speak French and so once you become international you have to do it in English.* **ENG**

Case 2 - Amelia p.8: *“It's been, it's been a little more difficult for sort of the, the very French faculty who, you know, the ones that don't have a very good level in English, I mean, we see less and less of that now because all of the recruitments are, are, you know, most of our faculty now is bilingual, most of them have worked in universities elsewhere... I would say the language would've been their main hesitation”*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.26: *“this was a problem with the prev... with.. I call... the previous generation. The ones who are above 40 now. The younger profs who are coming in, have no difficulty... all the younger ones have come in, er, I don't think they have any difficulty, they all say: ‘oh, yes, I'll be interested to go’. But you're right, there is a generation whose level of English was so low”*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 2 p.52: *“when I went through the ...peer-review last year with them, I was amazed, er, faculty were not a problem. I mean, they were able to speak their own in English, er, some of them were almost bilingual, ...the faculty was no longer a problem. The problem was the senior echelons”*. **ENG**

French faculty

In cases 1 and 2 there were a number of comments concerning the French and the French faculty similar to the interview data collected at ESC Clermont concerning a resistance to some of the effects of globalisation such as teaching in English. Further issues include a certain pride in being French and a general resistance to change and outside influences.

Case 1 - Alfie p.17: *"I am good friends with a German (faculty member)..and she tells me that the contacts with the other faculty, the colleagues, are rather limited nevertheless...(which prevents contact) there is the French mentality, always, er, I'd say, a certain suspicion, a basis of observation, of analysis...a relationship with somebody is an investment, so is it a bad investment? Is it a bad investment?"*. **FR**

Case 1 - Isabella p.17: *"The faculty members didn't particularly want to do it (accept management courses in English). Well, firstly there weren't the competences. And even those who, with a little bit of work, could have done it, er, didn't really want to. There was a, well, a, strangely, there were quite strange reactions, suddenly, concerning the protection of the French language...So we really had to fight to make them understand that one could be a champion of Francophony and that it didn't rule out the fact that one had to accept that the French language was not the international language"*. **FR**

Case 1 - Alfie p.26: *"Er, in France we are too perfectionist. The French are intolerant with people who don't speak French perfectly. And so they hesitate to speak English because they are afraid of being judged by people who speak French badly, er. (laughter) It's this side that make us appear as snobs, but actually, er, we are victims of this perfectionism"*. **FR**

Case 1 George p.11: *"...there are things in terms of culture, international acculturation, which are not done at the school today, er, and which will not be done in the short term.....the idea of an alliance...to force acculturation because anyway, if you don't exchange in English with the others, they are not the ones who are going to exchange in French. So, er, er, learn to exchange, learn to see things, to people differently beyond the question of language, er, acculturation it to say to oneself, er, OK, an Englishman cannot understand the Grande Ecole programme....how can we overcome our Franco-French model and our Franco-French certainties"*. **FR**

Case 2 - Joseph p.48: *"...of course there was a natural resistance to change. A resistance firstly because everything we introduced with the French, which had a lot to do with it, either because the French people did not understand, they came from the university where people didn't publish, or they refused. That is to say, they thought they were coming to a business school where there is no research because they didn't like research"*. **FR**

Case 2 – Samuel p.5: *"Hum, some... sometimes there's, er, a mild form of xenophobia, er, which is, it's, er, the, the irony, I mean, you get this here, you get it anywhere in France and you get it everywhere across the world, is 'I'm the only professor that knows how to teach this subject properly', er, or 'we are the only departments that knows how to teach finance or strategy or marketing or whatever, nobody else in the world'..."*. **ENG**

Psychological: openness, resistance to change and fear of comparison

Respondents from cases 1 and 2 also mentioned psychological reasons for resistance to internationalisation and the resulting constraints to development.

Case 1 - Alfie p.27: *"some say 'there is a threat against our cultural identity. That is to say that we are used to teaching in French, and now, look, with this period of global, globalisation we are compelled to teach in English, we are going to lose our soul'. And there's also this fear: 'I cannot express exactly what I feel in English as well as I could do it in French'"*. **FR**

Case 2 - Joseph pp.18+19: *"...you have another problem...it's fear. Because then you have a lot of people who say: "Oh, the bar is too high, you have to speak several languages, well, you have to speak English at least. Er, there are constantly international activities, so if I am not up to it, it's a annoying. But, well, it's rule of the school".* **FR**

Respondents from all three comparative schools reported various forms of lack of openness to the different cultures, resistance to change and a lack of interest in innovating.

Case 1 - Alfie p.16: *"...at the time of B., 20 years ago, when he wanted to open up the school,...'oh, no, the Americans will bring down the level', er, it was typical. 'They don't work like us' Well, er, that's obvious".* **FR**

Case 2 - Joseph p.48: *"...of course there was a natural resistance to change. A resistance firstly because everything we introduced with the French, which had a lot to do with it, either because the French people did not understand, they came from the university where people didn't publish, or they refused. That is to say, they thought they were coming to a business school where there is no research because they didn't like research".* **FR**

Case 3 - Daniel 2 p.49: *"there are people who're always on the lookout for new things, and, er, people who are simply not interested".* **ENG**

Resources – human, financial and temporal

Resources were often cited as reasons for not internationalising as much as may have been desirable. There was also concern about using resources in an appropriate way.

Case 1 - Isabella p.44: *"For an average-sized school like ours which has significant ambitions in internationalisation, (the challenge) is to find the resources to, er, continue this development because there is no doubt, er, an international development requires considerable resources...there are many schools moving fast in this area...Staying in the race is not simple".* **FR**

Case 1 - Isabella p.42: *"I would be delighted if we had the financials means, er, to have, er, a campus in Asia, a campus, er, to offer our own programs over there, perfect. But at least if we don't have that, to have a much more significant presence in the delocalisation of our programmes, er, in partnership with institutions elsewhere in the world".* **FR**

Case 2 - Samuel p.25: *"I think its (the school's) main challenge in the next two years, it's not the fact that it's not doing enough, that it's trying to do too much and that it's got ambitions that go beyond its resources... Er, there are other constraints which are, which are quite practical, practical, hum, very real, which is being felt by, er, everyone. One of them is hiring good professors".* **ENG**

Case 2 - Amelia p.35: *“and I think you know it's a question of making sure that, you know, the development is kept in check and that there's always an open discussion between the, the visionaries and the developers and those who are, you know, doing the numbers and counting faculty heads...I wonder how long it really is sustainable for, er, for... schools to continue, you know, flying people around and I just think that one day we gonna have to start asking questions about how, you know, how much we can afford to pe.. to put people in, in airplanes all the time, from, from an environmental perspective and an economic perspective, I mean, I think that, you know, I don't know where we're going with that. But that's tomorrow”*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.20: *“So, see the young profs, they are tired with that (workload)... their research, their teaching...their families... you can't imagine sending them abroad for more than a mon..., er, a week or two. So that's one of the limitations”*. **ENG**

Organisational Dimensions

Many of the comments on strategic and faculty management reflected differences in approach to internationalisation. These refer to more recent or current practices in managing the international processes. At case 3 the respondent described an approach similar to ESC Clermont's strategy in the early days of internationalisation.

Case 3 – Daniel p.24: *“So, I had a free, I had a free hand and I was allowed to be a black box...So, that's not really what you would call strategy, it's intuition. That's how should I say it, I look at the weather and (sniffing the air)...”*. **ENG**

However, it is clear that in general the comparative case schools adopted some alternative internationalisation strategies. This aspect will be discussed in more detail in the analysis chapter.

Organisational Policies and Processes

Respondents from case 1 and 3 concurred with ESC Clermont on the professionalisation of the international activities. When an international office was set up the faculty became distanced from the day-to-day international activities which concerned essentially the student exchange programmes.

Case 1 - Isabella p.12: *“I don't think (the faculty members) realize what the students do when they are abroad. They have no idea”*. **FR**

Case 1 - Isabella p.34: *“We have the same feeling (the more professional we become in our structure, the international office, the more we are cut off from the others)”*. **FR**

Case 1 - Alfie pp.21+22: *“Er, it’s true, everybody says it, it was a family before. Now it’s much less so. And it’s become very administrative. But that, er, it’s our, er, we are all threatened by that... By this administrative side which introduces rigour, a coldness, which is to the detriment of human relations”*. **FR**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.14: *“International...is a 7-day commitment”*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.23: *“At the moment I know the school’s becoming very structured, from the small business is becoming a big business. So, my successor she has to go through committees, she has to demonstrate this and that... I would always be, er working on, er, you know, like a small business. In other words 24 hours a day”*. **ENG**

Case 3 - Daniel 1 p.27: *“You remember that Monty Python program on accounting?...Er... where you had John Cleese as a stupid manager à l’anglaise and then you had Ron something as a, as a nasty little accountant, and the guy would say: ‘accounting? I leave accounting to accountants just as I leave, er, catering to catering people’ (So you leave international to the international people)”*. **ENG**

6.8 Summary

In this analysis I have identified some underlying themes that emerged from the data. Internationalisation at ESC Clermont has been driven by external forces, in particular the globalisation of higher education and the resultant national competitive environment. Within the school, internationalisation was driven essentially by the director generals and language faculty members. Three phases in the school’s history correspond to the evolution of the internationalisation process over time. These phases also correspond, more or less, to the periods during which the three director generals led the school. Over time, the strategic management has moved from a more proactive to a more reactive approach. This aspect is developed further in the next chapter. The formalisation of the international activities was a necessity as these activities, in particular, student exchanges, became more complex. The emergence of a dedicated, professional international team has led to less faculty involvement in the internationalisation process. At the same time, the way in which the faculty was managed has been identified as another important theme. This lack of proactive policies may have contributed a lack of faculty involvement. Certain similarities to the ESC Clermont internationalisation have been identified at comparative institutions. The reasons for certain differences will be discussed in the analysis chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ANALYSIS

Overview

- 7.1 Introduction**
- 7.2 Linking the Research Issues to the Data**
 - 7.2.1 Reasons for Internationalisation at ESC Clermont**
 - 7.2.2 Main Drivers of Internationalisation**
 - 7.2.3 Understanding the Internationalisation Process**
 - 7.2.4 Outcomes and Future Challenges**
- 7.3 Comparative Cases**
- 7.4 Summary**

In this chapter, I analyse the data presented in the previous chapter at a deeper level in a more focused manner. The intention is to shift from the preliminary descriptive account towards one which analyses these findings to establish what they mean for our understanding of the internationalisation processes. Section 7.1, the introduction, gives a summary of the research issues. These are addressed systematically in 7.2 treating each issue separately in relation to the data. Section 7.3 discusses some of the differences that emerged from the data at the comparative cases at other French business schools. Finally, section 7.4 presents some conclusions and leads on to Chapter 8.

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented an analysis of my data in a narrative form. This involved discussing how major themes relevant to my research questions emerged from the data. In this chapter, the analysis goes deeper and I attempt to understand and analyse the data with reference to my research objectives and issues. I have tried to analyse how the main participants in the internationalisation process understood how the internationalisation actually happened. The main research are the reasons for the internationalisation, the main drivers in the process, the internationalisation process itself and some of the outcomes and future challenges.

7.2 Linking the Research Issues to the Data

The data have provided some understanding of the research issues. I will now examine these research issues in relation to the narrative data provided through the interviews. A number of issues and themes that have already been discussed in Chapter 6 are now re-visited. The aim is to link this initial data analysis to the research issues and to attempt to interpret the data in the light of these issues.

7.2.1 Reasons for Internationalisation at ESC Clermont.

Historical background

Internationalisation at ESC Clermont developed over time and was influenced by a number of different factors. It became clear from the interview data that one of the reasons for the school's decision to become involved in international activities went back further than just the thirty year period covered in my research. The respondents from the preliminary interviews provided insights into some of the dimensions of internationalisation that were already present in the school before 1979. Courses were offered in international trade, international economy and exporting. Languages were an integral part of the business school curriculum. In fact, internationalisation seemed to be part of the school's 'genetic make-up' and culture.

Jack p.1: (in the 1950s) *"I think there was an option 'trade and international trade', yes....so there was already a course in economy, international economy, but it was relatively light"*. **FR**

Harry p.1: (in 1968) *"There was a hint of international with the term exterior or foreign, but it was essentially, er, exporting, er, ah, so trade and exporting"*. **FR**

Sophie p.1: *"We had language classes of at an excellent level, but ...international was in the culture of the school at that time (1977-80)"*. **FR**

Oliver p.5: *"I think this international aspect was somehow, was there, was in the genes...in the genes...in the culture of the school"*. **FR**

Student exchanges were limited to one long-standing partnership with the University of Kansas. Thanks to this agreement, students could study for an MBA in the United States after graduating at ESC Clermont. However, no clear explanation was given by respondents about why this exchange had been set up in 1949, nor did there seem to be any formal, institutional management of the exchanges in the 1970s.

Jack p.2: *“And then there was already at that time (during his student days) an agreement with the University of Kansas that goes back to the 50s, er.....yes, 1949,..”*. **FR**

Harry p.1: *“...there was the possibility for one student to go after graduation, as part of an exchange with the University of Kansas, to go and do an MBA at Kansas”*. **FR**

Thomas p.3: *“I was one of those who benefitted (from the Kansas exchange). One student per class spent...two years in the US. But never, to my knowledge, er, did the two schools meet through their director or a professor...up until, er, 19.., er, let’s say, let’s say 76 or 77, no, the international dimension was hardly present...but at a very small level, by this exchange that had existed since the end of the 50s with Kansas”*. **FR**

Several respondents, who were also alumni, talked about the importance of the student association AIESEC in the period 1950s to 1970s. This international association was set up and run by students in economic and business programmes at universities around the world. The aim was, and still is today, to provide internship opportunities for fellow students. Respondents identified this association as the only real international dimension at the school at that time. Nevertheless, they considered it an important part of the school, certainly for the students who were able to gain their first, eye-opening discovery of a world outside France thanks to this student association.

Jack p.1: *“There were also possibilities of internships and international training, since the AIESEC already existed...And I had, er, completed an internship abroad for the AIESEC, in 1956, ...in Spain”*. **FR**

Harry p.1: *“And there was an association which was very important at the time called AIESEC which was responsible for finding internships for foreign students and in return received internships from foreign universities for students at the school”*. **FR**

Thomas p.1: *“...the only presence, er, of the international dimension, at the time (in 1968), was represented, er, by the AIESEC”*. **FR**

Oliver p.1: *“The international spirit was already there (in 1969), how should say, mainly transmitted through one of the student associations called AIESEC....which found 20 – 40 internships a year...I benefited from this exchanges (AIESEC). ...I went to Montreal for 2 months where I worked at HEC Montreal....for me it was a real discovery”*. **FR**

Another respondent, also an alumna at this time, went abroad on her own initiative.

Sophie p.3: *“I completed an internship ..in Stoke-on –Trent...I don’t remember if it was opportunistic on my part or just a chance that I had”*. **FR**

Minutes of one of the first governors meetings at the school in 1921 record the appointment of two part-time language faculty, one in English and one in German (See list of documents consulted . This illustrates how foreign languages were already an integral part of the curriculum when the school was first set up. Several of the alumni respondents demonstrated the importance of foreign language learning in the business programme. In the 1970s the first native speakers of English were appointed as full-time academic staff at the school with a similar status to the full-time management faculty. The language faculty were already the facilitators for international contacts. Languages were also an indicator of internationalisation at the time.

Jack p.2: (in 1956) *"There were two languages compulsory.....So there were already the beginnings of, of, of an international orientation"*. **FR**

Thomas p.2: (in 1968) *"...contact with abroad was through languages...languages already had an important place...There were two options..Option: 'foreign trade' those students kept the second language. Option: 'finance-accounting...they gave up the second language. Which, by the way, was a pity"*. **FR**

Thomas p.15: *"It was he (the first native speaker permanent professor in languages) who enabled the school to have the contact with (a school in England)"*. **FR**

Harry p.1: (in 1968) *"Er, the only, er, I would say, the only elements which concerned international was the fact that there were two languages, those were, er, the things that were rare"*. **FR**

According to the respondents, students and faculty from abroad were more of a rarity in those early days. International students were almost exclusively from the then French colonies. The only international teaching staff were foreign language assistants. One respondent considered there was a certain 'internationalisation' of the academic team, thanks to one language faculty member from abroad who happened to teach German and International Affairs.

Jack p.2: *"and there were students from the French colonies....Algerians, there were...Moroccans, Tunisians.."*. **FR**

Harry p.2: *"there weren't any international students, there were students of international origin who were admitted in the normal way ...through a competitive entrance examination.....there was no specific recruitment (of international students) at the time"*. **FR**

Thomas p.4: *"In each class there were 1, 2 or 3, er, African students"*. **FR**

Harry p.2: *"..there were language assistants who worked in the language laboratory...(but not international faculty)"*. **FR**

Ethan p.3: *“There were people (language faculty, but also teaching International Affairs) who, who came from, from, from other countries than France. So I very, very quickly had this impression (in the 70s) that there was indeed an internationalisation of the academic team....but this did not lead to internationalisation of the teaching...at that time, no”*. FR

However, even during the 1960s and 1970s the director general at that time defended the idea that the school needed to develop the school internationally. He had understood the need to set up partnerships with schools abroad and open the school up to internationalisation.

Thomas p.14: *“He (the director general in 1976) decided that it was necessary to put in place, really, partnerships between institutions, er, with foreign schools”*. FR

Harry p. *“in 1977..the school really decided to open up to international...and not from a commercial marketing perspective, because at time it was Mr. Monginoux (director general at the time)...who had had a brief experience with, er, an English institution”*. FR

In terms of international experience in other countries, faculty from ESC Clermont participated as trainees in development programmes in the US sponsored by the French association to promote management education, the FNEGE (*Fédération Nationale d’Enseignement de Gestion des Entreprises*).

Thomas p.4: *“..the international dimension, it developed a little bit at the beginning of the 70s when, er, the first full-time professors at the school, er, they were encouraged to go and complete their education in the United States. I was the first when I left from 69 to 71....I was told: ‘You go to the US, but when you come back you have to work for us at least one, if not two years”*. FR

These transcript quotes illustrate how the seeds for international development and growth were already present in the school’s historical make-up. The reasons for these international dimensions are less explicit. However, internal initiatives such as appointing full-time native language faculty, demonstrated the school’s commitment to providing students with the knowledge and skills to work successfully in an already international business environment.

Concerning my first research question, the reasons why ESC Clermont developed internationally can be explained to a certain extent by its history and by its culture. Some initiatives had already taken place – attempts at including international dimensions in the curriculum, the presence of some international students, foreign language assistants and international internships through the student association, AIESEC. Language learning was already part of the school’s culture and continued to be supported, especially through the appointment of full-time faculty in English.

From the data, it is not clear why the director general at that time began to promote contacts with universities abroad. It may have been because of an opportunity through a personal relationship or through contacts provided by the English language faculty.

Rationale for Internationalisation – Phase 1: 1979-1995

The data from the respondents who had known the school intimately, as students and then as faculty, illustrate the historical foundations that provided the fertile ground for the school's increased internationalisation. The drive forward in Phase I came from two sources. Internally, the director general provided strategic direction and vision when he was appointed in 1979. Several respondents demonstrated his role in establishing a clear international agenda for the school. Externally, respondents who had had a long experience in the school showed that the international agenda was driven forward in a more intensive way because of an increasingly competitive French management school environment.

The data in Chapter 6 have provided evidence for the reasons why the director general had embraced internationalisation. Firstly, he wanted the school to produce graduates with an international culture so that they could operate professionally anywhere in the world. Secondly, he aimed to improve the quality of the pedagogy and the curriculum by benchmarking practices in other countries, in particular the United States. The aim was to adopt the best from the French and US approaches. In fact, at this period the US business schools were seen as models for the French schools which were trying to modernise their programmes. The FNEGE (French Foundation for Management Training) provided considerable funding for faculty development with scholarships for teaching staff to complete their management education in the US. In this way, teaching practices changed at the school. One example which shows the extent of internationalisation was the introduction of the case study method.

Thomas pp.8-10: *"The case study approach really became one of the pillars, er, the basis of the pedagogy developed at the school at the time. And always with Harvard as the reference...at the time, beginning of the 70s, there was no business education in the universities....so where to train these permanent professors? By sending them to the United States thanks to scholarships from the FNEGE (Fondation Nationale pour l'Enseignement de la Gestion des Entreprises)...these professors returned from the US inspired by the American methods". FR*

A third reason for internationalisation was to promote and to improve the school's image. Internationalisation gave the school a specific competitive advantage in the national business

school market. Fourthly, the data confirm that the director general had realised that internationalisation was important for the school's development because several of the large multinationals in the area, who also supported the school's development through the chamber of commerce, had also internationalised their own activities. The internationalisation of these local companies was paralleled at the business school. Both the companies and the school had to struggle with a relatively isolated and non-metropolitan location which was nevertheless impacted by shifts in the environments in which they operated. Indeed, globalisation was already present in reality, if not in name.

Another reason for internationalisation may well have been personal ambition. The second director admitted this when referring to himself. He also suggested that ambition may have been a reason why previous directors supported internationalisation. In fact, other respondents also referred to the director general's own personal motivation as a reason for developing internationalisation. Any action that improved the school's reputation, improved that of the director general.

Oliver p. 58: *"I think that Jack played the game, but once again, of the valorisation of international to valorise the school to valorise himself"*. **FR**

Oscar p.18: *"I knew Jack well. It seems to me that he was somebody who, if you like, who was, er, you know well enough, when he could collect...the glory, the rewards, he took them, so of course, he didn't refuse"*. **FR**

Another respondent was critical of the first director's achievements and did not think that he had promoted internationalisation. The reason for this negative reaction may have been the professional relations between the two men.

Ethan pp.27+28: *"But I don't see how one can say for example that Jack was a, a, how should I say, a pioneer or a...prophet of international"*. **FR**

To sum up, the data show that there were several reasons why ESC Clermont developed its internationalisation in the period 1979-1995.

- A strategic aim to position the school in the national business school market.
- An educational aim to produce graduates able to adapt to a global business environment.
- A pedagogical aim to improve the teaching methods through international comparisons.

- A marketing aim to improve the school's reputation and image through a specific competitive advantage, namely opportunities to study abroad.
- A response to the internationalisation of local companies that supported the school's development.
- Personal ambition on the part of the director general.

Rationale for Internationalisation – Phase 2: 1996-2000

In 1996 the new director general, attempted to move the school's international agenda forward. The transcript data show that he had recognised the school's achievements in terms of student exchanges. However, other areas had not been developed. The second director general had three main reasons for developing the school's internationalisation. Firstly, he realised that the school needed to catch up with the competition and diversify its international activities. Secondly, he wanted to internationalise the programmes, the curriculum and the delivery system. The school had developed international student exchanges, but not the course contents nor the delivery mode. Practically all teaching was in French at the time. He introduced management subjects taught in English, often by visiting faculty. Thirdly, he aimed to make the faculty more international. He wanted the French faculty to be more open to international practices. Overall, the school had fallen behind in internationalising on several scores: programme and curriculum development, teaching in English and faculty with international perspectives. Faculty, in particular, were not internationally minded at the time.

Charlie p.6: *"at the time (1996) research activities were very weak and if people are not obliged to publish then they were not confronted with international journals nor the need to publish in English, so they had no real interest in entering the international stage, in exchanging"*. **FR**

To sum up, the data show that there were several reasons why ESC Clermont developed its internationalisation in the period 1996-2000.

- A strategic aim to position the school on a par with its competitors in terms of internationalisation.
- A pedagogical aim to internationalise the programmes and curriculum.
- A human resource management aim to make the faculty more international.
- Personal ambition on the part of the director general.

In short, internationalisation in this period was recognised as a fundamental part of the institution, especially in terms of student mobility. The organisation and management of the international activities also became more formalised. However, despite the efforts of the director general, the faculty did not fully embrace internationalisation in terms of the programmes, the curriculum, cooperation with colleagues abroad and the recruitment of international faculty.

Rationale for Internationalisation – Phase 3: 2001-2010

The data corresponding to this phase revealed a change in the justification or reasons for internationalisation. The third director general who led the school through this period implicitly accepted that the main reason for internationalising the school was the educational reason that had already been espoused in the late 1970s. By the year 2000, the globalised environment had rendered an international education mandatory.

Noah p.19: “If we claim that international, that we want to train managers with open-mindedness, this spirit, er, of otherness, of meetings, of other cultures and etc., well that means that international must be infused everywhere”. **FR**

However, when respondents talked about internationalisation in the first decade of the 21st century, it was almost as if the question of ‘why internationalise?’ had become irrelevant. Globalisation had made it imperative for a school such as ESC Clermont to have an international dimension. Students already accepted that they would live and work in a globalised environment. They were prepared to live in different places and change jobs several times in their careers. In fact, for many respondents internationalisation had become an inevitable reality, imposed by the external environment. The reason, therefore, for internationalising was to comply with expectations from the business world and from students. It was also to conform to the expectations of the national market. The French GEMs were offering very similar ‘products’ concerning internationalisation at home and abroad. An increasingly isomorphic group of schools offered courses in English and imposed an international experience in a university or company abroad as a condition for graduating.

Dylan p.4: “...in the globalised world in which we live there is no place for a school that is not in the logic (of internationalisation)”. **FR**

Oscar p.33: *"International must be an element (of recruiting new faculty)...There's no other solution, er. Even if we wanted to do it differently, I think that competition imposes it on us. We don't have the choice".* **FR**

Harry p.60: *"It's the environment that determines the strategy ...all the schools (of management) look alike".* **FR R****

James p.10: *"I think it's a matter of, I think it's recognition of the reality of the world, that the business world operates, er, in, in, er, in more than just our local environment".* **ENG**

One respondent pointed out that the overwhelming pressure from this globalised environment meant that there was no longer any reason to have to justify developing international activities. Internationalisation had become the norm.

Ethan p.29: *"...today we are in a world where our environment, er, plays in our favour, er, we don't have to develop a great effort".* **FR**

Some respondents thought that the third director general also used internationalisation to further his own personal ambition and reputation. He was very opportunistic not only in internationalisation.

James p.28: *"And Noah firmly has always firmly believed what's good for Noah is good for the ESC Clermont. Uh, uh, so, in his drive to improve his reputation he believed that he was improving the ESC Clermont".* **ENG**

Isabelle p.36: *"I don't think Noah does anything without a reason and which is above all to profit from all the opportunities that appear".* **FR**

Respondents were critical of the third director general's articulation of his strategic aims for the school. In terms of internationalisation, respondents found it difficult to understand why certain international activities were being embarked upon.

Sophie pp.59+60: *"(in international) things happen....but it's done in a segmented way, very individualistic too. And what's the objective? How does it help the general objective? How does it assist our students?".* **FR R****

Ethan pp.35+36: *"I have no idea what is happening (in Africa)...".* **FR**

Olivia p.40: *"(on projects in Africa) I don't really know the whole story. I don't have the whole picture".* **ENG**

These comments reflected a lack of communication on the strategic goals of the school in general. Some respondents felt that internationalisation was only present when the head of international development, the researcher, talked about it or when it was used as an external communication tool to promote the school and improve recruitment. International was not sufficiently present in the school. More specifically, respondents referred to the disconnect between the public rhetoric and the perceived reality.

Lily pp.31+32: *“International is supported in communication. In fact for me international it’s almost you at school. It’s true, it’s Mr. International we talk about, you talk about it, but if you don’t talk about it, it doesn’t exist...It’s true that international is present, er, when we organise the admissions interviews, when there are meetings, we talk about accreditations”.* **FR**

Olivia p.7: *“It’s funny. They use it (international) when they want to and they don’t, they, they don’t approve it if it’s not necessary. I, I, I think, er, I always...when, when we’re recruiting candidates and everybody’s selling the school...oh, yeah, international is number 1”.* **ENG**

To sum up, the data show that there were several reasons why ESC Clermont developed its internationalisation in the period 2001-2010.

- A strategic necessity to respond to globalisation.
- An educational aim to produce graduates able to adapt to a global business environment.
- A marketing aim to keep up with the national competitors and establish a presence in the international arena.
- Personal ambition on the part of the director general.

Overall, the strategic approach during this period focused on tactics and actions that aimed at keeping up with the competition. The personal involvement and aspirations of the director general were also key drivers.

Table 7.1 gives a summary of the main reasons for internationalisation during the three phases examined in this research.

Table 7.1 Rationale for Internationalisation at ESC Clermont 1979-2010

Phase 1: 1979-1995	Phase 2: 1996-2000	Phase 3: 2001-2010
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic aims • Educational aims • Pedagogical aims • Marketing aims • Internationalisation of local companies • Personal ambition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic aims: competitors • Pedagogical aims • Faculty Internationalisation • Personal ambition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic aims: globalisation • Educational aims • Marketing aims • Personal ambition

In each of the phases educational or pedagogical aims provide some of the reasons for internationalisation. The educational aims concerned the overall outcomes in terms of the profiles of the graduates. The stated, or implicit, aim was to use internationalisation to improve or to develop the educational experience for the student so that they were better prepared to work in a globalised environment. The pedagogic aims were more concerned with the programme contents and the delivery methods, including teaching in English. Marketing aims were important in Phases 1 + 3, and also implicitly in Phase 2 when it was realised that internationalisation had not kept up with the competition, except on student exchanges. Indeed, over the past thirty years internationalisation has been used to promote the school's image in order to compete on the national market and recruit top quality students. In Phase 1, internationalisation was mentioned by the then director general as a necessity given that companies in the area had also internationalised their activities. However, no other respondents discussed this objective. In Phase 2, the internationalisation of the faculty was given as a reason for internationalisation. In fact, the objective was to internationalise the faculty in order to offer programmes in English and thereby increase the potential for recruiting fee-paying international students. Globalisation was definitely a reason for internationalisation in Phase 3. There was no longer a strategic choice. The school had to acknowledge the reality of a globalised world. The school's main clients, the students and the companies that recruited them, expected the school to provide an internationalised education. Rankings were putting additional pressure on the school to engage in projects such as international accreditation, research, international faculty and double degree programmes for students. Finally, it appears that internationalisation was driven by the personal ambitions and aspirations of all three director generals.

7.2.2 Main Drivers of Internationalisation.

Internationalisation Drivers – Phase 1: 1979-1995

The data show that national competition between the French GEMs was one major external driver for internationalisation during phase 1. At the same time, leadership and vision were provided by the director general. Respondents explained how he took a deliberate international stance. He was personally involved in developing or initiating several international projects – student exchanges, double degree programmes and the setting up of a Master’s programme in international trade and a specialised Master’s in European Human Resource Management.

The data also show that the language faculty played an important role in improving the students’ language skills, in preparing students to study abroad, in welcoming international students and in developing and managing international partnerships. These faculty members actively promoted the student exchanges and became passionately involved in their work as illustrated by the interview data of several respondents.

In Phase 1, the business faculty played a certain role in the internationalisation. In the early days, many were involved in meetings with international colleagues. Some were personally interested in participating in teaching abroad. Others were involved in welcoming students, finding accommodation and internships. However, the real driver was not a specific strategy or policy to manage the faculty’s participation in the internationalisation. People became involved either because of necessity given the small numbers of full-time faculty at the time or because of personal interest or motivation.

Finally, I myself played a role in the internationalisation, both as a language faculty member from 1981 onwards, as head of international relations from 1990, and also in an administrative role as director of the main degree programme from 1999 to 2005 and project leader of the accreditation process. Some respondents referred to the relationship between the director general and myself in the internationalisation process. This relationship was based on trust. I was empowered to take a considerable number of decisions such as developing new international partnerships or responding to new projects opportunities. Furthermore, I was entrusted with managing a team of language faculty who in their turn took responsibility for developing specific geographic zones. There was a clear interdependence between the director general at the strategic level and myself as a senior administrator at an operational level.

However, the boundaries between the two levels were never hard and fast. Indeed, a key success factor was the cooperative spirit in which both parties contributed to both the strategic decision making and the operationalisation on the ground. Foskett (2010) has shown the importance of strategic and operational skills to drive the internationalisation agenda: “At the most senior level it is clear...that of key importance is a personal history of international engagement that enables the strategic process for the institution to have a well-informed perspective on the reality of working in international arenas” (p.49). Later in my analysis, I will examine my professional involvement in the internationalisation more deeply in the light of the views expressed by several respondents.

Internationalisation Drivers – Phase 2: 1996-2000

The external context had become more globalised in Phase 2. Several respondents indicated how the French faculty displayed a certain resistance and conservatism in the face of growing pressures to adapt to globalisation. As discussed above, the newly appointed director general, in his responses, referred to the fact that the school had not developed internationalisation sufficiently beyond the student exchanges phase.

The data show how the director general was definitely committed to internationalisation. He had a clear strategy of ‘internationalisation at home’. An important innovation was the introduction of more teaching in English and in other foreign languages. He provided the funding and strategic support to set up an International Week during which management subjects were taught in a foreign language by visiting faculty from partner universities. He introduced a one-semester programme in English and encouraged students to learn a third foreign language. Finally, he introduced a pedagogical innovation called ‘International Certificates of Specialisation’.

Isabelle pp.32+33: “ *Charlie (the second director) was somebody who believed in the necessity (of international) because he was a very open person who had lived abroad and above all somebody who reflected a lot and I think that he had understood the importance of international....He was sure of himself...so when he spoke bad English with his accent or a few words of Spanish he didn't lose his legitimacy as general director of the school*”. **FR R****

Charlie REPORT p.3: “*A strategy focused on the quality of the ESC degree, at Master's level.....3 main objectives...internationalise all the activities offered to the students*”. **FR R****

Charlie REPORT p.15: *“We created the ‘International Weeks of Groupe ESC Clermont’. During these weeks, about 15 faculty members from our partner universities are invited to teach in Clermont, in their language and in their specialism....a semester totally in English for the second part of the second year (optional programme ‘International Business’; the possibility to study a third language from a choice of ten, without additional tuition fees...academic cooperation with foreign universities led to the creation of International Certificates of Specialisation, a major innovation in internationalisation”.* **FR**

Oscar p.21: *“I think he innovated from a pedagogical point of view, that’s for sure. He let things happen. He didn’t, he didn’t turn everything upside-down”.* **FR**

The second director general attempted to internationalise the curriculum by involving the business faculty in setting up new specialisation modules to be constructed and delivered in cooperation with colleagues from partner universities abroad. Despite his efforts, for a number of reasons which will be discussed in the conclusions, the business faculty did not become more involved in international activities.

The director general also developed close relationships with the language faculty who continued to play an important role in international development. He supported language learning as an important part of the business education. He participated actively in trips abroad and supported exchanges in a hands-on fashion.

In 1999 the opportunity arose for him to give additional symbolic value to internationalisation by appointing the head of international relations, the researcher, to assume the post of programme director. This was the first time in the school’s history that a faculty member of non-French origin, a foreigner, in fact, had been appointed to such a post.

Internationalisation Drivers – Phase 3: 2001-2010

Globalisation was already driving internationalisation in Phases 1 + 2 of the school’s development. In Phase 3 it seems to have dominated much of the school’s development. Indeed, internationalisation now infused the school, but perhaps in a tacit rather than an immediately recognisable way. Respondents referred to the need for international faculty, the need for the home faculty to teach abroad, the need to recruit doctorally qualified faculty, the influence of the national and international rankings, the need to obtain international recognition through accreditation, and the ever growing need to teach, publish and operate in English. However, on this issue there was a certain disconnect between the awareness of the need to become involved in these international activities and the actions undertaken to promote this agenda.

The third director general seems to have played an ambiguous role in terms of internationalisation. He himself was Spanish and proud to be one of the few director generals of foreign origin in leading a French business school.

Noah p.60: *"The directors (of the other GEMs), well, there's not one of them who is international. They are all French. Except director X."* **FR**

The data show that several respondents were critical of the third director general concerning his role in promoting the international agenda. Some thought that he was totally indifferent. Others thought he had no real strategy in this, or any other area. As the first quote below illustrates, the director general was not thought to have played a direct role, and yet he felt that he had made concrete contributions, for example, in expanding teaching management subjects in English and in pushing for more double degree programmes.

Thomas p.53: *"When he (the third director) arrived, it (internationalisation) made a big leap forward....But, er, sincerely, I am not sure that he, er, he was really the real booster, and the real strategic actor in this"*. **FR R****

Noah p.7: *"..when we put in place...the tracks taught in English, I think there was a gap there, we had to do it. It went fairly quickly, but we had fallen behind"*. **FR**

Noah p.4: *"Student mobility is something we must continue to encourage but that's not what differentiates a school's international policy, it's double degrees at a high level. In the coming years it'll be research"*. **FR**

Despite the criticisms by some respondents, others clearly thought that he was supporting the faculty in becoming more international. This was driven by the accreditation projects and the need to teach in English, but also because research and contacts abroad were important.

Jacob p.5 : *"...in 2003, he already began, Noah began, Noah already began to blow on the embers of 'do research', 'go and teach abroad' and 'make contacts with the faculty, er..from, from foreign universities'. And this international week was most welcome, for once"*. **FR**

One of the respondents captured the ambiguous role of the director general quite succinctly.

Joshua p.19: *"I feel that the international and I also feel that languages, er, are more deeply enrooted in this institution than ever before, but that has not necessarily and exclusively got to do with the director, if, er, at least the guy hasn't come in and pulled the, the rug out from under our feet... at least"*. **ENG R****

During Phase 3, the language faculty played an increasingly active role in managing student exchanges and developing partnerships abroad. The respondents who were themselves language faculty revealed their deep emotional and professional involvement in their jobs.

Olivia p.16: *“We (the international team) seem to take it (internationalisation) seriously and we, we seem to, er, to just almost make it a mission and we’re just gonna just really get at the heart of it...and we just gonna do everything possible to make it work, er, and from all the different angles”.* **ENG**

Isabelle pp.25+26: *“I think that you have to have the feeling (to be involved in international), but the feeling develops....you have to be somebody who has empathy because if you don’t you’ll never be interested in the partners...empathy is very important. To want to be interested, to get to know, to be known, to create professional links, er, I think that international is above all human and the objective is human...It’s like teaching, the human dimension is at the centre of everything. If you are not interested in that, if you don’t put your heart into it, it’s, pff, it’s, it’s impossible”.* **FR R****

Emily p.3: *“...I see now that we (the language faculty) are more and more integrated, even if there is still a difference, of course, because of the teaching and the content, etc., but the fact that the international relations department, through the language faculty exists more and more”.* **FR**

For several respondents, interest in others and curiosity about different cultures were essential components of internationalisation. This applied not only to the international team, but to any colleague who wished to become involved in the school’s international activities.

Table 7.2 presents a summary of the main drivers for internationalisation in the period 1979-2010. For some dimensions, such as globalisation, it is difficult to state clearly that this was a specific driving force at one or two phases in the school’s development. In fact, internationalisation was a process that developed over time for different reasons and with different drivers over the thirty-year period.

Table 7.2 External and Internal Internationalisation Drivers 1979-2010

Drivers	Phase 1: 1979-1995	Phase 2: 1996-2000	Phase 3: 2001-2010
External	National Competition	National Competition Globalisation	Globalisation National Competition
Internal	Director General Language Faculty (Business Faculty)	Director General Language Faculty	Director General Language Faculty (Business Faculty)

The external driver for internationalisation came first from an opportunity to gain a marketing advantage within a very competitive national environment. In Phase 2, globalisation, in the form of internationalised faculty, and English as the language of delivery, began to impact more strongly on the internationalisation. At the same time, the national competition was still very important. In Phase 3, globalisation continued to drive international activities and actually became a more important factor than the national competition. The school could no longer avoid facing up to international standards in business schools such as faculty with doctoral qualifications, research activities and degree programmes taught entirely in English for international students seeking more international 'products'. The increasing pervasion of globalisation meant that the school had to respond to a wider range of challenges and at a constantly accelerating pace.

7.2.3 Understanding the Internationalisation Process.

The third research issue concerns seeking to understand the processes whereby internationalisation developed at ESC Clermont over the thirty year period. These processes include the strategic management, the organisational dimensions and the faculty involvement. In order to try to address this third research issue, I have looked at different strategic approaches, events and dimensions of internationalisation as reported by respondents.

In the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, different dimensions of internationalisation have been used to measure internationalisation (Bartell 2003, Knight 2004, Turner and Robson 2008). Frameworks have also been developed to measure how far institutions have progressed along particular dimensions of internationalisation (Elkin et al. 2008). As mentioned in Chapter 3, the EFMD provides a list of standards and expectations in that school must fulfil to be accredited with the EQUIS label. The literature from the internationalisation of the firm (Johanson and Vahlne 1977; Bilkey and Tesar 1977; Cavusgil 1980; Reid 1981; Czinkota 1982; Oviatt and McDougall 1994) also provides conceptual frameworks of possible relevance to internationalisation in higher education (Scott 1998a; Altbach 2002; Healey 2008).

However, few researchers have investigated the actual processes of internationalisation, whether it be in universities or business, and even less so in French business schools. By adopting a chronological approach, I am trying to make sense of the way in which the school adapted its strategic management and organisational processes to the changing impact of the

external environment and the changing needs of the internal context. The school's internationalisation was affected by key events in its history. The internationalisation processes changed as a result of multiple factors: strategic direction, deliberate policies, happenstance, chance, opportunism and personal commitment. These are the areas that I will examine in the next section of the analysis which focuses on the internationalisation processes as perceived at a micro-level and as a development over time.

Internationalisation Processes – Phase 1: 1979-1995

Respondents showed that the first director general was proactive in promoting internationalisation at the school. This stemmed from his commitment to providing an education to equip graduates with the necessary knowledge and skills to operate in a global business environment. The data illustrate how the leadership support of the director general was crucial at this point in the international development. However, by his own admission, he was a fairly authoritarian leader, making decisions with little consultation and explaining them afterwards.

Jack p.7: *"...I had, no doubt, a bit of a bad habit..(laughter).. of taking decisions and explaining afterwards why they had been taken, because I found that if I had to ask everybody's opinion all the time, two years later we would still be asking whether to act or not". FR*

The data show that internationalisation in the early days was entrepreneurial and innovative, based essentially on student exchanges. When the school began its European exchange programmes, very few competitors were offering students such opportunities. Several respondents were quite nostalgic as they told stories about how the international trips to partners almost resembled adventure treks.

Opportunism also played a role in the internationalisation process. One critical event occurred in 1987. This event enabled the school to leap forward in terms of student internationalisation and international reputation on the French market. The ex-president of France, Valéry Giscard d'Estaing, had become the regional president of the Auvergne. Through his support the school was given substantial funding to enable between 15 and 20 students from ESC Clermont to be admitted every year into the second year of MBA programmes in the United States and obtain a second Masters degree. The partner schools included leading institutions such as Cornell University.

Jack p.4: *“the Regional Council...helped a lot of students and it helped the school since (the scholarships) attracted high quality students who came here to obtain the double degree and we got that thanks to the Regional Council – Giscard d’Estaing”*. **FR**

Joshua p.8: *“And that’s where the link probably came with Cornell, because I think Giscard d’Estaing knew somebody at Cornell...”* **ENG**

The director general knew how to seize this opportunity to obtain financial support for the school’s internationalisation. In fact, this event illustrates how parts of the internationalisation process were really down to pure chance or happenstance. The president of the Auvergne just happened to be friends with the dean of a leading US business school. This enabled the school to gain a competitive advantage and better promote the school on the French market.

There was a spiral of development. ESC Clermont already had a long-standing partner in the United States – the University of Kansas. Students had been very successful in this double degree programme over the years, often obtaining high GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test) scores. By using these students as a reference, high quality schools in the US agreed to accept students from ESC Clermont. Since there were no rankings in France at that time, the US schools based their academic judgements on students’ previous achievements. They were also motivated by the financial support given by the region. This funding paid for full MBA tuition at the host schools and provided generous funding for living expenses for the students. An increasing number of students applied to ESC Clermont in order to gain an MBA from a prestigious US business school. As the quality of the students improved, GMAT scores increased and the US schools were very satisfied.

Joshua p.7: *“I’m sure that that (MBA programme in the US) was another, a very, very good, an attractive part of the curriculum for students and I’m sure that a number of students applied to get to our school because of that, I’m sure that that was one of the, so yeah, there’s no question it was an attractive little feature to be able to put on your, er, on the brochure, yeah”*. **ENG**

Jack p.12: (MBA agreements in the US) *“..every time we went to see the (American) universities, we explained what the French system was...and we had a trump card, the results (GMAT, GPA) of our students at Kansas”*. **FR**

Thanks to this financial support and the excellent academic results of the students, the school built up its international reputation. However, the chance opportunity offered by the personal support of an ex-president of France was fragile since it depended on his remaining in office as regional president. As the competitive schools internationalised their own institutions, ESC Clermont had to find another way of attracting good quality candidates.

Noah pp.1-2: *“Clermont was one of the schools where there was a lot of international (in the 80s, 90s)...a partnership with the Master in Human Resource with the university of DEUSTO that was well known....and internationalisation through research...and the relationship that the school had with the United States via the President Valéry Giscard d’Estaing”*. **FR**

Harry p.16: *“So, indeed, we were, we were perceived as an international school, that was then...and when everybody became international, we had to find something else”*. **FR**

The social capital that was built up through the US programme spilled over into aspects of the internationalisation. Membership of one network led to membership of others. International development in the 1980s and the early 1990s really benefited from the opportunity provided by the regional council. This turned out to be milestone event for the school’s internationalisation. It was an event that could be put down to chance or happenstance. Further development was based more on cooperation and collaboration through networks. Indeed, the experience gained in the early years of internationalisation provided the school with a well prepared base from which it was able to use ‘chance’ opportunities to great advantage.

The US MBA programme, therefore, contributed considerably to the school’s international reputation. This positive image enabled the school to continue to use internationalisation as a marketing argument to recruit outstanding students into the 1990s. In addition to the proactive strategy put in place by the director general in 1979, internationalisation also happened because of unexpected opportunities.

The data also show that the support of the language faculty was an integral part of the internationalisation in Phase 1. The language faculty facilitated the contacts abroad, especially because of their language skills, but also because of their personal contacts and knowledge of the countries where exchanges were sought. The head of languages was given the additional task of managing the operational and development side of internationalisation.

During Phase 1 of the school’s internationalisation, many processes were basically informal. Respondents who had been at the school during this period as faculty, and several as students, too, bore witness to a time of adventure and entrepreneurialism in international development. Student exchanges were managed by the language faculty. Curriculum and programme development were supported by business faculty members who had personally studied abroad or who had had some other foreign experience.

The data illustrate how the school grew in student numbers and in the complexity of its international partnerships. A need thus emerged for some more formal structure to organise and manage student exchanges. In 1990, the post of head of languages and international relations became vacant. Two language faculty members were appointed to be head of languages and head of international relations respectively. Language skills and knowledge of other cultures and countries remained important criteria for holding the international post. The new head of international relations, the researcher, continued to develop the international networks and partnerships. The director general continued to take an active part in welcoming international visitors, travelling abroad and generally supporting international developments that promoted his goal of providing a challenging international education.

In Phase 1, data showed how the relatively small size of the school enabled full-time management faculty to become more easily involved in hosting visiting faculty and students. They also travelled to partner institutions abroad. The academic director was directly involved in the international exchange programmes because the curriculum abroad had to be vetted and authorised since students transferred academic credit back to their home institution. The programmes at home needed to take into consideration the incoming and outgoing students. Internationalisation, therefore, forced some faculty to be involved in the process.

The data have also shown that faculty participated in international activities partly because of personal interest, partly because the small numbers meant it was difficult to avoid participating. There was no real management of faculty development. Any involvement in internationalisation depended much more on individual initiatives. The motivation to become involved in international activities declined especially when time could be better spent on activities such as executive and professional education in companies which offered additional financial compensation.

To sum up, internationalisation processes in Phase 1 can be described as involving the following factors:

- Proactive Strategic focus
- Strong leadership
- Involvement of language faculty, with some business faculty
- Student exchanges

- Innovation and Entrepreneurship
- Opportunism
- External funding
- Development through networking and building social capital

Internationalisation Processes – Phase 2: 1996-2000

The analysis of the data has shown that the second director general had identified areas that the school needed to develop in terms of internationalisation in comparison with the national competition. These areas included faculty, programmes and the language of delivery. In some ways, his strategy was driven by a reaction to the innovations in competitive schools. At the same time, he took proactive action in all those areas. He provided the necessary budget to set up the International Week. This grew substantially over the years and led to other initiatives in internationalisation such as the International Research Seminar. He initiated a study tour for MBA students from the US. He enabled doctoral students to spend a semester or longer at the school. He signed up the school to the recently created French agency for promoting higher education abroad, EduFrance (now CampusFrance) so that it could participate in recruitment fairs abroad. Proactive recruitment of international students was an innovation for the school.

Charlie REPORT p.23: *“During 1999/2000 we developed ‘Study Tours’ for students from certain university partners...From December 1998 onwards, ESC Clermont was a member of the EduFrance agency....created...to promote French higher education amongst foreign students”.*

FR

However, he failed to gain adequate faculty support for his innovation in curriculum development. The International Certificates of Specialisation were a new way of engaging faculty in internationalisation by cooperating with colleagues abroad to create and deliver new teaching modules in phase with company needs. The director general himself noted that he had not given enough attention to preparing the faculty. In other words, managing the faculty for internationalisation required specific action.

Data have shown some of the reasons for the failure of the certificate innovation: an inherent resistance to change by faculty, and, in particular, by French faculty; issues with the mastery of the English language which therefore prevented some faculty from participating in the certificate initiative even if they had wanted to be engaged in the process; for some, a personal conflict with the director general who imposed his own ideas on them; for others, the sentiment that it

was the role of the language faculty to teach management content in a foreign language. One respondent also shared his feeling that it was difficult to work with colleagues one had not yet met.

Dylan p.15: *“International certificates, the interpretation I have about that, er, about why it didn’t work, er, it’s difficult after all to synchronise with people we don’t know at the other end of the planet”*. **FR**

Overall, failure can be attributed to a lack of attention to managing the faculty appropriately. The strategy itself, therefore, was to try to take the school’s internationalisation further, but the actual execution of the strategy through appropriate policies and processes was not successful.

In one area of faculty management the second director general did take positive action. He appointed the head of international relations, the author, to a dual post of programme director and head of international. He also consolidated the involvement of three language faculty in the internationalisation process by granting them full-time faculty status. During Phase 2 of the school’s internationalisation the language faculty continued to play an important role. New partnerships expanded quickly through networks. The director general himself participated in several international trips with various faculty members, mainly the language faculty. In fact, he attempted to cope with business faculty resistance by allying himself with the language faculty.

Charlie p.4: *“...you (the researcher) and your colleagues (language faculty), you actually took on the international development very quickly, and in fact, very efficiently”*. **FR**

Thomas p.55: *“Er, he decided that from then on (1999) the three part-time language faculty... would get full-time faculty status...and would give some of their time to, to, er, your department, to help you”*. **FR**

As a result the actual internationalisation processes became even more concentrated in the hands of the language faculty, especially as the programme director, the researcher, was also a language faculty member. In addition to the student exchanges and partnership development, the international team was directly involved in the new programmes taught in English, the International Week, the study tour for US MBA students and managing the logistics for welcoming doctoral students from abroad. The data show that for some business faculty members it was quite appropriate for the language faculty to carry the internationalisation project.

To sum up, internationalisation processes in Phase 2 can be described as involving the following factors:

- Reactive/Proactive strategic projects
- Considerable reliance on reinforced international team consisting of language faculty
- Student exchanges expansion to new continents
- Continued use of networks
- Programme development with faculty involvement
- Recruitment of international students

Internationalisation Processes – Phase 3: 2001-2010

The data show that during the nine years that the third director general led the school, numerous internationalisation actions were undertaken. At the same time, many of these actions need not necessarily be considered as purely international activities in a globalised environment. The school's national development had become intricately connected to globalisation. The national environment needed to respond to globalisation. When the institution responded to national constraints, it was in fact responding to globalisation. Internationalisation was therefore a response to national and global demands. In other words, the concept of internationalisation had become blurred because of globalisation. The director general expressed a similar idea when he claimed that an international school is one that embraces internationalisation in all its activities. He rejected what he called the dictatorship of the accreditation bodies.

Noah pp.26+27: *“What is an international school? I say it’s a school that practices international, at every level....international is not restrictive vision that says “this is not international”...We must stop this dictatorship, yes, and I use the word dictatorship (of the accreditation standards) where there are some that are international and others that are not. What does that mean? What does that mean?”.* **FR**

For the third director general, therefore, internationalisation was more than just one distinct aspect of the strategy. In fact, internationalisation infused the school. The school prepared for and obtained AACSB international accreditation. This was a proactive strategy in terms of positioning the school at the national level. However, the hidden agenda was to ensure that the French faculty met international standards in terms of faculty qualifications and research. Under this director general's leadership there was a significant change in the definition of an individual

faculty member's profile. Globalisation meant that faculty needed doctoral degrees to correspond to an international standard. Today, a doctoral degree and contributions to peer reviewed publications have become the norm at the school. The data show how the school used the accreditation process to internationalise its faculty in terms of current global norms and practices. This external driver forced the school to compare itself to institutions abroad and to adopt a philosophy of continuous improvement.

Noah p.33: *"...(AACSB) accreditation allowed us to compare ourselves to an international standard...and to improve a number of things we did with quality, but in this way it made us progress". FR*

Ethan p.25: *"...I think for example, AACSB was a fantastic opportunity...for me it was the discovery of an important cultural dimension, er, an assessment or continuous improvement system, er, which, in my opinion, helped us a lot". FR*

Attempts were made to recruit more international faculty, but numbers remained low. There was no real dedicated policy to achieve this goal and perhaps there was some resistance to change on the part of the faculty itself. The weaknesses in speaking English remained an obstacle with some faculty despite the fact that the full-time faculty body more than doubled in numbers during Phase 3, mainly with younger faculty with improved language skills. An added drawback was the fact that the director general himself did not speak English. The language faculty, as in previous phases, continued to provide special skills in developing internationalisation. Respondents recognised this in their interviews.

The school continued to catch up with competitors as in the previous phase of its development. The director general initiated a two-year track of the Master in Management programme and three MSc degree programmes taught totally in English. This academic programme development was also to improve the degree offering to international students. A more systematic policy of recruiting more international students was put in place by various means: use of agents abroad, strategic partnerships with international schools; participation in recruitment fairs.

To an increasing extent, the school implemented international policies in response to innovations by competitors. After nearly ninety years of only providing degree programmes at Master's level, the school launched a Bachelor in International Business. Key success factors are the inclusion of a heavy dose of teaching in English and the final year abroad to obtain a second degree at a partner university.

Harry p.32: *"...there are two things that I have enjoyed experiencing with you (the researcher) at the end of my career, it's Yaoundé (Cameroon project) and the launching of the, the Bachelor".*
FR

Harry p.51: *"...I would say, I, I managed a project (the Bachelor), very short..er..a whole project, very short. From A to Z in a very short time, with an immediate result.....That's what was satisfying".* **FR**

One respondent mentioned the Bachelor innovation as an example of how the school could develop new programmes to increase revenue. Indeed, this was the first time the school had stated that it would use internationalisation to generate income. In contrast, the internationalisation of the 1980s had been an example of using internationalisation to market the school and improve national recruitment.

Sylvie p.52 : *"You see the Bachelor for example. The Bachelor was created to make money...I say that perhaps, er, you see, new programmes, extremely well targeted, identified, er, could complete the offer and give resources to the school, you see, if we lost some on the Master in Management programme".* **FR**

Respondents also referred to off-shore activities such as the projects in Cameroon, Morocco and Senegal. The basic idea behind such projects was to expand internationally through cooperation and co-development with partners abroad.

Noah p.5: *"...we chose to work rather on this idea of co-production, of co-development. The idea was to produce a degree together, to co-produce. This is the example of Cameroon, this is the example of Morocco, this is the example of Senegal. But I think we could also do this in some, in other countries".* **FR**

In his interview the third director general explained why he believed in such projects. He revealed to what extent he thought that the academic field did not operate on a purely business logic.

Noah p.6: *"I believe in virtue in education, it's cooperation 'par excellence'. Higher education, it's cooperation. I cannot be in the hardcore competition of a company that wants to gain market shares. We are here to take market shares, but we are after all academics, that means that we give and we fulfil a social demand, that we have a social function. And well, the social function is to make the country grow, to, to, to undertake things together so that, er, management improves, so we can improve the business we do together and etc. etc.".* **FR**

This was certainly a noble declaration of intent. However, the data also revealed that some respondents remained unaware of these projects and the underlying philosophy behind them. There was definitely a problem of internal communication and a lack of sharing.

During Phase 3, internationalisation happened through the continued involvement of the language faculty within the international team. This team had organised itself into a much more formalised unit provoking criticism from several respondents who talked about a closed circle of insiders. The director general himself was less present as an actor. Faculty members became involved as individuals not as a result of a well-defined faculty management policy. The globalised environment provided continual pressure on the school to change and adapt. The school copied various internationalisation initiatives undertaken by national competitors. Accreditation organisations and rankings had somehow decided the dimensions of internationalisation.

To sum up, internationalisation processes in Phase 3 can be described as involving the following factors:

- Strategic focus driven by accreditation standards
- Continued reliance on international team consisting of language faculty
- Continued expansion of student exchanges, especially to new continents
- Study or work abroad compulsory for all students
- Programme development
- Accreditation
- Internationalised profile for new faculty recruits
- Recruitment of international students
- Off-shore projects

Summary of the Chronological Analysis of Internationalisation

In Chapter 6, I identified three main themes that emerged from the preliminary data: strategic management, organisational processes and faculty involvement. These key dimensions of internationalisation appeared to have changed over the three decades. Subsequent respondents demonstrated how these dimensions changed over time.

Strategic Management

The data have shown how the three director generals adopted different approaches in their strategic management. These approaches have developed from proactive to reactive. According to the respondents, globalisation played a lesser role in determining the school's strategy in the 1970s and 1980s. The main external driver was national competition and a chance event – regional funding – that allowed to school to adopt a clear response and position itself with a distinctive international offering – the possibility to obtain an MBA at a prestigious US business school.

The second director spent a relatively short time, less than five years, at the school. He proposed a distinctive strategic approach to internationalise at home with increased teaching in English, an area in which the school had fallen behind. In this sense there was a more reactive strategy in terms of responding to market forces, but at the same time he adopted a proactive stance when he attempted to involve the faculty through an innovative curriculum development. When this failed, he fell back on the language faculty to help him drive some of the internationalisation activities.

The third director general took up his post at a time when the effects of globalisation were much more present. The faculty culture needed a complete overhaul – doctoral qualifications, research and increased intellectual contributions became the norm. Numerous international initiatives were launched, mainly in reply to intensified national competition, national rankings and global forces such as accreditation.

Organisational Processes

The data have shown clearly that the organisational processes became increasingly formalised over the thirty years. In the early days, the head of languages worked closely with the director general and managed the day-to-day operations. Over time, the post of head of international relations was created and additional language faculty were co-opted to manage the increasingly complex student exchange programmes. At the same time, because of their language skills and their knowledge of specific countries and cultures these cross-cultural specialists also became deeply involved in welcoming and integrating international faculty as visitors or as permanent staff.

Faculty Involvement

The data have also shown how the business faculty have become less involved in international activities overall. The small size of the school, and possibly the more informal management and operational style, facilitated this active participation in the early years. Over time, international activities were sub-contracted to a dedicated unit with a professional staff. This did not facilitate business faculty integration into the international activities. Language issues were an obstacle for many of the business faculty. Further constraints that lessened their involvement included increased workloads and new, demanding expectations such as higher qualifications and research output. During Phase 3, precisely at the time when globalisation was much more present, faculty might have become more internationalised. Ironically, it was precisely at this time that they were expected to spend more time on research and various administrative tasks.

Respondents also mentioned that during the whole period of thirty years, the school itself had not been very proactive in motivating faculty to become more international. In some ways there were some contradictory interpretations. The second director general blamed faculty resistance to change and unwillingness to look beyond the comfort of the very French environment. During Phase 3, respondents felt that there was a certain double-talk. Faculty were encouraged to be more international, but no real policy was put in place to facilitate such participation. Finally, the data also revealed that some faculty felt themselves as outsiders, excluded from the international activities. This was the case with some faculty who had joined the school in recent years. However, this opinion was also shared by others who had been at the school for a long time. On the other hand, some business faculty felt themselves as insiders, or certainly not excluded from participating in internationalisation if they took the initiative. Indeed, some faculty had a distinctive individualised attitude and managed their own internationalised activities despite the school context.

7.2.4 Outcomes and Future Challenges?

Outcomes

Internationalisation at ESC Clermont over the past thirty years raises a number of questions and challenges. The data have revealed that in some areas the school can boast some positive

outcomes in internationalisation. At the same time, there are a number of issues that will challenge the school in its future development.

Most respondents mentioned the fact that the school offers its students an international education which includes opportunities to study or work abroad. Respondents pointed out how the presence of foreign students has impacted the school's culture and how this reflects its internationalisation. On the other hand, as the second quote illustrates, some areas of the school are not really international.

William p.7: *"From, from my perspective (a one year visiting faculty member), it's a very international school, it has... You know, I have had students from, from at least 28 countries with at least 15 different native languages, er, over the years that I have been coming here. Now, some of that's been during international week, but those students are here when I'm not. Right. So, so, er, so in that sense it's very international".* **ENG**

James p.2: *"there's the idea of being an in, international school, which I don't believe we deeply deeply are an international school, but the one piece that it seems that everybody, no matter whether they're internationally-focused or they're very parochial French-focused, er, kind of agrees is that, uhm... foreign students, international students add a lot to the, to the school. So it's not really... In terms of being an international school which would, the scope would be very very broad, with research faculty, faculty exchanges, er, corporate, er, relationships that are more international and, and exchanges at our school, what we've really been able to, er, develop very well and what, seems to me, everybody, at all levels, er, er, likes is the internationalisation of the student body. But that's not nor..., that's not abnormal because our school is very student-focused anyway".* **ENG**

This last respondent made an interesting point. The school is focused on students and therefore it was normal for the school to be international on that dimension.

Over the past 15 years, the school has set up a number of degree programs taught in English in order to accommodate international students. These programmes, and other shorter programmes, such as the International Week, have also allowed French students to follow courses in English and other foreign languages. For one respondent, however, teaching in English is not necessarily the sign of an international school.

Dylan p.16: *"We were speaking, er, about the second year in English. I don't see what was international about that. Er, because doing the same courses in a foreign language, that's not what brings an international dynamic. That's why I, I tried rather to work on what we have just put in place...work more on the practices of international management, the cultural difference...".* **FR**

In the minds of the respondents, the concept of internationalisation itself was defined in different ways. Many respondents agreed that globalisation had forced the school to internationalise, in other words to adapt to external forces beyond the national context. The data showed how respondents believe that internationalisation should infuse the school's activities. For some respondents, internationalisation involved measurable dimensions such as international students, speaking foreign languages or understanding other cultures.

Noah p.52: *"...when one speaks about internationalisation,...recruiting international students is a measure of internationalisation". FR*

Oscar p.5: *"I have always thought that the knowledge of languages, intercultural, was very important, especially in business careers, if you like. Today, we sign contracts with the Japanese, Italians, Moroccans, etc, so we have to know at least the cultures if we want to do business at a global level". FR*

However, internationalisation also involves certain values and the pursuit of certain personal attributes. One respondent felt that the school should resist submitting to a neo-liberal view of internationalisation and embrace a more humanistic approach to management in general.

Noah p.37: *"When one works in the international field one is not arrogant...International means practising humility". FR*

Dylan p.3: *"...I don't see how a school could exist if it wasn't international....Er, but international, I think, is a mindset. It's, it's a mindset of openness, of, of working with somebody is different, er, who thinks differently, who speaks differently, er, that we are going to manage er differently because, let's say, are not the same". FR*

Chloe p.25: *"I think it is interesting to abandon the unique neo-liberal acceptance of international and propose something else that would be appropriate to our dimension, a life project...where we take the time, we adopt a position based on human proximity, a real accompaniment...a more humanistic management which would advocate less suffering in organisations, etc., social entrepreneurship". FR*

My research, therefore, has contributed to the literature by showing that internationalisation involves more than just meeting certain standards or criteria in terms of dimensions. The actual people and processes are extremely important. The data have shown to what extent the people involved in the internationalisation have been emotionally involved in their jobs. Equally emotional were certain respondents when they shared their frustration and feeling of exclusion from some of the international activities. The process of introducing and managing internationalisation is also very important. In the next section, I discuss some of the less positive outcomes of the internationalisation at the school.

Issues

The data have shown that many participants have raised issues about the school's internationalisation. In general, there were critical comments about the leadership. It appears that the first director general was able to defend a clear strategy of internationalisation which was communicated to participants. The second director general attempted to introduce curriculum innovation combined with internationalisation, but failed to gain the necessary management faculty support. The third director general was particularly criticised for not necessarily actively driving internationalisation. Respondents showed through their comments how they were not clear about the current objectives of the school's international activities. There appears to have been a lack of communication about what is happening and the reasons why certain projects were embarked upon.

One important finding in my research has been to identify the essential role of leadership in establishing the appropriate climate for faculty to be engaged in internationalisation. The data demonstrated that over the years there has been little effort to engage a wide range of faculty in the internationalisation process. There has been no real institutional strategy, nor policy, to enable faculty to become more involved. This does not mean that some faculty have not been able to participate actively in teaching abroad or welcoming international colleagues. The data confirm that this has been possible, but faculty have had to rely more on personal initiative. This in itself has also created some tension or jealousy between faculty members.

Sophie p.7: *"...the organisation does not encourage, er, I mean self-actualisation in the sense of overall international self-actualisation of people. So everybody is in a very operational and very individualistic logic. There are people who have come to the school, who have been recruited, who say today: 'I am getting involved in international', er, they know the ways to be able to leave for a week, a month, 6 months, a year". FR R***

The data showed that resistance to change remains another important issue. For some, it is something to do with 'Frenchness': poor language skills, contentment with all things French, fear of the unknown or 'uncertainty avoidance' in Hofstede's terms (1980). For others, it is linked to typical attributes of faculty: individualistic, contesting anything new. Blame was once again attributed to a lack of appropriate leadership in managing faculty development.

The school's leadership has therefore failed to fully facilitate faculty involvement in internationalisation. Furthermore, globalisation in the past decade has increased the pressure

put on the faculty to meet international standards, especially in terms of research output. Faculty shared their frustration at not being able to fulfil all that is now expected of them in terms of workload: teaching, research, administration, and international activities. It was clear from the respondents' comments that a lack of appropriate financial and human resources aggravated the pressures that faculty felt during this phase of the school's development.

However, the data also showed that there is now a shift in attitude with the younger generation of faculty having a more international mindset. For these faculty, pursuing research, publishing, speaking English reasonably fluently and getting involved in international activities are all part of working in a French business school today as illustrated by the first quote below. This contrasts with another faculty member, the second respondent. He was one of the few faculty members to have been involved in research during the thirty-year period. This was certainly an exceptional profile. The third respondent confirms that younger faculty are becoming more involved. Overall, generational factors seem to be impacting the internationalisation positively.

Olivia p.28: *"Uh, when I say people are more and more understanding of international, I feel that at the school there is m...there has been over the years, er, an attitude change, but it's also because the people are not the same. There're new people coming in who, when they arrive, already have the notion that languages and international are important, because a lot of them themselves, they're younger for one, they've language, er, they've had a different, er, exposure to languages and they've probably studied, you know, languages more, travelled more".* **ENG**

Ethan p.32: *"I belong to a generation where we said to ourselves 'if I invest in a specialism, an area of expertise, er, notably research, I won't have time to go abroad....But today people are in a new model, they won't ask themselves this question because they will think, at the same time,...of internationalisation and research....And I think that that is cleavage that is to going to explode completely. People will have that double profile from the beginning".* **FR**

Emily p.6: *"I have seen over the past 4 or 5 years the management faculty are beginning to be interested in that (international week). Of course, there are still the old ones, in parenthesis, (laughter) who resist change, in general...the newly arrived...who take pleasure, er in using this period".* **FR**

The school's leaders were also criticised for not supporting faculty to improve their language skills, in particular, English. This has been an issue over the thirty years and has prevented some of the more senior and experienced faculty from engaging more directly in international activities. Many respondents mentioned their inability to speak English as a barrier to being more involved in internationalisation.

Another major issue that emerged from the data was that some faculty felt a disconnect between the activities of the 'international specialists', that is to say the international team made up of language faculty. In addition, a certain number of the management faculty was included in the 'insider' group. These colleagues had somehow managed to become initiated into the 'mafia' and were therefore able to participate in international activities.

Some of the respondents, essentially the 'insiders', reacted quite strongly to the suggestion that the more formalised organisational structure for internationalisation, the international department or office, had resulted in an exclusive insider group. These respondents considered that their colleagues had not made sufficient effort to participate in international activities. These explanations included the weakness in mastering English, a reluctance to accept comparisons with other systems of higher education and an inability to face the ambiguities inherent in travelling and working abroad. Others claimed that their colleagues were just not interested in foreigners and other cultures.

The data also showed that the setting up of an international department was a normal institutional development. As the school's international activities grew in numbers and in complexity, a need arose to formalise the organisational processes to manage these operations. Similar developments were identified elsewhere in the school, such as the establishment of a structured department to manage student internships and relations with companies.

However, the perceptions of those colleagues who felt excluded are real. They experienced the international activities as something apart. Interestingly, these feelings were shared by French and non-French faculty who had been recruited on a full-time basis in recent years.

Chloe pp.7+8: *"(When I arrived at the school) I had the impression that it international was a sort of protected area perhaps, that it wasn't shared by everybody, it was the business of professionals, of people who were specialised, who know their business well".* **FR R****

Jessica p.4: *"I had 100 in my class last semester....and only of those, about 30 to 40 were French. And yet, the 30 to 40 get a lot of attention from the school. And your international office gives the attention to the other guys, but... but there's something missing in between..."*. **ENG**

Chloe saw the international department as separate in terms of the faculty. Jessica identified the gap in the way the French and non-French students were treated. In fact, the gap between the international and non-international was also explained as an institutional issue. Processes were lacking to socialise and welcome new faculty.

Jacob p.44: *"...it's not a matter of foreigners or not, the institution just does not know how to welcome new people. It's never been thought through". FR*

Chloe p.29: *"We've got a lot of progress to make in welcoming people because I don't think we are very good...perhaps there is something Auvergnat, Auvergne, there's a side to us, we know how to welcome people, but we mustn't go overboard...and we don't know how to valorise people...all this capital is a bit dormant". FR*

At the heart of the insider-outsider issue is me, as researcher and as participant in the school in my role as head of international development. Several respondents criticised me directly in my role as being too central to the internationalisation process. They raised the question of how my knowledge would be transferred to the institution before my departure. Others were perhaps more reluctant to state these opinions directly. I will return to these issues in the concluding chapter where I reflect on my research journey.

To sum up, the following issues emerged from data as challenges to the internationalisation process:

- Appropriate leadership to engage faculty
- Resistance to change, including 'Frenchness' and poor language skill
- Need for faculty with an international mindset
- Gap between international specialists and faculty in general
- Danger of concentrating internationalisation on one person or group

7.3 Comparative cases

Rationale for Internationalisation

In Table 6.4, I have already presented a summary of the similarities and differences at the comparative schools with regard to the main themes identified in the narrative analysis. Data from the comparative cases show that, in general, the schools had similar reasons to ESC Clermont to internationalise their schools. They wanted to provide their students with an international education, they competed amongst each other on the national level, they were coping with globalisation and essentially they were integrating internationalisation into their strategic management. One school, which had only been founded in the mid-1980s, was also

involved in internationalisation in order to meet the needs of local companies in terms of providing appropriate training and education for future managers in their companies.

Internationalisation Drivers

The data show that the drivers for internationalisation were similar in the schools that were used as comparative cases. The director generals played an important role in all three schools. In two cases, they worked closely with the language faculty. However, differences were identified. In Case 1, the language faculty were slowly replaced in the international team by a business faculty member and a team of administrators to manage the student exchanges. Data showed that one of the disadvantages of formalisation was similar to ESC Clermont – a certain distance from the business faculty. In Case 2, the language faculty were definitely not the drivers at the beginning, although they did play an important role later and still do today concerning the coordination of international activities. In Case 2, there seems to have been a more conscious aim to involve business faculty from the beginning. This may be because the school is relatively young and the director general has been involved in the internationalisation ever since the founding of the school.

Respondents from two of the schools demonstrated that they had benefitted from a much more aggressive and positive involvement of their chambers of commerce in their internationalisation. Local reasons can explain this fruitful support. In both cases, the local industries recognised the need to have an internationalised business school in their city. At Case 1, the chamber of commerce was more a constraint, similar to the situation at ESC Clermont.

Internationalisation Processes

At the organisational level, all three schools present differences compared with ESC Clermont. The data from the interviews show how strategic management and leadership can play important roles in furthering the internationalisation processes. At Case 1, there is a very focused strategy today which integrates internationalisation into the heart of the school through an ambitious project. An alliance has been set up with a foreign school and the intention is to work towards a full merger between the two institutions. Meanwhile, the project is being used to internationalise the faculty through teaching and research with the partner school. As a result of this project, English language skills are being improved through these activities. Faculty who are more reluctant to become involved are driven by the examples of their colleagues.

At Case 2, respondents explained how a separate unit was set up within the school in the mid-1990s to concentrate on internationalisation. This unit has its own degree programmes, all taught in English, and manages its own faculty. The data showed some of the advantages and disadvantages to this strategic solution. The international unit has been able to develop extensively abroad and attracts many international students and faculty. It has contributed considerably to the school's international reputation and this has benefitted the *Grande Ecole* programme. However, the director general admitted that he had to manage some of the tensions that have been created by this international unit. Jealousies have arisen and faculty have questioned some of the 'privileges' of this specialised unit. A more positive consequence has been the recent decision to internationalise the *Grande Ecole* programme further. Internal competition is paying off. At the same time, the director general has attempted to capitalise on this competition in order to promote even more internationalisation. In fact, considerable attention has been given to managing the internationalisation of the faculty, in contrast to the situation at ESC Clermont.

Outcomes and Challenges

From the interview data, it is difficult to conclude whether the three comparative schools have suffered from the insider-outsider issue to the same extent as ESC Clermont. At these schools, I was much more an outsider researcher than at my home institution. I am not sure that the respondents opened up to me as fully and honestly as might have been hoped. This may even reflect the advantages of my insider researcher role at ESC Clermont. Cases 1 and 3 organised their international departments in a similar way to ESC Clermont, albeit with administrators, rather than language faculty. On the surface it seems that these schools have managed to involve their faculty as a whole more successfully in the internationalisation process than ESC Clermont. Furthermore, from a strategic standpoint, Cases 1 + 2 appear to have adopted a more focused international strategy.

7.4 Summary

The data show how ESC Clermont was able to use its historical culture of openness to develop a focused international strategy during the 1970s and 1980s. Thanks to this international culture, it was able to take advantage of a unique funding opportunity to establish itself on the French GEM market as a school with a strong international dimension. During the 1990s it was unable to

sustain this competitive advantage, partly because the business faculty was not sufficiently involved in the internationalisation. The lack of a policy to manage the faculty's participation in internationalisation continued into Phase 3 of the school's international development. Globalisation compelled the school to engage in several international projects for which it did not necessarily have the appropriate resources. The outcome today, unlike the comparative schools, is a situation where the faculty as a whole does not feel involved in the internationalisation on an equal basis. This outcome seems to be the result of an increasingly less proactive strategic management combined with a concentration of the international activities in a small group of experts and a lack of faculty development in the area of internationalisation.

In Chapter 8, I will expand on the conclusions from my analysis and attempt to make sense of some of the findings from the data and relate these to the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, in general, and business schools, in particular. This discussion includes a comparison with the literature on the internationalisation of firms.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

Overview

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This chapter builds on the data analysis presented in the previous chapter. The three main themes that emerged from the data are discussed in relation to the literature. A framework is proposed to help understand the internationalisation process in terms of the strategic management as it relates to the internal operational processes and the faculty involvement. This framework is also contextualised in relation to the external environment and the impact of globalization. The final section presents some conclusions and leads on to Chapter 9.

8.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented an analysis of the data based on the findings from the interviews with respondents from ESC Clermont that has served as a case study. Data from this main case study has been compared to data collected at three other GEMs which served as three comparative schools. In the analysis of these data three main themes were identified: strategic management, operational processes and faculty involvement in internationalisation. These themes were shown to be of particular relevance to my research objectives in attempting to understand how internationalisation happened at ESC Clermont. Respondents demonstrated in their interviews how leadership played an important part in the internationalisation process. The data also showed how the language faculty contributed significantly to the operationalisation of the strategy. Furthermore, the operational processes became more formal over time and this impacted the way in which internationalisation was being experienced by the main participants,

the faculty members. Finally, the data uncovered some underlying feelings of exclusion from the internationalisation process on the part of the faculty members. Some considered themselves as outsiders in relation to the international activities, others showed how they felt themselves to be part of this process and therefore participated as insiders. The lived experiences of the respondents were translated through the data. By adopting a phenomenological approach in my methodology I was able to gain deeper understanding of the internationalisation process at the school.

In this chapter, I concentrate on discussing the three themes that were identified in the data analysis presented in the previous chapter. In section 8.2, I attempt to make sense of the data and the emerging themes as they relate to understanding the nature and processes of internationalisation at ESC Clermont. Since I adopted a chronological approach to the interview data I will maintain this approach in the discussion chapter. The aim, therefore, is to understand the internationalisation processes over time and in terms of the internal and external dynamics. At the same time, I examine how these themes are discussed in the literature. This will enable me to link my findings to the existing literature and to contribute to understanding the nature and processes of internationalisation at an institutional level. Finally, section 8.3 presents some conclusions and leads on to Chapter 9.

8.2 Main Discussion Themes

Three main themes emerged from the interview data: strategic management and leadership, organisational processes and faculty involvement in the internationalisation activities. I will discuss these themes with regard to the internal changes that came about as a result of internationalisation and with regard to the external context, in particular the interplay between the internationalisation activities and the effects of globalisation.

8.2.1 Strategic Management

Strategic management has been identified as an important factor in meeting the challenges of internationalisation in higher education (Knight and de Wit 1995; Bartell 2003; Knight 2004; Taylor 2004; Middlehurst and Woodfield 2007; Turner and Robson 2008; Bennett and Kane 2011). Bartell (2003) argues that university leaders need to take into account the institutional culture and to adopt a representative and participative strategic approach to

internationalisation. Knight (2004) emphasises the importance of a “planned, integrated and strategic approach” (p. 13) to institutional internationalisation. Taylor (2004) demonstrates how “the development of a strategy for internationalisation is one of the strongest forces for change facing universities at the beginning of the 21st century thereby challenging many traditional approaches to higher education and questioning the structures in place” (pp. 167-168). Middlehurst and Woodfield (2007) have identified internationalisation strategies as an important element for institutions to position themselves on a global market. Turner and Robson (2008) have emphasised the strategic commitment to ‘transformative internationalisation’ (Bartell 2003) which involves infusing the university with the appropriate management and operations to achieve this goal. Foskett (2010) has also studied institutional commitment to internationalisation and he proposes a model of five main strategies comprising domestic, imperial, internationally aware, internationally engaged and internationally focused.

The internationalisation literature has also identified the role of leadership in managing the internationalisation process. University leaders work in constantly changing, ambiguous and volatile external environments (Shiel and McKenzie 2008). Foskett (2010) argues that “internationalization challenges the skills of leaders to scan, sense and respond to changing social, economic and political circumstances at an international scale” (p. 36). He also discusses how universities leaders need to be able to manage the implementation of internationalisation strategies in an academic environment. Taylor (2010b) discusses the importance of leadership and managerial skills in the internationalisation of higher education. Bennett and Kane (2011), in their study of business schools in the UK, have shown the importance of managerial commitment as part of the internationalisation agenda. De Meyer (2012) has underlined the importance of the internationalisation of the business school leadership itself. It is clear that leaders of higher education institutions need to possess advanced management skills in today’s globalised context.

The data demonstrated how all three director generals in this case study contributed positively to the internationalisation process through their strategic management and leadership. All three included internationalisation as an integral part of their strategic choices. In his interview, the first director general articulated his strategy in a clear and outspoken manner. He explained how he had placed international at the heart of his educational philosophy. In this way, internationalisation was embedded in the school’s culture at an early stage. Later in the process this educational objective continued to be refined by subsequent director generals. For more than thirty years, therefore, the school has maintained this educational aim a part of its basic

mission to prepare students for an international business environment. Given this aim, several other dimensions of internationalisation emerged as inevitable. These dimensions emerged over time and included the provision of student mobility, foreign language instruction, a curriculum with international components and an internationalised faculty.

Foskett (2010) has argued that higher education leaders need multiple skills in guiding their institutions. In fact, the new globalised context challenges universities on many dimensions at the same time. Therefore, the strategy and tactical responses are inevitably broad-based and multi-focused. At ESC Clermont, the third director general in particular had to adopt such a strategy. The data show how many colleagues were very critical of what they perceived as a lack of a specific, focused strategy. The challenge would appear to be to implement a strategy that is as focused as possible in a situation where there is a growing need for multiple responses.

De Wit (2002) argues that internationalisation in higher education is driven by four main areas: political, economic, cultural and social, and finally academic. At ESC Clermont the three directors supported internationalisation strategies essentially for academic reasons, to provide students with an international education, but also to improve the school's reputation and image. Under the economic rationale, the three director generals at ESC Clermont used internationalisation to gain distinctive positioning in the competitive national environment and increase enrolments. However, de Wit's model does not include the idea of complexity and the interdependence of the drivers. It was much more difficult for the third director general to implement a proactive strategy. In comparison, the first director general managed the school in a relatively stable environment. Globalisation brought not only complexity but also velocity. Held et al. (1999) describe globalisation as a "widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness" (p. 2). At ESC Clermont, in the first decade of the twenty-first century, the need to adapt and to change had become a constant reality that in itself changed at an ever-increasing pace. Data in this study have therefore demonstrated the leadership challenge of internationalisation.

The literature on the internationalisation of higher education has also identified a number of different strategic management issues related to the academic and educational objectives. Researchers have discussed the need to adopt educational strategies to prepare management graduates for a global business environment with appropriate cognitive, affective and behavioural skills (Schechter 1993), global consciousness (Gacel-Avila 2005), global competencies (Hunter et al. 2006) and global perspectives (Lunn 2008; Brookes and Becket

2011). It is interesting to note that ESC Clermont had already integrated these dimensions into its educational philosophy at a very early stage in its internationalisation. As a result, it can be claimed that on this one dimension, at least, the institution had already achieved a deeper level of internationalisation, defined by Bartell (2003) as 'transformative internationalisation'. Indeed, his concept of internationalisation is "a complex, all-encompassing and policy-driven process, integral to, and permeating the life, culture, curriculum and instruction as well as research activities of the university and its members" (p. 46). The term 'comprehensive internationalization' has also been used to denote "an organizing paradigm to think holistically about higher education internationalization" (Hudzik 2011 p. 5)

Elkin et al. (2005) provided a model of internationalisation to demonstrate how schools with a comprehensive strategic focus in the area of internationalisation succeeded more in their internationalisation. This model has been refined by Elkin et al. (2008) with a proposition to assess the degree of internationalisation by using nine different dimensions, including the activities of the main participants: students, faculty and staff. These activities include mobility, research and involvement in international conferences and associations.

Nonetheless, the analysis of the ESC Clermont data showed that internationalisation is more than just one activity or one strategic statement. The data show how the school has adopted internationalisation in a number of different ways. The first director general recognised the need to infuse the school with a multi-dimensional approach to internationalisation. He implemented a proactive strategy not only by determining the basic educational rationale for internationalisation but also by introducing various dimensions to support the process. These included curriculum innovation, student exchanges, faculty with an international background and foreign languages. In the 1970s and 1980s, this was extremely visionary. His leadership provided the school with this sense of purpose and direction. Several respondents recognised this contribution. The dimensions such as student mobility and languages, in particular, enabled the school to achieve its internationalisation goals.

However, the data also demonstrated how the strategic thrust initiated by the first director general took place within relatively stable internal and external environments. This type of context appears to facilitate a more proactive strategy to internationalisation. Internally, considerable autonomy in his hierarchical position in the school enabled him to take decisions swiftly and without reference to any institutional committees. With regard to the external environment, very few French schools in the 1970s and early 1980s had made a distinctive

commitment to internationalisation as a major part of their strategy. Furthermore, he not only communicated his commitment to internationalisation, he also took concrete steps to ensure that it was a reality. Large-scale study abroad and double degree programmes were distinctive features at the time. In fact, a strategic positioning based on internationalisation and a reinforced commitment to foreign languages was innovative at that time. Finally, thanks to his strategic positioning and his leadership style, the first director general was able to take advantage of unexpected opportunities such as the regional scholarship funding to promote the school's international positioning. To sum up, clear leadership and clear communication of strategic goals within a relatively stable environment enabled the school to promote internationalisation.

The increasing importance of globalisation challenged the two subsequent director generals in their strategic approaches. By the 1990s most of the French business schools had begun to integrate the effects of globalisation into their strategies. For example, they had embraced international exchanges as an integral part of their programs. Some had gone further to internationalise their institutions with management modules, or even whole degree programmes, taught entirely in English. Some also engaged in a deliberate policy to recruit international students and faculty. Others had intensified their international research activities. In terms of strategic approach, the second director, for instance, was forced into adopting a combination of proactive and reactive policies. Increasingly, therefore, the external environment is dictating the relative autonomy that leaders of higher education institutions have to adopt proactive internationalisation strategies.

During the 1990s, global forces, in addition to the aggressive national competition, had begun to play a more dominant role in shaping the school's internationalisation. International student mobility was growing, not only within academic exchange schemes, but increasingly on a fee-paying basis. The French universities, in particular, were well behind the competitors in terms of entering the global market for recruiting international students. The government sponsored agency, EduFrance, aimed at promoting French higher education abroad, was only set up in 1999. Within this globalised context the school had fallen behind, especially in comparison to the national business school competitors. The literature highlights the competitive French business school market (Abdemessed and De Leersnyder 1998) and discusses how this aggressive competition forced the schools towards even deeper internationalisation (Nioche 1994; Abdemessed 2007). Both these researchers examined to what extent the French model of

business education could resist the impact of globalisation, especially the dominance of the MBA as a management degree (Abdemessed 2007).

The second director general had understood these national trends and issues, but the third director general was really the catalyst for an awakening within the school. As a newly arrived outsider he was able to identify the various dimensions of internationalisation that were missing and that needed to be developed to take account of the challenges of globalisation and ensure the school's survival for the future years. The French *Grande Ecole* model could no longer rely so heavily on professional practitioners to provide a considerable part of the classroom teaching. Not only did the faculty need a doctoral qualification, they also needed to be actively engaged in research. In this area, globalisation really affected a fundamental element of the way the school had been operating. The highly selective admissions process alone would no longer maintain its reputation and its standing in the European and international higher education landscape.

Furthermore, internationalisation had now become a priority, not so much for financial reasons, but more as one of several indicators that demonstrated that a school could claim a place in the global market. The ability to attract students on the international market had become an indicator of internationalisation. Similarly, a school that could operate an off-shore campus, or at least contract a strategic alliance with a foreign partner, proved that it met the internationalisation criteria. This was one of the reasons why ESC Clermont became actively involved in setting up a school in Cameroun.

The literature on the internationalisation of firms provides some explanation for the model followed by many of the French GEMs. Johanson and Vahlne (1977) showed how firms internationalise in stages from domestic business through agents and exporting to setting up a sales subsidiary or even producing abroad. Other researchers have criticised this model as inappropriate to an environment that demands an entrepreneurial approach (Oviatt and McDougall 1994) with more emphasis on networking and knowledge management. Indeed, the important role of networking and institutional learning was added to the Uppsala model at a later date (Johanson and Vahlne 2003). Both these frameworks help to understand ESC Clermont's development over the decades.

Madsen and Servais (1997) have pointed out how international behaviour is linked to organisational structure and the personal strengths and competences of the founder. In the case of ESC Clermont these dimensions are reflected in the way the director generals committed

themselves to internationalisation and enabled other colleagues, such as the language faculty, to drive the international development. Finally, Eriksson et al. (1997) have argued that acquiring experiential knowledge of foreign markets require constant interaction with partners abroad over a sustainable period.

In many ways, there are parallels between the internationalisation of firms and that of business schools, in general. Many schools do follow an incremental development path. Ultimately, however, the fundamental rationale for the existence of firms and business schools differs. Although they both share some common objectives such as developing new markets and new sources of income, the business school is aiming at more than just market share profits. There is an educational goal and, traditionally, a role of contributing to the economic development and the general improvement of society.

Globalisation, therefore, gradually impacted more and more on the school’s strategic choices in internationalisation. Figure 8.1 shows how the strategic approach was modified over time.

Figure 8.1 Changes in Strategic Management of Internationalisation

Emerged Theme	Approach		
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT	PROACTIVE	PROACTIVE – REACTIVE	REACTIVE - PROACTIVE
Time Period:	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3

In Phase 1, the strategy can be defined as predominantly proactive. The data have shown that the first director general was innovative and visionary from the outset of his period in office in the late 1970s. Globalisation had had little visible impact at that time. The national environment had begun to play an increasingly significant role in shaping the way in which schools determined their strategy. This context led the first director general to develop a distinctive positioning on the French business school market. As this national competition intensified, strategic choices were increasingly imposed from the outside. During the 1980s the *Chapitre*, the

association of leading French *Grandes Ecoles de Management*, enforced a strict internationalisation policy. Member schools were not allowed to sign partnership agreements with foreign universities that the *Chapitre* considered to be of a lower level in ranking. In some ways this outside pressure can be interpreted as the early effects of globalisation through rankings and comparisons with institutions abroad. In fact, the competition and the resulting positioning of schools according to the reputation of international partners was driven more by national factors. Nevertheless, this was an example of early globalisation.

The second director general took over the management of the school at a time when globalisation was an increasingly important issue. Up until the 1990s the French schools could rely on the national competitive examination system to supply them with excellent candidates. The *classes préparatoires*, the traditional programmes to prepare students for the GEMs, were beginning to attract fewer candidates. Alternative programmes were available at the universities for students to prepare to enter the GEMs. At the same time, French schools were beginning to respond to the opportunities offered by a growing market of international students, especially from China. In order to attract these types of students, schools had to offer programmes in English. However, at ESC Clermont the existing programmes did not correspond to the profiles of these international students, hence the second director general's attempt to put in place more modules that could internationalise both the curriculum and the faculty. This strategy was in fact both proactive and reactive. It was proactive in the sense that he attempted to innovate by encouraging cooperation with colleagues from international partner schools. It was reactive because many competitors had already launched programmes taught in English.

The beginning of the new millennium was a threshold moment for the school, not because the external environment had changed dramatically, but rather because the third director general brought a new realisation to the school that it had definitely fallen behind on several international dimensions that had emerged as essential for future survival. The strategy, therefore, was dominated more by reactions to the national and international environment rather than being based on any specific innovation or proactive approach that aimed to identify a distinctive advantage. For instance, the school had no choice but to increase the number of doctorally qualified faculty. Furthermore, resources had to be found to fund research activities. Both these dimensions were critical for the school in its quest to obtain national and international accreditation. These examples demonstrate how the reactive strategy was driven by changes in the external environment, in particular, globalisation in terms of international

norms. In this respect, globalisation has been a force for standardisation, especially for the French GEMs (Dameron and Manceau 2011).

This study has, therefore, contributed to a better understanding of how the strategic management of internationalisation at ESC Clermont was impacted by multiple dimensions. The internal culture of the school and the leadership skills of the director generals played important roles. At the same time, the study has shown how, despite the local dynamics, the history and being part of the GEM system, internationalisation required specific skills in orchestrating the strategy in line with the internal and external factors. Finally, successful implementation of internationalisation requires a shared understanding of what internationalisation means (Coryell et al. 2012).

8.2.2 Organisational Processes

Foskett (2010) studied the organisational arrangements being made to develop and deliver internationalisation. He found that “there is no simple relationship between strategic position and organizational arrangements for internationalization” (p. 48). However, he does point out that the top leadership of ‘internationally engaged’ universities needs to play a prominent role in promoting and furthering internationalisation strategies. In the literature on organisational culture and higher education, McNay (1995) identified four cultural types – enterprising, corporate, collegiate and bureaucratic. At ESC Clermont internationalisation was impacted by a move from a more enterprising culture in Phase 1 (the late 1970s to the mid- 1990s) to a more collegiate culture in Phase 3 (2001 to 2010) where loose policy and loose operational control allowed for decentralised organisation with emphasis on individual freedom. Indeed, the author in his role as director of international development has always been given considerable freedom of action. In comparative case 3 the director of international relations enjoyed a similar role where he was empowered to take strategic initiatives in internationalisation.

From an organisational standpoint, structuring of some the school’s practices and processes was driven by international accreditation (Dameron and Manceau 2011). Indeed, the accreditation process itself was used to manage the institutional changes. The process also led to outcomes that had a lasting on the school’s organisation and strategic priorities. Several respondents demonstrated the role of accreditation in driving the school’s international agenda. Preparing for accreditation also served as an agent and facilitator of change. The role of accreditation as a catalyst and driver for internationalisation and for organisational development has been

discussed in the literature (Thompson 2004; Scherer et al. 2005). In France, internationalisation accreditation has influenced the GEMs significantly, particularly in terms of compelling schools to meet international benchmarks for faculty qualifications and research output (Nioche 2007; Blanchard 2009; Thietart 2009). Furthermore, in the highly competitive French business school environment, international accreditation has in fact “internationalised the rules of the academic game” (Abdessemed 2007 p. 164). Essentially, however, the internationalisation of the faculty has been driven by standards coming from the United States (Burlaud 2007). As far as the influence and impact of international accreditation are concerned, the interview data in this study demonstrated how ESC Clermont faced the challenges of international normalisation. At the same time, these challenges were perceived by respondents as having a positive effect on the school’s development. To sum up, therefore, this study has shown how internationalisation accreditation can help a school to progress despite the dangers of convergence and standardisation.

However, as several respondents pointed out, the main internal driver for the accreditation process was the director of international development, the author. Therefore, internationalisation, in this case represented by the accreditation project, continued to remain the prerogative of a certain insider group. Language and understanding of the accreditation culture played an important role. The third director general did not speak English, so he could not lead the international accreditation process. The accreditation task force comprised a broad representation of faculty members, with and without posts of responsibility, including one other non-French faculty member. Although there was general agreement that accreditation enhanced the school’s reputation and improved processes, as demonstrated by the interview data, the school may have missed an opportunity to engage a wider group of colleagues in the process and thereby help to embed internationalisation further into the fabric of its activities. Data from another school that served as a comparative case showed how an innovative, international project with a clear objective can mobilise and assemble different actors around a common objective. The accreditation project at ESC Clermont might have been such a project.

A second important theme concerning the nature of internationalisation at the school is the way in which organisational processes evolved and adapted to the needs of the international development. The school’s organisational structure and culture facilitated certain changes. Structure here refers to the relatively loose organisation in terms of hierarchy and responsibilities. There was no published organisational chart and the title of ‘director’ was restricted to the director general and only introduced for other colleagues with specific

responsibilities in the mid-1990s. The organisational culture was open and flexible, and summed up in many ways by the definition “the way we do things around here” (Deal and Kennedy 1982, p.4). At ESC Clermont the culture did indeed reflect the structure.

The school’s structure, culture and size were, therefore, propitious to the authoritarian leadership and top-down initiatives of the first director general. This organisational structure led to positive and negative consequences. On the positive side, this meant that innovation could be introduced very quickly. Other factors contributed to this relatively fast adoption of several international dimensions. The school was fairly small at the time, with a maximum of around 300 full-time students up to the end of the 1980s. The faculty comprised about a dozen full-time members. Formal academic committees and arguably cumbersome bureaucratic processes did not exist. This is in contrast to traditional institutions of higher education where such organisational units exist to function as gatekeepers. Colleagues in academic committees normally assess any new proposals for curriculum or programme changes. In this way, participation is enhanced and any innovation is more likely to be accepted and integrated into the institution’s fabric. Respondents who mentioned in their interviews a lack of strategy or organisation were indeed referring to a lack of institutional framework that is normally found in traditional academic organisations. The absence of these institutional structures at ESC Clermont therefore facilitated the rapid adoption of new proposals such as the development of international partnerships. On the negative side, this lack of peer involvement or poor system for reviewing new developments may have contributed to what manifested itself at a later stage as the emergence of a rift between the international insiders and the others who considered themselves as outsiders that were excluded from an important dimension of the school’s development. To sum up, the local institutional context therefore played an important role in determining the relative success of the internationalisation process. The local structures, culture and organisational processes also prevented the faculty members from adequately buying into the internationalisation agenda in all three phases.

The data have demonstrated that the implementation process of internationalisation was more of a challenge to the school’s leadership than the actual strategising. The second director general attempted to adopt a more participative approach to the internationalisation of the curriculum and the faculty. However, the leadership style remained basically very top-down despite his attempt to include faculty in the internationalisation process. The data showed how disillusioned he had become with the school’s business faculty in general. He also realised how he had underestimated their resistance to change. Consequently, he tended to identify individuals that

would support him rather than attempt to reach consensus with the majority. In the end, he aligned himself very closely with the language faculty because they were among the few faculty members who he felt understood and naturally supported his international projects because of their own professional interests. As a result the internationalisation team also became rather marginalised. To sum up, the study shows that internationalisation requires a sensitivity to change management when attempting to introduce new organisational processes, especially with regard to the faculty.

Additional factors explained this growing gap with the business faculty. The international office and its director were also formalising their processes and becoming more professional. The literature demonstrates how professional managerial competencies are a key to the management of international entrepreneurial activities (Poole 2001). The data in this study demonstrated that as the international team grew in size and in efficiency, it was perceived by some respondents as a rather closed group. In conclusion, it can be stated that the second director general's leadership experience demonstrates the importance of appropriate management process in order to gain the confidence of the overall faculty to gain support for the internationalisation initiatives. De Meyer (2012) has discussed the challenge of achieving faculty buy-in for internationalisation. According to my research on ESC Clermont, this challenge was not met because of the lack of an appropriate strategic plan for managing the faculty which contributed to the growing gap between the insiders and the outsiders relative to the school's internationalisation.

The third director general took advantage of the lack of a collaborative academic structure within the school. He, too, adopted a top-down management style whereby he determined the main strategic directions for the school and then entrusted individual colleagues with the implementation. Again on the positive side, this type of arrangement meant that new developments could happen with a minimum of engagement on the part of the faculty. During the 2000s, several international dimensions were introduced with little faculty resistance because of this unstructured, flexible context. For example, the decision to extend teaching in English was never officially put to the faculty for approval. It was just implemented. The negative impact of this non-consensual development was reflected in the faculty members' perception of being excluded from some of the internationalisation decisions and actions. They failed to buy into the internationalisation idea.

Figure 8.2 shows how the informal organisational processes gradually became more formal in terms of internationalisation.

Figure 8.2 Changes in Organisational Processes of Internationalisation

Emerged Theme	Approach		
ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES	INFORMAL	MORE FORMAL	FORMAL
Time Period:	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3

In the 1970s and 1980s, internationalisation was driven by the director general with the head of languages operationalising the strategy. He facilitated contacts with partners abroad. In 1990, the post of international relations was created for the first time. The second director general provided the resources for language faculty to play a formally recognised role in the internationalisation activities. This organisation was maintained and reinforced by the third director general who recruited additional administrative staff. In this way, the academic and administrative colleagues involved in organising the international activities increased in numbers and became more professional. This development has been identified in the literature on higher education (Poole 2001) as a key factor in successfully managing the complexities involved in international activities in an entrepreneurial and professional fashion. Burnett and Huisman (2010) carried out a multiple case study into internationalisation at four Canadian universities and discovered a correlation between entrepreneurial culture and the ability to optimise responses to globalisation. Furthermore, international activities require “empowering academic managers” (Poole 2001 p. 428) at different levels in the organisation. In this respect, ESC Clermont’s entrepreneurial and collegiate culture (McNay 1995) helped to facilitate the colleagues’ work in taking initiatives, especially in international development and building partnerships. This entrepreneurial culture was more evident in Phase 1 of the school’s international development, but also continued through Phases 2 and 3. However, McNay’s framework does not explain fully the actual internal processes involved in operationalising the internationalisation. My research shows that the changes really came about a result of multiple

factors and a complex interaction between structure and agency (Giddens 1979) and I return to this point in Chapter 9.

The increased formalisation of the international organisational processes was a result of several internal and external factors. The school grew in size with increased numbers of students, full-time faculty and administrative staff. The programmes, especially the main Master in Management degree, increased in complexity with an increasing number of international options. The number of university partners abroad expanded rapidly. As one of the respondents pointed out, internationalisation meant re-thinking basic locally derived dimensions such as the timetable and programme structure. This had to be adapted to take into account different student populations that were either leaving to study abroad or returning. Rationalising the organisational processes was a necessity. At the same time, the environment, especially the global environment, became more complex. In terms of student exchanges, numerous dimensions required ever-increasing specialist knowledge and skills – formal language requirements, academic transcripts, insurance, legally verified agreements, visa regulations.

Over the years the multiplication of various international activities and the massification in terms of student numbers led to an interesting consequence. Internationalisation became part of everyday life. It was accepted, sometimes tolerated, sometimes actively supported, but never contested as a development in itself. The interview data demonstrated the fact that ‘international’ had become the norm. When it became a norm, operational processes became the norm. All students needed to go abroad as part of their degree programme. They had to improve their language skills in order to complete their international experience. Intercultural courses became a necessity to complement the language teaching. Teaching management subjects in English with courses delivered by visiting faculty became the norm. Faculty accepted that they needed to have a doctoral degree to be academically qualified and that they needed to engage in research and publish regularly to maintain their status. Over a thirty year period, the school had in fact adopted many of the dimensions generally considered to define an internationalised school.

Turner and Robson (2008 p. 28) present a framework for assessing an institution on an international continuum with a number of key dimensions: stimulus, impetus, strategic management focus, external engagement, management style, institutional characterization of internationalisation, style of participation and sustainability. The philosophy underlying this framework is based on Bartell’s (2003) concept of a continuum of positions from ‘symbolic’ to

'transformative' internationalisation. ESC Clermont fulfils several of these criteria in terms of a long-term commitment to internationalisation through investment-focused, international partnerships and knowledge-sharing, and an overall cooperative philosophy driving its engagement. Within the symbolic and transformative continuum, Turner and Robson (2008) distinguish between a management style based on design and planning compared to "emergent approaches to management, attempting to coordinate and orchestrate diverse local initiatives, bringing institutional coherence" (p. 32). ESC Clermont clearly followed the more emergent approach in contrast to other researchers who have argued for strategies based on more formal planning processes (Childress 2009).

With reference to the strategic management, the school's organisational culture has been discussed in the previous section. In contrast to a more formal institutional structure, multiple dimensions of internationalisation were developed over the years at ESC Clermont, often on an adhoc basis rather than being part of a coordinated approach. These innovations in curriculum and program design have also been discussed previously. These changes were accepted and became the norm because the school had built up a certain culture of adaptation and reactivity to changes in the local, national environment, and increasingly in the global environment. One of the school's strengths, therefore, was the openness to others which was cultivated early on in the 1970s. Respondents referred to the presence of foreigners at a time and place when this was far from the norm. Somehow this apparently curious acceptance of others and otherness was something that they felt when they joined the school.

Ethan pp.33+34: *"What has always left me dumbstruck is but why the hell, whilst everything would make you think that we are tacky and old-fashioned, not very advanced, etc. and despite all that, ...that appearance of people, natives from other countries, it was present very early in this institution....Wasn't it our isolation that made us (open to the outside)?...it was almost an obligation". FR*

Oliver p.6: *"I really believe a lot in the spirit, the spirit in effect, er, a considerable broadmindedness, er, which existed amongst the first permanent professors, with people who were open-minded..". FR*

An example of this open-mindedness was demonstrated through the relative facility with which international student exchanges were established and integrated into the school's academic practices at an early stage in the school's internationalisation. Sending students abroad was a natural corollary to teaching foreign languages. Open-mindedness also remains a fundamental concept in the inter-cultural course contents. In 2004, open-mindedness and the acceptance of

otherness were integrated into the mission statement that was finally agreed upon by the major stakeholders in preparation for AACSB accreditation.

Over the years the school's specific local structure and culture have assisted in implementing the necessary changes and modifications in the organisational processes to cope with some of the challenges of globalisation. The internal structure has benefitted from the fact that the school belongs to the *Grandes Ecoles* family of business schools. These schools have always embraced and promoted contacts with the external environment (Duverge 2006; Blanchard 2009). This context has included the immediate, local business community and over the years the national and, more particularly, the international community of universities and companies. In conclusion, therefore, it can be argued that a combination of organisational culture, traditions, history and experience have enabled ESC Clermont to innovate and adapt to external pressures such as globalisation.

8.2.3 Faculty Involvement

A third important theme that has emerged from the data is that of faculty involvement in the internationalisation process. De Meyer (2012) has identified the need to internationalise the faculty as a key challenge to the implementation of internationalisation strategies.

"All too often the core faculty of the institution will let the management and a small subset of committed faculty engage in globalization, but will refuse to get involved themselves....one needs to groom the faculty for globalization by a good combination of on the job training, mentoring, special projects, job rotation and some formal education" (p.343).

The literature confirms the crucial role that faculty members play in internationalisation (Sharma and Roy 1996; Teekens 2003; Stohl 2007). Faculty, as well as students need to possess global perspectives (Lunn 2008). Ghemawat (2008) argues that faculty resistance to change, and preference for research, is one reason why the MBA curriculum is far from global. It is clear that the "internationalisation of the curriculum therefore cannot be viewed in isolation from faculty and student experiences" (Brookes and Becket 2011, p. 379). The data in my own study show how ESC Clermont developed extensive international experience opportunities for its students, but failed to do the same for its faculty. Sanderson (2008) argues that the faculty need to internationalise their personal and professional outlooks through "critically reflective and self-reflective processes" (p. 276). He goes on to argue that "teachers as individuals must operate from a base that extends beyond local and national perspectives" (p. 277). Indeed, Teekens

(2000) states that “We all have to cross borders. The ones in our heads may well prove to be the most difficult” (p. 18). The analysis revealed how faculty mentalities and ‘Frenchness’ have been an obstacle for some faculty in the internationalisation process. Faculty mindset, therefore, is a key dimension for internationalisation to succeed (Sharma and Roy 1996).

Researchers have suggested various strategies to improve faculty involvement in internationalisation. Some (Brustein 2007; Stohl 2007) propose improving reward systems to convince faculty of how their own teaching and research can be enriched through engagement in internationalisation. However, from my data it would appear that there are no simple solutions. The interaction between the strategic management and the operational processes points to more complex paths towards improvements. The literature has demonstrated that faculty in higher education are working in an increasingly demanding academic environment (Halvorsen 2011). Houston and Meyer (2006) discuss the challenges for faculty in coping with the various demands of research, teaching and service, as well as the balance between work and private life. Stromquist et al. (2007) discuss some of the consequences of globalisation on the academic profession, in particular the multiple demands being made on faculty to adapt their teaching and research to a global context.

The literature on French business school development in the past decade has identified the tensions amongst the faculty confronted with multiple pressures (Basso, Dornie and Mounier 2004; Thietart 2009) and even a rift between those who are more involved in research and those who have to cope with increased teaching loads (Courpasson and Guedri 2006). Globalisation had changed the nature of the French schools and their programmes. Above all it had changed what it means to work in an institution of higher education when globalisation has impacted the traditional, local and national system for management education. As the faculty members at ESC Clermont attempted to adapt to this new, complex environment they felt that the top management provided little guidance or support to enable them to integrate internationalisation into their busy work schedules.

During the three phases examined in my research, the nature of the faculty involvement has changed. Table 8.1 summarises the factors that enabled more involvement during Phase 1.

Table 8.1 Factors Facilitating Faculty Involvement in Internationalisation: Phase 1

Phase 1: 1979 – 1995
External dimensions
Post-1968 reforms
Era of experimentation
FNEGE* program: US business schools as model
Internal dimensions
Leadership
Culture of openness
Small size
Diverse faculty composition
Collective spirit

*FNEGE (Fondation Nationale pour l'Enseignement de la Gestion d'Entreprises) – National Foundation for Management Education.

In the early years of Phase 1 faculty seemed to have been more directly involved in the internationalisation. The school was going through a period of change in the post-1968 era. Faculty were encouraged to benchmark outside of France, especially in the United States, in order to be innovative and creative their pedagogical practices. The historical era fostered experimentation and innovation. Faculty recalled how they perceived internationalisation as an adventure. The contemporary trends, therefore, created a favourable context for faculty to be involved in internationalisation. Furthermore, the relatively small size of the school and its culture of openness also facilitated this involvement. Already at this time, the school enjoyed a diverse faculty composition which included colleagues from other regions of France, some with international experience, and foreign faculty members, especially language teachers.

Beginning in the early 1990s, the data and analysis revealed the increasing importance of internationalisation because of globalisation. Table 8.2 shows some of the factors that hindered faculty involvement in internationalisation.

Table 8.2 Factors Hindering Faculty Involvement in Internationalisation: Phase 2

Phase 2: 1996 – 2001
External dimensions
Increased threat of globalisation
Pressure to change work habits
Internal dimensions
Inappropriate faculty management
Individual resistance to change
French context of parochialism
Lack of international mindset
English language skills

During this period, a backlash occurred. The essentially French faculty became defensive as they realised the consequences of globalisation on their own academic practices. Several respondents referred to the fact that the faculty were very French in their attitudes and behaviour. Comparing themselves to others was seen as far less positive than during the 1970s. At that time, internationalisation was relatively risk-free. It was a time of discovery, a time of camaraderie, a time to break with the everyday routine. Internationalisation was somewhat exotic. In the 1990s, internationalisation as a response to globalisation was forcing faculty members to change. It was precisely this new face of internationalisation that engendered a defensive reaction. Colleagues were expected to master English. This was interpreted more as a threat to the French language, rather than an acceptance of English as the language of business and the international language of academia. By trying to resist this reality the faculty also revealed their Frenchness and their unwillingness to engage with international colleagues.

However, the lack of international involvement of faculty in the 1990s, and especially during Phase 2, was not only due to the individual resistance to change. What happened during this second phase shows that it is not sufficient to have a leader who champions internationalisation. In Phase 1, faculty bought into the international agenda because of some of factors identified above in Table 8.1. In Phase 2, as the data demonstrated, the lack of buy-in stemmed from an underestimation of the degree to which the faculty needed to be prepared for the challenges that globalisation brought. It was not sufficient to present innovations such as the International Certificate Specialisation or the International Week event. Deliberate preparation and management were needed to encourage more involvement. In Phase 1, the smaller faculty size certainly facilitated the faculty's acceptance of innovation through internationalisation. At the same time, globalisation was not perceived as a possible threat to the faculty's traditional way of working. In fact, internationalisation had little impact on the ordinary faculty member's work. In

Phase 2, the situation was quite different. Faculty were asked to cooperate with colleagues from abroad and they were expected to do this in English. They were asked to modify the way they worked.

The data showed that the resistance to change stemmed from several factors, in particular, the concept of 'Frenchness'. The literature has identified parochialism (Adler 2008) and ethnocentrism (Demorgon 2004) as an obstacle to international cooperation amongst the French in general. Adler (2008) has shown that organisations no longer operate within national boundaries, but need to integrate diversity and multiculturalism into their mindsets. Demorgon (2004) describes how the French in general have had particular difficulties in adopting the necessary mindset to move from a national to a world outlook. Several respondents also referred to the lack of faculty involvement in internationalisation as a defensive French standpoint against the perceived Anglo-Saxon domination in general, and within business education. In addition, the data pointed to a less than satisfactory mastery of English for the average faculty member, a lack of international experience and more importantly, a lack of a certain global mindset. A report by AACSB International (2011) argues for the need for "ongoing professional development opportunities that broaden faculty members' perspectives and experiences" (pp. 26-27). The report goes on to present a framework for faculty strategies for globalisation which involve recruiting, developing and managing faculty to support the internationalisation agenda (ibid. p. 180). As he admitted in his interview, the second director general at ESC Clermont would have had to devote more time to managing the faculty's resistance to change in order to optimise the chances of success with his curriculum innovation.

Table 8.3 shows some of the factors hindering faculty involvement in the internationalisation process during Phase 3. Faculty members became resigned to the consequences of globalisation, but the frustration with the top management continued.

Table 8.3 Factors Hindering Faculty Involvement in Internationalisation: Phase 3

Phase 3: 2001 – 2010
External dimensions
Globalisation
Pressure to change work habits
Internal dimensions
Inappropriate faculty management
Individual resistance to change
Lack of clear strategy
Lack of international mindset
Workload pressure
English language skills

Although the director general had changed in 2001, most of the internationalisation issues that were identified in Phase 2 remained. The faculty members in general realised that they needed to accept certain changes: they needed to master English, to organise programmes taught in English, to improve academic qualifications, to engage in research and to publish, if possible in English. The new paradigm of higher education was accepted, but not always translated into action.

The third director general had woken the school up to the new reality, but there was a disconnect between the rhetoric and the way in which the faculty experienced their daily, professional activities. Some respondents experienced internationalisation as something that happened elsewhere. Others felt that the discourse was the most important. It was brought into the limelight when student recruitment was going on, but then it was forgotten. Faculty were far too busy coping with their increased workloads. International activities were just one more dimension to add to their long list of priorities. Several respondents showed that internationalisation was not a priority for them individually given all the changing expectations. To sum up, globalisation has impacted considerably on the faculty and internationalisation at ESC Clermont led to a fundamental identity crisis.

However, one project did enable faculty members to become involved in internationalisation. Data showed that the AACSB accreditation process was both a catalyst for change and a driver for a more positive involvement in the school's internationalisation. Despite their busy workloads, therefore, faculty can be motivated to become involved in international activities. Data from two of the comparative case studies demonstrated that an international project can federate faculty around a common goal. Nevertheless, this requires a willingness on the part of

the top management to instigate and motivate colleagues to become involved. As the interview data showed, the accreditation project was a good example of how faculty involvement could be rallied around a specific project, but in this case the motivation was not sustained. As soon as the accreditation had been obtained, the director general moved onto other projects and failed to ensure that the organisational processes that had been put in place thanks to the accreditation process were maintained. The opportunity to engage faculty over the long term was lost.

The literature shows that faculty morale is certainly affected by heavy workloads, but management culture also has a considerable impact on motivation (Fredman and Doughney 2011). Furthermore, globalisation, associated with neo-liberalism and 'managerialism', has also impacted on faculty in general who tend to assimilate globalisation with marketisation of higher education (Marginson 2006). Faculty members are often critical of top management when international projects such as campuses abroad are envisaged (Altbach 2007). Internationalisation at ESC Clermont has developed within the European philosophy of cooperation rather than competition as in the so-called Anglo-Saxon countries (De Wit 1995, Huisman and Van der Wende 2005, Luijten-Lub 2005).

In contrast to the ESC Clermont, the comparative cases demonstrated how faculty could be motivated around international projects on condition that a specific strategic plan is executed to ensure that the greatest number of colleagues feel involved. At comparative case 1, an innovative project to work closely with another business school abroad was used to motivate faculty to become more involved in internationalisation. At comparative case 2, senior international faculty were hired to mentor junior colleagues at the school as they engaged in international research projects. The seniors gave very hands-on assistance in counselling the juniors as they worked towards publishing articles in international peer review journals.

To summarise, it appears that faculty at ESC Clermont became less involved in internationalisation in the course of the three phases examined in this research. Figure 8.3 shows how this developed over the three phases in this study.

Figure 8.3 Faculty Involvement in Internationalisation

Emerged Theme	Approach		
FACULTY INVOLVEMENT	HIGH TO MEDIUM	MEDIUM TO LOW	LOW
Time Period:	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3

Some of the reasons for this lack of sustained buy-in were discussed above. Consistent with Houston, Meyer and Paewai (2006), this study revealed to what extent the faculty members have had to cope with changing expectations concerning their roles in the school. Globalisation and internationalisation, through accreditation, have led to pressure for higher qualifications, sustained research output, if possible in international journals, mastery of English and teaching abroad, and a much more culturally diverse student body. At ESC Clermont, as in the other GEMs, faculty have experienced a shift in academic culture from one which rewards teaching and professional experience to one which rewards research and intellectual contributions (Dameron and Durand 2008; Thietart 2009). As a result faculty are reluctant to invest in internationalising the curriculum or becoming more involved in international activities. Ghemawat (2008) has argued when faculty are driven by a research agenda they are less interested in other areas such as internationalisation. More broadly, the data findings also reflect the concern in the literature on achieving a balance between professional and personal commitments (Stromquist et al. 2007). Finally, in addition to the above pressures, the data showed how a lack of proactive management of faculty development contributed to the relatively low faculty involvement in internationalisation.

However, the change in faculty involvement in internationalisation is not only related to the increased pressures stemming from globalisation. Figure 8.4 brings together the development of three key themes that emerged from the interview data: Strategic Management, Operational Processes and Faculty Involvement. This study does not claim to demonstrate any direct cause and effect of the development of these three dimensions over time. However, it is clear that the way in which the three director generals managed the school’s strategic internationalisation

structured the organisational processes that impacted on the faculty's involvement. It is clear that these three dimensions were both structures and agents in the internationalisation process.

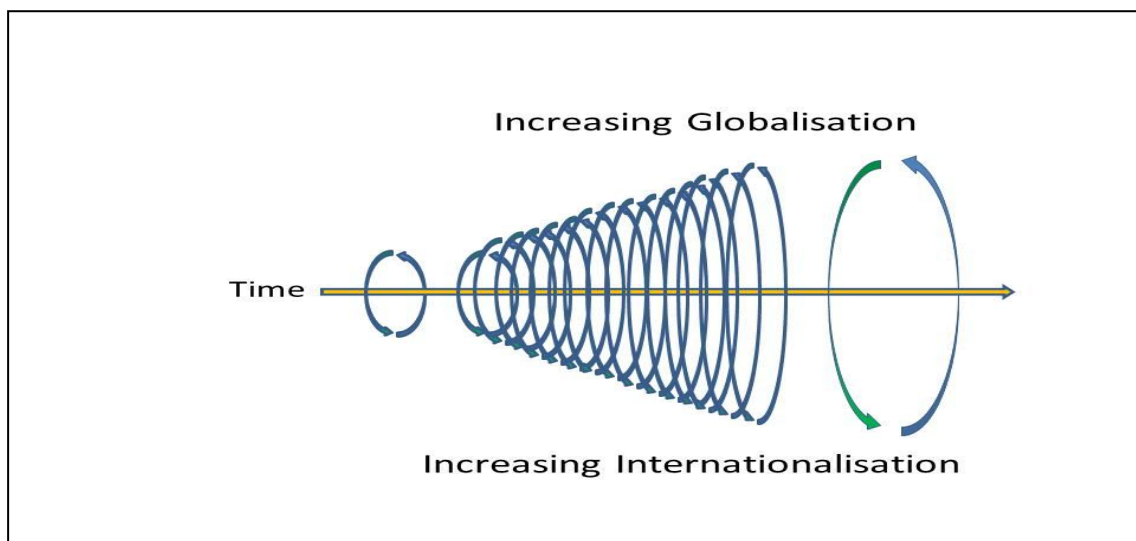
Figure 8.4 Evolution of Main Internationalisation Dimensions: Strategic Management, Operational Processes and Faculty Involvement

Emergед Theme	Approach		
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT	PROACTIVE	PROACTIVE – REACTIVE	REACTIVE - PROACTIVE
ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES	INFORMAL	MORE FORMAL	FORMAL
FACULTY INVOLVEMENT	HIGH TO MEDIUM	MEDIUM TO LOW	LOW
Time Period:	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3

At the same time, other factors led to a relative disengagement on the part of the faculty. In addition to the changes in strategic management and operational processes the impact of globalisation and the nature of the internationalisation responses changed over time. During Phase 1 globalisation was not really considered by respondents to have a direct impact on the school's activities. Internationalisation was more a local response and an opportunity for differentiation. During the 1980s the international dimension became more critical because of national competition. Indeed, the national environment is really part of the local context in terms of the GEM system. During the 1990s, and especially during Phase 2, globalisation was seen as an increasingly important influence on the school's activities. It was felt indirectly by the

fiercer, local and national competition. In fact, this was a translation of a wider, global context as the national players juggled for national and international recognition. At the beginning of Phase 3, globalisation was definitely present and had already become more complex involving multiple dimensions of the school’s activities. Like most of the GEMs, ESC Clermont found itself in “a spiral of internationalisation” (Abdessemed 2007 p. 164). This new academic complexity required ever more reactivity in terms of internationalisation, including doctoral qualifications, research output, accreditation, international recruitment, new degree programmes, new forms of delivery and off-shore activities. Indeed, internationalisation now affected a wide range of activities in the organisation. In many ways, internationalisation had become so embedded in the school that it was no longer a distinct dimension. Figure 8.5 attempts to capture the intensification of globalisation and the parallel complexification of the internationalisation response.

Figure 8.5 Interaction of Globalisation and Internationalisation



In this framework, globalisation has moved forward in a continual process over time with more and more dimensions represented by the increasing sizes of the circles. This multiplication of dimensions has meant an increasing number of internationalisation responses. At the same time, there is the idea of velocity which is not captured in this model. Speed is an additional dimension and renders the whole process even more complex. The school has had to adapt to a wider range of different dimensions of globalisation and at the same it has had to react even faster than in the past. This has required a certain way of working. Reactivity is essential and proactivity becomes more difficult. It is hard to be proactive in a turbulent environment. In fact, the safe route is to react and follow the leaders. Foskett (2010) has discussed how pressure for

universities “to respond to global markets is...becoming an increasingly heightened challenge” (p. 36). He quotes Neubauer and Ordonez (2008 p. 51):

“The challenge that rapid globalization presents to universities is whether they can continue to adapt, no longer slowly or organically but in quantum leaps required by new realities. Knowledge...is now created, transmitted and stored through modalities, institutions and configurations that were previously unknown and at speeds once unimaginable”.

Given the increasing impact of globalisation on internationalisation, a new dimension needs to be added to the original framework for ESC Clermont’s international development. Figure 8.6 shows how the strategic management, operational processes and faculty involvement have developed with intensification and speed of globalisation.

Figure 8.6 Impact of Globalisation on Strategic Management, Operational Processes and Faculty Involvement

Emerged Theme	Approach		
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT	PROACTIVE	PROACTIVE – REACTIVE	REACTIVE – PROACTIVE
ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES	INFORMAL	MORE FORMAL	FORMAL
FACULTY INVOLVEMENT	HIGH TO MEDIUM	MEDIUM TO LOW	LOW
IMPACT OF GLOBALISATION	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH
Time Period:	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3

This framework shows how the school's internationalisation strategy has been impacted by the development of globalisation. At a time when globalisation was having a less obvious impact, the strategic approach could be more proactive. As globalisation became more intensive, the strategic management became more reactive and less proactive. In a less globalised context there was less need to formalise the international activities and the approach could be more informal. As for the faculty involvement, it is difficult to explain a cause and effect. It is clear that the Frenchness and the lack of English skills played an important role in making the faculty more defensive. There is also an underlying resistance to globalisation and its consequences. Lack of appropriate faculty management in the strategic direction and the way in which organisational processes changed over time both contributed to a perception of a rift between the insiders and outsiders. Thietart (2009) refers to 'the cosmopolitan' and 'the residential' faculty at French business schools. The former faculty members are turned towards the outside and participate actively in the new academic environment, the latter are much more involved in the internal activities of teaching and service.

The chronological development of ESC Clermont's internationalisation only conforms partly to Wächter's (2003) description of internationalisation developing through four phases during the end of the twentieth and beginning of the twenty-first century. Whilst Wächter describes internationalisation as something individual and relatively marginal up until the mid-1980s, ESC Clermont had already moved considerably along the internationalisation continuum at this time (Bartell 2003) by adopting student exchanges as an integral part of the management education programme. Internationalisation was fully recognised at the institutional level with curriculum innovation and a deep commitment to foreign languages. In terms of commitment and integration of internationalisation into its strategy and institutional culture, it is clear that ESC Clermont is further on the transformative rather than symbolic side of the internationalisation continuum (Bartell 2003).

8.3 Summary

Literature and Research Study

In this chapter I have discussed the main findings of this research with reference to the literature on the internationalisation of higher education and, in particular, of business schools. The discussion has concentrated on three main themes that emerged from the research data. I have

shown that the strategic management of the internationalisation activities developed over the past thirty years from a reasonably stable context to a national and international environment where globalisation has had a considerable impact. It has also been demonstrated that the organisational processes to implement the internationalisation strategies have developed over time from a fairly informal organisation to a high degree of professionalisation. One of the consequences of this professionalisation has been a division in the faculty between those who participate actively in the international activities and those who consider themselves as outsiders.

The literature on these themes treats each dimension separately rather than discussing the interaction between the three. It is generally accepted that internationalisation should be part of any university or business school (Knight 2004; Middlehurst and Woodfield 2007). The literature underlines the importance of leadership skills in meeting the challenges of globalisation (Taylor 2004; Shiel and McKenzie 2008; Foskett 2010; De Meyer 2012). Researchers have also discussed strategic management in relation to actual commitment to internationalisation in terms of institutional commitment and development (Bartell 2003; Turner and Robson 2008). There is also a growing body of research dealing with the impact on the role of faculty in universities within the globalised environment (Teekens 2003; Stohl 2007; AACSB 2011; Brookes and Becket 2011; De Meyer 2012).

Concerning the French GEMs, the literature has concentrated on identifying the impact of globalisation on the *Grande Ecole* model and the consequences for the degree programmes and the faculty (Bergadaà and Thietart 1990; Lazuech 1999; Abdemessed 2007; Nioche 2007; Ramaantsoa 2007; Blanchard 2009) and for the faculty (Basso, Dornie and Mounier 2004; Thietart 2007).

As an addition to this literature, this study has demonstrated the interaction between the strategic management of the internationalisation process and the main actors, the faculty members. It has been shown how the interaction and interplay between the various internal dimensions and external forces have become increasingly complex. This research has shown that internationalisation in this case study has been a dynamic process involving a continuous reactivity to a changing context. The main drivers in this process have been the director generals and the language faculty members. The director generals have created the necessary intrapreneurial culture to enable the main agents, in this case the language faculty, to take

initiative and drive the internationalisation agenda forward. This is in line with Burgelman (1983) who has suggested that the development of new initiatives depends on the following:

“the availability of autonomous entrepreneurial activity on the part of operational level participants, on the ability of middle-level managers to conceptualize the strategic implications of these initiatives in more general system terms, and on the capacity of top management to allow viable entrepreneurial initiatives to change corporate strategy” (p. 223).

Research Study and Concluding Discussion

By adopting a phenomenological methodology, this research has been able to reveal some of the barriers to full involvement of faculty members in the internationalisation process. These barriers include a lack of faculty development strategies to tackle the resistance to change on the part of faculty members who are deeply rooted in their French academic traditions and culture. The data have also revealed the importance of English as tool for communication in a globalised context. The enthusiasm and emotional commitment of some faculty members, especially the language faculty, have not sufficed to ensure a broader involvement of the business faculty in general in the internationalisation process.

The working framework that has been derived from this research shows how internationalisation at the institutional level depends on the interactions of numerous dimensions. Moreover, the research has shown that internationalisation cannot be reduced to a list of dimensions. It is the interaction between these dimensions and the way in which these dynamics drive the internationalisation forward. Internationalisation as a response to globalisation involves a continuous process of innovation and reactivity. The organisational processes need to be adapted to this dynamic environment. At the same time, the participants in this process act as agents that affect the structuring context. This context in turn affects the agents in an iterative process of institutional development (Giddens 1979).

The detailed outcomes and implications of this research are discussed in Chapter 9. To summarise, however, this study shows how internationalisation at one French business school is closely linked to its local culture and history. It shows how organisational processes involve complex interactions between people and events. The research findings have shown the value of a phenomenological approach in helping to understand a phenomenon as complex as internationalisation at an institution of higher education. This methodological approach has assisted in revealing the complex nature and processes of internationalisation. By adopting a

deductive approach based on the lived experiences of the main participants the study has contributed to a better understanding of internationalisation at micro-level within one French business school. Finally, it has assisted the researcher in his professional role to gain a better insight into own work.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS AND REFLECTIONS ON THE RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Overview

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| 9.1 | Introduction |
| 9.2 | Key Findings |
| 9.3 | Contribution and Implications of Research |
| 9.4 | Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research |
| 9.5 | Personal and Professional Motivations for Undertaking Research |
| 9.5.1 | Personal Motivation |
| 9.5.2 | Professional Motivation |

In this final chapter, I present the broad conclusions from the key findings of my research with reference to my research objectives. The contribution to the literature and the implications of my research are also discussed. Some of the limitations of the study are then addressed, together with recommendations for areas of further research. The final concluding remarks include a brief statement on my personal and professional motivations for undertaking this research project and a reflection on what I have learnt from this research journey about my own role in the internationalisation process.

9.1 Introduction

This research project was undertaken at a time when universities have been meeting the challenges of globalisation. In the business school field, the French GEMs have undergone a period of considerable change affecting the very nature of these schools as part of the traditional French *Grandes Ecoles*. This study has concentrated on one such French business school, ESC Clermont, in order to understand some of the issues that challenged the school as it implemented its internationalisation strategy in response to a changing national and global environment.

Through this study I have identified some of the main dimensions involved in the internationalisation of ESC Clermont. It has been noted that ESC Clermont launched its internationalisation process because of internal and external reasons. Indeed, the data showed that internationalisation was a response to national competitive forces and globalisation trends. At the same time, the director generals played an important part in engaging the school internationalisation. The language faculty were also important drivers of the operationalisation of the international development. Their enthusiasm and their deep commitment to their mission were essential to making things happen. However, over time the international team became more professional, the environment became more turbulent and the business faculty members became more distant from the process. These research findings are discussed in more detail in section 9.3 in this chapter.

By adopting a phenomenological approach I was able to allow my respondents to share their own perceptions of internationalisation. Respondents were not confined to answering questions based on preconceived criteria on internationalisation. This methodological approach was in contrast to most of the literature on internationalisation. It was noted in the literature review that many studies are based on specific dimensions of internationalisation which are measured in more quantitative terms. There appeared to be little research into the actual processes involved in internationalisation at the institutional level. It is in this area that the research findings are of particular significance. The interview data in this study revealed the complex relationships between the different processes and the different people involved in the internationalisation of an institution. These data also showed the chronological development and interactions of the strategic management styles, the operational processes and the faculty members' involvement in relation to the internationalisation. More importantly, it demonstrated the complex interplay between these different dimensions as the institution responded to global developments.

Finally, this research has contributed to the literature on the internationalisation of higher education. This area of research is in fact still in its infancy and researchers are struggling to define some of the basic concepts including internationalisation itself. In recent decades globalisation has impacted the way in which universities are managed and responses have been local. The national context and the higher education traditions continue to play an important role in determining how institutions respond to globalisation. In the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, globalisation is often presented from a purely economic and market perspective. In fact, globalisation should be viewed from a much wider perspective,

affecting universities in multiple ways. This study demonstrates how local responses to global factors are much broader than just adjusting to a new market. Furthermore, the research shows how these local responses also shape how internationalisation actually occurs at an institutional level.

9.2 Key Findings

The first research issue concerned the reasons for internationalisation. The data showed that ESC Clermont internationalised its activities for both internal and external reasons. As the business environment became more international, the school's teaching had to reflect these trends. Initial internationalisation was therefore driven by educational and pedagogical motivations. An important role of the university is to provide appropriate teaching for students to learn. Culturally, the world had also become a smaller place and parochial attitudes were no longer valid. These changes called for a broader world view by the aspiring students and their prospective employers. Consequently, internationalisation was embedded in a fundamental part of the school's mission. Internally, the director generals committed the school to internationalisation not only because of personal ambition, but also because of an understanding of the external factors in the higher education environment. The school had to market itself to face the national competition. Initially, internationalisation was used as a distinguishing factor to attract French students to apply to the school. Globalisation has been identified as an increasingly important factor in compelling the school to internationalise and to conform to standardised criteria for business schools to be recognised in the higher education arena. For ESC Clermont this included ensuring that a significant percentage of the faculty held a doctoral degree and engaged in research. Globalisation has therefore been shown to be a force for change and for innovation, but also for standardisation (Dameron and Manceau 2011).

The second research issue concerned the main external and internal drivers for internationalisation and the main agents driving this process. As the study progressed it became clear that there was some overlap with the first research question. Indeed, the external environment, in the shape of national competition and globalisation, drove the internationalisation agenda. The analysis revealed how these forces, especially globalisation, have intensified in recent years. This intensification concerns the speed, the breadth and the depth of the impact. Changes are occurring at increasingly rapid pace. Faculty, for example, were expected to do research and publish. As soon as this cultural innovation was introduced, further pressure was added to publish in English and in well recognised journals. The breadth of the

intensification is reflected in the multiple activities that were imposed by internationalisation. These emerged from the data and included the student learning experiences, the language of delivery, English, the international market for student and faculty recruitment, off-shore campuses to name just a few.

Internally, the main drivers were the director generals and the language faculty. These actors propelled the internationalisation forward through their personal commitment, motivation and emotional involvement. The consequences of their actions were positive and negative. Positive in the sense that the school was able to develop its student mobility programmes, its language teaching and its international partnerships thanks to the contributions of the language faculty. The resulting professionalisation of their activities, however, accentuated a certain cleavage between the so-called international insiders and outsiders. Other factors, such as resistance to change, faculty mindsets and lack of English skills also contributed to low faculty involvement in internationalisation.

The third research issue concerned seeking to provide understanding of the international processes, especially at the strategic and operational levels. The data showed how the school developed its internationalisation in an incremental way, in line with the model proposed by Johanson and Vahlne (1977). This framework has therefore helped to understand the chronological evolution of the internationalisation. Furthermore, the internationalisation process at ESC Clermont can also be better understood with the light of subsequent additions that these researchers brought to their internationalisation. This included the role of networking and institutional learning (Johanson and Vahlne 2003). Networks played an important part in helping the school to develop its partnership agreements and to innovate with new opportunities such as double degree schemes and faculty mobility. Chance events also helped the school's international development. The data showed how the institution was able to react to opportunities such as the regional funding for MBA programmes in the US. The institution was able to exploit the opportunity from a strategic and operational standpoint. It helped the marketing agenda, promoted the school's image and improved recruitment.

Happenstance and a specific organisational structure, therefore, assisted the internationalisation processes. An internal culture of openness and a commitment to language learning also contributed to furthering the internationalisation agenda. People obviously played an important role. However, the internal culture was necessary to empower these colleagues, in particular, the language faculty, to take initiatives and innovate. The director generals were instrumental in

creating this appropriate institutional culture that allowed for personal initiatives (Burgelman 1983). This research has also shown that individual initiative only happens within a favourable context which is created essentially by the culture and driven by the leadership.

Giddens (1979) provides a conceptual framework to help understand some of the processes of internationalisation at ESC Clermont. He discusses the interaction between structure and agency in the development of social structures. In "The Constitution of Society" (Giddens 1984) he has shown how structure and agency are interlinked. People, through their actions, operate within specific social or organisational structures. At the same time, through their actions, they contribute to modifying these structures. "Society only has form, and that form only has effects on people, in so far as structure is produced and reproduced in what people do" (Giddens and Pierson 1998 p. 70).

At ESC Clermont, the faculty and administrators work within a global, national, local and organisational structure. The *Grandes Ecoles* system, with its traditions and particular culture, provides the national structure that sets certain priorities and creates restrictions. At the local level, the chamber of commerce has provided the governance structure for the school. The data in this study has shown how the different actors, in particular, the director generals and the language faculty have driven the internationalisation within the national and local structures. At the same time, these actors or agents have developed organisational structures and processes that have been modified over the years. The study has identified the strategic management, the operational processes and the faculty involvement as three areas that have been modified over time. Giddens' theory of structure and agency helps to understand the interactions between these three dimensions. As the school faced the challenges of globalisation, the various structures have changed over time.

Giddens theoretical insights also help to clarify the understanding of the school's internationalisation over time. By taking a holistic approach to organisational development he provides the framework for understanding how the actors at the school contributed to modifying the way in which internationalisation was implemented at a micro-level. This has been an iterative process with a continuous interaction between the main actors and the organisational structure. Thus the chronological approach of the study shows how the agents engaged with a renewed structure over time. Importantly, this study has revealed some of the shortcomings of the strategic management and the organisational processes put in place to manage the internationalisation. Thanks to the phenomenological methodology the data

revealed how some faculty members experienced the internationalisation as a process that led to their perception of exclusion. Through this research study I have attempted to make sense of these observations. It has therefore led to a better understanding of how inadequate measures were taken to ensure a wider commitment of the business faculty to the internationalisation process.

ESC Clermont developed a comprehensive network of partners around the world to meet the educational and pedagogical objectives of providing a truly global education for its students. The result of this process was a considerable gap between the international experience and mindsets of the students compared to those of the faculty. The students, for example, have international experience built into their academic programme. This is not the case with the professional development of the faculty who have not been sufficiently involved in the internationalisation process. The data revealed how some faculty members felt themselves to be out of phase with their own students and with the school's international projects.

Nonetheless, both the literature and the findings in this study identify faculty involvement in internationalisation as a key element in achieving internationalisation at a 'transformative' level (Bartell 2003). At ESC Clermont lack of faculty involvement is explained by various factors such as the faculty mindset and behaviour, the lack of language skills and the lack of a faculty development programme.

Another important finding of this research is that internationalisation is a complex process. It cannot be reduced to just assessing a number of dimensions in quantitative terms. Internationalisation, seen in terms of structure and agency, has been shown to be a dynamic process that constantly shifts over time as different forces come to play over time. The framework presented in Figure 8.7 shows how the impact of globalisation has increased over time. It also shows how the strategic response has become less proactive, the organisational processes more formal and the faculty involvement lower. This framework, therefore, assists in understanding the interaction necessary between the various dimensions of strategy, operations and faculty management in the internationalisation process. The dynamics involved are complex and require sensitive, on-going strategic management and open policies to ensure that the faculty members buy in to the internationalisation activities. In addition, to this lack of leadership in involving faculty more actively in the internationalisation process, there was also a certain lack of transfer of knowledge and enthusiasm on the part of the language faculty.

9.3 Contribution and Implications of the Research

This thesis has contributed to knowledge in various ways. From a practical point of view, it has pinpointed the importance of the management of the faculty in overcoming barriers to involvement in internationalisation. These barriers include underdeveloped international mindsets, poor mastery of English and a local academic culture that resists change. It has shown how the positive drivers for internationalisation, in this case the director generals and the language faculty, can also hinder the involvement of a wider group of participants such as the faculty members. From a conceptual standpoint, it has contributed to the understanding of the importance of dynamic organisational processes and people to operationalise internationalisation strategies. Finally, the thesis has contributed to the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, in particular in the area of the implementation of internationalisation strategies at institutional level in business schools.

The research has provided a working framework for understanding the interaction of strategic management, organisational processes and faculty involvement in the internationalisation process. This framework shows how the dynamic nature of the globalised environment requires equally dynamic processes to implement the appropriate internationalisation strategies.

This framework is useful in assessing the way in which the relationships between the different dimensions interact. The research has identified the importance of the relationship between the top management and the colleagues involved in the implementation processes, in this case the international team, made up of the language faculty. An important key to successful internationalisation has been to give the necessary freedom to the drivers of the process to operate within broad strategic policies. The data demonstrated how these champions of internationalisation, the language faculty, possessed the necessary international mindset to implement internationalisation. An international mindset can be achieved in various ways such as an international background, their personal experience abroad and a natural openness to others. Furthermore, these colleagues created a 'community of practice' (Wenger 1998) whereby they became engaged in a joint enterprise with shared objectives. Indeed, this collaborative approach to implementing internationalisation needs to be extended across the faculty and administrative staff as a whole.

The framework also shows how the development of more professional and more formal processes can have a negative impact on internationalisation. The concentration of a group of

like-minded faculty in charge of the operational management of international activities is both positive and negative. The research findings, therefore, can provide a better understanding of the nature of internationalisation. It is clear that the human side of the process is crucial. In this study, the main drivers of internationalisation have been passionate individuals who have been committed and devoted to their professional roles in the development of international activities.

One of the important implications of this study is the role of the business faculty in general as essential components for a truly institutional commitment to internationalisation to achieve a transformative organisational environment in Bartell's terms (2003). It has also shown the importance of listening to all the participants in the process. The phenomenological approach to the research has led to a better understanding of the internationalisation process. The research findings point to the importance of ensuring that institutional mechanisms exist for interaction and discussion on strategic development projects. Lack of involvement and a feeling of outsidership can also be explained by certain personal factors. Nevertheless, the institutional management of people also plays an important role in building upon or reducing the engagement of all players. It would appear, therefore, that there is a connection between the internationalisation processes and some kind of cultural affinity with internationalisation. Those faculty members who were either culturally connected or had an open cultural outlook seemed much more proactive and participated more voluntarily in the international activities. In contrast, those colleagues who had a more closed cultural outlook seemed more antithetic to the internationalisation process and were much less involved.

The French business school field continues to witness a period of considerable instability and institutions are increasingly confronted with issues of globalisation and internationalisation. The schools are struggling to assure their development and their future survival. To achieve these aims they are adopting different strategies of partnerships, mergers and alliances. This study contributes to understanding some of the challenges in coping with a highly competitive environment that forces institutions to change and transform themselves on a continual basis. Globalisation and internationalisation will continue to impact on the individual institutions and on the *Grande Ecole* model itself.

9.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

In this section I discuss some of the limitations to my research. Advantages and disadvantages can be identified when employing qualitative research methods. Amongst the advantages, this

method focuses on understanding and attempting to explain complex phenomena. By incorporating different perceptions from multiple viewpoints a qualitative approach method can deal more effectively with complexity than a survey or a history, for instance, and leads to a 'thick description' of phenomena (Geertz 1973). Furthermore, qualitative methods strive to create theories or conceptual explanations by careful analysis of the data. When studying people in a social setting, this method has been shown to be far more powerful than quantitative methods based on a positivist philosophy in addressing some of the more problematic but profound aspects of a phenomenon.

Subjective bias may lead to the conclusion that a qualitative approach suffers from a certain lack of rigour and the danger of bias on the part of the researcher in his or her choice of data and data collection strategies. In fact, qualitative research, done well, requires the researcher to be more rigorous and transparent in demonstrating the collection, processing and analysis of data.

In carrying out my data collection, I believe I have shown how I have used a purposeful sampling strategy to identify those respondents that were likely to contribute usefully to helping me to answer my research questions. During the interview process, I consciously tried to listen carefully and bracket my own assumptions and knowledge about the subject under discussion. The audio interviews were carefully transcribed to give an honest written 'narrative' of the discussions, including all hesitations and pauses. In Chapter 5 I have given a detailed account of my methodological approach. I have provided a detailed 'audit trail', faithfully reproducing excerpts from the transcripts to support my narrative analysis and my interpretations as shown in the analysis chapters.

My discussion on my role as insider researcher demonstrates my concern to adopt a reflexive approach to my research. In my analysis and interpretation of the data I have continued to be critical and reflexive about the themes and patterns that emerged from my data.

My analysis is based on one main case study. This may be considered a weakness. However, in my approach I have tried to understand the perspective of a specific population (faculty members at ESC Clermont) and in a particular context (ESC Clermont as part of a family of schools with similar characteristics). Furthermore, I carried out a comparative analysis with three other schools in the GEM 'family'. The respondents from the comparative cases gave their understanding of how internationalisation had happened in their respective schools. Their responses provided added credibility to the findings at ESC Clermont since they represented

either confirmation or rival explanations of the understanding of the internationalisation process. Finally, the methodological approach has been based on phenomenological methods. Far from being a weakness, this approach can be seen as a strength (Smith, Flowers and Larking 2009).

To sum up, I believe that I have tried to adopt an open and transparent approach to my research. I have always been aware of my insider status and I have tried to demonstrate how this has been a strength rather than a weakness. There is always the danger of bias in data collection, analysis and interpretation. My response has been to be aware of the trade-offs involved.

Finally, a number of recommendations can be made. This research was carried out using data from one French *Grande Ecole de Management* as the main case study. Interviews with colleagues from three other schools were analysed to compare the findings with those from ESC Clermont. The research design for the data collection was based on purposeful sampling. The aim was not to generalise the findings to other French business schools. Nonetheless, at a more abstract level, the findings about internationalisation processes should be broadly generalisable to other similar institutions. However, it would be useful to conduct in-depth interviews with colleagues from other schools not included in this study. This could serve to test the usefulness of the framework that has been developed as a result of this research.

One of the unexpected outcomes of this research was the discovery of the gap between those faculty members who felt part of the internationalisation process and those who felt excluded. Whilst this study has only looked at one process, other major changes may similarly be affected. More research needs to be carried out into how the faculty at French business schools can become more involved in the internationalisation. This will be one of the future challenges for these schools as they move forward and are compelled to operate in an increasingly turbulent and complex global environment.

9.5 Personal and Professional Motivations for Undertaking Research and Reflections on the Researcher's role.

This work has been motivated by a desire to understand a process in which I have been intimately involved during my professional and personal experience that spans over three decades and three different national cultures. In Chapter 5, I discussed my role as insider

researcher and in this final chapter I conclude with reflections on the personal and professional motivations that were the driving forces behind this study. My personal status and my professional experience enabled me to engage fully in this research project. I was extremely motivated to objectively understand the work that I had been involved in for three decades.

9.5.1 Personal Motivation

I was born in Vienna and raised in a bilingual family, my father being British, my mother Austrian. When my parents moved to England in the mid-1950s I found myself to be an alien, tainted because of my German-speaking background. I studied Ancient Greek and German Literature at university in England and in Germany. My career began with teaching posts in comprehensive schools in inner city areas in Bristol and London. I strongly believed that all students should be given an equal opportunity to benefit from a broad, quality education, irrespective of social background, gender, race or ability. After a decade in this environment, I made a radical career change for personal reasons and moved to France where I taught German and English at university and in a business school. I quickly became involved in student exchange programmes and took on administrative roles in international relations and programme management. At the age of 43 I completed an MBA degree. For the past 20 years I have been intimately involved in the internationalisation process at the institution where I work. My personal history has therefore been a prime motivation for me to undertake this research project during the later final stages of my career. I have, therefore, adopted a reflexive approach to my research. Etherington (2004) argues that reflexivity belongs to a phenomenological approach to methodology which is the philosophy underlying my research.

9.5.2 Professional Motivation and Reflections on the Researcher's Role

I began this research journey with the idea that I could use my professional experience as a basis for investigating some aspects of the internationalisation of a French business school. Given my personal background, my language experience and my professional career, I knew that I should have something useful to share with my colleagues in France and elsewhere. However, I had only a vague idea of what the exact subject would be and how I would go about investigating this phenomenon. Through discussions with my supervisor and my colleagues at ESC Clermont I was able to draft a list of research questions which guided me through the first year of my research.

Researching the literature was a stimulating experience and a real learning process. It helped me to structure some of the ideas and movements that I had been aware of, but that I had not really reflected on or tried to organise conceptually. I learnt a lot about some of the broader issues in the development of higher education in recent decades, and more particularly the effects of globalisation and the resulting internationalisation strategies. Because of my extensive background reading, I have begun viewing some aspects of my job in international relations in a different light. When I attend conferences and seminars, I now listen with different ears. I think I ask more informed questions and I am able to contribute in a more professional way. Carrying out research has made me more competent in my daily work.

Through the literature review, I also discovered the cross-disciplinary nature of internationalisation. There are links between research in higher education internationalisation and the internationalisation of firms. I have begun to understand some of the links between my own activities at a business school and other areas such as entrepreneurship, social networking and knowledge management. I have also realised what a messy business research can be, especially when there are so many references to check. This part of my research also enabled me to realise that there is relatively little literature dealing specifically with the internationalisation of French business schools.

The interviews were a stimulating and enjoyable experience. It was a time for me to share with present and past colleagues reflections on a journey we have completed together. All the respondents said how much they enjoyed talking to me and expressing their different points of view. All the interviews with the ESC Clermont colleagues were conducted at the school. This was particularly important for Jack who retired in 1996 and therefore returned to place where he had been the director general for 17 years. For Oliver it was also an emotional experience since he had resigned at a difficult time in 1999. Finally, Harry was very happy to return to the premises he had only left a few months before when he had reached retirement. Conducting these interviews in the very environment that was the subject of our discussion helped me to keep our discussions focussed. Two interviews were completed in Paris: one with Charlie at his new place of work; one with Daniel who had just retired from another ESC school.

The interviews were basically unstructured. I took care to ensure that respondents could give their opinions in an open context. Respondents were well aware of my role in the school and I made no attempt to pretend to be an objective outsider. At times during the interviews we

shared common experiences and memories. In this way, I was able to involve the respondents in constructing a story in collaborative manner (Ellis and Berger 2003).

Reflecting on my own role in the internationalisation process, I have learnt a lot about my way of operating as a key player in the school's development. The research journey allowed me to learn in much more depth the nature of my own way of managing the internationalisation process. I realise now that I played a central role as an agent of change and development. Working closely with the three director generals gave me a privileged position in terms of the scope of my professional activities. I was able to be entrepreneurial and to take initiatives. This freedom of action allowed me to take decisions promptly and move the internationalisation agenda forward. The team of like-minded colleagues, essentially the language faculty, assisted me in this development. Over time we contributed considerably to the school's internationalisation through a 'community of practice' that emerged over time. We learnt to work together towards shared goals.

However, I have realised through this research study that I had not sufficiently reflected on the way in which I was playing my role as a central agent in the internationalisation process. This was the first time that I really sat down and listened to my colleagues as they shared their views about how internationalisation had happened at the school. I had never imagined that there was such a cleavage between myself and some of my colleagues. In the interviews I had heard them express their feelings of 'outsiderness'. During the analysis of transcript data I was confronted with trying to understand and interpret their feelings of exclusion. I realise now that I had been caught up in a system that lacked some of the more formal decision-making processes that are in place in other institutions of higher education. In my privileged role, I had been blinded to some of the unforeseen consequences of the way I worked. The advantages were clear: the freedom to be flexible and responsive to opportunities for development. The disadvantage was the lack of involvement of a considerable number of faculty members.

In conclusion, I can understand better how I have accompanied the school through part of its history. I also realise now that history moves on and that globalisation is compelling the institution to infuse the international dimension into all parts of its organisation. My own role as a central animator needs to be modified considerably. Internationalisation cannot be considered the responsibility of a small team of enthusiastic colleagues. They certainly have a role as motivators and facilitators, but they also need to assist in extending the community of practice to the faculty as a whole and to the other stakeholders in the school.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 Interviewees

APPENDIX 2 Protocol Questions

APPENDIX 3 Documentary Evidence

APPENDIX 1 Interviewees

No	School *	Date	M or F	No. Yrs. in School	Age range	Alum	Posts held	Interview Language **	Position at time of interview	Nationality
1	3	10/03/09	M	39	+60	No	Faculty Head of Department Head of International Relations	English	Retired	Dual national - British + French
2	C	22/04/09	M	29	50-59	No	Faculty Head of Department	English	Faculty	Dual nationality - US + French
3	C	03/06/09	M	22	+60	Yes	Faculty Head of Department Director General	French	Retired 1996	French
4	C	20/08/09	M	30	+60	Yes	Administration Head of Corporate Links Director of Communication	French	Retired 2009	French
5	C	21/08/09	M	22	50-59	Yes	Faculty Head of Department Academic Director	French	Resigned 1999	French
6	C	26/08/09	M	4 ½	50-59	No	Director General	French	Resigned 2000	French
7	C	30/10/09	M	40	+60	Yes	Faculty Head of Department Dean of Faculty	French	Retired 2010	French
8	C	17/03/10	F	26	50-59	Yes	Faculty Director of Communication Head of Department	French	Faculty	French

No	School *	Date	M or F	No. Yrs. in School	Age range	Alum	Posts held	Interview Language **	Position at time of interview	Nationality
9	C	08/04/10	M	34	+60	No	Faculty Head of Department Director of Research	French	Director of Research	French
10	C	26/05/10	M	9	50-59	No	Director General	French	Resigned 07/09/10	Dual national - Spanish + French
11	C	08/06/10	F	23	50-59	No	Language Faculty Head of Department International Relations Manager	French	Intercultural Communications Faculty	Dual national - Spanish + French
12	C	02/07/10	F	30	+60	No	Language Faculty Head of Department International Relations Manager	French	Intercultural Communications Faculty	Dual national - German + French
13	C	20/08/10	M	7	50-59	No	Visiting Doctoral Scholar Faculty Dean of Faculty	English	Dean of Faculty	US nationality
14	C	25/08/10	F	25	50-59	No	Language Faculty Head of Department International Relations Manager	English	Head of Intercultural Communications Department	Dual national - US + French
15	C	15/12/10	F	3	30-39	No	Faculty Course Leader	French	Faculty Course Leader	French – Moroccan background
16	C	15/12/10	M	10	50-59	No	Visiting Faculty Doctoral Scholar	English	Visiting Faculty	US nationality
17	C	20/12/10	M	6	30-39	No	Faculty Head of Department Director EMBA + Masters	French	Resigned 31/12/10	French

No	School *	Date	M or F	No. Yrs. in School	Age range	Alum	Posts held	Interview Language **	Position at time of interview	Nationality
18	C	21/12/10	F	5	40-49	No	Faculty Head of Department	French	Head of Department	French
19	C	05/01/11	M	6	50-59	No	Faculty Academic Director DBA	French	Faculty Academic Director DBA	French
20	1	07/01/11	M	4	30-39	No	Director General	French	Director General	French
21	1	07/01/11	F	16	50-59	No	Faculty Director of International Relations	French	Director of International Relations	French
22	1	07/01/11	M	34	+60	No	Language Faculty	French	Language Faculty	French
23	2	24/02/11	M	3	40-49	No	Associate Dean and Director of International Affairs Faculty	English	Associate Dean Director International Affairs Faculty	British nationality
24	2	24/02/11	M	27	50-59	No	Director General Dean	French	Director General	French
25	2	24/02/11	F	13	30_39	No	Head of Languages Associate Dean Quality and Institutional Development	English	Associate Dean Quality and Institutional Develop.	French
26	C	15/03/11	F	7 mths	30-39	No	Faculty	English	Faculty	British nationality

No	School *	Date	M or F	No. Yrs. in School	Age range	Alum	Posts held	Interview Language **	Position at time of interview	Nationality
27	C	16/03/11	M		17 50-59	No	Faculty Head of Department Programme Director Interim Director General (4 months)	French	Programme Director	French
28	C	17/03/11	M	25	50-59	No	Faculty Head of Department	French	Faculty	Dual Nationality – French + Moroccan
29	2	20/04/11	M	8	50-59	No	Faculty Head of Programme	English	Faculty	British
30	3	04/05/11	M	39	+60	No	Faculty Head of Department Head of International Relations	English	Retired	Dual national - British + French

*C= ESC Clermont; 1 = Comparative Case 1; 2 = Comparative Case 2; 3 = Comparative Case 3

** In the analysis, the author gives his own translation of the comments made by the respondent.

APPENDIX 2 Protocol Questions

Questions for post-preliminary interviews:

- Introductory chat – time in the school, different responsibilities, etc.
- What does internationalisation mean for you in a French management school?
- How far do think that ESC Clermont (Dijon, Grenoble, Normandie etc.) has made progress in those areas?
- In what ways (dimensions, aspects) have they advanced “internationalisation”
- What do you see as the main drivers or reasons for being involved in more internationalisation at our/your school?
- Does internationalisation remain important, why?
- What do you see as the main challenges or constraints or obstacles to achieving more internationalisation at our/your school?
- How are you personally involved in internationalisation at our/your school? And why?
- How do you see internationalisation at your school developing in the coming years?
- Do you have any other comments or information you would like to add?

NB. These questions were used as a guideline and structure to elicit perceptions and opinions. The aim was to achieve more consistency in the post-preliminary stage of interviewing.

APPENDIX 3 Documentary Evidence

Date	Title of Document in French	Contents in English
1921	Untitled	Minutes of board of trustees appointing part-time instructors in English and German.
1989	<i>Audit "Danton" (document not available)</i>	Audit by external consultant. Notes taken during the presentation
1995	<i>Restitution des auditions aux ESC et CCI, 25 mars 1995</i>	Report on the French <i>Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce</i> based on interviews with representatives of the schools and the chambers of commerce.
1998	<i>Plan de Développement sur cinq ans</i>	Five year development plan
2000	<i>Groupe ESC Clermont. Bilan 1996-2000</i>	Activity report by the second director general on his 4.5 years at the school.
January 2001	<i>Rapport de Mission. Note de synthèse. Réflexion stratégique sur l'ESC Clermont</i>	Consultant's report on strategic reflections for ESC Clermont
February 2001	<i>Le Groupe ESC Clermont : Situation et Perspectives. Résultats d'une consultation menée auprès des partenaires.</i>	External strategic audit.
March 2001	<i>Etude réalisée sur l'Association pour le Développement de l'Enseignement Supérieur du Management en Auvergne - ADESMA</i>	External financial audit of the school.