Özel Sayı / Special Issue

Yükseköğretimde Uluslararasılaşma / Internationalization in Higher Education

TÜBA-HER Yükseköğretim Dergisi
TÜBA Higher Education Research/Review

Yazı Değerlendirme Süreci

Yayınlanmak üzere dergiye gönderilen yazılar daha önce başka bir dergide yayınlanmamış veya yayınlanmak üzere eşzamanlı olarak herhangi bir dergiye gönderilmemiş olmalıdır. Bilimsel toplantılarda sunulmuş bildirilerden hazırlanan yazılar, tamamı yayınlanmamış olmak koşuluyla dergiye gönderilebilir. Gelen yazılar Editör Kurulu tarafından ön incelemeden geçirilir. Derginin yayın amacına uygun olmayan yazılar doğrudan reddedilebilir ya da hakem değerlendirmesine alınmadan yayın amacına ve yayın kurallarına uygun hale getirilmesi amacıyla yazara geri gönderilir. Dergi kapsamına uygun görülen yazılar çift kör *(double-blind)* hakem değerlendirme (eş değerlendirme/*peer review*) sürecine alınır. Editör Kurulu, hakem yorum ve önerileri doğrultusunda dergiye gönderilen yazıların yayına hazırlanması aşamalarında gerekli gördüğü düzeltme ve değişiklikleri önermeye ya da herhangi bir aşamada yazıyı reddetmeye yetkilidir. Eş değerlendirme sürecinde gerekli düzelti aşamalarından geçtikten sonra yayına kabul edilen yazı, sayfa düzeni hazırlanmak üzere yayınevine iletilir. Sayfa düzeni aşaması tamamlanan yazıların provası, son baskı onayı için ilgili (yazışmaların yapıldığı) yazara gönderilir. Bu aşamaları geçen yazılar, yazar onayının ardından, daha sonra sayfa numarası verilerek dergi periyoduna uygun sayıda yer almak üzere DOI kodu tanımlanarak çevrimiçi *(online)* yayınlanır. Tüm bu süreçler ile ilgili olarak yazarlar, hakemler ve editörlerin sorumluluklarının tanımlandığı Yükseköğretim Dergisi Yayın Etiği ve Kötüye Kullanım Bildirgesi ile ilgili ayrıntılı bilgi için www.yuksekogretim.org adresini ziyaret edebilirsiniz.

Kapsam

Yükseköğretim Dergisinde başlıca, yükseköğretim alanına giren konuları disiplinlerarası bir yaklaşımla, her açıdan derinlemesine inceleyen özgün ampirik ve kavramsal araştırma yazıları, derlemeler, örnek olay çalışmaları, görüş yazıları, geçmiş deneyimlere bakış sunan tarihsel yazılar ve editöre mektuplar yayınlanır. Bu sınıf yazılardan editöre mektup dışında kalanlar için yayın kararı, Editör Kurulu ön incelemesi sonrası, hakem değerlendirme (eş değerlendirme/*peer review*) süreci sonucunda verilir. Hakem değerlendirmesine girecek tüm yazı türlerinin özetler, anahtar sözcükler ve kaynak(lar) içermesi zorunludur.

Dergide bunların dışında, eş değerlendirme sürecine girmeyen ve yayınlanma kararı yetkisinin Editör Kuruluna ait olduğu, bir bölümü davet üzerine hazırlanan, kısa rapor, uygulama kılavuzu niteliğindeki yazılar ve anma yazıları, kitap değerlendirmeleri, kongre ve literatür özetleri, yükseköğretim faaliyetleri ile ilgili haber ve duyurular yer alabilir.

Dergide yer alan bölümler aşağıdaki gibi sınıflanmaktadır:

- Ampirik Araştırma
- Kavramsal Araştırma
- Örnek Olay Çalışması
- Derleme
- Görüş
- Geçmişe Bakış
- Editöre Mektup
- Kısa Rapor
- Kılavuz
- Anma Yazısı
- Kitap Değerlendirmesi
- Özetler
- Haberler
- Duyurular

Yükseköğretim Dergisinin kapsamı genel olarak aşağıdaki konulardan oluşmaktadır:

- Yükseköğretim Yönetimi
- Yükseköğretim Politikaları ve Stratejileri
- Yükseköğretimde Eğitim-Öğretim (ulusal veya uluslararası ölçekte genel eğitim konuları: eğitim politikaları, eğitim yeterlilikleri, müfredatlar, eğitim programları, eğitim teknolojileri, ölçme-değerlendirme vb.)
- Yükseköğretimde Üniversitelerin Yapılandırılması
- Yükseköğretimde Kalite ve Akreditasyon
- Yükseköğretimde Bilim Adamı Yetiştirme, İnsan Kaynakları ve Yetenek Keşfi
- Yükseköğretimde Finansman
- Yükseköğretimde Uluslararasılaşma
- Yükseköğretimde Çeşitlilik
- Yükseköğretimde Sıralama Sistemleri
- Yükseköğretimde Yenilikçilik, Girişimcilik ve ARGE Stratejileri
- Yükseköğretimde Sanayi ve Toplum İlişkileri
- Yükseköğretimde Kampüs Yaşamı
- Yükseköğretimde Yeni Eğilimler
- Yükseköğretime Geçiş

Yazıların Hazırlanması

Yükseköğretim Dergisinde yayınlanacak yazıların hazırlanmasında, aşağıdaki kurallar dışında, sosyal bilimler alanında yaygın kullanılan Amerikan Psikologlar Birliği'nin (APA) önerdiği ortak kurallar (APA, 2009) geçerlidir (www.apastyle.org).

Yazılar 21x29.7 cm (A4) boyutundaki sayfaya, Word programının güncel bir sürümünde, kenarlardan 2.5 cm boşluk bırakacak şekilde, 11 punto Times New Roman karakteriyle, çift aralıklı, sola blok şeklinde olarak yazılmalıdır. Hazırlanacak metinlerin (başlık sayfası hariç), kaynak listesi ile tablo ve şekil/resim altı yazıları dahil 25 sayfayı geçmemesine özen gösterilmelidir.

Yazılarda bulunması gereken bölümler sırası ile şunlardır:

Sayfa 1 - Başlık sayfası
Sayfa 2 - Türkçe Başlık, Özet ve Anahtar Sözcükler
Sayfa 3 - İngilizce Başlık (*Title*), Özet (*Abstract*) ve Anahtar Sözcükler (*Keywords*)
Sayfa 4 ve sonrası - Temel Metin
Sonraki Sayfa - Kaynaklar
Sonraki Sayfa - Tablo Yazısı ve Tablo (her tablo ayrı sayfada belirtilmelidir)
Sonraki Sayfa - Şekil/Resim Altı Yazısı ve Şekil/Resimler (her şekil/resim ayrı sayfada belirtilmelidir)
Son Sayfa - Ekler (dipnotlar, anket formları vb.)

Başlık sayfası

Bütün yazılarda birinci sayfaya yazının başlığı, bunun altına da yazar(lar)ın açık ad ve soyad(lar)ı, unvan(lar)ı ile birlikte aynı satırda sıralanarak yazılmalıdır. Bir satır altta, çalışmanın yapıldığı ya da yazar(lar)ın bağlı bulunduğu kurumun adı ve şehir (farklı bölüm ya da kurumlardan olan yazarlar belirtilecek şekilde) yer almalıdır. Bunun da altında, uzun başlıklı yazıların, dergide yayınlandığında devam sayfalarının üst tarafında görünmesi arzu edilen ve 80 karakteri geçmeyen kısaltılmış başlığı belirtilmelidir. Başlık sayfasında ayrıca yazışmaların yapılabileceği yazarın adı ile birlikte iletişim adresi ve telefon, varsa faks numarası ile e-posta adresi belirtilmelidir. Bu sayfanın en altına varsa çalışmayı destekleyen fon ya da kuruluşun adı yazılmalı, çalışma daha önce bir kongre ya da benzeri bir bilimsel toplantıda sunulmuş ise (sadece özetinin ya da bir bölümünün yayınlanmış olması koşuluyla) bu durum aynı bölümde ayrı bir satır olarak belirtilmelidir. İsim ve kurum kimliği gibi bilgiler, doğrudan ya da dolaylı olarak başlık sayfası dışında hiçbir sayfada belirtilmemelidir.

Özet sayfaları

Türkçe ve İngilizce özetler başlığı izleyen en az 150, fazla 250 sözcükten oluşacak şekilde ardışık iki ayrı sayfaya yazılmalıdır. İngilizce özet (*Abstract*) sayfasında, İngilizce başlık (*Title*) bulunmalıdır. Özetleri takiben her bir özet sayfasına, aralarında virgül olacak şekilde alfabetik sırayla dizilmiş ve küçük harfle yazılmış, Türkçe ve İngilizce olmak üzere en az 3'er anahtar sözcük eklenmelidir.

Temel metin

Ampirik araştırma yazıları dört ana bölümde sunulmalıdır. İlk bölüm başlıklandırılmaksızın giriş bilgilerinin sunulduğu bölümdür. İzleyen bölümlerin başlıkları Yöntem, Bulgular ve Tartışma (gerektiğinde ek olarak Sonuç, Öneriler ve/veya Teşekkür bölümü) sırasıyla yazılmalıdır. Diğer yazı tiplerinde bu standart aranmaz fakat metin (giriş bölümü hariç) ara başlıklara bölünmüş şekilde sunulmalıdır. Her bir ara başlığın varsa alt ve daha alt başlıkları kategorileri ayırt edilecek biçimde yazılmalıdır.

Kaynaklar

Kaynaklar, başlarına sıra numarası konmaksızın alfabetik sırayla listelenmelidir. Tüm kaynaklara metin içinde gönderme (atıf) yapılmış olmalıdır.

Metin içinde gönderme

Metinde kaynak göstermek için parantez açılarak yazarın soyadı, eserin yayım tarihi verilir. Beş yazara kadar olan kaynaklarda bütün yazarların soyadları verilmelidir. İki yazarlı kaynaklarda daima her iki yazarın soyadı da verilir. Üç ila beş yazarlı kaynaklarda, metindeki ilk göndermede bütün yazarların soyadları verilirken, varsa aynı kaynağın ikinci ve sonraki atıflarında sadece ilk yazarın soyadı yazılıp sonda "vd." ifadesi ile birlikte sunulmalıdır. Altı ve daha fazla sayıda yazarlı kaynaklara yapılan göndermelerde ise ilk atıf dahil sadece ilk yazarın soyadı yazılıp sonda "vd." ifadesi ile birlikte verilir. Yazar adı cümle başı ya da içinde kullanılarak gönderme yapılacaksa bu durumda "vd." kısaltması yerine "ve diğerleri" yazılmalıdır.

— *Örnek:* (Uyanık ve Kandır, 2010) *ya da* (Meyer, Ramirez, Rubinson ve Boli-Bennet, 1977) ya da (Gottfredson vd., 2008)

Yazar adı cümle başı ya da içinde kullanılarak gönderme yapılacaksa parantez içinde ilgili kaynağın yayın yılı verilir.

— *Örnek:* Uyanık ve Kandır (2010) bu konuda farklı düşünmektedirler… *ya da* Gottfredson ve diğerlerine (2008) göre…

Yazarlara Bilgi / Instructions to Authors

www.yuksekogretim.org

TÜBA

TÜBA-HER
Yükseköğretim
Dergisi
TÜBA Higher Education Research/Review

Doğrudan alıntı ifadeler kullanıldığında ek olarak sayfa numarası belirtilmelidir.

— *Örnek:* (Uyanık ve Kandır, 2010, s. 119)

Metin içinde aynı yerde birden fazla kaynak gösterilmesi istendiğinde, kaynaklar parantez içinde ilk yazarlarının soyadı alfabetiğine göre dizilerek ve araları noktalı virgül ile ayrılarak belirtilir.

— *Örnek:* (Gottfredson vd., 2008; Uyanık ve Kandır, 2010)

Kaynak listesi

Aşağıda verilen genel örneklere uygun şekilde hazırlanmalıdır. Birden fazla yazarlı yayınlarda, son yazardan önce, Türkçe kaynak ise "ve", yabancı dilde kaynak ise "*and*" bağlacı konmalıdır. Yazar sayısı yediden fazla ise ilk altı yazardan sonra "…" (üç nokta) konup son yazarın adı verilir. Kaynak künyelerinde yediden fazla yazar adı sunulmaz. Süreli yayın adları, kısaltma yapılmaksızın açık olarak, italik yazılmalıdır. Birden fazla baskı yapmış kitaplarda baskı sayısı ve DOI (*digital object identifier*) kodu bulunmayan kitapların künyelerinde basım yeri (şehir) ve yayınevi mutlaka belirtilmelidir. Kaynak künyelerinde DOI kodu, küçük harfle doi ibaresi yazıldıktan sonra iki nokta üst üste konup ara verilmeksizin yazılır.

Cilt ve sayı numarası bulunan Türkçe süreli yayın makalesi örneği:

Uyanık, Ö., & Kandır, A. (2010). Okul öncesi dönemde erken akademik beceriler. *Kuramsal Eğitimbilim*, *3*(2), 118–134.

Yabancı dilde süreli yayın makalesi örneği:

Gottfredson, N. C., Panter, A. T., Daye, C. E., Allen, W. A., Wightman, L. F., & Deo, M. E. (2008). Does diversity at undergraduate institutions influence student outcomes? *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 1*(2), 80–94.

Dergi sayı numarası süreklilik gösteren ve sayılar arasında sayfa numaraları devamlılık göstermeyen süreli yayın makalesi örneği:

Mızıkacı, F. (2010). Isomorphic and diverse institutions among Turkish Foundation Universities. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, *(157),* 128–139.

Henüz basılı sayı ve sayfa numarası almamış, çevrimiçi (online) yayınlanmış, DOI kodu içeren yabancı dilde süreli yayın makalesi örneği:

Meer, J., & Rosen, H. S. (2010). Family bonding with universities. *Research in Higher Education*. doi:10.1007/s11162-010-9174-3

Türkçe kitap örneği:

Kurbanoğlu, S. S. (2004). *Kaynak gösterme el kitabı.* Ankara: ÜNAK Yayınları.

İki yazarlı Türkçe kitap örneği:

Küçükcan, T., & Gür B. S. (2009). *Türkiye'de yükseköğretim: Karşılaştırmalı bir analiz.* Ankara: SETA Yayınları.

Editörlü Türkçe kitap örneği:

Varış, F. (Ed.) (1994). *Eğitim bilimine giriş.* Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Basımevi.

Türkçe kitap bölümü örneği:

Acan, F. (1996). Türkiye'de kadın akademisyenler: Tarihsel evrim ve bugünkü durum. H. Coşkun (Ed.), *Akademik yaşamda kadın* içinde (s. 75–87). Ankara: Türk-Alman Kültür İşleri Kurulu Yayını.

Çeviri kitap örneği:

Ströker, E. (1995). *Bilim kuramına giriş* (D. Özlem, Çev.). Ankara: Gündoğan Yayınları. (1973)

Türkçe tez örneği:

Köprülü, D. (1994). *Üniversite kütüphanelerinde kitap koleksiyonunun kullanımı üzerine bir araştırma.* Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara.

Yabancı dilde kitap örneği:

Witt, S. L. (1990). *The pursuit of race and gender equity in American academe.* New York: Praeger.

Birden fazla baskı yapmış yabancı dilde kitap örneği:

Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Editörlü yabancı dilde kitap örneği:

Brown, O. G., Hinton, K. G., & Howard-Hamilton, M. (Eds.). (2007). *Unleashing suppressed voices on college campuses: Diversity issues in higher education.* New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Yabancı dilde kitap bölümü örneği:

Niemann, Y. F. (2003). The psychology of tokenism: Psychosocial realities of faculty of color. In G. Bernal., J. E. Trimble, A. K. Burlew, & F. T. L. Leong (Eds.). *Handbook of racial and ethnic minority psychology* (pp. 100–118). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yabancı dilde kitap serisi içinde bölüm örneği:

Paulsen, M. B., & Toutkoushian, R. K. (2008). Economic models and policy analysis in higher education: A diagrammatic exposition. In Smart, J. C. (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (Vol. *23*, pp. 1–48). New York: Springer.

Yabancı dilde tez örneği:

Cowan, L. Y. (2006). *An examination of policies and programs used to increase ethnic and racial diversity among faculty at research universities.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Elektronik kaynak örnekleri:

World Wide Web (www) aracılığıyla elde edilen elektronik dokümanlar aşağıdaki gibi listelenir:

— *Örnek 1:* ÖSYM (2009). *Yüksek öğrenim istatistikleri.* Erişim adresi http://www.osym.gov.tr (15 Mart 2010).

— *Örnek 2:* The Economist (2004, Jan 8). *The curse of nepotism.* Erişim adresi http://www.economist.com/world/unitedstates/displaystory.cfm?story_id=2333345 (15 Mart 2010).

Şekil, Resim ve Tablolar

Metin içinde ayrı kategorilerde numaralandırılmalı, numaralandırmada Romen sayıları kullanılmamalıdır. Tablo yazıları tabloların üst tarafında yer almalıdır. Şekil/resim alt yazıları sırasına göre ayrı bir sayfada sunulmalıdır. Vektörel yazılımlarda hazırlanmış şekiller (çizim ve grafikler) TIF ya da EPS formatında kaydedilebilir. Renkli şekiller RGB (8 bits) olarak TIF formatında, siyah/beyaz çizimler ise EPS formatında kaydedilmiş olmalıdır. Resimler 300 dpi çözünürlükte, TIF ya da JPG formatında hazırlanmalıdır. Şekil, tablo ya da resimlerde gerektiğinde standart dışı kısaltmalar kullanılabilir. Bu durumda kullanılan kısaltma ilgili başlık ya da şekil/resim altı yazısında açıklanmalıdır. Daha önce yayınlanmış şekil, tablo ya da resimler, yalnız kesin gerektiği durumlarda karşılaştırma amacıyla, yazar ya da yayıncısından (telif hakkı sahibinden) yazılı izin alınarak, kaynak gösterilmek koşuluyla kullanılabilir.

Ekler

Metin içinde yer kaplamaması amacıyla ayrı bir yerde (dipnot olarak) verilmek istenen açıklamalar bu bölümde sıralanabilir. Metin içinde gerekli yerlerde, köşeli parantez içinde üst karakter şeklinde sıra numarası verilen ilgili dipnotlar bu bölümde (*endnotes*) sıralanarak sunulmalıdır. Yazarların zorunlu olmadıkça dinot kullanmamaları önerilir. Bunun dışında anket formu, harita, plan vb. diğer öğeler de ekler bölümünde verilebilir. Bunlarla ilgili açıklama yazıları da bu bölümde yer almalıdır. Birden fazla ek malzeme sunulması gerekliliğinde her bir ek için Romen rakamları ile ayrı sıra numarası verilmelidir.

Kontrol Listesi

1. Yazının uzunluğu (en fazla 25 sayfa)
2. Genel biçim (iki aralıklı satır; 11 punto Times New Roman karakteri; kesme işareti dışındaki noktalama işaretlerinden sonra tek aralık)
3. Başlık sayfası (yazar ve kurum adları; kısa başlık; iletişim adresi)
4. Özetler (Türkçe ve İngilizce; en az 150, en fazla 250 sözcük)
5. Anahtar sözcükler (en az 3'er adet)
6. Temel metin (başlıklar)
7. Kaynaklar (APA kriterlerine uygunluk)
8. Şekil, tablo ve resimler (numaralandırma; alt yazılar; özgünlük/izin yazısı)
9. Ekler (Romen rakamı ile numaralandırma ve açıklama yazıları)
10. Başvuru mektubu (iletişimden sorumlu yazar; çıkar çakışması beyanı)
11. Görsel malzeme (şekil, resim vb.) izin yazısı (daha önce yayınlanmış ise)

▬ Yazıların Gönderilmesi

Değerlendirilmek üzere dergiye gönderilecek yazıların gönderim ve hakem değerlendirme süreci (*peer review*) izlemi sadece www.dergipark.gov.tr/yuksekogretim adresinde, Makale gönderme sekmesi altında yer alan çevrimiçi (*online*) sistem aracılığıyla yapılabilmektedir. Dergimiz Şubat 2019 itibariyle elektronik ya da geleneksel posta yoluyla yazı kabul etmemektedir. Gönderilecek yazıların hem Word hem de PDF formatında dokümanlar olarak güncel sürüm bir yazılımla hazırlanmış olmasına dikkat edilmelidir.

Yükseköğretimde Uluslararasılaşma /
Internationalization in Higher Education

Yükseköğretimde Uluslararasılaşma /
Internationalization in Higher Education

Sayı Editörleri / Issue Editors

Fatma Nevra Seggie
Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, İstanbul

Süphan Nasır
İstanbul Üniversitesi, İstanbul

Alper Çalıkoğlu
Borsa İstanbul Mesleki ve Teknik Anadolu Lisesi, Çanakkale

Harun Serpil
Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eskişehir

Editorial to the Special Issue on Internationalization in Higher Education

The cross-border dimension of higher education dates back to ancient times. In Medieval Europe, in the early stages of the Islamic civilization and the Confucian Far East, scholars at universities visited other countries both to disseminate their ideas and learn from their colleagues (Perkin, 2007). This cross-border mobility continued with the colonial movements, the expansion of the nation-state and the cold war period, with the intercontinental transfer of higher education models and activities for international political, technical and academic cooperation (Kim, 2009).

Cross-border mobility in higher education has become more comprehensive and multidimensional, especially since the 1990s, and the use of internationalization as an inclusive concept on the subject has become widespread. In this period, factors such as the change brought about by globalization, the rapid increase in the international demand for higher education and the expansion of the cross-border diffusion of knowledge have led states and higher education institutions to implement various strategies and take actions in internationalization in academic, political, socio-cultural and economic fields (de Wit & Altbach, 2021). As a result, besides the international student and academic mobility, a wide range of subjects such as the internationalization of the curriculum, international higher education cooperation, being a regional center of attraction in higher education, and international university rankings have become a part of the internationalization agenda. So much so that internationalization can be said to be enjoying its golden age today. For example, the number of international students, which was around 2 million in 2000, exceeded 6.3 million in 2021 (UIS, 2022). Similarly, the efforts to create the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), embodied in the Bologna declaration in 1999, have turned into a broad program covering the fields of mobility, credit, recognition and recruitment, in which 49 countries participate today (EHEA, 2022). The Asian University Network (AUN), established by 13 universities in 1995, has become a higher education network with 200 universities from 10 countries today (AUN, 2022).

With all these developments, there is still a great need for academic research on how internationalization in higher education is implemented in different countries because internationalization as a strategic field in higher education is interpreted and applied according to different priorities in different regions, countries and institutions. Moreover, since internationalization and priorities and expectations vary in terms of higher education administrators and policy makers, academics and students, it is clear that the concept should be examined from the perspective of different stakeholders. At this point, studies on the attitudes and behaviors of academics, who are important practitioners of internationalization in higher education, are expected to enlighten the discussions on the current state of internationalization. Moreover, in addition to what happened after the Covid-19 pandemic, political developments, isolation and polarization in various parts of the world in the recent past make us think about whether the golden age of internationalization will continue or in which direction its future will evolve. At this point, it is highly likely that studies that reveal the practices related to internationalization in different parts of the world through the lens of academics will guide decision makers and researchers on the subject.

This special issue of Yükseköğretim Dergisi / *TÜBA Higher Education Research/Review (TÜBA-HER)* is the product of a long-term collaboration that emerged from the above efforts. The data of the first six articles in the special issue have been compiled within the scope of the Academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society-APIKS project, an international comparative project with the participation of academics from many countries, and the authors of these articles published the previous versions of their work within the scope of the project on 7–9 December 2020 at APIKS. They presented at the e-conference (4th APIKS e-conference: Internationalization in Higher Education) hosted by the Turkish team. Based on the APIKS project, after the peer-review process, in the first of six articles in this special issue, Marquina and Reznik examine the position of academics regarding internationalization in Argentina's higher education, and in the second, Stephenson, Jones, Begin-Caouette and Metcalfe examine the perceptions of academics in Canada regarding internationalization. In the third article, Aarrevaara, Tulppo, Vasari and Tenhunen reveal the reasons and motivations for participation in internationalization in Finnish higher education, and in the fourth article, Kuzhabekova, Bilyalov and Mussabayeva reveal the views of faculty members in Kazakhstan on internationalization. In the fifth article, Abdullah, Azman, Da Wan and Abdullah examine the participation of academics in Malaysia in internationalization, and in the sixth article, Çalıkoğlu, Kondakçı and Seggie examine international research collaborations in Turkish higher education. In the seventh article, Kaçmaz, Doğan and Ceyhan Sürme report on the international mobility utilized in strengthening nursing programs in Türkiye. Özcan, Kalaycı and Li analyze the institutional quality assessment processes applied in Turkish, European and American higher education systems in the eighth article. Finally, Hamutoğlu, Ünveren-Bilgiç and Elmas focus on higher education evaluation and quality assurance in the context of Türkiye and England.

We hope that all the studies in the special issue will be useful in internationalization in higher education and related academic and practical discussions and studies. We would like to express our sincere gratitude to all the authors who contributed to this special issue, to the editors of Yükseköğretim Dergisi / *TÜBA Higher Education Research/Review (TÜBA-HER)*, to the members of the APIKS project Türkiye team that hosted the 4th APIKS conference, and to the Turkish Academy of Sciences (TÜBA), the publisher of the journal.

Issue Editors

References

AUN (2022). *Asean University Network. Discover-membership*. Retrieved from https://aunsec.org/discover-aun/membership (October 28, 2022).

de Wit, H., & Altbach, P. G. (2021) Internationalization in higher education: Global trends and recommendations for its future. *Policy Reviews in Higher Education*, *5*(1), 28–46.

EHEA (2022). *European Higher Education Area and Bologna Process*. Retrieved from http://www.ehea.info/ (October 28, 2022).

Kim, T. (2009). Shifting patterns of transnational academic mobility: A comparative and historical approach. *Comparative Education 45*(3), 387–403.

Perkin, H. (2007). History of universities. In J. J. F. Forest, & P. G. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 159–205). Dordrecht: Springer.

UIS (2022). *Number and rates of international mobile students (inbound and outbound)*. Montreal, QC: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Internationalized Academics in Argentina: A Privilege or an Option?

Arjantin'deki Akademisyenlerin Uluslararasılaşması: Bir Ayrıcalık mı Yoksa Bir Seçenek mi?

Mónica Marquina[1] (ID), Nicolás Reznik[2] (ID)

[1]Interdisciplinary Nucleus of Training and Studies for Educational Development (NIFEDE), National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET), Universidad Nacional de Tres de Febrero, Buenos Aires, Argentina
[2]Doctoral Program of Higher Education Policy and Management, Universidad Nacional de Tres de Febrero, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Özet

Üniversiteler için kamu politikası gündeminin bir parçası olarak uluslararasılaşma, Arjantin'de nispeten yenidir. Uluslararasılaşmaya yönelik politikalar şimdiye kadar kıttı ve gelişmiş ülkelerden gelen finansal fırsatlara bağlı idi. Akademisyenler uluslararasılaşmanın gelişiminde kilit aktörler olduğundan ve Arjantin'deki akademik meslek heterojen ve parçalı olduğundan, yükseköğretime ilişkin son zamanlardaki uluslararasılaştırma politikalarının Arjantin akademik faaliyetlerinin uluslararası düzeyini ne ölçüde etkileyeceği hala bilinmemektedir. Bu makale Arjantinli akademisyenler için uluslararası olmanın bir seçenek mi yoksa bir ayrıcalık mı olduğu ve bu durumun üniversitedeki merkezi rolleri göz önüne alındığında çalıştıkları kurumlarda uluslararasılaşmanın değerine ilişkin algılarını nasıl belirlediği sorularını araştırmaktadır. Bunu yapmak için, kişisel ve profesyonel niteliklerle ilgili olarak Arjantin'deki akademik uluslararasılaşma düzeyini analiz etmek için 2018 Bilgiye Dayalı Toplumda Akademik Meslek (APIKS) anketinden yararlanıldı ve kurumsal uluslararasılaşma için uygun akademik ortamların nasıl yaratılabileceği soruları yanıtlanmaya çalışıldı. Bulguların, kurumsal uluslararasılaşma ve kurumsal kalitenin artırılması yönündeki kapsamlı değişikliklere katkı sunması beklenmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Akademik uluslararasılaşma, APIKS, Arjantin, yükseköğretimde uluslararasılaşma.

Abstract

Internationalization, as part of a public policy agenda for universities, is relatively new in Argentina. Policies oriented toward internationalization have been scarce and have depended on financial opportunities from developed countries. Since academics are key actors in the development of internationalization, and the academic profession in Argentina is heterogeneous and fragmented, the extent to which recent internationalization policies on higher education might impact on the international level of Argentine academic activity is still unknown. This article delves into the questions of whether being international today is either an option or a privilege for Argentine academics, and how this condition determines their perception of the value of internationalization at the institutions where they work, given their central role at the university. To do this, we have relied on the 2018 Academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society (APIKS) survey to analyze the level of academic internationalization in Argentina in relation to personal and professional qualities. We, therefore, examine our questions aiming toward the creation of favorable academic environments for institutional internationalization. Our findings could be helpful in thinking up a comprehensive change for institutional internationalization and, therefore, institutional quality.

Keywords: Academic internationalization, Argentina, APIKS, internationalization in higher education.

Internationalization, as part of a public policy agenda for universities, is relatively new in Argentina. Until the beginning of the twenty-first century, being "international" was subject to the missions, histories, and interests of institutions and academics. The emergence of internationalization as a quality or institutional modernization parameter coincided with the development of global processes, with the subsequent financial opportunities that allowed for the creation of networks with institutions or academics from developed countries, for whom internationalization was high in their agendas.

Since then, policies oriented toward internationalization have been scarce and have depended on those processes. Nevertheless, internationalization has been incorporated gradually to the national agenda and to that of universities,

although the extent to which these efforts are a staple of Argentine university life is still unclear.

Academics are key actors in the development of internationalization, both as a driving force and as recipients of those policies. During the first decade of this century, studies have demonstrated that internationalization is generally driven by academics' individual motivations and their networks of relationships with colleagues from abroad (Finkelstein, Walker, & Chen, 2009; Huang, 2007; Schwietz, 2008). In later decades, being international was dependent on individual interests, the framework of the discipline chosen for practice (Finkelstein et al., 2009), and institutional missions with the concept of "internationalization at home" (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015). Recently, a new phase showing a counterreaction of nationalist–populist movements, anti-globalist protests, and anti-integration trends might have negative implications for the internationalization of higher education (de Wit & Altbach, 2021). The extent to which recent internationalization policies on higher education have impacted on the international level of Argentine academic activity is still unknown.

The high level of heterogeneity of the Argentine academic profession may help explain the current scenario. The questions this article attempts to resolve are whether being international today is either an option or a privilege for Argentine academics and how this *status* influences the way in which academics institutionally perceive internationalization, given their central role at the university.

In this sense, the aim of this work is to study the level of academic internationalization in Argentina in relation to personal and professional qualities and how this condition determines academics' perception of the value of internationalization at the institutions where they work. We have relied on the 2018 Academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society (APIKS) survey to delve into these questions. We examine the concepts and issues related to the literature consulted for this study in regard to internationalization and the academic profession, and its relation to the Argentine case in terms of policies and characteristics of the profession. Next, we describe and justify our sample, outlining data and methods, and describing the variables used for this study. Finally, we present and discuss our results and provide conclusions.

Theorizing Internationalization and the Academic Profession

During the early the twenty-first century, internationalization was mostly understood as a measure enabling collaboration between institutions and governments to reduce the uncon-

trollable effects of globalization (Enders, 2004; Knight, 2005; Teichler, 2004). Since then, many researchers have studied internationalization as actions undertaken, under different forms, by a country, an institution, an academic department, or an individual professor to understand or manage global realities (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009).

Internationalization has, throughout the years, changed from being a reactive question to a proactive one, from being an added value to becoming a generalized feature. Its focus, scope, and contents have significantly evolved as well (de Wit & Altbach, 2021). Thus, the concept of internationalization has increasingly taken on an essential role as a dimension of institutional quality. In recent years, de Wit et al. (2015, p. 29) defined internationalization of higher education as "the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society."

The universities' efforts to incorporate internationalization often originate from individual, institutional, and local factors, and lead to a number of strategies and outcomes for different areas, such as teaching and research. These efforts also vary according to region, country, type of institution, and discipline. Other factors are also influential in prioritizing the motivations, strategies, and outcomes of internationalization (Rumbley, 2010). Therefore, internationalization may counteract or contribute to greater dependence, academic concentration, a hegemonic thought, and a deepening of inequalities (Didou Aupetit, 2006; Knight, 2020).

The study of the impact of internationalization processes on the academic profession is relatively new. The traditional distinction made by Clark (1980, 1987) between "cosmopolitans" and "locals," as part of the variations of academic cultures around the world, was deepened by Altbach (2004) in his study of the impact of globalization on academic work on faculties of industrialized and emergent countries. The interest for this subject lies in the analysis of the individual, professional, and local factors (e.g., gender, academic position, discipline, research/teaching preference, research and teaching activities, language, national economy, etc.) that may influence the internationalization of the academic profession (Ackers, 2008; Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014; Li & Tu, 2016; Nokkala, Bataille, Siekkinen, & Goastellec, 2020; Teichler, Arimoto, & Cummings, 2013; Rostan, Finkelstein, & Huang, 2013; Teichler & Cummings, 2015).

Additionally, other studies have considered different indicators to identify internationalized academics, who can be

grouped in either individual, institutional, or system based: international travel for research and study; research published in another country; conducting research or publishing with colleagues from abroad; campus climate for international perspectives and actions; or policy implications, among others (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Huang, 2007, Schwietz, 2008). These studies focus on the way international perspectives shape the academic activity and how national boundaries restrict faculty professional networks (Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014).

Contextualizing Internationalization and the Academic Profession in Argentina

Since its emergence in the 1990s, especially after the passing of the Higher Education Act of 1995 and in a context of a neoliberal government that included the idea of opening the country's economy to the world (Marquina & Luchilo, 2021), the internationalization of higher education has remained high on the agenda of Argentine policies. Several programs from the Ministry of Education began to foster internationalization at universities, such as the Programa de Promoción de la Universidad Argentina of 2008 (Argentine University Promotion Program), which funded the constitution of networks for research with academics from different countries. A new unit was also established in 2003 at the Secretary of University Policies, called Programa de Internacionalización de la Educación Superior y la Cooperación Internacional (Higher Education and International Cooperation Internationalization Program), promoting internationalization with a focus on student and academic mobility. Nevertheless, policies for the internationalization of higher education in Argentina have been scarce, poorly funded, and mostly motivated by external projects (e.g., ERASMUS+Latin America projects).

Universities have responded to policies or external funding opportunities related to the internationalization of higher education in different ways. Although changing and dynamic projects were put forth at their core, some of these institutions have organized proactively in regard to these incentives and as part of their institutional mission, showing interest in internationalizing their own processes, whereas others have responded in a reactive way (Ramírez, 2017). We should underscore, however, the increasing level of development of internationalization offices at these institutions, with the professionalization of staff (Marquina, 2020) and the introduction of an international dimension in their evaluation processes, such as in the case of the external institutional evaluation carried out by the Comisión Nacional de Evaluación y Acreditación Universitaria (National University Evaluation and Accreditation Commission). Moreover, international indicators have been included in the national statistics system of universities (SPU, 2020). In sum, it

could be argued that internationalization in Argentina is an incipient and developing process that still depends on external funding from governmental and international agencies and programs.

By 2018, foreign higher education students in Argentina represented 3.6% of the total vocational and undergraduate enrollment and 9.4% of postgraduate enrollment. The public sector had a concentration of foreign students of 75.2%, whereas the private sector had only 24.8%. Students from other Latin American countries represented 95%, and only 4% came from Europe. Yet, it is worth mentioning that barely 0.42% of the total number of enrolled students were considered international mobility students; that is, they conducted academic activities different from a full course as a result of internationalization efforts (SPU, 2020).

Many international efforts at Argentine universities, still motivated by individual interests, stem from researchers who have established networks with different colleagues around the world, promoting or even taking advantage of national or international opportunities (Ramírez, 2017). Considering the characteristics of the Argentine academic profession is crucial to understand the internationalization of higher education in the country.

The academic profession in Argentina is heterogeneous and fragmented, with characteristics that are related to a massive higher education system (free tuition and open admission), with professional training as its main objective (Marquina & Luchilo, 2021). There is a high presence of part-time faculty at both private and public institutions. In the public university sector, close to two-thirds of academics are part-time teachers (10 hrs. per week), with a tendency toward growth in recent years. The other third is distributed among full-time teachers, who oversee research, academic, and management activities (SPU, 2020). In the private sector, the presence of part-time faculty is even higher. The percentages of women and men have evened out at 50% each. While women concentrate more in full-time positions than their male counterparts (54.7% vs. 45.3%) (SPU, 2020), men comprise the highest-ranking positions (38.5% for women and 61.5% for men in full professor positions) (SPU, 2020). This is critical since the Argentine academic profession is strongly hierarchical. The chair system is the most common type of organization of academic work, especially in more traditional institutions, which also have the largest number of students (Marquina, Pérez Centeno, & Reznik, 2021).

The differences among faculty are not distributed by type of institutions (e.g., research oriented) but rather within their own academic structure. Therefore, each institution may

gather full-time faculty, involved in institutional life, and a vast majority of part-time faculty whose main activity is teaching. The composition of these groups in Argentina may vary according to each institution, but it is common to identify a selected group or "elite" (Marquina & Rebello, 2013) that is more satisfied with their work and shares specific features among its members, such as full-time dedication to academic work, access to funding that guarantees a higher level of equipment and resources for research, and the possibility of being "international," given that they have a closer involvement with colleagues from abroad than their local peers. In this sense, the analogy between this group and an elite coincides with other research conducted in the European context (Kwiek, 2016; Wagner, 2008).

Questions, Analytical Model, and Hypotheses

As discussed above, the role of academics in internationalization processes around the world is crucial for institutional development. We assume that internationalized academics do not constitute a large group in Argentina, given the characteristics of the academic profession in this country (Marquina & Rebello, 2013). Thus, we will study the level of internationalization in Argentina according to the personal and professional attributes of academics, as well as to how this status determines their perceptions of the value of internationalization at the institutions where they work. Since academics are important drivers of beliefs and values at the institutions (Clark, 1980, 1987), and personal and professional conditions may influence the status of internationalized faculty (Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014; Li & Tu, 2016; Teichler et al., 2013; Teichler & Cummings, 2015), it would be possible to predict whether academics' opportunities of being more or less internationalized are conditions for perceiving internationalization as a key dimension at the institutions where they work. Consequently, the main questions in this study are:

- Is being international an option for any academic, or do personal and professional factors limit or enhance the international profile of academics in Argentina?
- How does the value given to internationalization by academics at the institutions where they work vary according to their international profile?
- Is the value given to internationalization by academics at the institutions where they work a result of their international profile?

Since we are paying special attention to how the personal and professional characteristics of academics determine their profile as "internationalized," for the purposes of this study, we will define the following factors as main personal characteristics: *(a)* gender (Abramo, D'Angelo, & Murgia, 2013;

Ackers, 2008; Fox, Realff, Rueda, & Morn, 2016; Vabo, Padilla González, Waagene, & Naes, 2013), and *(b)* family composition (Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014; Nokkala et al., 2020). These studies have shown that many of the traditional gender differences in academic work are reproduced through international academic activities; that is, the influence of personal factors such as gender and family composition become barriers or facilitators of academic internationalization. For instance, Ackers (2008) argues that, in the European Research Area, these personal factors shape scientific mobility and influence the relationship between mobility, internationalization, and excellence. Likewise, Nokkala et al. (2020) find differences in academic policies in Finland and Switzerland, in particular those referred to the importance of international mobility, which are more noticeable in Switzerland and place women at a greater disadvantage. Based on these results, we set out to analyze the impact of gender and family composition of Argentine academics on their academic internationalization, given that we also have variables related to these factors in the survey. Although other factors could have been considered –such as having lived abroad, the international character of parental composition, or language– we found no variables in that regard in the survey.

We will also define the following factors as main professional characteristics: *(a)* generation (Kyvik & Aksnes, 2015; Stephan & Levin, 1992); *(b)* highest degree (Kwiek, 2020); *(c)* employment status (Kwiek, 2020); *(d)* rank (Kwiek, 2020); and *(e)* discipline (Kwiek, 2020). These studies have demonstrated that, in the European context, the level of internationalization increases along with a greater progress in the academic career –such as academic experience and age, as well as position– and certain disciplines such as physics, mathematics, or life sciences.

As other studies have demonstrated, the personal and professional characteristics of the Argentine academic profession are determinants of its fragmentation and heterogeneity (Marquina et al., 2021; Marquina, Yuni, & Ferreiro, 2017). These results are important because of their implications on the level of internationalization of the academic activity.

◼️ Table 1 shows how these characteristics are manifested in our sample.

In order to determine the level of internationalization of Argentine academics, we will consider four conditions according to specific studies and how many of these conditions are met: *(a)* country of degree (El-Khawas, 2002; Rostan & Höle, 2013; Welch, 1997); *(b)* collaboration with international colleagues in research (Kyvik & Larsen, 1994; Wagner, 2008); *(c)* publications published in a foreign country; *(d)* publications

Table 1. Personal and professional characteristics of the Argentine academic profession.

Personal characteristics	Gender	Male	50.5%
		Female	49.5%
	Family composition	Dependents	57.8%
		Nondependents	42.2%
Professional characteristics	Generation (according to year of first position)	Young (2008–2019)	45.4%
		Intermediate (1995–2007)	30.8%
		Old (before 1995)	23.8%
	Highest degree	Undergraduate	35.5%
		Specialization	20.1%
		Master	17.0%
		Doctoral	18.5%
		Postdoctoral	9.0%
	Employment status	Full time (40 hrs/week)	15.2%
		Part time (less than 40 hrs/week)	84.8%
	Rank	Junior	62.3%
		Senior	37.7%
	Discipline	STEM	34.3%
		No STEM	65.7%

coauthored with colleagues located in foreign countries (Kwiek, 2020). Although we attempted to include academic internationalization on teaching, learning, or curriculum (Coates, Dobson, & Goedegebuure, 2013) in the current study, we found a low level of positive responses in the three questions related to this factor in our questionnaire. The presence of international subjects in teaching, as well as the increase in international students, did not produce significant results (neutral responses based on a Likert scale). Neither did the language used for teaching, whereby in 98.5% of the cases it was Spanish. This is the reason why we considered those professional factors mostly related to research to be more influential on the level of internationalization, as the literature on the matter demonstrates, which is a limitation of the study.

Finally, to measure the value given by academics to institutional internationalization, we will consider the perceptions of academics on different "outcomes" of internationalization: *(a)* enhances prestige; *(b)* enhances academic quality; *(c)* increases revenue; *(d)* enhances research networks; *(e)* increases mobility of students; *(f)* increases mobility of faculty; *(g)* weakens cultural identity; *(h)* increases brain gain; *(i)* increases costs associated with internationalization.[1]

We relied on an analytical model that sustains the hypotheses of this work and the methodological proposal (■■ Figure 1).

We worked with three main hypotheses and an introductory hypothesis based on this model that aim at confirming previous studies (Marquina & Rebello, 2013):

- **H0-** A low level of internationalization predominates among Argentine academics.
- **H1-** Academics' personal characteristics, such as gender and family composition, influence the level of academic internationalization.
- **H2-** Academics' professional conditions—such as employment status, rank, discipline, highest degree, and generation—are factors that determine the level of academic internationalization.
- **H3-** The level of academic internationalization influences academics' perception of institutional international outcomes (the higher the level, the better perception of international outcomes).
- **H3a-** More internationalized academics tend to place a higher value on the positive institutional effects of internalization, whereas less internationalized academics tend to place a higher value on negative institutional effects.

Method

The Argentine APIKS survey was carried out in 2018, with an overall number of 1450 responses obtained from academics from all public universities of the country. The resulting data-

[1] These nine "outcomes" correspond to question F5 in the APIKS survey.
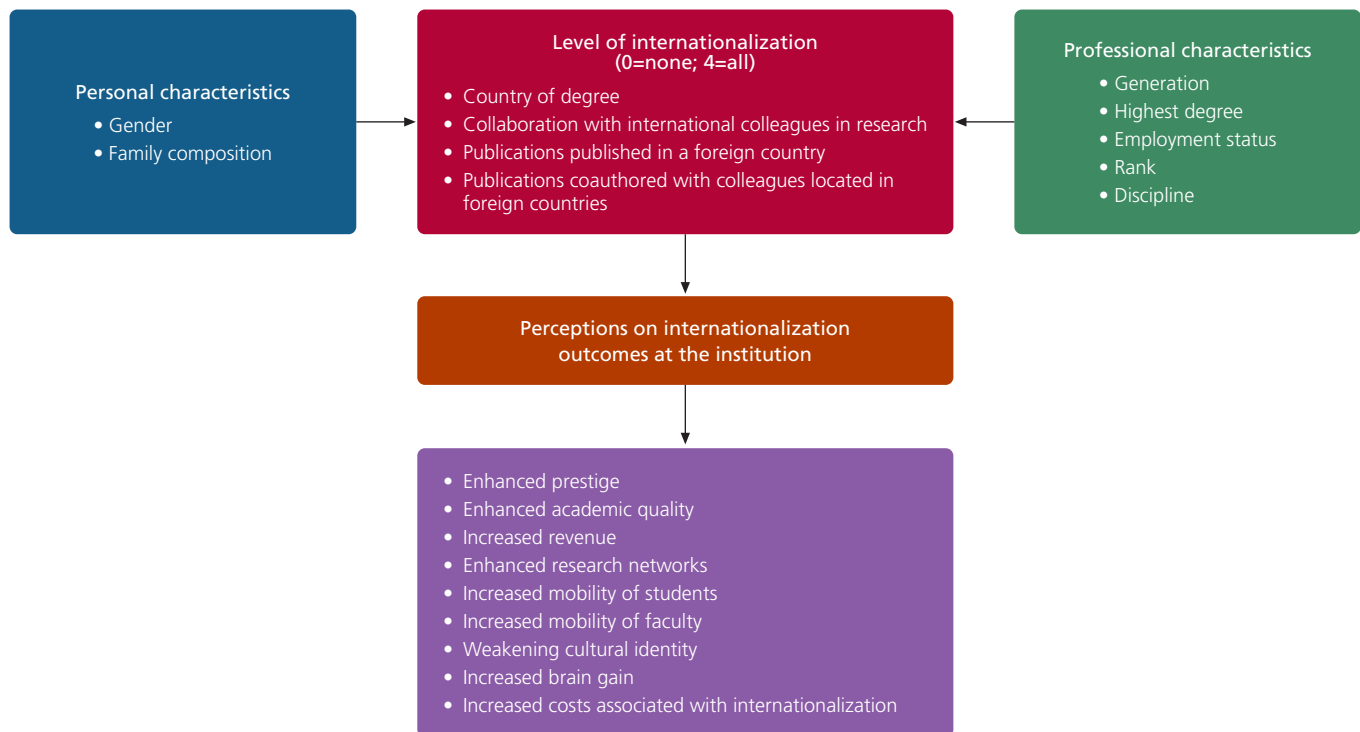
Figure 1. Analytical model for the study of internationalization of academics in Argentina. *Source:* APIKS Argentina, 2018.

base was screened, and 362 incomplete responses and 63 invalid ones were eliminated. The overall total of valid responses amounted to 1025. The database was then weighed to balance the responses obtained in terms of dedication, gender, and position for the results to be representative.

After this screening process, we worked with a total of 954 valid cases, a sample that complied with the parameters to ensure representativeness established by APIKS for databases from all participant countries. We considered the whole sample and classified academics into "levels of internationalization" according to a grouping criterion. The analysis of H0, H1, H2, and H3 was based on an analytical model, which allowed us to relate dependent variables to independent ones (◼ Appendix 1).

Four key variables[2] were taken as grouping criterion to establish the level of internationalization of academics: *(a)* country in which you obtained your degree; *(b)* collaboration with international colleagues in research; *(c)* publications in the last three years published in a foreign country; and *(d)* publications in the last three years coauthored with colleagues located in other (foreign) countries. The first two are Yes/No questions, whereas the last ones are assessed from a percentage greater than zero. Therefore, the "levels" of internation-

alization were defined according to how many of these conditions were applicable, being "level 0=none condition=null or low level" and "level 4=four conditions=high level."

This grouping allowed us to analyze H0, whereby we measured the level of internationalization of Argentine academics. After the analysis of this hypothesis, we addressed the level of internationalization as dependent variable to analyze variations by personal (H1) and professional (H2) characteristics. In H1, our intention was to distinguish differences according to gender and family composition as independent variables. In H2, we examined professional characteristics that may influence the level of academic internationalization by considering the differences between generation, highest degree, employment status, rank, and discipline, as explained in the Annex.

Finally, in H3 the main variables of interest are representative of a set of assessments that reveal academics' perceptions of the importance of nine outcomes of internationalization at their institutions. The outcomes were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (from "Not at all" to "Very much"). First, we carried out a descriptive analysis based on the means of the responses according to the level of internationalization. Then, to test H3, we ran multivariate regression models for each of

[2] ◼ Appendix 1 shows the number of questions in the questionnaire and the way they are formulated.

Table 2. Level of internationalization.

Level of internationalization												
0		1		2		3		4		Total		
n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	
510	53.5	192	20.1	108	11.3	105	11.0	39	4.1	954	100	

Source: APIKS Argentina, 2018. XA5_C/D1_5/D4_2/D4_4

the nine outcome variables because we assumed that these assessments might be expected to be related to additional factors beyond differences on the level of internationalization alone (■ Appendix 2).

It is worth noting that, in our last analysis, we decided to move forward with the creation of multiple regression models despite the results not showing high values of significance, as we shall see below. This is because we considered it important and complementary to the descriptive analysis to be able to underscore some interesting findings about the incidence of the factors considered, which could be further deepened with future studies with different approaches to the subject. As can be observed in ■ Appendices 1 and 2, we relied on statistical indicators and measures—the percentage distribution and the mean—for conducting a descriptive analysis, and we employed chi-square whenever the variables allowed it to evaluate the association between these variables. For the regression analysis, we applied the variables mentioned above. All the analyses were performed in IBM SPSS Statistics v.25 (■ Appendices 1 and 2).

Results

Descriptive Results

■ Table 2 shows that more than 70% of academics have a level of internationalization equal to 0 or 1, a group that can be identified clearly as "locals" (Kwiek, 2020). On the other hand, 11.3% have some level of internationalization in their academic activity (level 2), and only 15.1% can be considered to have a level of internationalization equal to 3 or 4, a group that can

undoubtedly be considered "internationalized." Thus, these figures allow us to confirm that a low level of internationalization is predominant among Argentine academics.

■ Table 3 registers how gender and family composition of academics varies among the different levels of academic internationalization. No significant variations exist in the different levels of internationalization as regards gender or family composition. There is a slight predominance of internationalized women but having family dependents does not affect the results. However, ■ Table 3 also shows that these personal factors are not statistically associated with the level of internationalization. In consequence, the results indicate that personal characteristics do not influence academics' level of internationalization, and therefore, H1 is not confirmed.

■ Table 4 shows the level of internationalization of Argentine academics according to professional characteristics. The older the generation, the higher the rank and the better the employment status; and the better the qualifications, the higher the level of internationalization. Considering that level 3 and 4 of internationalization represent only 15.1% of the total, we observe that the categories of old generation (26.8%), doctoral degree (32.0%), postdoctoral certification (64.7%), full-time status (29.6%), and senior rank (23.4%) are more represented in this group. This table also shows that the level of internationalization is statistically associated with the abovementioned professional factors. The same relationship is observed when we focus on the disciplines, with results in favor of STEM (18.0%) but with no statistical association.

Table 3. Personal characteristics.

		Level of internationalization											
		0		1		2		3		4		Total	
		n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Gender	Male	272	56.5	90	18.6	46	9.5	54	11.2	20	4.2	482	50.5
	Female	238	50.4	103	21.7	62	13.2	51	10.7	18	4.0	472	49.5
Family composition	Dependents	297	53.8	112	20.4	58	10.5	57	10.4	27	4.9	551	57.8
	Nondependents	214	53.0	80	19.8	50	12.5	47	11.8	12	2.9	403	42.2

Source: APIKS Argentina, 2018. LI by H1 & XH3.

Table 4. Professional characteristics.

| | | Level of internationalization | | | | | | | | | | Total | |
| | | 0 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | | |
		n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Generation	Young	267*	61.7	80	18.5	45	10.4	38	8.8	3	0.7	433	45.4
	Intermediate	153	52.0	60	20.4	38	12.9	28	9.5	15*	5.1	294	30.8
	Old	86	37.9	50	22.0	30	13.2	38	16.7	23*	10.1	227	23.8
Highest degree[†]	Undergraduate	258*	76.8	47	14.0	14	4.2	17	5.1	0	0	336	35.5
	Specialization	136*	71.6	32	16.8	17	8.9	4	2.1	1	0.5	190	20.1
	Master	70*	43.5	50	31.1	25	15.5	12	7.5	4	2.5	161	17.0
	Doctoral	23	13.1	53	30.3	43	24.6	46	26.3	10*	5.7	175	18.5
	Postdoctoral	7	8.2	13	15.3	10	11.8	29	34.1	26*	30.6	85	9.0
Employment status	Part time	470*	58.1	157	19.4	81	10.0	77	9.5	24	3.0	809	84.8
	Full time	40	27.6	35	24.1	27	18.6	28	19.3	15*	10.3	145	15.2
Rank	Junior	356*	60.0	121	20.3	57	9.6	54	9.1	6	0.9	594	62.3
	Senior	154	42.7	71	19.8	51	14.1	51	14.1	33*	9.3	360	37.7
Discipline	STEM	171	52.3	62	19.0	35	10.7	42	12.8	17	5.2	327	34.3
	NO STEM	338	53.9	130	20.7	73	11.6	64	10.2	22	3.5	627	65.7

Source: APIKS Argentina, 2018. LI by XA8, XA5, XA3, XA1 & XA2. *$p<0.001$; [†]Seven records without data.

As other studies reveal (Marquina et al., 2021), these professional conditions are far from depending on academic choices alone. On the contrary, these factors are subject to institutional and local opportunities, and they determine the level of belonging to an elite that, among other features, is more internationalized. Thus, H2 is confirmed: professional factors effectively determine the level of internationalization of academics.

Finally, ◼ Table 5 shows an association between the perception of internationalization of institutional outcomes and the actual level of academic internationalization. The comparison of results shows that the positive outcomes of internationalization are more highly valued by more internationalized academics than less internationalized ones. The only two assessments that reinforce the negative effects of institutional internationalization—"weakening cultural identity" and "increased costs associated with internationalization"— are the most highly valued among less internationalized academics. This reinforces our hypothesis, since a direct relation between the types of judgments about internationalization

Table 5. Perceptions on outcomes of internationalization.

| | | Mean | Level of internationalization | | | | |
			0	1	2	3	4
Outcomes of internationalization	Enhanced prestige		3.78	3.94	4.08	4.13	4.10*
	Enhanced academic quality		3.52	3.6	3.9	3.87	3.83[†]
	Increased revenue		2.79	2.93	2.87	3.33[‡]	2.78
	Enhanced research networks		3.65	4.05	4.1	4.31	4.36[‡]
	Increased mobility of students		3.51	3.83	3.79	3.81	3.99*
	Increased mobility of faculty		3.30	3.71	3.56	3.59	3.82*
	Weakening cultural identity		2.01[‡]	1.61	1.66	1.74	1.57
	Increased brain gain		2.76	2.64	2.82	2.91	2.65
	Increased costs associated with internationalization		2.79	2.61	2.46	2.7	2.56

Source: APIKS Argentina, 2018. F5 by LI. *$p<0.01$; [†]$p<0.05$; [‡]$p<0.001$.

and academic level of internationalization, be they negative or positive, do not necessarily need to be present. We also found a statistical association between these variables, except for "increased brain gain" and "increased costs associated with internationalization."

Results of Multivariate Analysis

Based on the information presented in the descriptive analysis, we sought to provide an answer to the question of whether the value given to internationalization by academics at the institutions where they work is a result of their international profile. We have already demonstrated that the perceptions of the importance of internationalization outcomes tend to vary according to the academic level of internationalization. But this result might not be related to this aspect alone; rather, other factors might be at play. Therefore, we ran a multivariate analysis that, in addition to the "level of internationalization," included other levels related to professional characteristics. We essentially sought to find out how these additional variables impact the abovementioned perceptions to conclude whether the level of internationalization is a determinant factor.

▉▉ Table 6 shows that, in almost all the cases, the "level of internationalization" is the only variable that best explains the way in which academics perceive the outcomes of internationalization at their institutions. We also observe a positive relation between the level of internationalization and the perceived importance of internationalization outcomes. Positive outcomes are perceived as more important when the level of academic internationalization is higher. In contrast, the possi-

ble negative outcomes of internationalization are only evaluated when the level of internationalization is lower. Therefore, H3 is confirmed.

In relation to the rest of the variables included in the analysis, ▉▉ Table 6 shows that there is certainly an incidence in the perception of the outcomes, but in almost every case this incidence is lower than the "internationalization level" variable for the same cases. More significant exceptions are the incidences of the "generation" variable for a greater assessment of "increased revenue" and "increased mobility of students" for the younger generations. The "discipline" variable also influences the assessment of internationalization as "increased costs associated with internationalization," with a greater impact on academics in the STEM disciplines. Finally, the "increased brain gain" outcome does not reflect any level of incidence on the internationalization level, as neither do the rest of the variables.

Discussion and Conclusion

Most academics in Argentina are not internationalized. By "internationalized," we refer to academics who have at least three of the following characteristics: they were educated abroad, have collaborated with international colleagues in research, published articles abroad, or published articles coauthored with colleagues located in foreign countries. This issue has been addressed by several scholars, who consider these characteristics to be indicators of internationalization, such as Welch (1997), El-Khawas (2002), Rostan & Höle (2013), Kyvik & Larsen (1994), Wagner (2008), and Kwiek (2020).

▉▉ **Table 6.** Results of multivariate analysis.

	Enhanced prestige	Enhanced academic quality	Increased revenue	Enhanced research networks	Increased mobility of students	Increased mobility of faculty	Weakening cultural identity	Increased brain gain	Increased costs associated with internationalization
(Constant)	3.602	3.431	2.675	3.200	3.244	2.786	2.154	3.199	2.971
Level of internationalization	0.11*	0.09†	0.06	0.19‡	0.09†	0.10†	-0.08†	0.01	-0.08†
Generation	0.03	0.02	-0.08†	0.02	-0.10†	-0.06	0.01	-0.04	0.07
Highest degree	-0.03	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.01	-0.04	0.07	-0.01
Employment status	-0.03	-0.02	-0.02	0.04	0.04	0.08†	-0.02	-0.02	0.05
Rank	0.07	0.08†	0.01	-0.02	0.07	0.06	-0.08†	-0.08	-0.06
Discipline	0.02	-0.04	0.02	0.07†	0.02	0.05	0.03	-0.05	-0.09*
R2 (Adjusted)	0.013	0.015	0.007	0.050	0.019	0.020	0.021	0.007	0.012
F	2.978†	3.366†	2.121†	9.022‡	4.022*	4.093‡	4.195‡	2.135†	2.854*
N	915	915	915	915	915	915	915	915	915

Source: APIKS Argentina, 2018. *$p<0.01$; †$p<0.05$; ‡$p<0.001$.

Unlike many of these studies, which have demonstrated a rise in the level of internationalization in the context of significant reforms as a result of the Bologna Process, our findings seem to reject the idea that the introduction of internationalization policies for higher education has led to the implementation of an international profile among scholars in Argentina. It is likely that the sporadic character of external funding for academics to carry out internationalization efforts may help explain these very findings. The degree of being international today seems to depend on additional factors rather than merely on system-based or institutional aspects (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Huang, 2007; Schwietz, 2008).

We have analyzed how personal and professional factors limit or enhance the international profile of academics in Argentina. Further, we have reviewed different studies that have demonstrated the incidence of gender or family composition as limiting or facilitating factors of internationalization; more specifically, showing the reproduction of gender differences in academic activities related to internationalization (Abramo et al., 2013; Ackers, 2008; Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014; Fox et al., 2016; Nokkala et al., 2020; Vabo et al., 2013). Interestingly, our data suggest that unlike in the European context, personal characteristics such as gender or family composition are not factors that enhance or limit the international profile of Argentine academics. We understand that the strong presence of women in the academic profession in Argentina explains, to a certain extent, the advancement of academic trajectories unaffected by gender. Although glass ceilings do exist—for instance, in hierarchic positions—this phenomenon does not appear to be a limiting element in the international profile of academics in the country, contrary to what other studies have found (Abramo et al., 2013; Ackers, 2008; Fox et al., 2016;). Gender's not being a differentiating factor of internationalization could also be explained by the overall low level of internationalization of Argentine academics. However, a new line of research is opened to continue studying the relation between gender and the academic profession, a type of research that is still incipient in Argentina.

Our results demonstrate instead a significant effect of professional factors. Academics of older generations, higher positions, full-time employment status, and higher qualifications are more internationalized than colleagues who lack these characteristics, following a similar tendency as observed by Kwiek (2020). Nevertheless, our data do not support the view that academics in some disciplines are more internationalized than others, unlike, for instance, in STEM disciplines, as also evinced by Kwiek (2020). Our findings show that there are professional conditioning factors that influence the level of internationalization. Thus, to be internationalized means belonging to an elite group of academics that occupy high positions, having a quite advanced academic career, good working conditions, and access to resources, etc., as has been demonstrated by research in other countries or regions (Altbach, 2004; Kwiek, 2016; Marquina & Rebello, 2013; Wagner, 2008).

In this study, we have investigated how the level of academic internationalization influences academics' perception of certain institutional and international outcomes. We thus found an association between both aspects. Yet we went a step further and demonstrated that the value given to internationalization by academics at the institutions where they work is, primarily, a consequence of the academics' international profile. This means that internationalized academics tend to see the positive outcomes of internationalization as important, while the possible negative outcomes are mostly evaluated by less internationalized academics. This does not necessarily have to be so. Further studies are needed with regard to the reason why less internationalized academics tend to underscore the negative effects of internationalization for their institution, for these types of judgments may be related to the fact that, in Argentina, having a more international character in academia is seen as a privilege for a few. This hypothesis can only be confirmed with further in-depth research.

Even though the level of internationalization emerged as the variable that best explains these perceptions of the outcomes of internationalization, these may also be slightly influenced by other variables. The youngest generation tends to value student mobility and higher incomes associated with internationalization, perhaps because these aspects better represent their best interests. Notably, regardless of the discipline they work in, academics do not show a positive appraisal of internationalization. In sum, there is an obvious effect of the level of academic internationalization on the assessment of its impact on the university. This effect should also be further studied along with other qualitative factors, which would allow to both confirm these associations and gain a deeper understanding the underlying reasons.

Our study also shows that the concentration of internationalization in a small group of academics coupled with external funding opportunities could be a sign of a more responsive, rather than proactive, internationalization process in Argentina. Also, internationalization in Argentina seems to reproduce the differences stemming from an academic profession of the periphery (Altbach, 2004), where an elite follows the global trends of academia, and the majority develops the profession locally. As such, being international is more a privilege than an option, and that these differences define the academics' assessment of internationalization for their institution.

If we think of institutional internationalization as a key qualitative element (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; de Wit et al., 2015), the results of this study then show the importance for institutions of strengthening the internationalization of faculty along the factors deemed determinant of internationalization. In this sense, it is necessary to delve into other aspects of academic internationalization not included in this study, such as those linked to international curriculum or experience in teaching foreign students—aspects that could not be addressed due to the lack of available relevant information on the subject in the sources consulted.

Our findings demonstrate that, as long as the internationalization of the academic profession continues to be limited to a small cluster of academics, it will be difficult to create a favorable academic environment for institutional internationalization. In this respect, institutional policies oriented toward quality improvement may actively include lines of action directed to "internationalization at home" (de Wit et al., 2015), such as the communication of experiences by internationalized academics at their institutions after their return from abroad and the participation of foreign colleagues in local activities to report on research results and their countries' experiences. Thus, the factors influencing the level of internationalization of some academics, mainly those linked to research practices, may expand their effects not only toward the main beneficiaries but also to the institution as a whole. These factors could also be valued by those academics who are not internationalized. In this regard, our findings are essential for developing comprehensive institutional internationalization towards higher institutional quality.

References

Abramo, G., D'Angelo, C. A., & Murgia G. (2013). Gender differences in research collaboration. *Journal of Informetrics*, 7(4), 811–822.

Ackers, L. (2008). Internationalization, mobility and metrics: A new form of indirect discrimination? *Minerva: A Review of Science, Learning and Policy*, 46(4), 411–435.

Altbach, P. (2004). Centros y periferias en la profesión académica: Los retos particulares que enfrentan los países en desarrollo. In P. Altbach (Ed.), *El ocaso del gurú. La profesión académica en el tercer mundo* (pp. 15–41). Mexico City: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana.

Altbach, P., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution. A report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education.* Paris: UNESCO.

Clark, B. R. (1980). *Academic culture.* Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED187186.pdf (March 28, 2021).

Clark, B. R. (1987). *The academic life: Small worlds, different worlds.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Coates, H., Dobson, I., & Goedegebuure, L. (2013). The international dimension of teaching and learning. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 105–118). Dordrecht: Springer.

de Wit, H., & Altbach, P. (2021). Internationalization in higher education: Global trends and recommendations for its future. *Policy Reviews in Higher Education*, 5(1), 28–46.

de Wit, H., Hunter, F., Howard, L., & Egron-Polak, E. (2015). *Internationalisation of higher education.* Brussels: European Parliament.

Didou Aupetit, S. (2006). *Internacionalización de la educación superior y provisión transnacional de servicios educativos en América Latina. Informe sobre la educación superior en América Latina y el Caribe, 2000–2005. La metamorfosis de la educación superior.* Caracas: IESALC.

El-Khawas, E. (2002). Developing an academic career in a globalising worlds. In J. Enders, & O. Fulton (Eds.), *Higher education in a globalising world: International trends and mutual observations* (pp. 241–254). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Enders, J. (2004). Higher education, internationalisation, and the nation-state: Recent developments and challenges to governance theory. *Higher Education*, 47(3), 361–382.

Finkelstein, M., & Sethi, W. (2014). Patterns of faculty internationalization: A predictive model. In F. Huang, M. J. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalization of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 237–257). Dordrecht: Springer.

Finkelstein, M., Walker, E., & Chen, R. (2009). The internationalization of the American faculty: Where are we, what drives or deters us? In R. Chen, & RIHE (Eds.), *The changing academic profession over 1992–2007: International, comparative and quantitative perspectives. RIHE international seminar report 13* (pp. 113–144). Hiroshima: RIHE, Hiroshima University.

Fox, M. F., Realff, M. L., Rueda, D. R., & Morn, J. (2016). International research collaboration among women engineers: Frequency and perceived barriers, by regions. *Journal of Technology Transfer*, 42(6), 1292–1306.

Huang, F. (2007). Challenges of internationalization of higher education and changes in the academic profession: A perspective from Japan. In M. Kogan, & U. Teichler (Eds.), *UNESCO forum on higher education research and knowledge* (pp. 81–98). Kassel: International Centre for Higher Education Research Kassel, INCHER-Kassel.

Knight, J. (2005). Un modelo de internacionalización: Respuesta a nuevas realidades y retos. In H. de Wit, I. C. Jaramillo, J. Gacel-Avila, & J. Knight (Eds.), *Educación superior en América Latina. La dimensión internacional* (pp. 1–38). Washington, DC: World Bank.

Knight, J. (2020). The internationalization of higher education scrutinized: International program and provider mobility. *Sociologias*, *22*(54), 176–199.

Kwiek, M. (2016). The European research elite: A cross-national study of highly productive academics across 11 European systems. *Higher Education*, *71*(3), 379–397.

Kwiek, M. (2020). Internationalists and locals: International research collaboration in a resource-poor system. *Scientometrics*, *124*(1), 57–105.

Kyvik, S., & Aksnes, D. W. (2015). Explaining the increase in publication productivity among academic staff: A generational perspective. *Studies in Higher Education*, *40*(8), 1438–1453.

Kyvik, S., & Larsen, I. M. (1997). The exchange of knowledge. A small country in the international research community. *Science Communication*, *18*(3), 238–264.

Li, B., & Tu, Y. (2016). Motivations of faculty engagement in internationalization: A survey in China. *Higher Education*, *71*(1), 81–96.

Marquina, M. (2020). Entre ser "técnico", "académico" o "político" en la universidad. Los nuevos roles de gestión en las universidades argentinas. *RELAPAE/Revista Latinoamericana de Política y Administración de la Educación*, *12*(7), 82–96.

Marquina, M., & Luchilo, L. (2021). University, research, and innovation in Argentina: A winding road to the knowledge society. In T. Aarrevaara, M. L. Finkelstein, G. A. Jones, & J. Jung (Eds.), *Universities and the knowledge society: The emerging nexus of national systems of innovation and higher education in fifteen countries* (pp. 319–338). Dordrecht: Springer.

Marquina, M., Pérez Centeno, C., & Reznik, N. (2021). Institutional influence of academics in Argentinean public universities in a context of external control. *Acta Paedagogica Vilnensia*, *46*, 54–72.

Marquina, M., & Rebello, G. (2013). Academic work at the periphery: Why Argentine scholars are satisfied, despite all. In P. Bentley, H. Coates, I. Dobson, L. Goedegebuure, & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Job satisfaction around the academic world world* (pp. 13–28). Dordrecht: Springer.

Marquina, M., Yuni, J., & Ferreiro, M. (2017). Academic trajectories of generational groups and political context in Argentina: Towards a typology. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, *25*(118), 1–23.

Nokkala, T., Bataille, P., Siekkinen, T., & Goastellec, G. (2020). Academic career, mobility and the national gender regimes in Switzerland and Finland. In L. Weimer, & T. Nokkala (Eds.), *Universities as political institutions* (pp. 262–286). Leiden: Brill.

Ramírez, B. (2017). Internationalize? Why? For what? The internationalization in Argentine universities. [Article in Spain] *Debate Universitario CAEE-UAI*, *5*(10), 71–87.

Rostan, M., Finkelstein, M., & Huang, F. (2013). A profile of CAP participating countries and a global overview of academic internationalization in 2007–2008. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 37–54). Dordrecht: Springer.

Rostan, M., & Höle, E. (2013). The international mobility of faculty. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 74–104). Dordrecht: Springer.

Rumbley, L. E. (2010). Internationalization in the universities of Spain: Changes and challenges at four institutions. In F. Maringe, & N. Foskett (Eds.), *Globalization and internationalization in higher education: Theoretical, strategic and management perspectives* (pp. 207–224). London: Continuum International Publishing.

Schwietz, M. (2008). *Internationalization of the academic profession*. Saarbrücken: VDM Verlag.

SPU (2020). *Síntesis de Información. Estadísticas Universitarias, 2018–2019*. Buenos Aires. Retrieved from https://www.argentina.gob.ar/sites/default/files/sintesis_2018-2019_sistema_universitario_argentino_-_ver_final_1_0.pdf (April 6, 2021).

Stephan, P. E., & Levin, S. G. (1992). *Striking the mother lode in science: The importance of age, place, and time*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Teichler, U. (2004). The changing debate on internationalisation of higher education. *Higher Education*, *48*(1), 5–26.

Teichler, U., Arimoto, A., & Cummings, W. K. (2013). *The changing academic profession: Major findings of a comparative survey*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Teichler, U., & Cummings, W. (Eds.). (2015). *Forming, recruiting and managing the academic profession*. Cham: Springer.

Vabo, A., Padilla González, L., Waagene, E., & Naes, T. (2013). Gender and faculty internationalization. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 183–205). Dordrecht: Springer.

Wagner, C. S. (2008). *The new invisible college: Science for development*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Welch, R. (1997). The peripatetic professor: The internationalization of the academic profession. *Higher Education*, *34*(3), 323–345.

Appendix 1. Descriptive analysis.

	APIKS survey	Category	Measure	Association measure
Dependent variable				
Level of internationalization	A5_C/D1_5/D4_2/D4_4	0 (level 0)–4 (level 4)		
Independent variables				
Personal characteristics				
Gender	H1	Male; Female	%	*Chi2*
Family composition	XH3	Dependents; Nondependents	%	*Chi2*
Professional characteristics				
Generation	XA8	Young; Intermediate; Old	%	*Chi2*
Highest degree	XA5	Undergraduate; Specialization; Master; Doctoral; Postdoctoral	%	*Chi2*
Employment status	XA3	Full time; Part time	%	*Chi2*
Rank	XA1	Senior; Junior	%	*Chi2*
Discipline	XA2	STEM; NO STEM	%	*Chi2*
Perceptions				
To what extent do you observe the following outcomes of internationalization at your institution?	F5	1 (Not at all) – 5 (Very much)	Mean	*Chi2*

Appendix 2. Variables used in regression analysis.

Name	Description	Range
Dependent variable		
Enhanced prestige		
Enhanced academic quality		
Increased revenue		
Enhanced research networks	To what extent do you observe the following outcomes of internationalization at your institution? (F5)	1 (Not at all) – 5 (Very much)
Increased mobility of students		
Increased mobility of faculty		
Weakening cultural identity		
Increased brain gain		
Increased costs associated with internationalization		
Independent variables		
Level of internationalization		0 (level 0)–4 (level 4)
Generation	Young (2008–2019)	1 = Young
	Intermediate (1995–2007)	2 = Intermediate
	Old (before 1995)	3 = Old
Highest degree		1 = Undergraduate
		2 = Specialization
		3 = Master
		4 = Doctoral
		5 = Postdoctoral
Employment status	Full time (40 hrs./week)	1 = Part time
	Part time (less than 40 hrs./week)	2 = Full time
Rank		1 = Junior
		2 = Senior
Discipline		1 = STEM
		2 = NO STEM

Professors and Internationalization in Canada: Academic Disciplines and Global Activities

Kanada'da Profesörler ve Uluslararasılaşma: Akademik Disiplinler ve Küresel Faaliyetler

Grace Karram Stephenson[1] (iD), Glen A. Jones[1], Olivier Bégin-Caouette[2], Amy Scott Metcalfe[3] (iD)

[1]University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada
[2]University of Montreal, Montreal, QC, Canada
[3]University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada

Özet

Bu çalışma, Akademik Meslekte Bilgiye Dayalı Toplum (APIKS) anketinin bulgularını kullanarak profesörlerin Kanada üniversitelerindeki uluslararasılaşma faaliyetlerine ilişkin algılarını incelemektedir. Bulgular, akademik disiplinlerin aynı üniversitelerdeki farklı uluslararasılaşma biçimleri için düzenleyici mantık olduğunu göstermektedir. Pozitif bilimlerdeki profesörlerin uluslararası yayın yapma olasılığı daha yüksek iken, sanat dalları ve beşeri bilimlerdeki profesörlerin ders içeriklerini uluslararasılaştırma olasılığı daha yüksektir. Bağlamsal analiz bulguları, Kanada yükseköğreniminin ademi merkeziyetçiliğinin yanı sıra bu disiplin ayrımlarını şiddetlendiren, ancak nadiren tanınan üniversite yönetişimine işaret etmektedir. Bunlara dayalı olarak, disiplin ayrımlarını dikkate alan yeni uluslararasılaşma anlayışları önerilmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Akademik meslek, araştırma, eğitim-öğretim, Kanada yükseköğretimi, öğrenci hareketliliği, profesörlük, uluslararasılaşma.

Abstract

This paper examines professors' perceptions of internationalization activities at Canadian universities using the findings of the Academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society (APIKS) survey. The findings suggest academic disciplines are the organizing logic for diverse manifestations of internationalization within the same universities. Professors in the hard sciences are more likely to publish internationally while those in the arts and humanities are more likely to internationalize their curriculum. The findings are analysed contextually, pointing to the decentralization of Canadian higher education as well as university governance which has exacerbated, yet rarely recognized, these disciplinary divides. The paper calls for new conceptual understandings of internationalization that take into account disciplinary divides.

Keywords: Academic profession, Canadian higher education, internationalization, professoriate, research, student mobility, teaching.

S cholarship and programming related to the internationalization of higher education has grown exponentially in the past 25 years. Universities have rushed to recruit foreign students, fund international partnerships, set up campuses abroad, and increase the global content of curriculum at home (Altbach, 1996; Knight, 2011; Tamtik, Trilokekar, & Jones, 2020). These key features of internationalization are often the unit of analysis when institutions and countries are studied. Several common debates are present in discussions of these practices, examining whether initiatives are for-profit, non-profit, governed transparently or subject to elite strategies of institutional prestige (Friesen, 2013; Karram Stephenson,

2013). Conceptually, the most frequent theories examine the notion of internationalization as a financial or cultural process. Do international students, research partnerships and curriculum reforms contribute to revenue for institutions and nations or new forms of inter-cultural understanding? At the faculty level in Canada, such analyses fail to identify the main fault line in conceptions and practices of internationalization. While institutions and nations are pursuing profits or broadening their cultural cache, professors' experiences with internationalization are shaped most strongly by one key factor: the academic discipline.

Scholarship has confirmed that professors play a central role in internationalization programming as they conduct the research, teaching and partnerships that elevate their institutional and national prestige in the knowledge economy (Bond, 2003; Friesen, 2013; Odgers & Giroux, 2009). Yet professors themselves are a disparate group, sculpted by what Rostan and Antonio Ceravolo (2015) called, "disciplinary effects". This paper draws on data from the *Academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society* (APIKS) survey to argue that professors' engagement in internationalization is predominantly shaped, or at least heavily influenced, by the boundaries and nature of their academic disciplines, leading to disparate modes of internationalization.

This paper has three aims. First, it seeks to locate Canadian internationalization of higher education within the broader global trends and policies commonly associated with the phenomenon. Second, it presents findings from the 2018 APIKS survey, supplemented by comparisons from the 2007 *Changing Academic Profession* (CAP) survey, to show the disciplinary divides that shape professors' engagement in internationalization activities. Finally, this paper contributes to theoretical debates on the nature of internationalization by calling for new understandings of internationalization as conceptualized by professors in diverse disciplines.

Internationalization in Canada

Canadian Governance Context

Canada is a geographically large country (9.9 Million Sq km) which borders the United States. The country's population is approximately 38 Million and 66% live in the south within 100 km of the American border (StatsCan, 2020). Political power is divided between the federal government, 10 provincial and three territories governments. Education is the exclusive jurisdiction of each provincial or territorial government including the funding and regulation of higher education. Each province is home to at least one large, public university and a technical-vocation system of colleges. There are also a small number of religious or private institutions. Public universities in Canada were established as autonomous, self-governing institutions, contributing to the distinct, decentralized nature of higher education in Canada. There is no real sense of a co-ordinated national "system" but rather 10 distinct provincial systems (Jones, 1997).

In terms of internationalization, provincial discourses most often define the phenomenon as the recruitment of inbound international students, predominantly for revenue, but also as a source of potential immigration. However, Tamtik et al.

(2020) suggest that, while provinces share the target of recruiting students, each province embarks on internationalization with very different motivations and policy discourses. Internationalization, where it impacts higher education, has led to "…a convergence, overlap, or collision of policy sectors" (Trilokekar, Jones, & Tamtik, 2020, p. 8). Multiple stakeholders in education, government and business have an interest in shaping internationalization policy at the provincial level and policy is often a "temporal compromise" responding to these interests.

The federal government, prior to 2014, had no Canada-wide international education strategy. Instead, the federal government's Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade engaged in a few programs of "cultural relations" through funding of the Canadian Studies Program Abroad and furthering Canada's "brand" (Karram Stephenson, 2018; Trilokekar, Jones, & Shubert, 2009). Scholars critiqued this gap stating "the absence of a national policy in Canada has led to a piecemeal and largely uncoordinated approach, and Canada has only a small share of the global market for higher education," (Trilokekar & Jones, 2013). When the first International Education Strategy (2014–2019) was finally launched, it set specific targets such as doubling the number of international students coming to Canada, accessing high-yield country markets for recruitment, creating 86,500 new jobs sustained by international education, and improving pathways for international students to remain in Canada as citizens (Global Affairs Canada, 2019).

Inbound Student Mobility: Recruiting International Students

The long-awaited internationalization strategy largely conceptualized internationalization as synonymous with student mobility and there was little exploration of faculty-related activities (Anderson, 2015). This is perhaps not surprising given Canada's largest and most visible area of internationalization is the recruitment of full-fee paying international students (Chen, 2008; Sá & Sabzalieva, 2018; Scott, Safdar, Trilokekar, & El Masri, 2015). International students and their related activities contribute more than $17 billion USD to the Canadian economy each year (Coulton, 2020). Between 2010 and 2019, Canada saw an increase of 185% in the number of inbound international students, with a total of 642,480 international students studying in Canada's universities and colleges in December 2019 (CBIE, 2020). These numbers are expected to change in response to the Covid-19 pandemic of 2020–2021; and government forecasts anticipate Canadian universities will lose almost $300 Million USD if internation-

al student enrolment decreases by even 13% (Government of Canada, 2020). However, ongoing government intervention and institutional efforts have supported a swift in-person return to campus. The scholarly research on inbound student mobility critiques the financial dependence of institutions on international student fees (Garson, 2016; Guo & Guo, 2017; Karram Stephenson, 2013); assesses the nature of transition programs (McCartney & Metcalfe, 2018); examines academic supports (da Silva, Zakzanis, Henderson, & Ravindran, 2017; Li, 2004), socialization (Ngobia, 2011; Zhou & Zhang, 2014), and language acquisition (Cheng & Fox, 2005).

Internationalization and Canada's Professoriate

Understanding the decentralization of Canadian federalism is essential to explaining the forces which shape international higher education in Canada. Federal and provincial policies have largely been driven from the bottom-up, with institutions and the professoriate taking the lead in most internationalization initiatives (Tamtik et al., 2020). Governments have responded by positioning student recruitment as a national industry, but also a pathway to immigration, and while there is some acknowledgement of broader objectives and benefits, governments have largely left decisions related to other forms of internationalization to the discretion of the sector. Putting aside policies that largely support institutional initiatives, internationalization continues to be largely defined and operationalized by the activities of individual professors, departments and institutions (Shubert, Jones, & Trilokekar, 2009; Tamtik et al., 2020; Tamtik & Sa, 2020).

Although the current scholarship on professors' international activities is quite small in Canada, the most frequently studied theme within this literature explores internationalization where it intersects with teaching. This scholarship defines internationalization as adding a global component to teaching curricula. Professors in Canada have been identified as the driving agents for internationalizing "at home," (Bond, 2003; Friesen, 2013; Odgers & Giroux, 2009), particularly in the area of curriculum reform. Faculty are positioned as the creators and disseminators of classroom material and thus their commitment or resistance to internationalization has far-reaching results. Friesen (2013) argues, "faculty members within higher education institutions are key agents in the institutional internationalization process," (p. 210).

Scholarship confirms international research collaborations increase professors' publication rates (Kwiek, 2019) and citations rates (Li, Liao & Yen, 2013), and are hailed as evidence of research excellence within departmental units and higher education systems (Ulnicane, 2014). The rapid advances in information and communication technologies, associated with globalization, facilitate communication across borders, the sharing of resources (financial, documentary and software), use of laboratories and the control of remote scientific instruments. In Canada, Larivière, Gingras and Archambault (2006) show international joint publications increased in both the natural and the social sciences when international collaborations were undertaken although there were significant differences between fields and mediums of knowledge dissemination. The internationalization of research also takes the form of recruiting research-productive graduate students and faculty members from abroad (França & Padilla, 2017), which contributes to institutions' and countries' improved reputation.

Disciplinary Divides

The above literature on professors' internationalization activities in Canada examines the motivations, partnerships and policy context that fuels their work. Missing from this scholarship on internationalization activities is a discussion of the prominent division among academic disciplines which has been well documented in the broader academic literature. Early research by Biglan (Biglan, 1973b) analysed the clear epistemological and methodological divides between disciplines, linking these to different modes of research production. Biglan distinguished between the Hard and Soft disciplines on one axis and the Applied and Pure on another. This approach is frequently displayed in quadrants and has been used to categorize the differences between disciplines in graduate socialization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996), approaches to teaching (Marsh, 1987) and divisions in institutional departments (Biglan, 1973a).

Building on Biglan's foundation, the work of Becher (1989) and subsequent theorists (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Colavizza, Franssen, & van Leeuwen, 2019; Gibbons et al., 1994; Kezar, 2014) describes how collectives of professors, affiliated by disciplines, have related to university power and eras of change in different ways. Becher argues disciplinary divides are the central organizing logic at universities and key to understanding university's complex governance dilemmas. He argues that members of the same institution may have little in common with each other while disciplinary affiliations closely connect them to scholars across the world. With the growth of the global knowledge economy, Gibbons et al. (1994) challenged Becher's original work, claiming traditional modes of discipline-bound knowledge production were on the decline and "mode 2" was on the rise defined by trans-disciplinary and translocational research endeavors often conduct-

ed outside the university with a high emphasis on applicability. This focus on *emergence* which claims knowledge production has fundamentally altered within (and without) traditional institutions is mirrored by epistemological shifts in the social sciences. Frameworks like Social Network Analysis call into question, "departments, schools/colleges, or state systems as the natural unit or target for change processes," (Kezar, 2014) arguing instead that decision-making and the impetus for change are sparked by cross-sectoral, personal networks that transcend the formal institution. These theoretical perspectives offer three gradations of influence: Becher points to institutionalized disciplinary divides *within* the university; Gibbons et al. (1994) argue for partnerships between formal agents (institutions and industry) outside the university; and social network theory brings to light informal, personal networks between a range of actors within and outside formal institutions.

These perspectives inform the following presentation of the Canadian APIKS data with their clear divisions in the internationalization activities undertaken by professors in different disciplines. There is already evidence from the Canadian context that disciplinary boundaries shape the work experiences of professors, particularly in their research production. In 2006, research revealed over 90% of the articles in the natural sciences were jointly published compared to 66% in the social sciences and 10% in the humanities (Lariviere et al., 2006). These findings point to an important divide among disciplines that is likely impacting internationalization activities as well. This paper seeks to understand whether these distinctions, as they relate to internationalization, are confirmatory of Becher's original thesis on the strength of disciplines or imply a new, global network of knowledge producers across sectors and institutions.

Method

In light of the key role played by Canadian professors in the internationalization of higher education, research is needed to understand their experiences and perceptions of this dynamic process as well as how these experiences are shaped by their disciplinary affiliations. This paper presents the findings of the 2018 APIKS where they relate to internationalization.

The APIKS survey instrument was developed by the global project's international executive team which tested its reliability. Canada was not part of the survey development but was one of 31 countries who distributed the survey. The Canadian sample included professors from 64 publicly-funded universities in all 10 Canadian provinces. After obtaining ethical per-

mission from the 64 sample universities, two main methods of recruitment were used. First, at 49 universities, email invitations to the survey were distributed by the offices of the Vice-President Academic/Research. At a further 15 institutions, where email addresses were publicly available, professors received a direct invitation from the research team. A total of three invitation emails were sent to potential participants.

The APIKS survey was distributed over a nine-month period from October 2017 to July 2018. Following data collection, the research team worked for six months to clean the data for analysis. This involved a four-step process of validation. First, only data from full-time professors was included in the final sample. Since academic librarians are often part of faculty lists in Canada, many librarians received the invitation. These responses were removed from the sample due to the distinct nature of their employment. Next, the French and English responses were harmonized and coded into numeric responses. Third, two questions were removed from the survey in which the formatting was corrupt. Finally, significant outliers and straightliners were removed to ensure all data was valid. When data cleaning was complete, 2968 valid responses were collected in English and French for a response rate of 9.35% ■ Table 1.

The APIKS study is the 10-year follow up to the CAP study conducted in 2007. The Canadian component of the CAP study used a two-tier cluster sample from 18 publicly-funded institutions in each of the 10 provinces. The bi-lingual (French-English) survey resulted in 1112 valid responses, and spawned numerous publications on the academic profession in Canada as well as comparisons around the world. (Gopaul et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2012; Jones et al., 2014; Metcalfe, 2008; Padilla-Gonzalez Metcalfe, Galaz-Fontes, Fisher, & Snee, 2011). In the following sections, the findings from the APIKS study will be presented, augmented where appropriate by the CAP findings.

Ethical permission for the 2018 study was obtained from the University of Toronto, as the primary institutional oversight, as well as 63 participating institutions where data was collected. Each institution gave permission for the survey to be distributed to their faculty.

■ **Table 1.** Valid response rate for Canadian APIKS 2018 survey.

	Total	Valid
Email address	45,437	31,728
Completed surveys	3798	2968
Response rate		9.35%

Results

General Trends

Doctoral training is a key area where many professors form the international connections which are shown to benefit their future careers, particularly in research productivity. The findings from the APIKS study confirms 75.3% of professors working in Canada received their bachelor's degree in Canada but only 66% received their doctoral degree in Canada. Within this group, professors who received their doctoral training in the USA (28.6%) form the largest proportion followed by the United Kingdom (9.3%) and France (5.2%). Notably, the remaining 57% of faculty who received their doctorate abroad represent more than 35 countries. These data are interesting in light of related scholarship on full-time faculty which indicates 40% of professors were born outside Canada (CAUT, 2014). ▉ Table 2 provides the full range of internationalization-related items from the APIKS survey.

Teaching

In the CAP and APIKS surveys professors were asked to what extent they "emphasize international content or perspectives" in their teaching. In the 2018 APIKS data, 58.4% of professors were internationalizing their curriculum. This number, however, is not the same across disciplines. Only one third of

professors in the hard sciences (Chemistry 32.4%, Physics 37.2%) selected agree or strongly agree, compared with 76.1% in the Humanities and Arts. There was little difference between 2007 (61%) and 2018 (58.4%) in the number of professors who teach with international perspectives or content overall, and similar divisions between disciplines.

Research

Professors who conducted research in the three years prior to 2018 were asked whether their research was international in scope or orientation. When the responses were compared across disciplines, professors in the Arts and Humanities were found to perceive their research to be international in scope/orientation (64.1%) while 20% fewer do so in Chemistry (44.6%), Education (45.1%), and Medical Sciences (46.5%).

When asked if they collaborate with international colleagues in their research, the number of respondents increased by 7% from 63% in 2007 to 70% in 2018. There is an important distinction in the level of international collaboration between professors in different academic disciplines. ▉ Table 2 shows that only 63.9% of professors in the Humanities and Arts collaborate with international colleagues compared with 85% in Agriculture, Physical Sciences and Mathematics.

▉ **Table 2.** APIKS general.

Discipline	% of who perceive increase in international students*	% of professors who incorporate international teaching content*	% of professors whose research is international in scope or content*	% of professors who had research collaborations with int'l colleagues†	% of professors who co-authored with int'l colleagues†	% research funding from international sources	% professors whose external activities contribute to society at global level*
Agriculture/forestry	79%	58%	49%	88%	63%	0.3%	28%
Business admin/economics	67%	60%	54%	68%	46%	0.9%	30%
Chemistry	71%	32%	45%	66%	69%	2.0%	32%
Computer science	64%	43%	61%	80%	64%	1.6%	38%
Engineering/manufacturing	61%	45%	53%	73%	58%	3.4%	35%
Humanities/arts	62%	76%	64%	64%	31%	2.7%	37%
Law	49%	55%	48%	77%	39%	1.6%	45%
Life sciences	52%	56%	59%	81%	68%	2.4%	30%
Medical health science	48%	49%	47%	68%	62%	2.7%	34%
Physics/maths	60%	37%	53%	86%	76%	2.9%	26%
Social and behavioral sciences	50%	62%	54%	68%	44%	2.7%	39%
Social work	43%	62%	53%	72%	48%	1.0%	40%
Teacher training and education sciences	51%	59%	45%	66%	47%	1.8%	32%
Mean	58%	53%	53%	74%	55%	2.0%	34%

N=2680. *Professors who answered "strongly agree" and "agree". †Professors who answered "yes".

Furthermore, professors' 2018 responses indicate 50.4% of Canada's professors had co-authored a publication with international colleague in the past year and 16.9% of their overall publications were co-authored with international colleagues. Again, the difference between academic disciplines is significant with Humanities and Art professors indicating 7% of their overall publications were co-authored with international colleagues while those in physical sciences and mathematics were 38%.

Professors in Canada receive research funding from a number of sources including institutional, provincial, and federal granting councils as well as industry partners. When asked how much of this funding is provided by international funding organizations, professors suggested a larger percentage in 2007 (6.6%) than 2018 (2.39%). In the Canadian context, federal and provincial funding for research increased over the past decade which may have rendered international funding sources less important. When the 2018 data is cross-tabulated by disciplines, the earlier trends are not seen. Instead, Arts and Humanities are much closer to the hard sciences in receiving international funding than in questions of research collaboration or curriculum and internationalization.

External Activities

In the 2018 survey, the fifth section was designed to understand professors' activities outside the university, or their "external" activities, as well as the partners and funding that support these initiatives. When respondents were asked to what extent their external activities influence society at the international level, the average number of respondents who selected agree or strongly agree was 37.1%. However, when this item is cross-tabulated by academic discipline, those in Law, Social Work and Services, Social and Behavioral Sciences are the top three disciplines. ■ Table 3 presents a summary of these findings.

Summary

The findings of the 2018 APIKS study confirm there are significant differences among professors in Canada based on disciplinary affiliations with regard to how internationalization is perceived and engaged. In developing their curriculum, more professors in the Humanities and Arts, Social Work and Services, and Social and Behavioural Sciences perceive their curriculum has a global orientation. Likewise, in research orientation, more professors in Humanities and Arts disciplines, compared with any other field, indicate their research is global in scope or orientation. However, in these same subjects there are fewer professors who collaborate with colleagues in other countries, and only 30% of those in Humanities and Arts co-authored publications with colleagues in other nations. In contrast, professors in the hard sciences (Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry) identify their courses and research subject as having less global content but are more likely to collaborate with international colleagues and co-author publications.

Professors in both hard sciences and humanities/arts/social sciences receive international funding at about the

■ **Table 3.** Internationalization funding and incentives.

Discipline	Funding for faculty members research abroad	Funding faculty members international conferences	Encourages faculty members to publish internationally
Teacher training and education science	26.1%	37.20%	49.8%
Humanities and arts	21.5%	39.90%	41.3%
Social and behavioural sciences	18.3%	36.10%	34.3%
Business and administration, economics	19.4%	52.60%	43.3%
Law	33.9%	37.70%	58.4%
Life sciences	19.9%	25.60%	34.8%
Physical sciences, mathematics	21.4%	26.00%	39.2%
Chemistry	20.3%	28.40%	33.8%
Computer science	18.7%	15.60%	42.2%
Engineering. manufacturing and construction, architecture	21.3%	16.20%	36.4%
Agriculture, forestry	35.9%	20.50%	67.5%
Medical sciences, health related sciences, social services	21.5%	27.60%	44.5%
Social work and services	12.9%	35.40%	29.0%

same rate (2.8%). Likewise, professors' perceptions on institutional incentives designed to support international research collaborations such as funding faculty research abroad or conference travel show an inverse trend. Ten percent more professors in the Humanities and Arts and Social/Behavioural Sciences, compared with their counterparts in the hard sciences, perceive there to be funding for conference travel as a result of internationalization. Funding for international collaborations are the same across these disciplines although they are very low with only 18–20% of professors seeing this as an outcome of internationalization. Despite the lack of co-authorship in the realm of research 39% of those in the Humanities and Arts and 39% of those in Social and Behavioural Science consider their external activities to have an international or global contribution. This compares with only 26% of those in Physical Science and Mathematics. Finally, more than half of the professors confirm they add global components and perspectives in their teaching, yet only 43% feel enhanced pedagogy is a visible outcome of internationalization. Likewise, 70% of professors collaborate with international colleagues and 45.3% perceive enhanced research networks an outcome of internationalization at their institutions.

Discussion

When grouped together as one collective in the APIKS findings, Canadian professors are shown to be very active in activities related to the internationalization of research. The large majority of professors collaborate and publish with peers in other countries and pursue research that is global in scope or orientation. At the same time, their engagement in the internationalization of teaching is less pronounced. Professors have been identified in the literature as the locus of change and necessary instigators in internationalizing curriculum, yet only 58% indicate they teach with a global orientation. These trends, while important to understanding the position of Canadian professors as a whole, conceal stark contrasts between the internationalization activities of professors in different academic disciplines. At their simplest, the divisions outlined above can be understood as a divide between the pragmatism of the hard sciences and the global imperative of the humanities and arts. The former collaborates internationally because their colleagues happen to live elsewhere while the latter approach the world as their sample. With this lens, the trends above are clarified. Those in the Hard Sciences produce and publish research collaboratively while their colleagues in Humanities and Arts commit to teaching or researching subjects with an international orientation.

Furthermore, this difference between disciplines in internationalizing their curriculum reflects an important difference in the conceptualization of knowledge in each discipline. Those in the hard sciences are likely to view knowledge as universal and thus, acontextual. With this foundation, they are less likely to perceive a need in their curriculum for adding "international" elements since the context of the curriculum is the same across contexts.

The decentralization of Canadian higher education, which has allowed professors to be such important leaders in universities' internationalization activities, also exacerbates the disciplinary divide when it comes to internationalization. Governments have largely adopted a narrow focus, and there is little of funding support or coordination that might, in other systems, steer or leverage international activities. Both governments and institutions may, for example, support the development of international research partnerships, but initiatives continue to be largely dependent on the entrepreneurial activities of individual faculty or research teams (Tamtik & Sa, 2020). Institutions may support initiatives related to the internationalization of curriculum, but the disciplines (operationalized with department structures) continue to play a major role in curriculum reforms.

Merton's (1973) work on the ethic of science adds some clarity on the foundational presence of collaboration in scientific research. In the sciences, the principle of "communalism" is the recognition of the collective and collaborative nature of science. It is also one of the four central norms that constitute the ethics of science (Merton, 1973). With the specialization of fields of study, the pools of potential collaborators within the same country tend to shrink. This is particularly true in Canada with its relatively small population and very low population density.

Becher and Internationalization

As Canadian universities continue to internationalize, disciplinary divides are definitive of how different professors engage with new global programs and research. Becher's contention that disciplines are the main organizing logic at universities still holds true in Canada. While the APIKS data does not specifically explore the extent to which "mode 2," with its industry partnerships, is present in Canadian research production, the divide between the disciplines can be characterized as a pragmatism of research production and knowledge conceptualization rather than of scope. This is particularly true in Canada with its close proximity to the USA and the strong American science research infrastructure. While the survey did not inquiry as to where professors' collabora-

tors reside, future research should examine the strength and prevalence of Canadian-American research collaborations. Likewise, America claims the largest number of professors who completed their doctoral work outside Canada. Doctoral formation, and the professional networks it provides, likely contributes to the frequency of Canada-US research collaboration. This relationship raises questions about what types of collaboration can be considered "international," particularly in instances where two countries have very close educational ties. Similar to the European Union, a country's "international" collaboration may appear high when in fact most collaborations may occur with colleagues in countries where professors already have a strong relationship.

Furthermore, research and innovation policies and strategies –both institutional and governmental– encourage and fund activities for the internationalization of research. This creates a special environment where institutions and governments that compete with each other for the prestige of scientific discoveries must at the same time collaborate with each other to achieve these same discoveries. This is what Breton (2011) called "coopetition" (a neologism formed from the words 'cooperation' and 'competition'). These contextual factors describe science production broadly, and the Canadian context more specifically, and are helpful in understanding the findings in the hard sciences.

The picture in the Humanities and Arts, is quite different. The point of interest in what Biglan (1973) would call soft-pure disciplines is the data's discrepancy between collaboration and publication. While 63% of professors in the Humanities and Arts collaborate with international colleagues only 30% co-author with those in other countries. This confirms Becher's observation that a difference exists in publication expectations between hard and soft sciences. A greater value is placed sole-author publications in the arts and humanities, while co-publications are expected in the hard sciences. Since the APIKS findings confirm there is still the presence of "collaboration" among arts and humanities professors, this may indicate the importance of the personal, social networks that guide and shape professional work for academics, even in the absence of publications or outputs.

Implications

If the disciplinary divides of academia are central to understanding professors' engagement with, and perceptions of, internationalization in Canada, what does this mean for conceptualizing and guiding internationalization practice at Canadian universities? First, this study has added nuance to Bond's contention that "departments and disciplines have

been identified as the locus of curriculum development with professors as the central figures in undertaking curriculum design and communicating knowledge," (2003, p. 9). It is certainly the case that professors are central and instigate most cross-border collaborations in research and publication. However, across disciplines those same professors may have very different beliefs and rationales guiding their international activities. Thus, initiating a global curriculum event in the hard sciences may take significantly more development work than the same event in the humanities and arts. Likewise, increasing targets for internationalization research collaborations in the humanities and arts will require more supports than in the hard sciences. Administrators who wish to advance cohesive strategies of internationalization for their universities need to be aware of these nuances. Their faculty are defining and ascribing distinct value to different components of internationalization. Taken together however, institutions should draw on the strengths of each disciplinary approach which, when seen as parts of a whole, can build globally-engaged institutions in both teaching and research.

Conclusion

This paper has presented the findings of the APIKS survey related to internationalization. The ongoing divide between disciplinary affiliations is shown to impact international activities and engagement in significant ways as professors from hard sciences engage more in research collaborations and publishing while their colleagues in the arts and humanities undertake globally-focused research programs and incorporate global perspectives in their teaching. These findings confirm that internationalization of higher education in Canada is a heterogenous experience across institutions and between individuals. Further research at the institution-level would be beneficial to determine how institutions account for disciplinary divides as they develop internationalization strategies to guide very decentralized institutions. Finally, Canada's unique relationship with the USA needs to be examined in studies on professors' international work since it is unclear whether professors account for all their American collaborations which are axiomatic in discussions of internationalizations.

Acknowledgements

References

Altbach, P. G. (1996). *The international academic profession: Portraits of fourteen countries.* Princeton, NJ: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

Anderson, T. (2015). Seeking internationalization: The state of Canadian higher education. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, *45*(4), 166–187.

Becher, T., & Trowler, P. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the culture of disciplines.* London: McGraw-Hill Education.

Biglan, A. (1973a). Relationships between subject matter characteristics and the structure and output of university departments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *57*(3), 204–213.

Biglan, A. (1973b). The characteristics of subject matter in different academic areas. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *57*(3), 195–203.

Bond, S. (2003). *Untapped resources: Internationalization of the curriculum and classroom experience* (No. 7; pp. 1–15). Ottowa, ON: Canadian Bureau for International Education. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED549984.pdf (November 15, 2020).

CBIE (2020). *International students in Canada continue to grow in 2019.* Ottowa, ON: Canadian Bureau for International Education. Retrieved from https://cbie.ca/international-students-in-canada-continue-to-grow-in-2019/ (November 15, 2020).

Chen, L. H. (2008). Internationalization or international marketing? Two frameworks for understanding international students' choice of Canadian universities. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, *18*(1), 1–33.

Cheng, L., & Fox, J. (2005). Towards a better understanding of academic acculturation: Second language students in Canadian universities. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *65*(2), 307–333.

Colavizza, G., Franssen, T., & van Leeuwen, T. (2019). An empirical investigation of the tribes and their territories: Are research specialisms rural and urban? *Journal of Informetrics*, *13*(1), 105–117.

Coulton, M. (2020). *How the pandemic has disrupted the lives of international students in Canada.* Macleans Education. Retrieved from https://www.macleans.ca/education/how-the-pandemic-has-disrupted-the-lives-of-international-students-in-canada/ (November 15, 2020).

da Silva, T., Zakzanis, K., Henderson, J., & Ravindran, A. (2017). Predictors of post-secondary academic outcomes among local-born, immigrant, and international students in Canada: A retrospective analysis. *Canadian Journal of Education*, *40*(4), 543–575.

Friesen, R. (2013). Faculty member engagement in Canadian university internationalization: A consideration of understanding, motivations and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *17*(3), 209–227.

Garson, K. (2016). Reframing internationalization. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, *46*(2), 19–39.

Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P., & Trow, M. (1994). *The new production of knowledge: The dynamics of science and research in contemporary societies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Global Affairs Canada (2019, August 22). *Building success: Canada's International Education Strategy 2019–2024.* Ottawa, ON: Global Affairs Canada. Retrieved from https://www.international.gc.ca/education/strategy-2019-2024-strategie.aspx?lang=eng (November 15, 2020).

Gopaul, B., Jones, G., Weinrib, J., Metcalfe, A., Fisher, D., Gingras, Y., & Rubenson, K. (2016). The academic profession in Canada: Perceptions of Canadian university faculty about research and teaching. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, *46*(2), 55–77.

Government of Canada (2020, October 8). *The Daily—Financial information of universities for the 2018/2019 school year and projected impact of COVID–19 for 2020/2021.* Retrieved from https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/daily-quotidien/201008/dq201008b-eng.htm (November 15, 2020).

Guo, Y., & Guo, S. (2017). Internationalization of Canadian higher education: Discrepancies between policies and international student experiences. *Studies in Higher Education*, *42*(5), 851–868.

Jones, G. A. (Ed.). (1997). *Higher education in Canada: Different systems, different perspectives.* New Yotk, NY: Routledge.

Jones, G. A., Gopaul, B., Weinrib, J., Metcalfe, A. S., Fisher, D., Gingras, Y., & Rubenson, K. (2014). Teaching, research, and the Canadian professoriate. In J. C. Shin, A. Arimoto, W. K. Cummings, & U.

Teichler (Eds.), *Teaching and research in contemporary higher education: Systems, activities and rewards* (pp. 335–356). Dordrecht: Springer.

Jones, G. A., Weinrib, J., Metcalfe, A. S., Fisher, D., Rubenson, K. & Snee, I. (2012). Academic work in Canada: Perceptions of early career academics. *Higher Education Quarterly*, *66*(2), 189–206.

Karram Stephenson, G. (2013). International students as lucrative markets or vulnerable populations: A critical discourse analysis of national and institutional events in four nations. *Comparative and International Education*, *42*(1), Article 1.

Karram Stephenson, G. (2018). *The state of internationalization in Canada: Strategic and innovative (International briefs for higher education leaders)*. Boston, MA: American Centre for Education, Centre for Internationalization and Global Engagement, Boston College.

Kezar, A. (2014). Higher education change and social networks: A review of research. *The Higher Education Journal*, *85*(1), 99–125.

Knight, J. (2011). Education hubs: A fad, a brand, an innovation? *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *15*(3), 221–240.

Kwiek, M. (2019). Social stratification in higher education: What it means at the micro-level of the individual academic scientist. *Higher Education Quarterly*, *73*(4), 419–444.

Larivière, V., Gingras, Y., & Archambault, É. (2006). Canadian collaboration networks: A comparative analysis of the natural sciences, social sciences and the humanities. *Scientometrics*, *68*(3), 519–533.

Li, Y. (2004). Learning to live and study in Canada: Stories of four EFL learners from China. *TESL Canada Journal*, *22*(1), 25–43.

Marsh, H. W. (1987). Students' evaluations of university teaching: Research findings, methodological issues, and directions for future research. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *11*(3), 253–388.

McCartney, D. M., & Metcalfe, A. S. (2018). Corporatization of higher education through internationalization: The emergence of pathway colleges in Canada. *Tertiary Education and Management*, *24*(3), 206–220.

Metcalfe, A. S. (2008). The changing academic profession in Canada: Exploring themes of relevance, internationalization, and management. *RIHE International Seminar Reports*, *12*, 57–73.

Ngobia, J. W. K. (2011). *Internationalization and the undergraduate students: How domestic students experience interaction with international students*. PhD thesis, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada.

Odgers, T., & Giroux, I. (2009). Internationalizing faculty: A phased approach to transforming curriculum design and instruction. In R. D. Trilokekar, G. A. Jones, & A. Shubert (Eds.), *Canada's universities go global* (pp. 252–276). Toronto, ON: James Lorimer & Co.

Padilla-Gonzalez, L., Metcalfe, A. S., Galaz-Fontes, J. F., Fisher, D., & Snee, I. (2011). Gender gaps in North American research productivity: Examining faculty publication rates in Mexico, Canada, and the U.S. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *41*(5), 649–668.

Rostan, M., & Antonio Ceravolo, F. (2015). The internationalisation of the academy: Convergence and divergence across disciplines. *European Review*, *23*(S1), S38–S54.

Sá, C. M., & Sabzalieva, E. (2018). The politics of the great brain race: Public policy and international student recruitment in Australia, Canada, England and the USA. *Higher Education*, *75*(2), 231–253.

Scott, C., Safdar, S., Trilokekar, R. D., & El Masri, A. (2015). International students as 'ideal immigrants' in Canada: A disconnect between policy makers' assumptions and the lived experiences of international students. *Comparative and International Education*, *43*(3), Article 5.

Shubert, A., Jones, G. A. & Trilokekar, R. D. (2009). Introduction. In R. D. Trilokekar, G. A. Jones, & A. Shubert (Eds.), *Canada's universities go global* (pp. 7–15). Toronto, ON: James Lorimer & Co.

Tamtik, M. & Sa, C. (2020). The elusive pursuit of internationalization in Canadian research. In M. Tamtik, R. D. Trilokekar & G. A. Jones (Eds.), *International education as public policy in Canada* (pp. 90–110). Montreal, QC: McGill-Queen's University Press.

Tamtik, M., Trilokekar, R. D., & Jones, G. (2020). Conclusion: International education as public policy - the Canadian story. In M. Tamtik, R. D. Trilokekar & G. A. Jones (Eds.), *International education as public policy in Canada* (pp. 407–426). Montreal, QC: McGill-Queen's University Press.

Tierney, W. G., & Bensimon, E. M. (1996). *Promotion and tenure: Community and socialization in academe*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

Trilokekar, R. D., & Jones, G. (2013). Finally, an internationalization policy for Canada. *International Higher Education*, *71*, 17–18.

Trilokekar, R. D., Jones, G. A. & Shubert, A. (Eds.). (2009). *Canada's universities go global*. Toronto, ON: James Lorimer & Co.

Trilokekar, R. D., Jones, G. A. & Tamtik, M. (2020). Introduction: The emergence of international education as public policy. In M. Tamtik, R. D. Trilokekar & G. A. Jones (Eds.), *International education as public policy in Canada* (pp. 3–25). Montreal, QC: McGill-Queen's University Press.

Zhou, G., & Zhang, Z. (2014). A study of the first year international students at a Canadian university: Challenges and experiences with social integration. *Comparative and International Education*, *43*(2), Article 7.

Institutional Engagement in Internationalisation in Finnish Higher Education

Finlandiya Yükseköğretiminde Uluslararasılaşmaya Kurumsal Katılım

Timo Aarrevaara[1] (iD), Paula Tulppo[1] (iD), Pekka Vasari[1], Ville Tenhunen[2] (iD)

[1]Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Lapland, Rovaniemi, Finland
[2]Center for Information Technology, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

Özet

Bu çalışmada, APIKS anketine dayalı olarak uluslararasılaşma motivasyonları ve yükseköğretim kurumlarının rasyonaliteleri tartışılmaktadır. Finlandiya'da iki yükseköğretim sektörü vardır. Uygulamalı bilimler üniversiteleri öğretime önem verir ve bölgesel araştırma, geliştirme ve yenilik sistemi ile yakın bir bağlantıya sahiptir. Diğer üniversiteler, araştırma kaynakları için araştırma ve akademik rekabetin yanı sıra araştırmaya dayalı öğretimi vurgular. Bu nedenle, bu iki yükseköğretim sektöründe uluslararasılaşma koşulları farklı faktörlere dayanmaktadır. Her iki sektördeki bireysel kurumlar arasında da önemli farklılıklar vardır. Bireylerin kariyer yolları, yükseköğretim sektörleri ve kurumsal stratejilerle ilgili faktörlere bağlıdır. Uluslararası akademik faaliyetler, bu iki yükseköğretim sektöründe kariyer yollarının üzerine inşa edildiği faktörleri belirlemektedir. Bu iki kariyer yolunun her biri kurumların farklı şekillerde uluslararasılaşmasına zemin hazırlamaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Finlandiya, kurumsal çıktılar, performans yönetimi, uluslararasılaşma, yükseköğretim kurumları.

Abstract

In this paper, we discuss motivations for internationalisation and the rationalities of higher education institutions based on the APIKS survey. There are two higher education sectors in Finland. Universities of applied sciences emphasise teaching and have a close connection with regional research, development, and the innovation system. Universities emphasise research and academic competition for research resources, as well as teaching based on research. Therefore, the conditions for internationalisation in these two higher education sectors are based on different sets of factors. There are also significant differences between individual institutions within both sectors. Individuals' career paths depend on factors related to higher education sectors and institutional strategies. International academic activities determine the factors on which career paths are built in these two higher education sectors. Both pathways lead to internationalising institutions but in different ways.

Keywords: Finland, higher education institutions, institutional outcomes, internationalisation, performance management.

During the 2010s, Finland started to undergo a significant change in internationalisation, and this is due to factors related to both teaching and research. It is in the interest of universities and the growth in numbers of international academic staff for there to be competition for international research funding. The main academic domestic funding channels are also evaluated by international scholars and most of the extensive research programs are related to international financial instruments. According to OECD statistics, there are about 40,000 full-time researchers in Finland and 58% of them working in business enterprises and 34% working in higher education, and 8% in diverse other organisations, mostly in public research institutes (OECD, 2021).

The scholarly reporting language indicated by the publications has become global in recent years. This is also supported by the National publication forum practice under the Federation of Finnish Learned Societies, and ranked scholarly publications are mainly international and increasingly target those in English (Mathies, Kivistö, & Birnbaum, 2020; Pölönen, 2018). In teaching, international joint degrees and changes in education funding practices have led to the development of academic units which are more international, as the construction and evaluation of research and teaching follow international practices. The qualifications requirements also take more account of international publications and international research funding.

This paper benefits from the Analytical Framework for the Fourth Academic Profession in Knowledge-based Societies (APIKS) Conference, which has become an important starting point for the discussion on the changing academic profession. This Analytical Framework supports the matching of diverse questions in the APIKS questionnaire. During the APIKS planning phase, internationalisation was a separate section at first, but the issues related to the theme were eventually placed in different sections. In this way, the variables analysed in this presentation are related to the following core task sections: teaching, research, and external activities.

We have selected four areas from which we have led the analysis to the question of *how Finland's two higher education sectors differ in terms of teaching, research, and external activities in terms of internationalisation*. Finland has a two-tiered higher education system: universities and universities of applied sciences. The closest reference higher education systems in APIKS are Germany, Portugal and Switzerland, because they also have dual systems of higher education with a universities sector and universities of applied sciences sector or equivalent.

Universities of applied sciences are there for teaching and have a close connection with the regional research, development, and innovation system. On the other hand, universities emphasise the research task and academic competition for research resources, as well as teaching based on research. Therefore, the conditions for internationalisation in these two higher education sectors are based on different sets of factors.

The Finnish universities and universities of applied sciences have undergone significant changes in internationalisation over the last ten years. An important factor for these changes is that domestic funding formulas for both higher education sectors now emphasise international competitive funding, change programs, attractivity for students, and publications. In recent years, the Government has emphasised using resources to meet goals of scale, quality, and internationalisation as a core of funding formula for higher education institutions in both sectors. These data are verified in the performance agreement between higher education institutions and Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture (Hansen, Aarrevaara, Geschwind, & Stensaker, 2020).

Under these conditions, what is also common to both sectors is that they implement core functions using the *four Ms*. These are mission, motivation, mechanisms, and management, which determine the performance of internationalisation in Finnish higher education. From this angle, another key concept is formed, which is institutional engagement. By this we mean the tacit understanding of the preconditions behind internationalisation in higher education institutions, academic staff, and other stakeholders (Götze, Carvalho, & Aarrevaara, 2020; Stilgoe, Lock, & Wilsdon, 2014).

For this paper, we established hypotheses based on the premise that the internationalisation of the core functions of teaching, research and external activities is dependent on motivational factors. From this perspective, universities bring about internationalisation performance and increase the number of international staff in teaching and research. The funding formula between the Ministry of Education and Culture and higher education institutions directs internationalisation in universities more than in universities of applied sciences.

The hypotheses are:

- **H1:** The institutional type determines the practices of internationalisation.
- **H2:** The differences in the management of the two higher education sectors make a difference in institutional funding.

Institutional Engagement in Internationalisation

The key aspect of higher education institutions' institutional engagement in internationalisation is resource dependence, which provides guidance via a performance management system mechanism and higher education policy. Internationality is one of the key factors in determining the public resources of higher education institutions, especially in terms of research and teaching. As in the analytical framework for this conference, internationalisation is seen as a tension between competition and co-operation. Competitive funding is an important factor in funding universities and universities of applied sciences, but competitive funding is also a career-determining factor. These are performance factors, and the APIKS survey was also based on the professional factors that enabled the results. These include international networking, international publishing, and the number of international staff in universities and universities of applied sciences.

The institutional factors presented here are separate as such, but they form a whole by describing the functions of internationalisation in higher education institutions. As the results in ▉▉ Table 1 indicate, institutional engagement for internationalisation is generally high, the attitude to internationalisation is quite positive, and it sustains international activities.

All the data presented in this paper were drawn from APIKS-IDB (2021). In the APIKS data, we assumed that the factors that are directly in the Finnish higher education funding formula rose to the highest rates. This applies to two areas: mobility in exchange programs and international publications. International exchange programs are related to the funding for-

Table 1. Respondents' views on their international efforts in publications and proportion of all their publications.

What percentage of your publications in the last three years…?	University (UNI)	University of applied sciences (UAS)
Solo authored	*n*=495	*n*=121
Mean	23.1%	30.9%
Standard deviation	33.0%	32.3%
95% CI	20.1%, 26.0%	25.1%, 35.7%
t/p Effect size	*t*=-2.35 *p*=.019	Cohen's *d*=0.23
Published in a foreign country	*n*=556	*n*=104
Mean	67.9%	27.0%
Standard deviation	39.0%	32.7%
95% CI	64.7%, 71.1%	20.6%, 33.4%
t/p Effect size	*t*=11.4 *p*<.001	Cohen's *d*=1.07
Co-authored with colleagues located in the country of your current employment	*n*=611	*n*=175
Mean	57.2%	52.0%
Standard deviation	39.2%	38.8%
95% CI	54.1%, 60.3%	46.2%, 57.8%
t/p Effect size	*t*=1.56, *p*=.119	Cohen's *d*=0.13
Co-authored with colleagues located in other (foreign) countries	*n*=526	n=81
Mean	37.1%	12.8%
Standard deviation	35.7%	20.5%
95% CI	34.0%, 40.1%	8.3%, 17.3%
t/p Effect size	*t*=8.81, *p*<.001	Cohen's *d*=0.71
Peer-reviewed	*n*=609	*n*=124
Mean	75.6%	34.7%
Standard deviation	36.3%	38.1%
95% CI	72.7%, 78.5%	27.9%, 41.4%
t/p Effect size	*t*=11.3 *p*<.001	Cohen's *d*=1.11

Source: APIKS-IDB, 2021.

mula in that they provide process elements for degrees and admission to international degree programs. To publish in international journals and books is a factor that is the focus of higher education institutions.

The scale, quality and internationalisation of higher education institutions are key drivers of higher education development, but these factors materialise differently in the two higher education sectors. In this paper, we have also described the conditions under which internationalisation takes place. In universities, collaboration with international colleagues is a key prerequisite for international funding. Research groups often operate as members of international consortia, in which case publication forums have been built in an international context. Universities of applied sciences are not detached from this development, but they place a stronger emphasis on regional factors than universities do. The needs and conditions for internationalisation depend on these regional factors. Both sectors have extensive international cooperation in teaching and

the number of international students has increased steadily since 2008. In the ten-year period before the APIKS study, the total number of international students in universities increased from 6984 to 10698, and in universities of applied sciences from 7113 to 9539 (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2021). In the university sector, 1069 foreigners completed a degree, and at the time of the APIKS study in 2018, the number of degrees awarded was 2368 (Statistics Finland, 2019).

In the case of Finland, we interpret internationalisation as a phenomenon in which national management and higher education policy determine the quantitative and qualitative goals of internationalisation. Institutional engagement can therefore be read from this perspective, and internationalisation is a higher education policy and innovation system issue. In practice, internationalisation is also determined by the internal practices of higher education institutions, which may be different within each national higher education sector. This is also the case in Finland, where performance agreements between universities

and the education ministry can be reflected in the institutions' internal allocation models. However, these internal allocation models are different and fall within the realm of institutional autonomy. We can assume that it is these consequences of allocation models to which survey responses are attached.

Internationalisation of Core Functions

In ▪▪ Table 1, the only result for scholarly publications for which there is not a statistically significant difference ($p>.05$) is "Co-authored with colleagues located in the country of your current employment". The strongest deviation concerns the variable peer reviewed publications with Cohen's $d= 1.11$. The second strongest deviation concerns the peer reviewed publications published in a foreign country (Cohen's $d= 1.07$). The result regarding the answers of the respondents "co-authored with colleagues located in other (foreign) countries" also shows a strong difference (Cohen's $d= 0.71$).

▪▪ Table 2 indicates respondents' co-operation with a range of actors. It is essential for hypothesis H1 that most respondents (92.7%, $n=931$) are involved in co-operation with some actors, and in their own unit this is very common. Striking aspects are cooperation outside one's own discipline and co-operation with international colleagues. Results for both answers of the respondents differ statistically significantly according to type of higher education institution in the control

groups ($p<.001$), the latter being stronger in nature (Cramer's $V= .21$ vs. .11). These include cooperation with other domestic institutions (Cramer's $V= .14$). The difference in the results is the cooperation with doctoral students (Cramer's $V= .49$).

The contemporary academy pays attention to networking and the impact of research outcomes, and these are global characteristics of work in the academy. The academic profession works in global labour markets, and there are increasing opportunities to commute between higher education sectors and institutions (Chroni, Ronkainen, Elbe, & Ryba, 2021; Paraskevopoulos, Boldrini, Passarella, & Conti, 2021). Internationalisation has become easier, but also more expected as part of an academic career.

There are scholars from Finland going abroad as well as international scholars coming to Finland, for a period or permanently. Finland offers international career opportunities and open calls for academic posts which are in most cases international. Most of the teaching takes place in either Finnish or Swedish, the official languages of Finland. However, based on higher education regulations, language skills are not required in the case of international candidates for academic posts, as the administrative language is Finnish or Swedish (Universities Act 35§). This is based on regulations, because international and returnee Finnish academics promote the quality of teaching and research by bringing the knowledge base, networks, and capacity building in international research co-operation

▪▪ **Table 2.** Respondents' characteristics on their research collaboration.

	University n=[701, 705]	University of applied sciences n=[228, 232]	All n= [931, 935]	
Collaborators in any of your research projects	Yes=651, 92.6%	Yes=215, 93.1%	Yes=866, 92.7%	$\chi^2(1)=0.057$, $p=.811$, Cramer's $V= .01$
Collaborating with doctoral students	Yes=559, 79.5%	Yes=59, 25.9 %	Yes=618, 66.4%	$\chi^2(1)=221.96$, $p<.001$, Cramer's $V= .49$
Collaborating with scholars / researchers at your institution	Yes=665, 94.3%	Yes=201, 87.4%	Yes=866, 92.6%	$\chi^2(1)=12.20$, $p<.001$, Cramer's $V= .11$
Collaborating with scholars / researchers at other institutions in your country	Yes=491, 70.0%	Yes=195, 84.1%	Yes=686, 73.5%	$\chi^2(1)=17.57$, $p<.001$ Cramer's $V= .14$
Collaborating with international colleagues	Yes=574, 81.9%	Yes=140, 60.9%	Yes=714, 76.7%	$\chi^2(1)=42.78$, $p<.001$ Cramer's $V= .21$
Collaborating with colleagues outside your discipline	Yes=499, 71.1%	Yes=191, 82.7%	Yes=690, 74.0%	$\chi^2(1)=12.14$, $p<.001$ Cramer's $V= .11$

Source: APIKS-IDB, 2021.

(Melin & Janson, 2006; Teichler, 2006). In the Finnish APIKS data, respondents in the youngest age cohort (<30 years of age) are predominantly university respondents. This is because in the universities of applied sciences, work experience in industry, service or administration is required when filling teaching positions.

As the universities are knowledge-based institutions (Clark, 1983), the management systems of Finnish higher education institutions emphasise international knowledge and global scholarly networks. In addition, knowledge-based expertise promotes the indicators of funding formulae such as international publishing and competitive academic funding for research. Motivation for internationalisation is diverse, and the benefits of internationalisation for higher education institutions legitimate them as knowledge-based institutions, and funding opportunities. For scholars, the benefits are similar, such as avoiding geographical, cultural, and occupational isolation, and it is evident that the scholars achieve academic freedom by taking advantage of international publishing and funding opportunities (Gergen, 2009; Pulkkinen, 2021). The internationalisation of higher education institutions also benefits the students by providing international scholarly knowledge, mobility programs, diversity of learning and competencies for life in the work force. The 2018 APIKS data indicate clearly that internationalisation is valuable

for staff at all stages of their career and is a necessity for early-stage scholars (*see* also Belkhir et al., 2019).

Because internalisation is emphasised in Finnish academia, there is a motivation for teachers in higher education in the academy to apply international aspects in their teaching. The contemporary internationalisation of the Finnish academic profession is formed not only by the international mobility, researchers' joint efforts to achieve academic results, scholars commuting to and from Finland but also teachers including an international approach in their courses. Half the respondents in the APIKS inquiry in Finland who responded to the question "In your courses, do you emphasise international perspectives or content?" agreed with it. International perspective or content is especially emphasised in teaching at universities (■ Figure 1).

Similar emphasis is evident in the language of teaching. According to the APIKS survey results, most of the teaching at universities and universities of applied sciences is in the official languages of Finland, Finnish or Swedish, but English is an essential language in teaching at Finnish universities. A third of the university respondents in APIKS FIN-survey say they teach primarily in English, and in universities of applied sciences the corresponding figure is around 15%. The proportion of teaching in English in the universities of applied sciences is 14%.
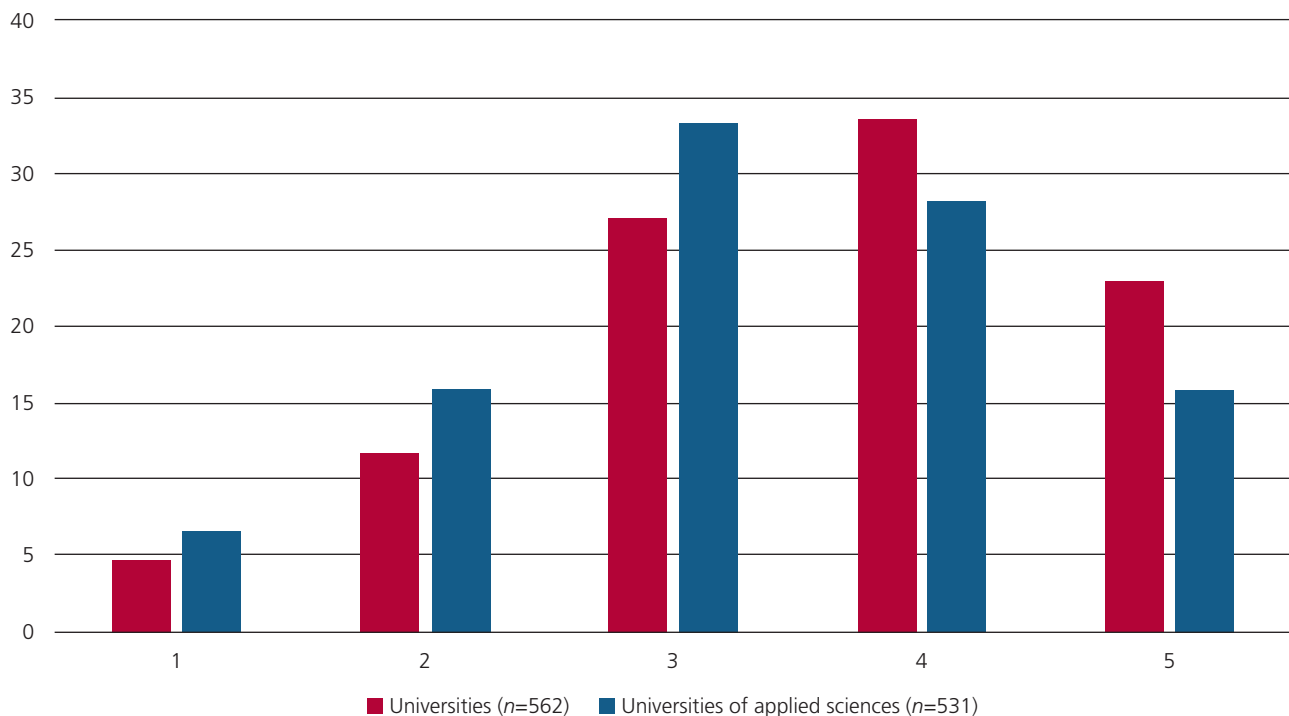
■ **Figure 1.** Respondents' emphasis in international perspective or content in their courses (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

Within the results, the teaching language may be permanent or used only in certain periods, and the courses may be taught fully or partly in a specific language. In addition, the results include teaching in English, as well as teaching English to the students.

As demonstrated earlier, universities encourage publishing internationally and recruiting staff from foreign countries more than universities of applied sciences do, and the findings related to international perspectives or content as well as using English as a teaching language are in line with considering the upcoming career of students. Emphasising international perspectives or content in teaching and using English as a teaching language especially at universities reduces cultural and lingual hindrances between Finnish academics and the international academic community by making the access to international research and academic career easier for students in Finland, who often are not native speakers of the English language. That way, international aspects in teaching serve as a mechanism for internationalisation. However, internationalisation is a component of teaching at Finnish universities of applied sciences as well, but not to the same intensity.

The language in Finnish doctoral thesis and academic research more broadly has also increasingly become English, and that is one way to make the internationalisation of Finnish academia easier. In Finnish society, there is a vivid discussion going on about the role of the English language on Finnish scholarship. The question has been raised as to whether the Finnish language will shrink into a language of everyday life that cannot discuss the content of science because of the increasing usage of English instead of Finnish in Finnish research. That would also complicate the utilisation of the Finnish research results in Finland, as English is not the language of the Finnish majority. Nevertheless, having an internationally common language is crucial in academic research, and that has been recognised in Finnish academia.

The capacity building of research, teaching and service is a necessity for Finnish universities and universities of applied sciences, and they do not differ from any other organisation in this regard (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 19). The environment of the academy is international, and its legitimacy is based on international recognition, international level of core tasks, funding opportunities, and review practices as defined in higher education policy and regulations. The role of higher education in the innovation system is regional and national, but also international, because industry and higher education stakeholders are international. From this perspective, the Ministry of Education and Culture emphasises internationalisation in performance of management system and annual performance negotiations between higher education institutions and ministries.

Funding is part of the mechanism supporting internationalisation of teaching and research. The performance funding formula in Finland is different for universities and universities of applied sciences, but internationalisation is an important part of the funding formula for both, related to education, research and development. In addition, higher education policy emphasises external funding (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2021). Universities and universities of applied sciences are dependent on external, international funding, and it is typical for international funding agencies to determine the direction of core tasks by providing funding. For example, investment funding from the European Union is used to identify many areas that fall within the institutional autonomy of higher education institutions. This is a consequence of resource dependence and the orientation of institutional strategies.

Institutional Outcomes

Institutional outcomes in this paper refer to the factors by which higher education institutions legitimise their operations. Regarding internationalisation, this will be achieved through two main instruments. The first of these is the performance agreement between the universities and the Ministry of Education and Culture, which includes goals for internationalisation. The key element in this regard is the funding formula, and internationalisation substantially increases the funding of higher education institutions. Another instrument is the institutional strategy that defines the boundaries of internationalisation.

Table 3 describes the relationship between the language used in teaching and the variable measuring and summing the variables of internationalisation. Excluding two variables (F5_7 and F5_9) is justified because they correlate only with each other in the subcategories of language, institutional type, and seniority. When a sum of variables in internationalisation is formed, according to the Cronbach's alpha, a measure of the internal integrity of the sum always gets a value slightly above 0.80. When comparing languages in both groups, alpha=0.83.

When the teaching language is English, the value of the language is clearly higher than when the language of instruction in teaching is Finnish. The Cohen's d= 0.41 (small) measuring the effect size, is the second largest of the variables considered. Only for the increased brain gains variable is the effect size larger: 0.53 (medium).

Internationalisation by type of higher education institution can also be compared using the variables in Table 4 according to higher education institution type. As stated earlier, the overall picture can be formed using sum variables. All but

■■ **Table 3.** Respondents' view of the extent to which they observe the outcomes of internationalisation at their institution according to language.

	N (All, Eng, Fin)	Mean	Std. dev	95% CI
Enhanced prestige (Observe internationalisation)	886	3.32	1.05	3.25, 3.39
	246	3.47	1.06	3.33, 3.60
	640	3.26	1.04	3.18, 3.34
Cohen's *d*= 0.20				
Enhanced academic quality	884	3.06	1.07	2.99, 3.13
	246	3.35	1.12	3.21, 3.49
	638	2.94	1.02	2.86, 3.02
Cohen's *d*= 0.39				
Increased revenue	854	2.87	0.98	2.81, 2.94
	235	2.98	1.10	2.84, 3.12
	619	2.83	0.93	2.76, 2.90
Cohen's *d*= 0.15				
Enhanced research networks	881	3.52	1.01	3.45, 3.58
	250	3.76	1.03	3.63, 3.89
	631	3.42	0.99	3.34, 3.50
Cohen's *d*= 0.34				
Increased mobility of students	892	3.75	0.91	3.69, 3.81
	246	3.87	0.87	3.76, 3.98
	646	3.71	0.92	3.64, 3.78
Cohen's *d*= 0.18				
Increased mobility of academics	889	3.48	0.94	3.42, 3.54
	250	3.64	0.96	3.52, 3.76
	639	3.42	0.93	3.35, 3.49
Cohen's *d*= 0.23				
Weakening cultural identity	872	2.13	1.05	2.06, 2.20
	248	2.23	1.12	2.09, 2.37
	624	2.09	1.02	2.01, 2.17
Cohen's *d*= 0.13				
Increased brain gains	882	3.13	1.12	3.06, 3.21
	242	3.55	1.06	3.42, 3.69
	640	2.97	1.10	2.89, 3.06
Cohen's *d*= 0.53				
Increased costs associated with internationalisation	856	2.88	1.00	2.81, 2.95
All	237	2.84	1.09	2.70, 2.98
University	619	2.89	0.97	2.82, 2.97
UAS				
Cohen's *d*= 0.05				
Sum F5	820	3.30	0.71	3.25, 3.35
Cronbach's alpha	229	3.51	0.73	3.41, 3.60
All 0.83	591	3.22	0.69	3.16, 3.27
UNI 0.83				
UAS 0.83				
Cohen's *d*= 0.41				

Source: APIKS-IDB, 2021. 1= not at all, 5= very much. **UAS:** universities of applied sciences; **UNI:** universities.

answers of the respondents about "weakening cultural identity" and "increased costs associated with internationalisation" are moderately strongly correlated with each other. They both have a moderately strong connection, but not with others, other than a very weak one. The other seven variables offer a good opportunity to form a sum variable, with Cronbach's alpha being just over 0.80 in both the university and university of applied sciences staff groups.

The mean of the sums by universities and universities of applied sciences has a clear difference, giving Cohen's *d*= 0.65 (medium). Except for the "Increased revenue" variable (mean of all respondents= 2.93 and *s*=1.00) and the "Increased mobility of students" variable (mean of all respondents= 3.76 and *s*=0.89), the 95% confidence intervals do not intersect, and university averages are higher than those of universities of applied sciences staff. The most significant differences are in the variable

Table 4. Respondents' view of the extent they observe the outcomes of internationalisation at their institution according to higher education institution.

Question F5	N (All, UNI, UAS)	Mean	Std. dev	95% CI
Enhanced prestige (Observe internationalisation)	1230	3.40	1.04	3.34, 3.46
	662	3.51	1.00	3.43, 3.59
	568	3.29	1.07	3.19, 3.38
Cohen's *d*= 0.21				
Enhanced academic quality	1230	3.18	1.07	3.12, 3.24
	662	3.56	0.99	3.48, 3.63
	568	2.74	0.98	2.66, 2.82
Cohen's *d*= 0.83				
Increased revenue	1181	2.93	1.00	2.88, 2.99
	619	2.88	0.96	2.81, 2.96
	562	2.99	1.04	2.90, 3.08
Cohen's *d*= 0.11				
Enhanced research networks	1231	3.61	0.98	3.55, 3.66
	672	3.93	0.85	3.87, 4.00
	559	3.21	0.99	3.13, 3.29
Cohen's *d*= 0.79				
Increased mobility of students	1239	3.76	0.89	3.71, 3.81
	659	3.79	0.86	3.73, 3.86
	580	3.73	0.92	3.65, 3.80
Cohen's *d*= 0.07				
Increased mobility of faculty	1236	3.49	0.94	3.43, 3.54
	664	3.58	0.90	3.51, 3.65
	572	3.37	0.97	3.28, 3.45
Cohen's *d*= 0.23				
Weakening cultural identity	1211	2.15	1.05	2.09, 2.21
	653	2.28	1.10	2.19, 2.36
	558	2.00	0.96	1.92, 2.08
Cohen's *d*= 0.27				
Increased brain gains	1282	3.21	1.13	3.15, 3.27
	663	3.71	0.96	3.64, 3.79
	562	2.62	1.02	2.53, 2.70
Cohen's *d*= 1.10				
Increased costs associated with internationalisation	1191	2.86	1.00	2.81, 2.92
All	635	2.82	1.02	2.74, 2.90
University	556	2.92	0.96	2.84, 3.00
UAS				
Cohen's *d*= 0.10				
Sum F5	1134	3.36	0.71	3.32, 3.40
Cronbach's alpha	595	3.56	0.65	3.51, 3.61
All 0.84	539	3.13	0.72	3.07, 3.19
UNI 0.82				
UAS 0.85				
Cohen's *d*= 0.63				

Source: APIKS-IDB, 2021. 1= not at all, 5= very much. **UAS:** universities of applied sciences; **UNI:** universities.

Increased brain gains (Cohen's *d*= 1.10). Also, Enhanced academic quality (Cohen's *d*= 0.83) and Enhanced research networks (Cohen's *d*= 0.79) both indicate a clear difference for higher education institutions.

It is also possible to form the sum of the variables on institutional aspects of internationalisation, particularly in the group of both universities and universities of applied sciences, and in the whole material, the Cronbach's alpha is slightly higher than 0.80. The average of the sum is still higher among the university staff than among the universities of applied sciences staff (*UNI*=3.85, *s*=0.64, *UAS*=3.40, *s*=0.76), Cohen's *d*= 0.65.

For the first four variables in ■ Table 5, the 95% confidence intervals intersect, so there are no significant differences between them. Instead, answers of the respondents to the state-

Table 5. Respondents' views of internationalisation according to higher education institution type.

	N (All, UNI, UAS)	Mean	Std. dev	95% CI
Your institution has a clear strategy for internationalisation (Views on management) Cohen's *d*= 0.07	1279 686 593	3.39 3.42 3.35	1.05 1.02 1.09	3.33, 3.44 3.34, 3.50 3.26, 3.43
Your institution provides various international exchange programs for students Cohen's *d*= 0.12	1281 690 591	4.09 4.05 4.15	0.85 0.84 0.85	4.05, 4.14 3.98, 4.11 4.08, 4.22
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for faculty members to undertake research abroad Cohen's *d*= 0.15	1283 693 590	3.64 3.71 3.55	1.05 1.01 1.09	3.58, 3.69 3.64, 3.79 3.46, 3.63
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for visiting international students Cohen's *d*= 0.26	1260 677 583	3.91 3.80 4.04	0.92 0.95 0.87	3.86, 3.96 3.73, 3.87 3.97, 4.11
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for visiting international scholars Cohen's *d*= 0.37	1271 690 581	3.69 3.86 3.49	1.03 0.93 1.10	3.64, 3.75 3.79, 3.93 3.40, 3.58
Your institution encourages the recruitment of faculty members from foreign countries Cohen's *d*= 1.32	1250 673 577	3.04 3.65 2.33	1.20 0.99 1.01	2.97, 3.10 3.57, 3.72 2.24, 2.41
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad Cohen's *d*= 0.54	1286 695 591	3.34 3.62 3.00	1.19 1.16 1.13	3.27, 3.40 3.54, 3.71 2.91, 3.09
Your institution encourages faculty members to publish internationally Cohen's *d*= 1.39	1282 700 582	4.04 4.64 3.33	1.15 0.68 1.18	3.98, 4.11 4.59, 4.69 3.23, 3.42
Sum F6 Cronbach's alpha All 0.84 UNI 0.82 UAS 0.87 Cohen's *d*= 0.65	1209 654 555	3.64 3.85 3.40	0.73 0.64 0.76	3.60, 3.68 3.80, 3.90 3.33, 3.46

1= not at all, 5= very much. **UAS**: universities of applied sciences; **UNI**: universities.

ments in the questionnaire "Your institution encourages academic staff to publish internationally," "Your institution encourages the recruitment of academic staff from foreign countries" together with "Your institution provides various opportunities / funding for academic staff to attend international conferences abroad" strongly differentiate universities from universities of applied sciences.

Discussion

The research question we set was how the two higher education sectors differ in terms of teaching, research, and external activi-

ties in terms of internationalisation in Finland. We refined the research question with two hypotheses, the first concerning the practices of internationalisation and the second, differences in the management of the two higher education sectors.

Especially universities encourage scholars to publish internationally and for institutions to recruit staff from foreign countries, and one mechanism for making that easier is to include international aspects into teaching the students. Motivation for teaching in English as well as including international aspects and content into courses is evident considering that careers as academic scholars graduated from universities are often internationally oriented. However, internationalisa-

tion is part of teaching at the universities of applied sciences, but it is not as large as at the universities. This is clearly reflected in the fact that two-thirds of university academics are published in countries other than the one they are located in, while at universities of applied sciences, this proportion is less than one-third. In co-authoring in an international context, the difference is smaller because more than half of the academics in vacant senior posts in both sectors have published through international cooperation.

Regarding the first hypothesis, we found that the international performance of institutions supports internationalisation. Underlying this is a policy in the university sector with most of the vacancies for posts being advertised internationally. This is also supported by the fact that international applicants are not subject to the same language skill requirements as domestic applicants. Through institutional action, the number of international staff has almost doubled in the last ten years. Although the instincts for internationalisation are stronger in universities than in universities of applied sciences, the institutions do not have significant differences based on the mechanisms and management questions in the APIKS data. Instead of the type of institution, the more significant factor is the field in which the respondent operates. In universities, a language other than the national languages is used more often as a language of teaching and research than in universities of applied sciences. This may be because there are more international degree programs and internationally funded projects at universities than at universities of applied sciences. However, this form of funding determines this trend, and internationalisation is intense in the research, development, and innovation (RDI) and teaching functions of universities of applied sciences. The funding model clearly motivates universities of applied sciences to internationalisation less than universities. Internationalisation is part of strategic funding, which is 5% of total government funding. At universities, the share of strategic funding is clearly higher (15%), and internationalisation is part of competitive research funding (6%) as well as international corporate funding. Of these incentives, the government emphasises internationalisation as part of the funding formula for funding.

In response to the actual research question, the differences between the higher education sectors are clear in terms of the scope of their activities. The Ministry of Education and Culture guides the performance of higher education institutions in terms of quality and scope, and universities have a longer tradition in international operations of core functions than universities of applied sciences. They benefit from extensive networks that support their internationalisation. In terms of quality, it is obvious in both higher education sectors that internationalisation is part of the activity and not a separate function. Almost all Finnish APIKS respondents included at least some of the international variables among their tasks. Internationalisation is a mission in Finnish higher education. There are several motivations for internationalisation, one of which is mobility of academics aiming to promote the quality of teaching and research by extending the knowledge base and networks (Melin & Janson, 2006; Teichler, 2006). The 2018 APIKS data indicate that internationalisation is valuable for staff at all stages of their career and for early-stage scholars it is a necessity (APIKS-IDB, 2018; Belkhir et al., 2019).

Therefore, all Finnish higher education institutions seem to have internationalisation as part of their mission. This is supported by the motivation that is built into the performance process of the ministry and the higher education institutions. However, the motivation of the institution is not as such reflected in internal mechanisms such as allocation models in higher education institutions. Internationalisation in terms of the academic unit is explained by management, which directs internationalisation to become part of everyone's work. Taking this into account, these results clearly show that internationalisation is no longer a separate function in universities and universities of applied sciences.

References

APIKS-IDB (2018). *The Academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society (APIKS) survey 2018*. International Database version 1.0. Retrieved from https://www.ulapland.fi/APIKS (May 16, 2021).

APIKS-IDB (2021). *The academic Profession in the Knowledge-based Society (APIKS)*. International Database version 1.2 (APIKS-IDB 1.2). Retrieved from https://www.ulapland.fi/APIKS (May 16, 2021).

Belkhir, M., Brouard, M., Brunk K. H., Dalmoro, M., Ferreira M. C., Figueiredo, B., ... Smith, A. N. (2019). Isolation in globalizing academic fields: A collaborative autoethnography of early career researchers. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 18*(2), 261–285.

Chroni, S., Ronkainen, N., Elbe, A.-M., & Ryba, T. (2021). Negotiating a transnational career around borders: Women's stories in boundary-less academia. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 56*, 101990.

Clark, B. R. (1983). *The higher education system: Academic organization in cross-national perspectives*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Finnish National Agency for Education (2021). *Statistics of international degree students in Finnish higher education*. Helsinki: Vipunen. Retrieved from https://www.oph.fi/fi/tilastot/ulkomaalaiset-tutkinto-opiskelijat-suomen-korkeakouluissa (October 31, 2021).

Gergen, K. J. (2009). *Relational being: Beyond self and community*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Götze, N., Carvalho, T., & Aarrevaara, T. (2021). Academics' societal engagement in diverse european binary higher education systems: A cross-country comparative analysis. *Higher Education Policy, 34*, 88–109.

Hansen, H. F., Aarrevaara, T., Geschwind, L., & Stensaker, B. (2020). Evaluation practices. and impact: Overload? In R. Pinheiro, L. Geschwind, H. F. Hansen, & K. Pulkkinen (Eds.), *Reforms, organizational change and performance in higher education*. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mathies, C., Kivistö, J., & Birnbaum, M. (2020). Following the money? Performance-based funding and the changing publication patterns of Finnish academics. *Higher Education, 79*, 21–37.

Melin, G., & Janson, K. (2006). What skills and knowledge should a PhD have? Changing preconditions for PhD education and post doc work. In U. Teichler (Ed.), *The formative years of scholars. Wenner-Gren International Series* (Vol. *83*, pp. 21–37). London: Portland Press Ltd.

Ministry of Education and Culture (2021). *Higher education funding models*. Retrieved from https://okm.fi/en/steering-financing-and-agreements (September 21, 2021).

OECD (2021). Total business enterprise R&D personnel (Table 31), higher education researchers (Table 48) and government researchers (Table 55) as a percentage of national total. *Main Science and Technology Indicators, 2021*(1). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1787/eea67efc-en (October 31, 2021).

Paraskevopoulos, P., Boldrini, C., Passarella, A., & Conti, M. (2021). The academic wanderer: Structure of collaboration network and relation with research performance. *Applied Network Science, 6*, Article 31.

Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1978). *The external control of organizations: A resource dependence perspective*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Pölönen, J. (2018). Applications of, and experiences with, the Norwegian model in Finland. *Journal of Data and Information Science, 3*(4), 31–44.

Pulkkinen, K. (2021). Managing contradiction. Researchers' practices in balancing performance, research integrity and societal interaction. *Acta Electronica Universitatis Lapponiensis, 298*, 1–103.

Stilgoe, J., Lock, S. J., & Wilsdon, J. (2014). Why should we promote public engagement with science? *Public Understanding of Science, 23*(1), 4–15.

Teichler, U. (2006). Per aspera ad astra? The formative years of scholars. In U. Teichler (Ed.), *The formative years of scholars. Wenner-Gren International Series* (Vol. *83*, pp. 1–7). London: Portland Press Ltd.

Faculty Views on Internationalization in Kazakhstan

Öğretim Üyelerinin Kazakistan'daki Uluslararasılaşma Konusundaki Görüşleri

Aliya Kuzhabekova (ID), Darkhan Bilyalov (ID), Merey Mussabayeva (ID)

Graduate School of Education, Nazarbayev University, Nur-Sultan, Kazakhstan

Özet

Uluslararasılaşma, Kazakistan'da yükseköğretimin modernizasyonu için ana mekanizma olarak görülmektedir. Uluslararasılaşma için güçlü politika baskısına rağmen, kurumlar tarafından uluslararasılaşma girişimlerinin uygulanma süreci ve ayrıca bireysel öğretim üyelerinin, öğrencilerin ve yöneticilerin uluslararasılaşmasıyla ilgili deneyimleri üzerine yapılmış araştırma sayısı çok azdır. Bu çalışma, öğretim üyelerinin uluslararasılaşma konusundaki görüşlerini belirlemek için Bilgi Toplumunda Uluslararası Akademik Meslek (APIKS) anketinden elde edilen verileri kullanarak mevcut araştırmalardaki boşluğu doldurmaktadır. Çalışma aşağıdaki araştırma sorularını ele almaktadır: *(1)* Öğretim üyelerinin uluslararasılaşma konusundaki görüşleri nelerdir? *(2)* Farklı demografik ve mesleki özelliklere (örneğin cinsiyet, unvan, disiplin, yaş, deneyim) sahip öğretim üyeleri arasında görüşler nasıl farklılık göstermektedir? *(3)* Öğretim üyelerinin dil yeteneği ile uluslararasılaşma konusundaki görüşleri arasındaki ilişki nedir? *(4)* Bu görüşler ile öğretim üyelerinin uluslararası deneyimlere katılımı arasındaki ilişki nedir? Araştırma sorularını yanıtlamak için hem tanımlayıcı hem de çıkarımsal istatistikler kullanılmıştır. Çalışma, uluslararasılaşma girişimlerinin beyin göçü ve kültürel kimlik kaybı üzerindeki etkisinden endişe duymalarına rağmen, öğretim üyelerinin genel olarak uluslararasılaşma konusunda olumlu bir görüşe sahip olduklarını ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca, öğrencilere kıyasla kendilerine sunulan uluslararası hareketlilik ve araştırma işbirliği fırsatlarından daha az memnun görünmektedirler. Bulgular, uluslararasılaşma girişimlerinin geliştirilmesi ve uygulanması hakkında öğretim üyelerinin görüşlerinin toplanmasının yanı sıra uluslararasılaştırma programlarına erişimlerinin artırılmasının önemine işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Dil yeteneği, Kazakistan, öğretim üyesi hareketliliği, SSCB sonrası, uluslararasılaşma, yükseköğretim.

Abstract

Internationalization is viewed as the main mechanism for the modernization of higher education in Kazakhstan. Despite the strong policy push for internationalization, research on the process of implementation of internationalization initiatives by institutions, as well as on the experiences with the internationalization of individual faculty members, students, and administrators remains rather scarce. This paper fills the gap in existing research by using the data from the international Academic Profession in the Knowledge Society (APIKS) survey to explore faculty views on internationalization. The study addresses the following research questions: *(1)* What are faculty views on internationalization? *(2)* How do the views vary among the faculty of different demographic and professional characteristics (e.g. gender, rank, discipline, age, experience)? *(3)* What is the relationship between the views on internationalization and faculty language ability? *(4)* What is the relationship between the views and the extent of faculty engagement in international experiences? To answer the research questions, we use both descriptive and inferential statistics. The study reveals that faculty generally hold a positive view of internationalization, although remain concerned about the effect of internationalization initiatives on brain drain and loss of cultural identity. In addition, they seem to be less satisfied with the number of opportunities for international mobility and research collaboration, which are available for them as compared to students. The study points to the importance of gathering faculty input on the development and approaches to implementation of internationalization initiatives, as well as of expanding faculty access to internalization programs.

Keywords: Faculty mobility, higher education, internationalization, Kazakhstan, language ability, post-Soviet.

Globalization has been one of the main drivers of the profound changes occurring in higher education worldwide (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009; Knight, 2006; Stromquist, 2007). One of the main responses of higher education institutions to the increasing pressures of globalization has been the process of internationalization

(Altbach et al., 2009). Most commonly defined as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education" (Knight, 2003, p. 2), internationalization has attracted much attention from researchers of higher education around the world (Kehm & Teichler, 2007). However, due to

İletişim / Correspondence:

Associate Prof. Aliya Kuzhabekova
Graduate School of Education,
Nazarbayev University, Kabanbay
Batyr, Nursultan, 010000, Kazakhstan
e-mail: aliya.kuzhabekova@nu.edu.kz

ORCID ID: A. Kuzhabekova 0000-0002-9719-0220; D. Bilyalov 0000-0002-2686-8751; M. Mussabayeva 0000-0001-5115-629X

the complexity, the multifaceted nature, and the variability of its manifestations, internationalization has become "a term that means different things to different people" (Knight, 2004, p. 5). Moreover, these diverse understandings of internationalization have produced a range of various attitudes and views about its costs and benefits among various actors involved.

Most existing research on internationalization has focused on the national and institutional levels (Knight, 2014), as well as at the student level (Teichler, 2017). There is even more limited understanding of how faculty members view internationalization (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Friesen, 2013; Sanderson, 2008). Meanwhile, understanding the views of faculty is very important since they play a key role in internationalization (Dewey & Duff, 2009). They can resist and even compromise internationalization efforts if they view internationalization as having high costs and being associated with large negative effects. They may also serve as the main agents of internationalization, engaging in the process via their teaching, research, and service (Friesen, 2013).

The main purpose of this paper was to address the gap in the existing research on internationalization. We wanted to explore faculty attitudes towards internationalization focusing on the context of Kazakhstan.

Internationalization of Higher Education in Kazakhstan

Higher education in Kazakhstan has been undergoing the process of radical reconceptualization and modernization since the country became independent after the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991. Internationalization has become a key mechanism of this reform process (Li & Ashirbekov, 2014). Uniquely for the context of the post-Soviet country, internationalization has been implemented in a top-down fashion, with the majority of internationalization initiatives pushed by the government rather than originating at universities (Kuzhabekova, 2020). National authorities frequently turned to best international practices when they were in search of new solutions and approaches in higher education (Azimbayeva, 2017).

For example, to address the problem of inadequate skill level and the shortage of faculty members and researchers in higher education during the early days of independence, the government instituted a competitive scholarship for study in top universities overseas (Perna, Orosz, & Jumakulov, 2015). In addition, in search of a new model of higher education, the government turned to the Bologna process in Europe becoming one of the unofficial members of the European higher education space (Tampayeva, 2015). The adoption of the Bologna

standards became the driving force for modification of the degree structure, introduction of a new system of academic hours accounting (the credit system), reforms in the system of quality assurance, and integration of the previously isolated higher educational system into the global system of postsecondary training and research (Tampayeva, 2015). The aspirations to make Kazakhstan one of the successful Asian economies in transition has motivated the government to fund the establishment of several quasi-private international universities, which became dependent on a steady influx of international or internationally trained faculty (Kuzhabekova, 2020).

International research collaboration has been viewed as one of the main instruments for strengthening research capacity in the country with incentives or straightforward expectations for international research collaboration being integrated into the parameters of state-funded research grants (Zhumakulov et al., 2019). More recently, internationalization has been identified as the main instrument facilitating the expansion of universities' autonomy and self-governance. Universities are now encouraged to engage in long-term partnerships with international partner institutions, which are expected to serve as consultants in the process of readjustment of the higher education institutions (HEIs) to independent decision-making (Bilyalov, 2016).

Internationalization has been also viewed as an important mechanism for modernization of the state in general and of higher education in particular by external development funders, such as Soros Foundation, the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, DAAD, USAID, and others (Silova & Steiner-Khamsi, 2008). These agencies have also offered scholarships for study and professional development abroad, as well as grants encouraging individual and institutional collaboration between Kazakhstani HEIs/faculty and their international partners either in research or in academic reorganization (Kuzhabekova, 2020). Kazakhstani universities have actively participated in the European Union student and faculty exchange programs such as Tempus (before 2013) and Erasmus+ (starting 2014) (Perna et al., 2014). These programs facilitated academic mobility and the development of joint Masters' programs through collaboration with European partner universities (European Commission, 2018). As such from 2015 to 2020, under the Erasmus+ program, Kazakhstani individuals received funding for 3000 research proposals, 74 universities across the country participated in various partnership arrangements, by far dominating other Central Asian countries in the participation in the program (National Erasmus+ Office in Kazakhstan, n. d.).

Although HEIs themselves played a much less pronounced role in initiating internationalization activities, some universi-

ties have nevertheless recognized the profit-making potential of enrolling international students, as well as the possible benefits of engaging in funded international collaborations (Kuzhabekova, 2020). These universities have developed an aggressive strategy for attracting overseas students and externally funded grants. Some have managed to build lasting collaborations with HEIs from abroad (Kuzhabekova, 2020).

Faculty have been shown to play an important role in the country's internationalization initiatives (Jumakulov & Ashirbekov, 2016). They have frequently been the initiators and the principal investigators on funded collaborative research projects. They have been responsible for introducing courses in the process of curriculum internationalization and the adoption of new standards as a result of Kazakhstan's joining in the Bologna process. They have been providing letters of recommendation for students applying for study abroad. Their active role in internationalization and educational reform, in general, has been accompanied by increased teaching, research, and service loads, while also facilitating the faculty's professional development as teachers, scholars, and administrators (Bilyalov, 2018). Despite the growing recognition of the important role of faculty internationalization in Kazakhstan, little is known about the extent and the ways in which the faculty have been affected by internationalization and their views about the pace, the costs, and the benefits of the process.

Prior Research on Internationalization in Kazakhstan

Few recent studies have been conducted on the topic of internationalization in Kazakhstan. Most of the existing papers provide an overview of internationalization policy and initiatives (Kuzhabekova, 2020; Orosz & Perna, 2016; Tazhibayeva, 2017; Zhumakulov & Ashirbekov, 2016). Several studies focused on understanding the experiences of international students (Ibragimova, 2019; Kim, 2020; Kuzhabekova, Sparks, & Temerbayeva, 2019; Mukhamejanova, 2019; Sagintayeva & Jumakulov, 2017) or international faculty (Kuzhabekova, & Lee, 2017; Lee & Kuzhabekova, 2018). Two studies explored initiatives aimed at the internationalization of curriculum (Parmenter, et al., 2017; Tazabek, 2016). In addition, several papers looked at the internationalization of research (Jumakulov, Ashirbekov, Sparks, & Sagintayeva, 2019; Kuzhabekova & Lee, 2020). The majority of these papers presented the results of the analysis of the existing scholarly literature and policy documents. Some of the papers used a qualitative, mostly interview-based approach to data collection and analysis. Very few papers used a survey approach to collect the data and analyzed the data using statistical methods. Most previous research was based on institutional case studies and small-scale qualitative data collection and analysis.

To summarize, research on internationalization in Kazakhstan continues to be in the nascent stages of development. None of the studies, which we were able to locate, had taken a careful look at local faculty members' experiences with or their views about the process of internationalization. In addition, very few previous studies used quantitative approaches to collect data from larger multi-institutional samples. Meanwhile, a better understanding of faculty perceptions of internationalization could be useful for HEI administrators and higher education policymakers. Hence, this study aimed to fill the gap in the available scholarship, as well as to obtain novel insights about existing theories by using a survey of faculty members representing a wide range of institutional types in various regions of Kazakhstan. Four research questions were posed at the start of the study:

- What are the faculty's views on the internationalization process at their institution?
- How do the views vary among the faculty based on different demographic characteristics (rank, discipline, age, experience)?
- What is the relationship between the views and faculty members' English language proficiency?
- To what extent do views differ between faculty members who engage and those who do not engage in international experiences?

Method

This study used a quantitative survey design as the main research strategy. In particular, answers to research questions were obtained from APIKS (Academic Profession in the Knowledge Society) survey. APIKS is the third major international initiative to study the academic profession after the Changing Academic Profession for 2007/08 and the Carnegie Survey of the International Academic Profession in 1992. Currently, the comparative study involves around 20 countries, including Argentina, Canada, Chile, Croatia, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Kazakhstan, Japan, Korea, Lithuania, Malaysia, Mexico, Portugal, Russia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, USA, Taiwan, and Türkiye.

For the study of academics in Kazakhstan, our team used the standard internationally developed APIKS survey instrument, which was modified to include several additional questions pertinent to the national context. The original instrument was developed in the English language and included six sections: *(1)* career and professional situations, *(2)* teaching activities, *(3)* research activities, *(4)* external activities, *(5)* governance and management, as well as *(6)* academics in the formative career stages. The Kazakhstani version of the survey was translated

into Russian and Kazakh and was administered in both languages with the participants having a choice of which language to use.

Before administration, the Kazakhstani versions of the instrument were piloted on 30 individuals to ensure comprehensibility and consistency of the Russian and Kazakh versions of the international instrument. Cronbach's alpha reliability for the Russian-language instrument was +0.83. For the Kazakh instrument, the Cronbach's alpha was +0.87. There is general agreement that +0.75 or above indicates appropriate instrument internal consistency. The test-retest/stability reliability coefficient measured on the 30 participants was +0.84 and +0.77 for the Russian and Kazakh instrument respectively, which was again an appropriate figure.

To ensure the validity of the instrument, the pilot survey was administered verbally. The participants were asked to read the questions and instructions out loud, whereas the member of the research team administering the survey took notes capturing any parts of the questionnaire, which were not properly understood or were misunderstood by the respondent. Subsequently, the phrasing of the instructions and questions was modified until proper clarity was achieved.

In selecting the sampling strategy for the survey, we took into account the characteristics and size of the total population of academics in Kazakhstan, hoping to obtain a representative sample. The population is comprised of 38,470 individuals, 64% of whom are female faculty. By educational level, 33.8% have a Master's degree, 33% are Candidates of Sciences, 6.8% - hold a Ph.D. degree, and 8.5% are Doctors of Science (Ministry of Education and Science, 2018). More than one-third of the faculty are located in Almaty, and about as many - in Nur-Sultan, South Kazakhstan, and Karaganda region combined. These individuals are also spread across public and private institutions of different levels of importance/funding (national, regional, city) - the two main types of HEIs in Kazakhstan.

To obtain a representative sample, a multistage stratified random sampling strategy was used. First, 48 higher education institutions were chosen purposefully in 17 different regions (14 regions plus the present and the former capital cities, where the greatest number of universities is located). The sample included private and public, as well as the institutions of different status including national (six out of eleven existing institutions), regional, state, and private institutions (the latter three types totaling 42 institutions). Second, we used cluster sampling, whereas in each university we obtained a list of clusters - schools, departments, and labs comprising organizational units. In each university, we randomly selected a set of such units and within each unit.

The data was collected via a survey instrument by a professional data collection company, which was hired for the task in Kazakhstan. The data collection team of the hired data collection company approached each of the faculty, researchers, and administrators within the selected organizational units and requested them to complete the survey. Trained data collectors of a specialized data collection company interviewed individual faculty using the Computer Assistant Personal Interviewing (CAPI) method. The use of the CAPI method effectively decreases both interviewer and response error. The data was cleaned and analyzed using SPSS statistical software.

To assess the faculty views on internationalization at their institution, we used a composite latent variable operationalized by a set of questions in the survey about internationalization. The views on the internationalization scale included answers on such perceived effects on internationalization as enhanced prestige, enhanced academic quality, increased revenue, widening research networks, increased mobility of students and faculty. Faculty reacted to a series of statements about the pace of internationalization at their institution (various aspects of internationalization) and about their views on costs and benefits of internationalization on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "very much". Mathematically, the scale was the average responses of faculty to the abovementioned survey statements. The scale was found to be internally consistent (Cronbach alpha coefficient= 0.88). Unless mentioned otherwise, the inferential tests and correlational analyses are based on this scale.

Results

After applying the multi-stage approach to the selection of participants, 1024 individuals filled out the survey. Out of them, 73 were academic administrators that were taken out from the analysis. The findings of this study are thus based on valid survey responses from 946 full-time faculty members. The following statistics describe the demographic and professional characteristics of the faculty respondents. Twenty-seven percent of the participants were male. The median age of the participants was 43 (age ranging from 21 to 62 years old). In terms of ethnic composition, 84% of the participants were Kazakh, 10% were Russians, and 6% - representatives of other ethnicities. With respect to employment affiliation, 43% of the participants were employed at the hiring university for 10 years or less. About a third of the respondents (32%) worked at the institution for 11–20 years, 17% for 21–30 years; and the rest - for over 30 years. Most of the participants worked at the university either full-time (47% of the respondents) or more than full-time (44%). The majority of the

Table 1. Faculty views about benefits of internationalization.

Aspects	No/little extent	Neutral	Some/considerable extent
Enhanced prestige	28 3.0%	71 7.5%	847 89.5%
Enhanced academic quality	39 4.1%	101 10.7%	806 85.2%
Enhanced research networks	30 3.2%	93 9.8%	823 87.0%
Increased mobility of students	28 3.0%	96 10.1%	822 86.9%
Increased mobility of faculty	61 6.4%	125 13.2%	760 80.3%
Increased revenue	147 15.5%	224 23.7%	575 60.8%

respondents were hired on a fixed-term non-permanent contract (65%) and were junior-level faculty (63%). In terms of disciplinary specialization, 32% of the participants came from natural, biomedical, and engineering backgrounds, whereas 20% came from education, another 20% from social sciences, and 15% from humanities and art.

RQ1: What Are Faculty Views on the Internationalization Process at their Institutions?

Two groups of questions in the survey instrument collected responses pertinent to the first research question. The faculty were asked to express their views about the benefits and costs of internationalization, as well as their views about the pace of internationalization at their institution.

The results of the survey presented in ◼◼ Table 1 summarize faculty views on the benefits of internationalization. The table clearly shows that faculty in Kazakhstan tend to have a positive view of internationalization as a process. In particular, the absolute majority of the faculty members (over 80% on average) believe that internationalization contributes to an institution's enhanced prestige, enhanced academic quality, enhanced research networks, increased student and faculty mobility. The views were somewhat less optimistic about the ability of internationalization to contribute to increased institutional revenue. Only 60% of the faculty thought that internationalization increases revenue to some or considerable extent.

◼◼ Table 2 presents a summary of the faculty views about the costs of internationalization. Based on the summary, many faculty members acknowledge that despite some benefits, internationalization is also associated with some costs. For example, 78% of the respondents believe that internationalization leads to weakened cultural identity. In addition, almost 70% of academics think that internationalization leads to increased brain drain.

Another set of questions in the survey asked the faculty about their views on the pace internationalization is conducted at their institution. Based on the responses summarized in ◼◼ Table 3, most faculty have positive views of their institution's internationalization initiatives. About 85% of the participants

Table 2. Faculty views about costs of internationalization.

Aspects	No/little extent	Neutral	Some/considerable extent
Weakening cultural identity	77 8.1%	132 14.0%	737 77.9%
Increased brain gain	122 12.9%	184 19.5%	640 67.7%

Note: A five-point response scale was used in the original survey. For the purposes of this study, we collapsed the data from the responses "No" and "To a little extent" and data from the responses "To some extent" and "To a considerable extent."

Table 3. Faculty views about the pace of internationalization at their institution.

Statement	Strongly disagree/disagree	Neutral	Strongly agree/agree
Your institution has a clear strategy for internationalization	51 5.4%	93 9.8%	802 84.8%
Your institution provides various international exchange programs for students	42 4.4%	96 10.1%	808 85.4%
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for visiting international scholars	121 12.8%	161 17.0%	664 70.2%
Your institution encourages the recruitment of faculty members from foreign countries	92 9.7%	164 17.3%	690 72.9%
Your institution encourages faculty members to publish internationally	123 13.0%	128 13.5%	695 73.5%
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for faculty members to undertake research abroad	201 21.2%	188 19.9%	557 58.9%
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for visiting international students	145 15.3%	196 20.7%	605 64.0%
Your institution provides various opportunities/funding for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad	225 23.8%	163 17.2%	558 59.0%

felt that their institution had a clear internationalization strategy and provided opportunities for students' participation in exchange programs. The respondents were in a strong, but somewhat weaker agreement with the statements that their institutions provided funding for short-term visiting or long-term contracted international faculty, as well as encouraged its faculty members to publish abroad. Only slightly above 50% of the faculty agreed that their institutions provided funding for research and conference presentations abroad and that institutions were not particularly keen on supporting international students.

RQ2: How Do the Views Vary among the Faculty Based on Different Demographic Characteristics (Rank, Discipline, Age, Experience)?

To explore whether faculty varied in their views about internationalization depending on a set of demographic characteristics we used either a *t*-test or a test of significance of the correlation,

depending on the scale of the corresponding independent variable. In particular, we looked at the influence of such variables as rank, age, experience, and disciplinary specialization. The results of the tests are summarized in ▪▪ Table 4. Based on the results, it is clear that there was no difference between groups of faculty members based on the selected characteristics.

RQ3: What Is the Relationship between the Views and Faculty's English Language Proficiency?

One of the hypotheses that we pursued in the study is that better knowledge of the English language is associated with more favorable views of internationalization. Only about 38% of the participants indicated that they were fluent in English or fluent enough for professional communication (▪▪ Table 5). The majority of the participants could hardly speak English or did not have any skills in the language at all. We assessed the statistical significance of the difference between the fluent and

Table 4. Faculty backgrounds and positive views on internationalization.

Variable	Results
1. Rank	Junior faculty look similarly at internationalization (*M*=4.40) as senior (*M*=4.32), *p*=0.07, *t*(652)=-1.80
2. Age	No association between age and favorable internationalization scale, *r*=-0.44, *n*=946, *p*=.172
3. Discipline	Non-STEM faculty look similarly at internationalization (*M*=4.40) as STEM (*M*=4.31), *p*=0.086, *t*(737)=-1.72
4. Experience in academia	No meaningful association between experience and favorable internationalization scale, *r*=-0.74, *n*=946, *p*=.023

Table 5. English language proficiency of the participants.

English language proficiency	Frequency	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Fluent	145	15.3	15.3
Fluent enough for professional communication, reading special literature	219	23.2	38.5
Hardly can speak and understand	377	39.9	78.3
Do not speak and understand	205	21.7	100.0
Total	946	100.0	

non-fluent speakers of English using a t-test. Fluent speakers look more favorably at internationalization (M=4.50) compared with those, who speak less fluently (M=4.35), p=0.008, $t(241)$=-2.66 albeit with a small effect size (Cohen's D= 0.218).

RQ4: To What Extent Do Views Differ between Faculty Who Engage and Those Who Do Not Engage in International Experiences?

Another hypothesis that we pursued in the study is that having some international experiences is associated with more favorable views of internationalization. Only about 48% of the participants indicated that they engaged in some form of collaboration with international colleagues (Table 6). We assessed the statistical significance of the difference between those who had international experiences and those who did not have any using the t-test. However, we found no significant difference between those who engaged and did not engage actively in internationalization. There was no difference in the attitude towards internationalization between those who engaged with foreign colleagues and those who did not ($M_{enagged}$=4.39, $M_{unengaged}$=4.33, p=0.323, $t(728)$=0.99).

Discussion

Several important findings emerge from the study. First, at the face value, faculty in Kazakhstan seem to have positive views of internationalization in general and internationalization efforts in their institutions in particular. The absence of association between the perception of internationalization and age, experience, and discipline, is consistent with the finding that the majority of faculty view internationalization positively.

If the uniformly positive views of the faculty accurately reflect the reality of internationalization in Kazakhstani institutions, then this may point to the positive effects that the process has on opportunities for international mobility created by international mobility, internationalization of the curriculum, and research collaboration. Most institutions might truly be actively pursuing various internationalization initiatives and faculty members seem to be satisfied with the pace of their implementation.

However, the lack of variation in faculty perceptions could be the consequence of the faculty members' minor role in institutional decision-making and educational policy. Until recently, as a legacy of the Soviet-era centralized decision-making in all spheres of life (Burkhanov, 2018), higher education policy and organizational decision-making remain largely top-down (Bilyalov, 2016). The views of faculty are rarely considered, and the academic staff is rarely consulted when internationalization policies are adopted and when university administration decides to take a particular course of action in that direction (Sarinzhipov, 2013). We believe that as a result of little engagement in organizational governance, lack of opportunities to be heard and engaged in deciding the direc-

Table 6. Engagement in internationalization experiences.

Do you collaborate with international colleagues?	Frequency	Valid percent
Yes	350	47.9
No	380	52.1
Total	730	100.0
Missing	216	
Total	946	

tions of internationalization, and absence of any feedback gathering mechanisms within the decision-making system at universities, many faculty members might uncritically adopt the view of those in power, including the view of the benefits and costs of internationalization.

As mentioned in the introductory part of the paper, internationalization is centrally considered as the main instrument of higher education modernization and many internationalization activities are pushed to universities from the government, which is also responsible for providing a policy rationale about its advantages and disadvantages (Jumakulov et al., 2019; Kuzhabekova, 2020). In addition, the main responsibility for the implementation of government directives falls on the university administration, and internationalization initiatives are carried on in a centralized fashion at the institutional level (Li & Ashirbekov, 2014). The uniform view of the faculty members in our study could be just a symptom of their lack of agency and limited influence over institutional decisions about internationalization.

If the uniform views on the pace of internationalization are the result of lacking faculty engagement, the finding is problematic. Internationalization can be costly and can be wasteful for institutions of its benefits are not fully capitalized upon in the process of teaching, research, and advising, which are within the realm of the direct responsibility of faculty members. The faculty members' concerns that internationalization may contribute to the loss of cultural identity and increased brain drain are also consistent with the official views about the negative side-effects of internationalization (Tazhibayeva, 2017). For example, the fears that students sent abroad on government scholarships might not return to Kazakhstan or might return with significantly modified national identities are some of the key concerns expressed by critics of such government scholarships (Bokayev, Torebekova, & Davletbayeva, 2020). Moreover, there are growing concerns of brain drain in the country as more young citizens decide to immigrate and/or pursue higher education abroad. This issue is especially poignant in regions bordering Russia (Central Asian Bureau for Analytical Reporting, 2019). The fact that faculty are concerned about the loss of intellectual capital and cultural identity is important. University faculty members are among the best-educated individuals in the country, who are empowered to inculcate cultural values in the next generation of Kazakhstanis. University administrators and policymakers in Kazakhstan should take a greater effort to investigate the reasons for these concerns, as well as faculty ideas on how the problems aggravated by internationalization could be addressed.

The only difference in views among faculty emerges under the influence of such a factor as the knowledge of the English language. Those fluent in English have more positive views on internationalization, potentially because they benefit more from it. For example, they are more likely to receive fellowships for professional development abroad, grants for collaborative research, as well as are more likely to be involved in university teams responsible for managing partnerships with universities abroad, thus benefitting in terms of exposure to best international practices.

An important finding from the survey is that faculty seem to be less satisfied with the availability of funding for short-term and conference trips abroad. This possibly happens because: (1) internationalization policy in Kazakhstan focuses predominantly on students (Jumakulov et al., 2019), (2) institutionally funded mobility programs benefit predominantly students and are used for marketing purposes (Kuzhabekova, 2020). We find this finding highly problematic. Faculty are the main targets of internationalization-driven modernization. For example, interaction with international experts and professional development trips abroad could be prescribed within the frames of reforms aimed at improvement of the quality of teaching or transfer to credit-hour technology (Nessipbayeva, 2014). Similarly, faculty are expected to engage in international research collaborations within the government's initiatives to enhance university research capacity (Jumakulov et al., 2019). Meanwhile, while being viewed as the main implementors of internationalization initiatives, faculty have few opportunities to benefit from internationalization themselves. This could explain why faculty members, who have limited knowledge of English, have less positive view of internationalization. They might be excluded from whatever limited opportunities are available. An important practical implication of this finding is that universities and governments should stimulate better access of faculty to international programs via subsidized language training and expansion of mobility programs and international research collaboration funding.

Conclusion

Several important implications arise from the findings of the study. First, more funding should be provided for faculty mobility programs, as well as for faculty language training, so that more faculty could benefit from the mobility. Second, the voice of faculty members should be included in internationalization policy development, and they should be provided with opportunities to express both positive and negative views, as well as suggestions for changes in the course of actions. Third, given the faculty concerns about the brain drain and the loss of cultural identity, as well as the state's interest in lowering the rate of brain drain from the country, especially among the

younger generation, faculty can be encouraged to engage in critical conversations about internationalization with their students. This is something, which may be difficult to achieve in a post-Soviet state, where critical thinking was undermined by years of centralized decision-making and ideological control (Burkhanov, 2018). Recent initiatives aimed at the expansion of university autonomy might create a window of opportunity for both greater involvement of faculty in the determination of internationalization policies, as well as in critical reflection and conversations about societal impacts of internationalization (Bilyalov, 2016).

References

Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution. A report prepared for the World Conference in Higher Education 2009, UNESCO.* Retrieved from http://www.cep.edu.rs/public/Altbach,_Reisberg,_Rumbley_Tracking_an_Academic_Revolution,_UNESCO_2009.pdf (November 9, 2022).

Azimbayeva, G. (2017). Comparing post-Soviet changes in higher education governance in Kazakhstan, Russia, and Uzbekistan. *Cogent Education, 4*(1), 1–18.

Bilyalov, D. (2016). University governance reforms in Kazakhstan. *International Higher Education, 2016*(85), 28–30.

Bilyalov, D. (2018). Organizational socialization and job satisfaction of faculty at Nazarbayev University in Kazakhstan. *European Education, 50*(3), 229–248.

Bokayev, B., Torebekova, Z., & Davletbayeva, Z. (2020). Preventing brain drain: Kazakhstan's Presidential "Bolashak" scholarship and government regulations of intellectual migration. *Public Policy and Administration, 19*(3), 25–35.

Burkhanov, A. (2018). Policy-making styles in Central Asia: The Soviet legacy and new institutions. In M. Howlett, & J. Tosun (Eds.), *Policy styles and policymaking* (pp. 222–241). New York, NY: Routledge.

Central Asian Bureau for Analytical Reporting (2019). *Emigration from Kazakhstan as an outflow of human capital.* Retrieved from https://cabar.asia/en/emigration-from-kazakhstan-as-an-outflow-of-human-capital (November 9, 2022).

European Commission, (2018). *Erasmus+ program.* Retrieved from https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/def6a811-f4ee-11e7-be11-01aa75ed71a1/language-ru (November 9, 2022).

Ibragimova, B. (2019). *Factors influencing international students' motivation to study in Kazakhstan.* Doctoral dissertation, Nazarbayev University Graduate School of Education, Nur-Sultan, Kazakhstan.

Jumakulov, Z., & Ashirbekov, A. (2016). Higher education internationalization: Insights from Kazakhstan. *Hungarian Educational Research Journal, 6*(1), 37–57.

Jumakulov, Z., Ashirbekov, A., Sparks, J., & Sagintayeva, A. (2019). Internationalizing research in Kazakhstan higher education: A case study of Kazakhstan's state program of industrial innovative development 2015 to 2019. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 23*(2), 234–247.

Kehm, B. M., & Teichler, U. (2007). Research on internationalization in higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3–4), 260–273.

Kim, T. (2020). *Academic and Sociocultural Adjustment Experiences of International Students Studying in Kazakhstan.* Nazarbayev University Graduate School of Education, Nur-Sultan, Kazakhstan.

Knight, J. (2003). Updated definition of internationalization. *International Higher Education,* (33), 2–3.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 8*(1), 5–31.

Knight, J. (2006). *Internationalization of higher education: New directions, new challenges: 2005 IAU global survey report.* International Association of Universities (IAU).

Knight, J. (2014). Is internationalization of higher education having an identity crisis? In A. Maldonado-Maldonado, & R. M. Bassett (Eds.), *The forefront of international higher education: A festschrift in honor of Philip G. Altbach* (pp. 75–87). Dordrecht: Springer Science & Business Media.

Kuzhabekova, A. (2020). Internationalization as a mechanism of higher education modernization in Kazakhstan. In J. Thondhlana, E. C. Garwe, H. de Wit, J. Gacel-Ávila, F. Huang, & W. Tamrat (Eds.), *The Bloomsbury handbook of internationalization of higher education in the global South* (pp. 100–114). New York, NY, USA: Bloomsbury Publishing Inc.

Kuzhabekova, A., & Lee, J. (2017). Relocation decision of international faculty in Kazakhstan. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 22*(5), 414–433.

Kuzhabekova, A., & Lee, J. (2020). International faculty engagement in local research capacity building: Factors affecting knowledge-sharing between international and local faculty in Kazakhstan. *European Education, 52*(4), 297–311.

Kuzhabekova, A., Sparks, J., & Temerbayeva, A. (2019). Returning from study abroad and transitioning as a scholar: Stories of foreign PhD holders from Kazakhstan. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, *14*(3), 412–430.

Lee, J., & Kuzhabekova, A. (2018). Reverse flow in academic mobility from core to periphery: Motivations of international faculty working in Kazakhstan. *Higher Education*, *76*(2), 369–386.

Li, A., & Ashirbekov, A. (2014). Institutional engagement in the internationalization of higher education: Perspectives from Kazakhstan. *International Higher Education*, *2014*(78), 17–19.

Ministry of Education and Science (2018). *Realization of the principles of the Bologna process in the Republic of Kazakhstan.* [Article in Kazakh]. Astana: Center for the Bologna Process and Academic Mobility. Retrieved from https://enic-kazakhstan.edu.kz/uploads/additional_files_items/28/file_en/analiticheskiy-otchet-final-14-12-2018-1.pdf?cache=1556191390 (November 9, 2022).

Mukhamejanova, D. (2019). International students in Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Comparative Education and Development*, *21*(3), 146–163.

National Erasmus+ Office in Kazakhstan (n. d.). Retrieved from https://erasmusplus.kz/index.php/en/erasmus/erasmus-in-kazakhstan/cbhe (November 9, 2022).

Nessipbayeva, O. (2014). Kazakhstan in the European Educational System. *Proceedings of Bulgarian Comparative Education Society*, *2014*(4), 411–417.

Parmenter, L., Sparks, J., Li, A., Kerimkulova, S., Ashirbekov, A., & Jumakulov, Z. (2017). Internationalizing the curriculum in Kazakhstan: Perceptions, rationales and challenges. In De Wit, H., Gacel-Avila, J., Jones, E., & Jooste, N. (Eds.). *The globalization of internationalization: Emerging voices and perspectives* (pp. 206–217). New York, NY: Routledge.

Perna, L. W., Orosz, K., Gopaul, B., Jumakulov, Z., Ashirbekov, A., & Kishkentayeva, M. (2014). Promoting human capital development: A typology of international scholarship programs in higher education. *Educational Researcher*, *43*(2), 63–73.

Perna, L. W., Orosz, K., & Jumakulov, Z. (2015). Understanding the human capital benefits of a government-funded international scholarship program: An exploration of Kazakhstan's Bolashak program. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *40*, 85–97.

Sagintayeva, A., & Jumakulov, Z. (2017). Kazakhstan: Kazakhstan's Bolashak scholarship program. In De Wit, H., Gacel-Avila, J., Jones, E., & Jooste, N. (Eds.). *Understanding Higher Education Internationalization* (pp. 143–146). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Sarinzhipov, A. (2013). *Opportunities for faculty to influence academic matters at Kazakh National University and Eurasian National University.* Doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

Silova, I., & Steiner-Khamsi, G. (Eds.). (2008). *How NGOs react: Globalization and education reform in the Caucasus, Central Asia, and Mongolia.* Boulder, CO: Kumarian Press.

Stromquist, N. P. (2007). Internationalization as a response to globalization: Radical shifts in university environments. *Higher Education*, *53*(1), 81–105.

Tampayeva, G. Y. (2015). Importing education: Europeanisation and the Bologna Process in Europe's backyard – The case of Kazakhstan. *European Educational Research Journal*, *14*(1), 74–85.

Tazabek, S. (2016). Internationalizing curriculum for innovation: Opportunities and challenges for entrepreneurial universities in Kazakhstan. *Proceedings of the Eurasian Higher Education Leaders Forum*, *2016*, 24–27.

Tazhibayeva, A. (2017). *Internationalization of higher education in Kazakhstan: State policies and institutional practices.* Nazarbayev University School of Sciences and Humanities, Nur-Sultan, Kazakhstan.

Teichler, U. (2017). Internationalization trends in higher education and the changing role of international student mobility. *Journal of International Mobility*, *217*(1), 177–216.

Snapshots of Malaysian Academics in International Engagement

Malezyalı Akademisyenlerin Uluslararası Çalışmalarından Örnekler

Doria Abdullah[1] (ID), Norzaini Azman[2] (ID), Chang Da Wan[3] (ID), Nik Sabrina Abdullah[2] (ID)

[1]Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor, Malaysia
[2]Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
[3]National Higher Education Research Institute, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Bayan Lepas, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia

Özet

Malezya'daki yükseköğretim akademisyenleri, kampüs dışındaki etkileşimler yoluyla sosyal yardımlarını ve uluslararası deneyimlerini geliştirmeye teşvik edilmektedir. Bu tür faaliyetler, bir bütün olarak Malezya yükseköğretim sisteminin yeterliliğini, güvenilirliğini ve uygunluğunu geliştirmede çok önemli olarak kabul edilir. Bu çalışma, Malezya yükseköğretim kurumlarında (2019–2020) akademisyenler (*n*=4368) ile ilgili Bilgi Tabanlı Toplumda Akademik Meslek (APIKS) küresel anketine dayalı uluslararasılaşma deneyimlerini ve algılarını araştırmaktadır. Birincil amaç, Malezyalı akademisyenlerin öğretim, araştırma ve yayın faaliyetlerinde uluslararasılaşma algılarının yanı sıra kurumsal stratejileri ve uluslararasılaşma desteği de dahil olmak üzere uluslararasılaşmanın sonuçlarına ilişkin algılarını ortaya koymaktır. Ayrıca, uluslararasılaşma faaliyetlerinde aralarındaki farklılıkları görmek için eğitim geçmişi, akademik unvan ve üniversite türleri bakımından çeşitli grupların kesitsel analizleri yapılmıştır. Bulgular, Malezyalı akademisyenlerin öğretim ve araştırma yönelimlerinde oldukça uluslararası olmalarına rağmen, uluslararasılaşmanın yayınlarında daha az belirgin olduğunu göstermektedir. Uluslararası sonuçlar, kurumsal itibarı ve akademik kaliteyi artırmaya güçlü bir şekilde eğilir. Kurumsal uluslararasılaşma stratejileri konusundaki görüşleri olumlu olsa da katılımcılar bilimsel faaliyetleri desteklemede yeterli kurumsal finansmanın verilip verilmediği konusunda daha az emin görünmektedirler. Bulgular ayrıca bireysel uluslararası araştırma ve yayınlarda yaş grupları, kurum türleri ve unvanlar bakımından farklılıklar bulunduğunu doğrulamaktadır. Çalışma, akademik hareketlilik, araştırma desteği ve mesleki gelişim konusunda politika ve uygulamaya yönelik önerilerle sona ermektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Akademik hareketlilik, akademisyenler, Malezya, uluslararasılaşma, yükseköğretim.

Abstract

Higher education academics in Malaysia are encouraged to enhance their outreach and international experience via engagement beyond the campus. Such activities are considered paramount in fostering competence, credibility and relevance of the Malaysian higher education system as a whole. This paper explores the experiences and perceptions of internationalisation based on the Academic Profession in the Knowledge-Based Society (APIKS) global survey on academics (*n*=4368) in Malaysian higher education institutions (2019–2020). The primary purpose is to highlight Malaysian academics' perceptions of internationalisation in their teaching, research and publication activities as well as their perceptions of the outcomes of internationalisation, including their institutional strategies and support for internationalisation. In addition, cross-sectional analyses of various groups (education background, rank and university types) were carried out to see the differences between them in internationalisation activities. The findings indicate that while Malaysian academics were quite international in their teaching and research orientations, this was less pronounced in their publications. International outcomes leaned strongly towards enhancing institutional reputation and academic quality. While the respondents had positive responses to institutional strategies for internationalisation, they seemed less assured of sufficient commitment, in terms of funding, to support scholarly activities. The findings also confirm the existence of differences among age groups, institution types and ranks on individual international research and publication practices. This paper concludes with recommendations for policy and practice on academic mobility, research support and professional development.

Keywords: Academic mobility, academics, higher education, internationalisation, Malaysia.

In 2019, slightly more than 48,000 academic staff, 7.2 percent of them international, devoted their time and effort nurturing over 1.01 million students across 20 public universities and 98 private universities and university colleges in Malaysia. These lecturers/academic professionals strive to educate and train students who are mostly seeking better social mobility and professional development opportunities to improve not only their own lives but also those of their families and communities. Even as the country's higher education system undergoes rapid privatisation, corporatisation, resource

İletişim / Correspondence:

Prof. Dr. Norzaini Azman
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: norzai12@ukm.edu.my

rationalisation, with increasing embedment of quality assurance in all functions and operations (Lee, 2015), they remain committed to their vocation, developing study programmes, curricula, teaching policies, and conducting valuable research.

Under the Code of Practice for Institutional Audit (COPIA) and Code of Practice for Programme Audit (COPPA) issued by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA), one of the nine areas of evaluation in the provision of quality higher education is academic staff. Academic staff are expected to participate in "four interrelated academic activities" (MQA, 2009, p. 40): teaching, research, consultancy, services and community engagement. However, the degree of involvement in these activities varies between academic ranks and types of higher education institutions (HEIs). Institutions must adhere to seven benchmarked standards for recruitment and management, and five benchmarked standards for service and development to support their academics in their productivity and delivery of academic programmes. Institutions must also ensure their staff receive systematic training throughout their service, and that incentives to reward service excellence are put in place, such as promotion, and attractive salary increments.

The academic community is also instrumental in driving transformation for Malaysia's higher education system, which has undergone numerous waves of change within the past 25 years. Sack and Jalloun (2017) recount a series of mergers and demergers of the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) and the Ministry of Education (MoE) which have taken place since 2013 which were mostly economically and politically driven. Azman and Wan (2021), and Wan and Abdullah (2021) describe a series of policy changes underlying internationalisation of the country's higher education system since 2007.

Policy Considerations for Internationalization

Malaysia is committed to increasing the visibility and prominence of its higher education system globally through internationalisation. This commitment can be traced through four ministerial documents issued over the past fifteen years.

The first document is the National Higher Education Strategic Plan (NHESP), launched in 2007. In this document, Malaysia is envisioned as an international education hub, becoming a country of choice for students to pursue quality and affordable higher education. The government set a target of 150,000 international student enrolment by 2015, and 200,000 international students by 2020. To achieve this goal, four strategies were introduced: increase global network and collaboration with international institutions; increase academic programme offerings to international students; increase international student recruitment at private higher education institutions; and enhance promotion and branding of Malaysian higher education institutions at the international level (MoHE, 2007). Action plans that were specific to academics included international attachment programmes at foreign institutions as well as integration of comparative and international elements in the curriculum.

The second document is a complementary document to the NHESP launched in 2011, titled "Malaysia's Global Reach: A New Dimension". This document expresses Malaysia's intention to increase its global reputation on the basis of soft power in higher education, defined as "… capabilities and intentions of institutions to capture the hearts and minds of local and international stakeholders to collectively accept values, ideologies and cultures of learning that can benefit communities…" (MoHE, 2011a, p. 18). Action plans specific to academic staff include expert sharing, diplomatic bonding, community exchange, student and institutional fellowship, as well as skills and technology transfer among partner countries (Azman & Wan, 2021).

The third document is the Internationalisation Policy for Higher Education Malaysia, also launched in 2011. In this document, a total of six strategic areas are identified for the acceleration of internationalisation of higher education institutions, in particular, the public institutions: student mobility, staff mobility, academic programmes, research and development, governance, as well as social integration and community engagement (MoHE, 2011b). Action plans specific to academics include recruitment of international academic staff, outbound mobility of Malaysian academics, as well as professional development and training for academic and non-academic staff to support and enhance institutional internationalisation activities.

The fourth and final document, the Malaysia Education Blueprint (Higher Education) 2015–2025, attempts to situate the Malaysian academic profession in higher education transformation. Launched in 2015, the document outlines 10 transformative shifts in Malaysian higher education for a 10-year horizon. Shift 2 (Talent Excellence), Shift 7 (Innovative Ecosystem), and Shift 8 (Global Prominence) are calls for the academics to support Malaysia's aspirations in becoming an international education hub, through the provision of value-driven and globally relevant education, as well as establishing herself as a globally-connected player for academic and research in niche areas (MoHE, 2015). Towards this end, each academic staff is expected to take on one of the following four "personas": inspiring educator, accomplished researcher, experienced practitioner, and institutional leader. They are also expected to be solution providers to industries and communities, and build Malaysia's capacity in strategic areas that are critical to national development. In other words, academic staff are even more obligated to teach, conduct research, provide consultancy services, and engage with the international community, as contributions from these academic activities

are considered instrumental to increasing the competitiveness and prestige of the country in the global arena.

As a result of the policies introduced, Malaysia became an exporter of education services to the world. In 2008, the country hosted a total of 69,174 international students and 2895 international academic members. By 2018, the country recorded 131,514 international student enrolment, a two-fold increase within a span of 10 years with 4462 international academic members (Wan & Abdullah, 2021). These numbers only constitute about 8.2 per cent of the academic staff in all higher education institutions (54,508) in 2018. The private higher education sector remained a major host throughout the years, with seven out of 10 students pursuing their studies in private higher education institutions across the country.

Even though the State is deeply committed to internationalising its higher education system, it remains to be seen whether its academic members are following the lead. In all the ministerial documents mentioned above, academic staff are expected to initiate, strengthen, and sustain cross-border collaboration in teaching, research, and services. Specific action plans related to academic staff include expert sharing, diplomatic bonding, community exchange, student and institutional fellowship, as well as skills and technology transfer among partner countries (Azman & Wan, 2021). They are also expected to increase the visibility of the Malaysian higher education system abroad, through representation at conferences, meetings, and other international academic and research events. However, their perceptions of internationalisation, as well as the extent of their involvement, have not been reviewed at large. A descriptive review of academic staff involvement in internationalising Malaysia's higher education system is therefore critical and necessary in order to inform policymakers on potential interventions to be introduced in the future.

This paper focuses on a review of Malaysian academics' involvement in internationalisation. Indicators derived from the Academic Profession in the Knowledge-Based Society (APIKS) global survey were used to assess international engagements of academics in Malaysian higher education institutions. In this survey, the internationalisation of the academic profession refers to the increasing permeability of national boundaries in academic research, teaching and service, and to the increasing mobility of students and academics across borders (Finkelstein, Walker, & Chen, 2013). The conceptual underpinning for this paper is built on previous works contributed by Knight (2004, 2008) and Finkelstein et al. (2013) relating to academics' engagement in internationalisation at both individual and institutional levels. This paper also builds on contributions from Finkelstein and Sethi (2014) as well as Marquina and Ferreiro (2015), who highlighted that international mobility, such as attachments and international

travel for scholarly purposes, is a strong conduit affecting internationalisation in teaching and research of higher education institutions. We hypothesised that academics are intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to partake in internationalisation activities. They align their efforts with institutional priorities that are deemed both profitable as well as compatible with the overall goals and values of the institution. Our contribution in the continuing conversation is the financial agenda that is less discussed, particularly within the context of Malaysian higher education. We argue that while the State is highly invested in internationalising its higher education system, significant financial investment is still required in enabling these academics to pursue their cause. The academics can only fully benefit from internationalisation if the biggest leveller - funding, is made available to them.

The paper is structured as follows. First, we outline conceptual considerations underlying the rationale and significance of this paper. Next, we briefly introduce the APIKS global survey, the indicators selected for analysis, and sampling of the survey. We then present findings and discussion on particular trends identified throughout our analysis before highlighting implications for policy and practice.

Literature Review

An international dimension to the work of academics in higher education will always exist. Buckner and Stein (2020) note an ingrained imaginary of the "internationalised" academic professional that is pervasive across the global academic community. These include: international staff recruitment; international mobility; internationalisation of curriculum; international research; collaboration with international researchers; and participation in capacity development activities internationally, either as a transmitter of knowledge, or as recipient of skills and competencies from an international partner.

In order to carry out their responsibilities, academics need to have a multicultural worldview, intercultural sensitivity, and an international mindset to effectively educate students in their socially diverse classrooms and prepare them for multicultural workplaces (Donald, 2007; Sanderson, 2008). They are also expected to advance and disseminate knowledge by collaborating with their peers overseas (Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014; Teichler, Arimoto, & Cummings, 2013). Appe (2020) found that academics have significant influence in determining institutional participation in study abroad activities. They may be familiar with the country in which a collaborative partner is located, have strong personal relationships with his/her peers in university, government agency, or non-governmental organisation (NGO) in the country, or have particular research and/or travel interests in the country.

Despite the various benefits for teaching, research, and networking, not all academics warm up to the idea of internationalisation (Dewey & Duff, 2009). This may be attributed to their lack of: language skills, exposure, awareness of international opportunities (Andreasen, 2003), or understanding of internationalisation initiatives (Friesen, 2013). Those academics with international experience were found more likely to stay internationally connected with colleagues from other countries (Webber, 2012). In cases where institutional support is lacking, international initiatives are often seen by academics as additional work with little or no benefit (LeBeau, 2010). Without incentives for internationally oriented activities (Li & Tu, 2016), such as structural and financial resources (Finkelstein et al., 2013; Teichler et al., 2013), academics may not be keen to initiate or sustain their involvement in internationalisation.

Additionally, internationalisation policies tend to be developed and monitored at the institutional level. Previous studies have tended to focus on macro-level investigations, rather than from the perspectives of individuals affected by the process (Finkelstein et al., 2013; Li & Tu, 2016; Sanderson, 2008). Such a trend seems to run counter to claims by Teichler et al. (2013), Finkelstein and Sethi (2014), and Huang, Finkelstein and Rostan (2013), about the crucial role that academics play in shaping internationalisation through teaching, research, and service. It also contradicts studies that demonstrate significant correlations between the quality of scholarly production and institutional internationalisation (Abramo, D'Angelo, & Di Costa, 2009).

Method

Instrumentation and Sampling

The research reported in this paper is based on a descriptive study that utilised a survey for data collection. We report selected findings from a global survey (APIKS) to ascertain the current state of play for academic staff's involvement in internationalisation. We are concerned with the following question: have the policies and two-fold increase of international student enrolment in the country piqued the interest of Malaysian academic staff, and increased their participation in internationalisation?

APIKS is the most recent iteration of a survey entitled "Changing Academic Profession" (CAP), a global initiative held since 1992. Research teams work together across borders to examine the changing nature in the world of academic work. The survey uses both closed and open-ended items. The closed items use single-answer multiple choice, rating and Likert scale questions. The open-ended questions require respondents to type their answer into a box. The questions are divided into themes that describe the various facets of academic work, such

as current career and professional situations, teaching and research, external activities, as well as governance and management. A new theme on academics in formative career stages was added to the current iteration of the global survey. With a commonly agreed upon protocol for data collection and analysis by a community of practice, the validity and reliability of the survey is well-established.

Data for APIKS-2019 was collected online between June 2019 to July 2020. The population sampled for this study comprised academics from public universities (31,626) and private universities and university colleges (16,755), totalling 48,381. Using cluster sampling (university types: public university, private university, private university college) and stratified sampling (discipline, academic rank, and gender), a total of 4368 academics responded to the survey, constituting about 9.0 per cent of the total academic staff in Malaysia. ■■ Table 1 provides the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The majority of the respondents were from public HEIs (92.1%). Of the total number of respondents, 44.4 percent were male while 55.6 percent were female. The respondents were predominantly Malaysians (4227 or 96.8%) who worked full time (4280 or 98%). Over 75 percent (3283 respondents) of them had a doctoral degree.

The variables and items from the APIKS survey depicted in ■■ Table 2 were chosen to shed light on the internationalisation practices both at the individual and systemic levels. Teaching

■■ Table 1. Demographics of APIKS respondents (*n*=4368).

Characteristics	Profile
Higher education institutions	Public: 4022 (92.1%) Private: 346 (7.9%)
Gender	Male: 1938 (44.4%) Female: 2430 (55.6%)
Citizenship	Malaysian: 4227 (96.8%) Non-Malaysian: 141 (3.2%)
Academic rank	Professor: 7.3% Associate professor: 19.8% Senior lecturer: 49.8% Lecturer: 21.0% Others: 2.1%
Tenure	Full-time: 4280 (98.0%) Part-time: 26 (0.6%) Others: 62 (1.4%)
Doctoral degree	Yes: 3283 (75.2%) No: 1085 (24.8%)
Degrees outside Malaysia	First degree: 869 (19.9%) Second degree: 930 (21.3%) Doctoral degree: 1306 (29.9%) Postdoctoral: 127 (2.9%)

Table 2. APIKS indicators and items analysed.

Description	Items in APIKS survey	Response	Analysis and presentation
International orientation	C4 (teaching) – 3 statements • In your courses you emphasize international perspectives or content • Since you started teaching, the number of international students has increased • Your research activities reinforce your teaching	Five-point scale from *strongly agree to strongly disagree*	Descriptive - Percentages of *agree and strongly agree*
	D1 (research) – 1 statement • Do you collaborate with international colleagues?	Yes or No	
	D2 (research) – 1 statement • International in scope or orientation	Five-point scale from *not at all to very much*	
	D4 (publication) – 3 statements • Have published in a foreign country • Have co-authored with colleagues located in other (foreign) countries • Percentage of peer-reviewed publications	Open ended	
Institutional involvement in internationalisation	F6 - 8 statements on institutional strategy, recruitment of international faculty, opportunities for exchange programmes and conferences; international publications, undertaking research abroad, visiting international students and scholars Your institution: • Has clear strategy for internationalisation • Provides various international exchange programmes for students • Provides various opportunities/ funding for faculty members to undertake research abroad • Provides various opportunities/funding for visiting international students • Provides various opportunities/ funding for visiting international scholars • Encourages the recruitment of faculty members from foreign countries • Provides various opportunities/ funding for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad • Encourages faculty members to publish internationa	Five-point scale from *strongly agree to strongly disagree*	Descriptive - Percentages of *agree and strongly agree*
Internationalisation outcomes	F5 - outcomes • Enhanced prestige • Enhanced academic quality • Increased revenue • Enhanced research networks • Increased mobility of students • Increased mobility of faculty • Does not weaken cultural identity • Increased brain gain • Increased costs	Five-point scale from *not at all to very much*	Descriptive - Percentages of *a lot and very much*
Variables affecting internationalisation	Respondents' education background (A5 to: D1-5, D4-2, D4-4) • A5: Degree • D1-5: Do you collaborate with international colleagues • D4-4: % co-authored with colleagues located in other (foreign) countries	Open ended; Yes or No	Descriptive - Cross tabulation (percentages)
	Academic rank (A1 to: D1-5, D2-5, D4-4, D6-6) • A1: Academic rank (professor, associate professor, senior lecturer, lecturer) • D1-5: Do you collaborate with international colleagues • D2-5: International in scope or orientation • D4-4: % co-authored with colleagues located in other (foreign) countries • D6-6: % international funding agencies	Multiple choice; Yes or No; five-point scale from *not at all to very much;* open ended	
	Institution type (A0 to: F5, F6) • A0: Institution type (research university, comprehensive university, focused university, technical university)	Multiple choice; five-point scale from *not at all to very much;* five- point scale from *strongly agree to strongly disagree*	

The codes (e.g., C4, D1, D2, etc) represent item codes used in the survey.

variables included the presence or absence of international perspectives or content in their courses, whether their external activities reinforced their teaching, and if there was perceived increase in the number of international students since they started teaching. Research variables included two items, namely research collaboration with international colleagues, and the international scope or orientation of their primary research. Publication variables included three items: published in a "foreign" language; works were peer reviewed; and co-authored with colleagues located in other countries. Information on all three variables was used to determine the existence and scope of the academics' individual approaches to internationalisation.

In order to examine the academics' perceptions of the outcomes of internationalisation activities, nine variables related to rationale or motivation for internationalisation were used. Demographic variables affecting internationalisation included mobility across borders, i.e. whether they had received their degrees abroad, academic rank, and type of university. The difference in perceptions of the connection between mobility of scholars and the internationalisation of the academic profession was analysed with the assumption that experiences abroad may have had an impact on academic activities. International aca-

demic activities are likely to vary according to both structural and institutional features within which academics are embedded as well as according to their positions or academic characteristics, i.e. ranks, and types of universities which were used for the variables. These cross-sectional analyses of various cohorts or groups enabled a clear comparison between the groups in their internationalisation activities.

Results

The results section is divided into two levels of analysis: individual and institutional orientation for internationalisation.

International Orientation of Individual Academics

Overview of Teaching, Research and Publication

The respondents were prompted to characterise the "international" orientation of their teaching and research activities. A glance at ▮▮ Figure 1 suggests that the internationalisation of the contents of teaching is the most pervasive aspect of the internationalisation with 69.9 percent of the respondents reporting that their courses emphasised international perspectives or content. More than half of the respondents (56.7%) believed that their external activities reinforced their teaching.
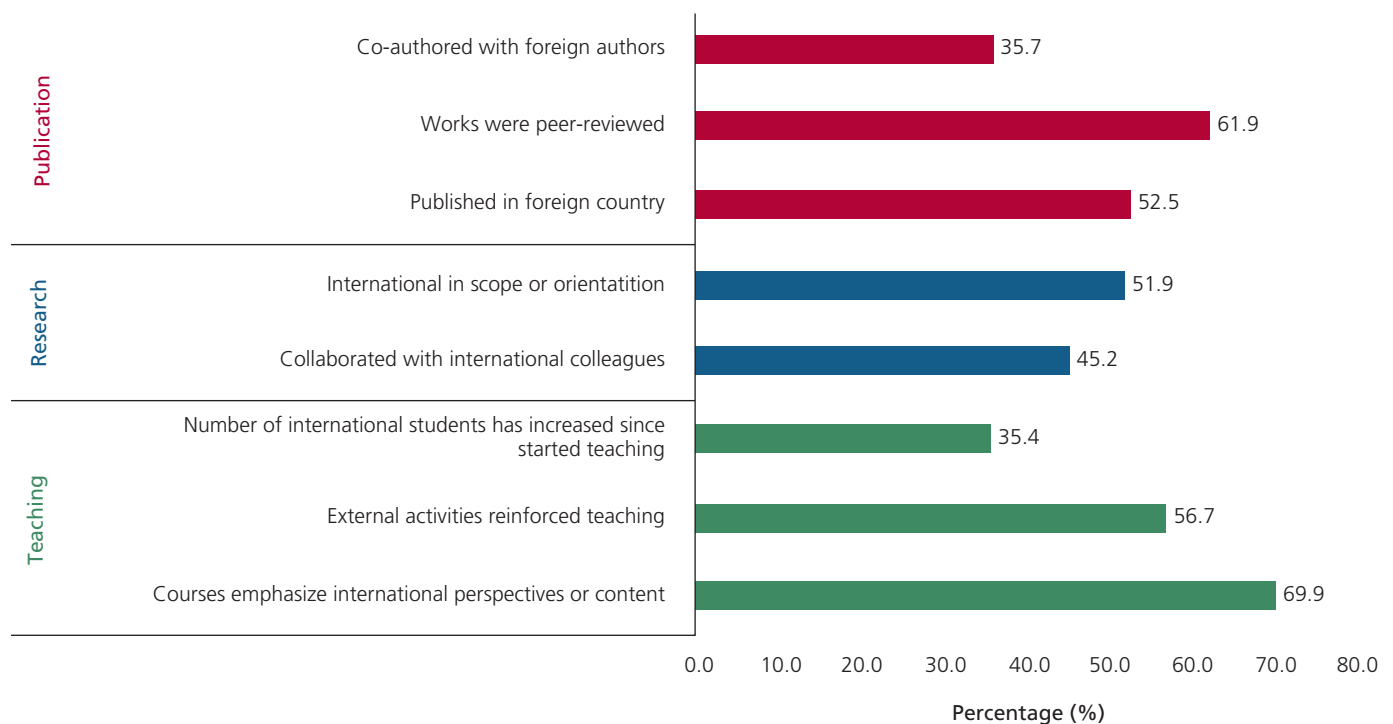
▮▮ Figure 1. International orientation in teaching, research and publication (percentages responding *to agree* and *strongly agree*; *Yes* or *No*; *a lot* and *very much* and open-ended statement).

A small proportion of academics were exposed to, or were part of, a growing global higher education market as only 35.4 percent observed that the number of international students had increased since they started teaching.

The proportion of academics who were internationally active in research varied, to a greater extent, among the respondents than the respective proportion active internationally in teaching. About 45 percent of the respondents collaborated with international colleagues, while slightly over half (51.9%) believed that their research was international in scope or orientation. As for the international orientation for publication, more than half of the respondents (52.5%) had published in a foreign country. A slightly higher percentage (61.9%) of respondents stated that their works had been peer-reviewed. However, only 35.7 percent of the respondents claimed to have co-authored publications with foreign/international authors.

In the following sections, we discuss the internationalisation of research by looking at two basic dimensions: a focus on the international content of research, and international collaboration in the research process and publication. Two demograph-

ic variables were selected for analysis: each academic's education background and academic rank.

Education Background

Of the 4368 respondents, 127 respondents (2.9%) had experienced post-doctoral stints abroad, while 1306 respondents (29.9%) had completed their doctoral studies abroad. A slightly lower proportion of respondents (21.3%) had obtained their second degree abroad, and a yet smaller proportion (19.9%) had received their first degree outside Malaysia. The largest group of respondents who had earned a degree abroad consisted of doctoral candidates (■ Figure 2).

Next, the level of degrees obtained abroad was cross tabulated with the respondents' involvement in internationalisation activities. Differences in the ratings given for internationalisation of scholarly activities seemed to be related to education background. In terms of collaborating with international colleagues in research, those with doctoral degrees from abroad reported the most activities (39.9%). This group also reported higher percentages in publication in foreign countries (21%)
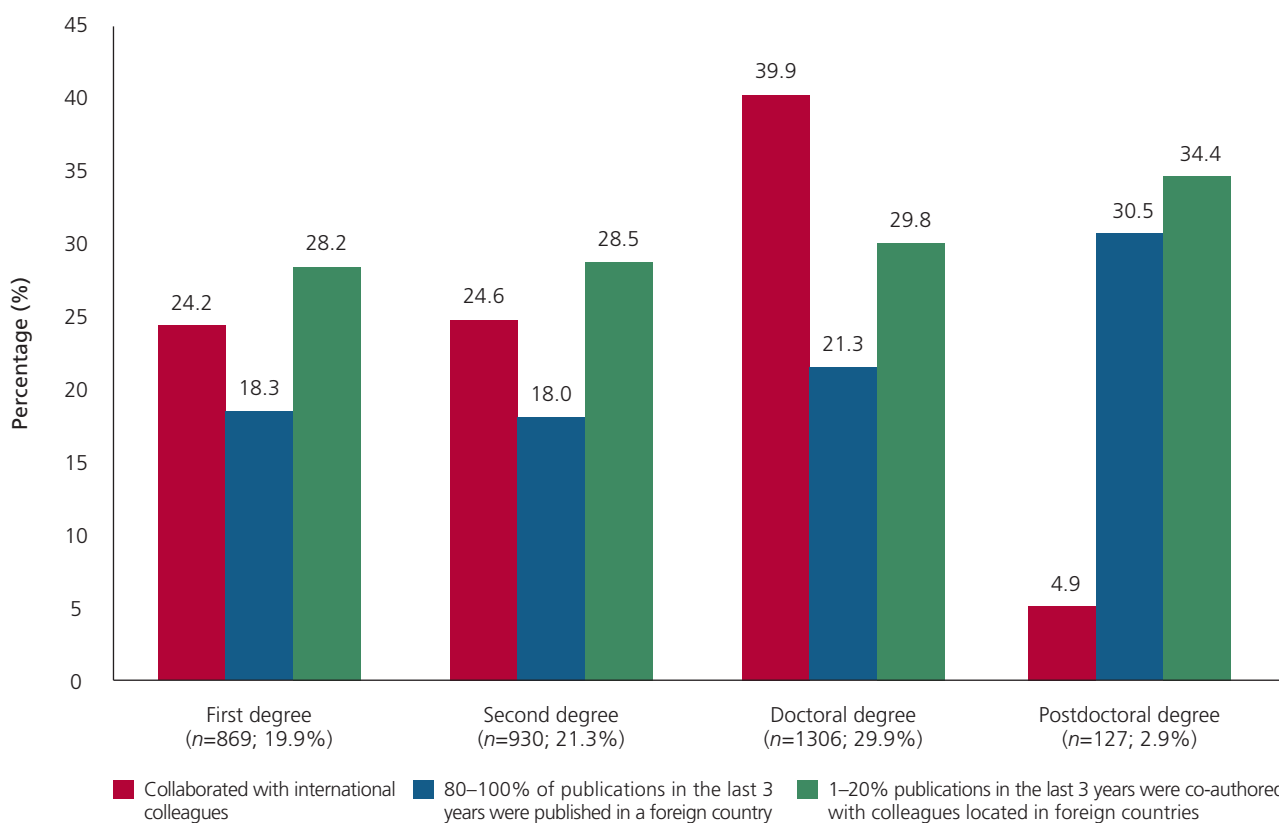
Figure 2. Degree outside Malaysia vs involvement in internationalisation activities (percentages responding to *Yes* or *No*; and to open-ended statements).

and publications co-authored with international colleagues in the last three years (29.8%) compared to those who had received their master's and undergraduate education abroad. The most interesting results came from those respondents with postdoctoral experience abroad who reported the highest ratings on the two items. This group of academics seemed to be more inclined to publish in foreign countries (30.5%) as they reported that over 80.0 percent of their papers had been published in a foreign country and with international colleagues (34.4%). Thus, although the number of respondents who went abroad for their post-doctoral training is notably small, it seemed that their stints abroad enabled them to integrate and reinforce the international orientation in their research activities more than was seen among their colleagues.

Appendix 1 provides data on differences in teaching activities by the groupings of academics with doctoral training from abroad and those with doctoral training in Malaysia. The *t*-test analyses showed no statistical difference between the two clusters of academics' doctoral training backgrounds (doctoral degree from abroad and doctoral training from home) in all the three teaching activities.

Academic Rank

The findings show that those Malaysian academics characterising their research as international in scope and collaborating with international colleagues in their research projects were unevenly distributed across academic ranks. Figure 3 shows stark differences between the respondents' academic rank and their involvement in internationalisation activities. Being in a higher academic rank seems to facilitate academics in accessing international opportunities in research and publication. The professors, being at the top of the pecking order of the academic profession, seemed to have greatly benefited in this respect: a higher proportion of the professors reported that they collaborated with international colleagues (82.9%), conducted research that was international in scope or orientation (75.0%), received funding from international agencies (17.3%), and published with colleagues located in a foreign country (73.1%).

The picture is bleak for senior lecturers and lecturers, who made up approximately more than 70 percent of the study sample, and are located at the low pecking order of the academic community. They reported lower levels of collaboration with
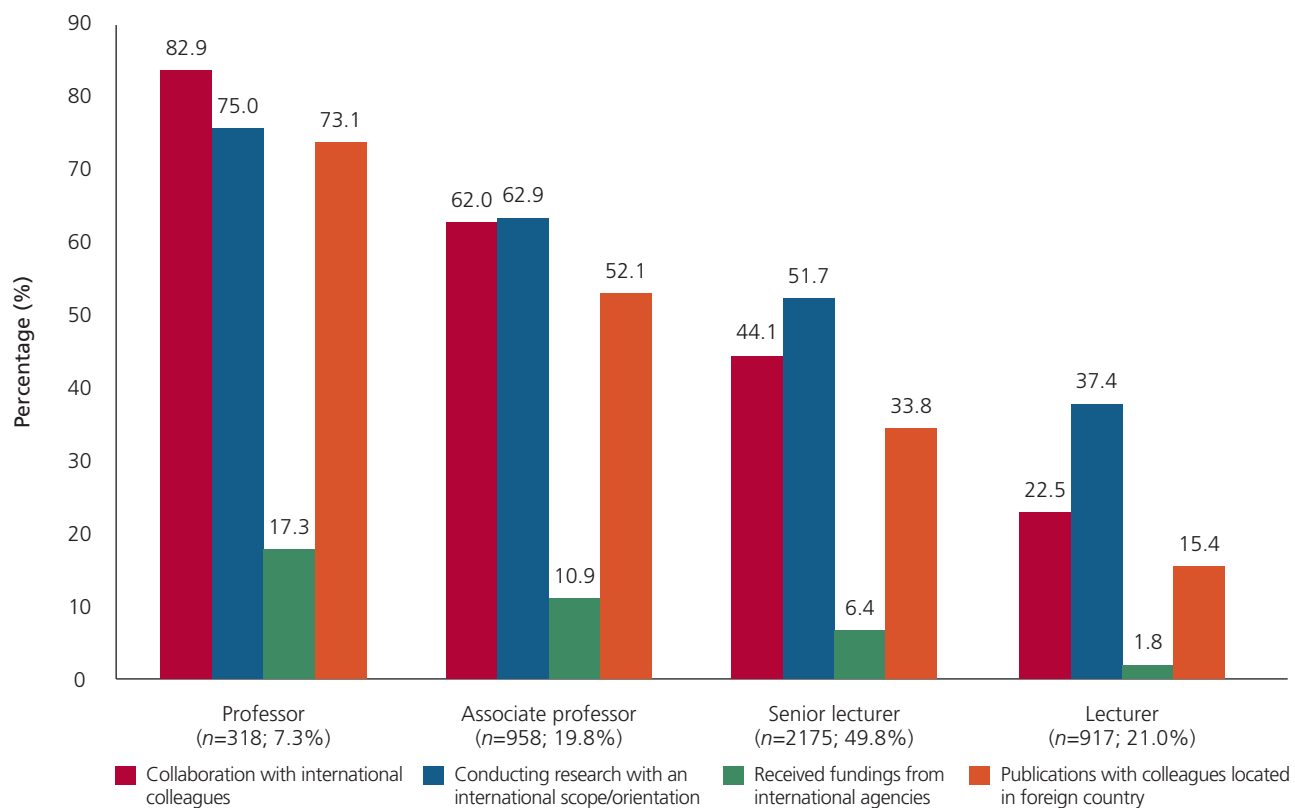
Figure 3. Academic rank and involvement in internationalisation activities (percentages responding to *a lot* and *very much*; *Yes* or *No*; and open-ended statements).

international colleagues (44.1% for senior lectures and 21% for lecturers), and conducted less research that is international in scope or orientation (51.7% for senior lecturers and 37% for lecturers). A much lower proportion of senior lecturers (6.4%) and lecturers (1.8%) claimed to have received funding from international agencies, and both groups had fewer opportunities to publish with colleagues located in a foreign country (33.8% and 15%, respectively).

■ Appendix 2 illustrates the results of the *t*-test showing differences between two career stage groups - junior (early career academics) and senior (late career academics) in their teaching activities. The career stage was divided into four ranks: lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor, professor, dichotomised into two subgroups of junior academics (lecturer and senior lecturer) and senior academics (associate professor and professor). The results indicate that differences exist in the mean scores of only one of the three items: external activities reinforced teaching ($t=6.406$, $p<0.045$).

International Orientation and Outcomes of Institutions

Institutional Involvement in Internationalisation

The respondents were asked to rate their institution's involvement in internationalisation. A total of eight statements were

presented for rating under this item (■ Figure 4). In general, the respondents believed that their respective institutions had a clear strategy for internationalisation (62.5%). They observed that their institutions encouraged the recruitment of academic members from foreign countries (44.3%). They also believed that their institutions provided various international exchange programmes for students (67.5%). Only a small proportion of the respondents (37%) indicated that their institutions provided opportunities for academic staff to attend international conferences abroad. An overwhelmingly positive response was given to the statement regarding international publications: over 85.4 percent of them believed that their institutions encouraged them to publish internationally.

The remaining three statements had almost equal proportions of positive (Likert scales 4 and 5), and neutral responses (Likert scale 3), and should be interpreted with caution. First, when asked whether their institutions provided opportunities for academic staff to undertake research abroad, 39.2 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, in contrast with 32.7 percent of respondents who were ambivalent on the subject. Next, when they were asked about opportunities for visiting international students, approximately one third of the respondents (32.8%) believed that their institu-
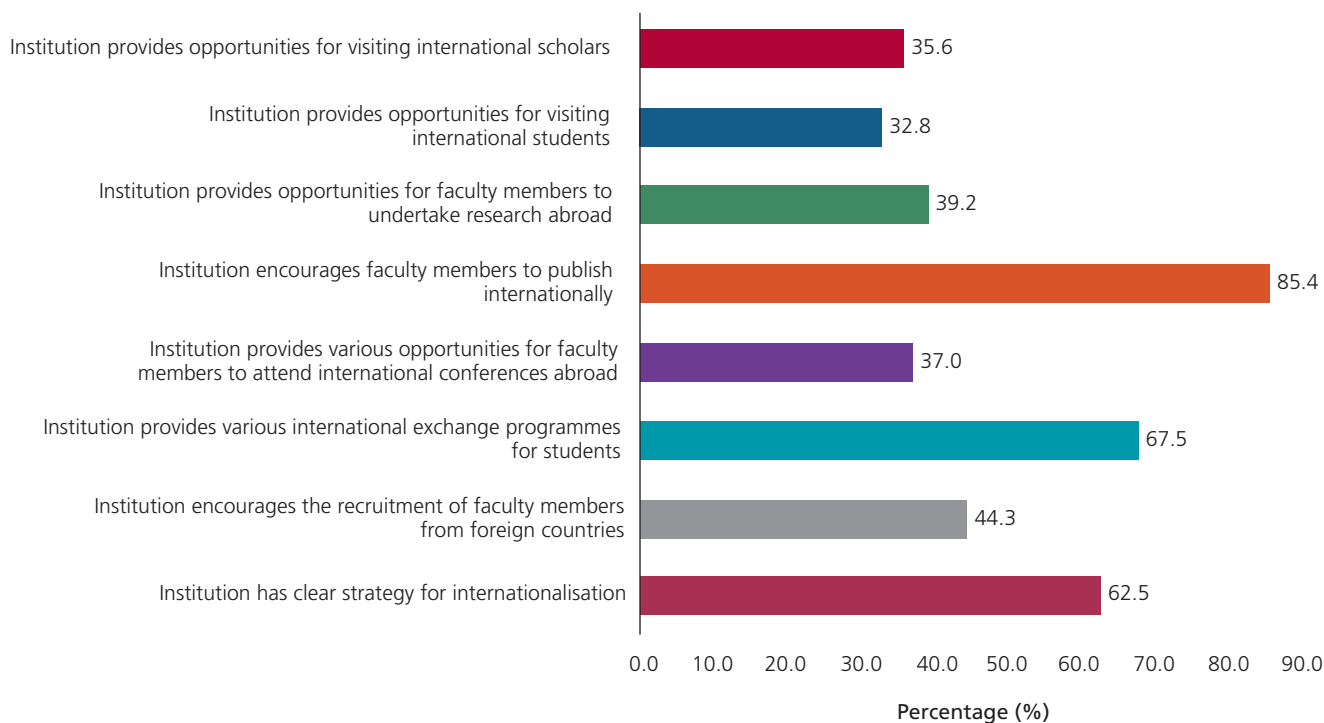
■ **Figure 4.** Institution's involvement in internationalisation (percentages responding to *agree* and *strongly agree*).

tions had made such opportunities available for prospective international students, in contrast to 38.8 percent of respondents who were unsure of their institution's contribution in this aspect. Finally, with regard to opportunities for having visiting international scholars, 35.6 percent of respondents believed that their institutions had made such opportunities available for prospective international scholars; however, 38.6 percent of respondents were unsure of their institution's contribution in this aspect.

The *t*-tests were also performed to see the differences between academic and career/stage groups with regard to institutional involvement in internationalisation. Results presented in ▪▪ Appendix 3 indicate that differences exist in the mean scores of five out of nine items: *(i)* institution encourages the recruitment of academic staff from foreign countries ($t=0.511$, $p<0.000$); *(ii)* institution provides various opportunities for academics to attend international conferences abroad ($t=0.945$, $p<0.049$); *(iii)* institution encourages academics to publish internationally ($t=5.621$, $p<0.000$); *(iv)* institution provides opportunities for visiting international students ($t=-1.916$, $p<0.033$); and *(v)* institution provides opportunities for visiting international scholars ($t=-0.420$, $p<0.000$). These

results indicate that differences between how the academics perceived institutional support for internationalisation seem to be dependent on the stage of their career and their academic experience.

▪▪ Appendix 4 also illustrates the results of the *t*-test for differences in the respondents' responses to institutional involvement based on their doctoral education background. Results of the *t*-test on the nine indices of internationalisation involvement indicate significant differences in only two items ($p<0.05$): *(i)* institution has clear strategy for internationalisation ($t=7.021$, $p<0.000$); and *(ii)* institution provides various international exchange programmes for students ($t=3.720$, $p<0.000$).

Internationalisation Outcomes for Institutions

The respondents were asked to rate the outcomes attained by their institutions through internationalisation. The term 'outcome' indicates an understanding of consequence, result, or effect that occurs due to internationalisation activities. A total of nine statements were presented for rating in response to this question (▪▪ Figure 5). Enhanced research network (76.1%), enhanced prestige (72.9%), and increased student mobility
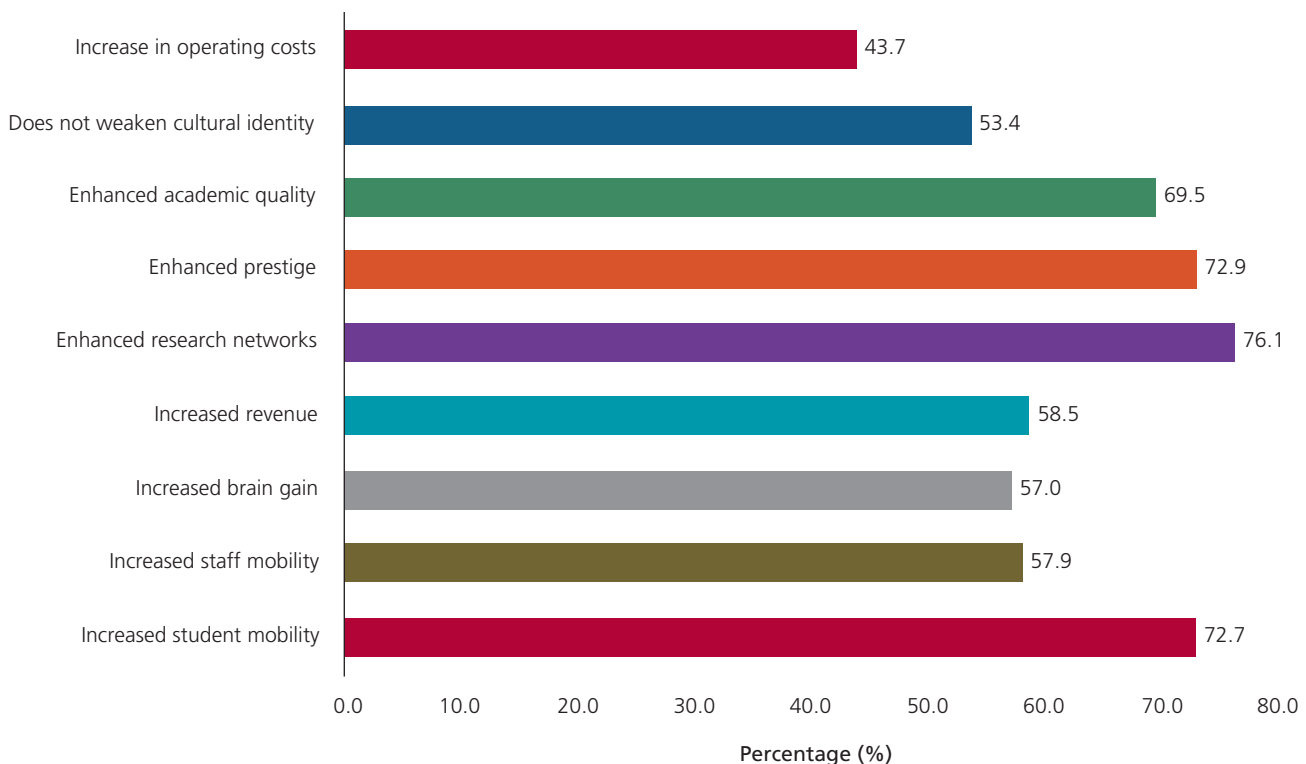
▪▪ Figure 5. Internationalisation outcomes (percentages responding to *a lot* and *very much*).

(72.7%) were considered the most pervasive outcomes of internationalisation. The next most prevalent outcome of academic internationalisation was the enhancement of academic quality (69.5%). More than half perceived that internationalisation had impacted staff mobility (57.9%), and had increased brain gain for their respective institutions (57%). More than half of the respondents (58.5%) also believed that internationalisation had increased revenue for their institution as a result of the incoming flow of international students. Slightly more than half of the respondents (53.4%) remarked that despite the intensity of internationalisation activities at their respective institutions, it did not weaken the cultural identity of their university community. However, there was still a price to pay for internationalisation as 43.7 percent respondents believed that their institutions had incurred an increase in operating costs associated with internationalisation activities.

Academics at different career stages/ranks (senior and junior), seemed to exhibit some patterns of differences in their institutional orientation for internationalisation. The results in ▉▉ Appendix 5 show evident differences in five out of nine items: increased revenue; enhanced research networks; increased mobility of students; increased mobility of academics and increased brain gain ($p<0.05$). Academic members at different career stages seemed to have different perceptions regarding mobility activities.

The t-test analyses were also conducted to see if differences existed between those who had received their doctoral training from abroad and those who had received their doctoral training locally regarding outcomes of internationalisation (▉▉ Appendix 6). The results indicate significant differences in seven out of nine items: *(i)* enhanced prestige ($t=4.390$, $p<0.002$); *(ii)* enhanced academic quality ($t=7.501$, $p<0.000$); *(iii)* increased revenue ($t=5.132$, $p<0.004$); *(iv)* increased mobility of students ($t=4.039$, $p<0.001$); *(v)* increased mobility of academics ($t=6.048$, $p<0.000$); *(vi)* does not weaken cultural identity ($t=0.708$, $p<0.005$); and *(vii)* increased brain gain ($t=5.716$, $p<0.000$). This means that consistent patterns of differences on aspects of internationalisation outcomes are evident between those who had their PhD experience abroad and those who experienced it locally.

Type of Institution

To further examine the institutional dimension of internationalisation, this section explores types of universities and their internationalisation outcomes and involvement. Seventeen cross tabulations were conducted using nine items from the institutional outcome variables and eight items from the institutional support variable. Of these seventeen cross tabulations, five outcomes variables and seven involvement variables respectively

were shown to be statistically significant using chi-square statistics. Therefore, it appears that the institutional type is related to some aspects of internationalisation involvement and outcomes. ▉▉ Table 3 shows the items included (institutional involvement and international outcomes) and whether the chi-square test showed statistical significance (S) or statistical insignificance (I) (at the 0.05 level; p=0.01) between the responses.

Some conclusions can be made from the data: a high proportion of academics from the research universities (RU) either strongly agreed or agreed with all the statements on institutional involvement and international outcomes compared to academics from the other types of universities. Academics from RUs demonstrated statistically agreement on the following internationalisation outcomes: enhanced prestige, increased revenue, enhanced research networks, increased mobility of academics, and increased costs. Conversely, academics from the technical universities (TU) seemed to show the least agreement on all the items on outcomes. The chi-square results are statistically significant for outcomes in enhancing prestige, research networks, as well as increasing revenue, mobility of academics, and costs. Other outcomes, although not statistically different across types of institutions, have more than 50% agreement on the opinion that these institutional outcomes are important.

In terms of internationalisation involvement, seven of the eight variables are statistically different across types of institutions. Academics from RUs show stronger agreement that their institutions have clear strategies for internationalisation (68.2%) and encourage them to publish internationally (90.8%), as compared to their peers in other types of institutions. Those in TU share the opinion that their institutions provide various international exchange programmes for students (77.0%), while those in focused universities (FU) agree that their institutions provide opportunities for academics to undertake research abroad (42.6%), opportunities to receive visiting international scholars (42.6%), and encourage the recruitment of foreign academics (59.8%). The agreement that their institutions provide opportunities for visiting international students has no statistical difference across different institutions where the level of agreement is between 32.2 percent and 36.6 percent.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the conceptual and policy considerations for this paper, we put forward our observations with regard to academics' involvement in internationalisation. First, that academics are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to engage in internationalisation activities, and international mobility is the main activity undertaken by them. Second, there is strong

Table 3. Type of institution vs institutional outcomes (percentages responding to *a lot* and *very much*) and involvement (percentages responding to *agree* and *strongly agree*).

Construct	Item	RU (*n*=1731)	CU (*n*=878)	FU (*n*=868)	TU (*n*=421)	Chi - square
Outcomes	Enhanced prestige	78.1	72.3	75.2	72.2	S
	Enhanced academic quality	72.4	70.5	73.7	70.1	I
	Increased revenue	61.8	57.9	60.1	59.1	S
	Enhanced research networks	80.5	77.0	78.8	76.5	S
	Increased mobility of students	73.0	73.6	77.9	78.4	I
	Increased mobility of faculty	60.7	57.9	62.7	56.5	S
	Does not weaken cultural identity	54.7	55.2	58.8	54.2	I
	Increased brain gain	59.7	57.1	60.3	59.6	I
	Increased costs	45.7	41.0	49.1	44.2	S
Involvement	Institution has clear strategy for internationalisation	68.2	62.5	65.3	59.4	S
	Institution encourages the recruitment of faculty members from foreign countries	38.9	41.9	59.8	48.7	S
	Institution provides various international exchange programmes for students	71.4	63.6	69.1	77.0	S
	Institution provides various opportunities for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad	36.9	39.5	48.5	41.1	S
	Institution encourages faculty members to publish internationally	90.8	86.0	89.9	83.4	S
	Institution provides opportunities for faculty members to undertake research abroad	37.7	35.6	42.6	40.9	S
	Institution provides opportunities for visiting international students	33.3	32.3	36.6	35.2	I
	Institution provides opportunities for visiting international scholars	36.8	33.1	42.6	36.3	S

CU: comprehensive university; **FU**: focused university; **I**: statistical insignificance at 0.05 level, *p*=0.01; **RU**: research university; **S**: statistical significance at 0.05 level, *p*=0.01; **TU**: technical university.

legitimation of the role of academics in the Malaysian higher education sphere to spearhead internationalisation through international mobility, community engagement, and research activities. We then used findings from the APIKS global survey to ascertain whether the two hypotheses are valid among academics in Malaysian HEIs. The main conclusions on the trends in the perceptions of Malaysian academics on internationalisation activities are summarised below.

Firstly, it was found that the Malaysian academics were rather international in their teaching and research orientations. This is in line with the findings of CAP 2007 indicating that the internationalisation of teaching is the most pervasive aspect of the internationalisation of the academic profession at the global level (Rostan, 2015). Malaysian academics seemed to be able to integrate an international dimension in the teaching content. The findings on international research collaboration corroborated with findings from the 2011–2012 international survey of university academics in five Asian countries (Cambodia, China, Taiwan, Japan, Malaysia and Vietnam) showed that the proportion of Malaysian academics collaborating with international

colleagues in research is higher compared to the average in Asia, but lower compared to the average in Europe (Huang, 2015; Huang et al., 2013).

Secondly, while international research collaboration was quite widespread among Malaysian academics, international publications were much less common. The data on co-authoring publications with colleagues in other countries shows that Malaysian academics reported higher percentages than those from North America but lower than those in Europe (Huang et al., 2013). Evidently, publishing with colleagues in other countries is most common for academics in mature systems, especially those in Western Europe, i.e. the Netherlands and Germany, and is also notable in Hong Kong, and in Australia (Rostan, Finkelstein, & Huang, 2014). As co-authorship is considered one of the reliable indirect indicators of international collaboration (Ductor, 2014; Slipersaeter & Aksens, 2010), it can be argued that if co-authorship among Malaysian academic staff increases, scientific collaboration across national borders will increase too.

Thirdly, with regard to the outcomes for international activities, prestige for individual institutions and quality enhance-

ment of academic programmes were perceived to be the most important. These outcomes leaned strongly towards the academic dimension of outcomes (Knight, 2008, 2012; Seeber, Cattaneo, Huisman, & Paleari, 2016), reflecting the institutionally organised efforts to achieve international recognition for quality higher education, considered necessary in a highly competitive higher education system and marketplace, as stated in the Malaysian Higher Education Blueprint. The respondents also reported that their institutions encouraged them to publish internationally; however, they could be lacking in the know-how and experience for pursuing publication activities with international partners. They seemed to be aware of institutional strategies in internationalisation, but were not fully convinced of sufficient commitment, in terms of funding to support the in/outbound movement of scholars for academic experience and research. They perceived internationalisation to be an expensive affair, and were concerned with the hefty cost that would be incurred with increased participation in internationalisation activities.

Fourthly, academics with prior international mobility experience, in particular those who had completed their doctoral and postdoctoral studies abroad, appeared to be more active in internationalisation. International mobility in the form of advanced degrees abroad appears to be strongly related to international research, and dissemination. The present finding seems to suggest that study mobility at advanced levels is a key factor in fostering international research activities among Malaysian faculties. It also supports previous CAP findings indicating that international mobility has a strong impact on international research activities (Hoffman, 2009; Rostan & Hohle, 2014). We observe that personal resources fostering international research activities, such as international visibility and professional expertise, or access to international research networks and capacity to attract external funding, start to accumulate very early in the careers of academics, mostly during their education. Thus, those having earned an advanced degree abroad may be more international because their experience abroad would have provided them with international networks, better foreign language proficiency, better intercultural competencies, and better knowledge of international colleagues/experts (Rostan et al., 2014; Rostan & Hohle, 2014). As a result, they might be more productive in terms of research publication, with greater access to international collaborators, as well as prior training and exposure to publication opportunities and platforms.

Such observations are perhaps the most important for policy makers, as they highlight aspects likely to affect institutional research collaboration and productivity. Institutional leaders cannot underestimate the significant role of international experience and socialization in their internationalisation efforts

(Festervand & Tillery, 2001; Finkelstein et al., 2013; Huang, 2007). Policies and programmes that enhance academics' mobility and international networking capacity will likely foster higher research productivity for those involved, particularly if the opportunities occur early in the academics' careers. Thus, strategic research investments should be targeted at young academics without international experience, and also those whose research niches have the greatest potential impact for society both at the national and international levels. These types of investments would require rethinking/reconstruction of the academic mobility, study abroad and postdoctoral policies by the Ministry of Higher Education and at the institutional level, so that every academic benefits from international experience and networking, subsequently building the social capital needed for international academic and research collaboration.

Fifthly, international involvement and outcomes seemed strongest within RU, followed by FU, and the weakest in TU. This is not surprising, as HEIs oriented towards research activity are more likely to adopt strategies for internationalisation as they are embedded in a global context more frequently and therefore tend to conceive of internationalisation as instrumental to prestige (Horta, 2009).

Finally, higher-ranked academics (professors) tend to be more involved in internationalisation, with the generalisation that the higher up one stands in the academic hierarchy, the greater is his/her engagement in internationalisation. In particular, Malaysian university professors report that they have an international scope in their research and collaborate internationally more often than junior academics. Patterns of differences between seniors and juniors were evident in mobility and networking-related institutional support as well as in providing opportunities for visiting international students and scholars. These findings confirm the existence of differences in age and ranks regarding international collaboration practices, perceptions on international outcomes, and institutional support (Rostan et al., 2014). Significant differences between academics with different doctoral training backgrounds (doctoral degree from abroad versus a local doctoral degree) were also evident in some aspects of institutional orientation to internationalisation and internationalisation outcomes. These findings show that experiences during doctoral education may have had an impact on the academics' perceptions on the role or inclination of institutions towards internationalisation, and the outcomes of internationalisation.

Findings of this study, although general in scope and descriptive in its presentation, presents different realities between what is envisioned by the State (represented by MoHE) in internationalisation, what is carried out by the HEIs, and what is actually implemented and experienced by the individual

academic. Such a dichotomy is typical of policy implementation that fails to strike a balance between short- and long-term goals in managing a multiplicity of stakeholders with competing interests and expectations (van Der Wal, 2017). The State's responsibility is in investing resources to HEIs, and in allocating resources to individual academics, in order to align national interests and political goals on internationalisation across all levels (Amaral, 2008). In the Malaysian context, the intent and commitment has been well ascertained through various ministerial documents; what is lacking at present is the effort to incentivise and acknowledge academics' involvement in internationalisation.

At this juncture, it is also appropriate to review professional development and training of academics across all academic ranks. Tran and Nghia (2020) argue that higher education leaders must develop new capacities, knowledge and skills beyond their traditional expertise in order to effectively shape the internationalisation agenda of their institutions. Although their study focuses on senior leaders in Australian higher education, we believe that their recommendation on the five dimensions of professional development needs is also applicable for the Malaysian academic profession. The five dimensions are: awareness and skills to work across cultural differences, knowledge of policy changes and emergent trends with expertise to respond, leadership and management skills targeted for internationalisation, networking and relationship management skills to work with increasingly diverse and non-traditional stakeholders, and research skills. Within the context of this study, these dimensions are appropriate for inclusion in professional development plans for academic staff, beyond the conventional training in teaching and assessment methods.

Reflecting on findings from previous iterations of APIKS, of which Malaysia was a participating member country for 2007 and 2019, it was found that international mobility remains a consistent feature in the internationalisation of Malaysian academics. This finding contributes to the growing research interest in strategic approaches to internationalisation targeting emerging higher education systems in developing countries. However, as pointed out by de Wit and Altbach (2021), the COVID-19 global pandemic has upended the notion of travelling, both within and outside the country for academic conferences, research attachments, and other forms of knowledge sharing and international collaboration activities in all higher education systems. It might be appropriate to look at Mittelmeier, Rienties, Rogaten, Gunter and Raghuram's (2019) concept of Internationalisation at a Distance (IaD), defined as "…all forms of education across borders where students, their respective staff, and institutional provisions are separated by geographical distance and supported by technology…" (p. 2).

Academics should leverage on the use of the Internet and video conferencing facilities to continue their pursuit of collaboration and excellence via the computer screen, and consequently maintain, to an extent, the lustre and possibilities of international mobility in such difficult times.

References

Abramo, G., D'Angelo, C. A., & Di Costa, F. (2009). Research collaboration and productivity: Is there correlation? *Higher Education*, *57*(2), 155–171.

Amaral, A. (2008). Transforming higher education. In A. Amaral, I. Bleiklie, & C. Musselin (Eds.), *From governance to identity* (pp. 81–94). Dordrecht: Springer.

Andreasen, R. J. (2003). Barriers to international involvement. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education*, *10*(3), 65–69.

Appe, S. (2020). Internationalisation in the context of academic capitalism. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, *15*(1), 62–68.

Azman, N., & Wan, C. D. (2021). The rhetoric and reality of Malaysian higher education internationalisation policy and its strategic initiatives. In J. Thondhlana, E. C. Garwe, H. de Wit, J. Gacel-Avila, F. Huang, & W. Tamrat (Eds.), *The Bloomsbury handbook of the internationalisation of higher education in the global South* (pp. 115–134). London: Bloomsbury Academic.

Buckner, E., & Stein, S. (2020). What counts as internationalisation? Deconstructing the internationalisation imperative. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *24*(2), 151–166.

de Wit, H., & Altbach, P. G. (2021). Internalization in higher education: Global trends and recommendations for its future. *Policy Reviews in Higher Education*, *5*(1), 28–46.

Dewey, P., & Duff, S. (2009). Reason before passion: Faculty views on internationalisation in higher education. *Higher Education*, *58*(4), 491–504.

Donald, J. (2007). Internationalisation, diversity and the humanities curriculum: Cosmopolitanism and multiculturalism revisited. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, *41*(3), 289–308.

Ductor, L (2014). Does co-authorship lead to higher academic productivity? *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 77(3), 385–407.

Festervand, T. A., & Tillery, K. R. (2001). Short-term study-abroad programs: A professional development tool for international business faculty. *Journal of Education for Business*, 77(2), 106–111.

Finkelstein, M., & Sethi, W. (2014). Patterns of faculty internationalisation: A predictive model. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy. The changing academy: The Changing academic profession in international comparative perspective* (Vol. *10*, pp. 237–257). Dordrecht: Springer.

Finkelstein, M. J., Walker, E., & Chen, R. (2013). The American faculty in an age of globalization: Predictors of internationalisation of research content and professional networks. *Higher Education*, *66*(3), 325–340.

Friesen, R. (2013). Faculty member engagement in Canadian university internationalisation: A consideration of understanding, motivations and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *17*(3), 209–227.

Hoffman, D. M. (2009). Changing academic mobility patterns and international migration: What will academic mobility mean in the 21st century? *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *13*, 347–364.

Horta, H. (2009). Global and national prominent universities: Internationalisation, competitiveness and the role of the State. *Higher Education*, *58*(3), 387–405.

Huang, F. (2007). Internationalisation of higher education in the developing and emerging countries: A focus on transnational higher education in Asia. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *11*(3–4), 421–432.

Huang, F. (2015). The internationalisation of the academy in East Asia. In U. Teichler, & W. K. Cummings (Eds.), *Forming, recruiting and managing the academic profession* (pp. 259–270). Dordrecht: Springer.

Huang, F., Finkelstein, M., & Rostan, M. (Eds.). (2013). *The internationalisation of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalisation remodelled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *8*(1), 5–31.

Knight, J. (2008). *Higher education in turmoil: The changing world of internationalisation*. Leiden: BRILL Publisher.

Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalisation of higher education. In D. K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of international higher education* (pp. 27–42). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

LeBeau, L. G. (2010). The international mobility of the American faculty: Scope and challenges. *Journal of the Indiana University Student Personnel Association*, *2010*, 41–47.

Lee, M. N. N. (2015). Higher education in Malaysia: National strategies and innovative practices. In J. C. Shin, G. A. Postiglione, & F. Huang (Eds.), *Mass higher education development in East Asia* (Vol. *2*, pp. 105–118). Cham: Springer.

Li, B., & Tu, Y. (2016). Motivations of faculty engagement in internationalisation: A survey in China. *Higher Education*, 7*1*(1), 81–96.

Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA). (2009). *Code of practice for institutional audit*. Petaling Jaya, Selangor: Malaysian Qualifications Agency.

Marquina, M., & Ferreiro, M. (2015). The academic profession: The dynamics of emerging countries. In W. K. Cummings, & U. Teichler (Eds.), *The relevance of academic work in comparative perspective* (pp. 179–192). Cham: Springer.

Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) Malaysia (2007). *Pelan strategik pendidikan tinggi negara 2020*. Putrajaya: Ministry of Higher Education.

Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) Malaysia (2011a). *Malaysia's global reach: A new dimension*. Putrajaya: Ministry of Higher Education.

Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) Malaysia (2011b). *Internationalisation policy for higher education Malaysia*. Putrajaya: Ministry of Higher Education.

Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) Malaysia (2015). *Malaysia education blueprint (higher education 2015–2025)*. Putrajaya: Ministry of Higher Education.

Mittelmeier, J., Rienties, B., Rogaten, J., Gunter, A., & Raghuram, P. (2019). Internationalisation at a distance and at home: Academic and social adjustment in a South African distance learning context. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *72*, 1–12.

Rostan, M. (2015). International aspects of academic work and career at the beginning of the twenty-first century. In U. Teichler, & W. K. Cummings (Eds.), *Forming, recruiting and managing the academic profession* (pp. 241–258). Dordrecht: Springer.

Rostan, M., Finkelstein, M., & Huang, F. (2014). A profile of CAP participating countries and a global overview of academic internationalisation in 2007–2008. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy: Rhetoric, recent trends, and prospects* (pp. 37–54). Dordrecht: Springer.

Rostan, M., & Hohle, E. A. (2014). The international mobility of faculty. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalisation of the academy: Rhetoric, recent trends, and prospects* (pp. 79–104). Dordrecht: Springer.

Sack, R., & Jalloun, O. (2017). Merging and demerging education ministries in Malaysia. *International Higher Education*, *88*, 20–22.

Sanderson, G. (2008). A foundation for the internationalisation of the academic self. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *12*(3), 276–307.

Seeber, M., Cattaneo, M., Huisman, J., & Paleari, S. (2016). Why do higher education institutions internationalise? An investigation of the multilevel determinants of internationalisation rationales. *Higher Education*, *72*(5), 685–702.

Slipersaeter, S., & Aksens, D. W. (2010). The many ways of internationalisation: Patterns of R&D funding and collaboration. In A. Gornitzka, & L. Langfeldt (Eds.), *Borderless knowledge: Understanding the "new" internationalisation of research and higher education in Norway* (pp. 13–31). Dordrecht: Springer.

Teichler, U., Arimoto, A., & Cummings, W. K. (2013). *The changing academic profession*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Tran, L. T., & Nghia, T. L. H. (2020). Leadership in international education: Leaders' professional development needs and tensions. *Higher Education*, *80*, 479–495.

van Der Wal, Z. (2017). *The 21st century public manager*. London: Palgrave.

Wan, C. D., & Abdullah, D. (2021). Internationalisation of Malaysian higher education: Policies, practices and the SDGs. *International Journal of Comparative Education and Development*, *23*(3), 212–226.

Webber, L. W. (2012). Research productivity of foreign and US-born faculty: Differences by time on task. *Higher Education*, *64*, 709–729.

■ **Appendix 1.** Differences in internationalization of teaching activities based on doctoral degrees from home and abroad.

Construct	Item	p*	t	Mean diff.
Teaching	Courses emphasize international perspectives or content	0.108	-4.117	-0.128
	Number of international students has increased since started teaching	0.442	-2.679	-0.127
	External activities reinforced teaching	0.219	-0.227	-0.009

*Significant at $p<0.05$; home (n=1719); abroad (n=1154).

■ **Appendix 2.** Differences in international orientation in teaching by academic career stage/rank: senior and junior.

Construct	Item	p	t	Mean diff.
Teaching	Courses emphasize international perspectives or content	0.410	5.251	0.159
	Number of international students has increased since started teaching	0.272	6.908	0.321
	External activities reinforced teaching	0.045*	6.406	0.244

*Significant at $p<0.05$; senior (n=1034); junior (n=2604).

■ **Appendix 3.** Differences in perception on institutional involvement in internationalization by academic career stage/rank: senior and junior.

Construct	Item	p	t	Mean diff.
Involvement	Institution has clear strategy for internationalisation	0.420	1.528	0.049
	Institution encourages the recruitment of faculty members from foreign countries	0.000*	0.511	0.019
	Institution provides various international exchange programmes for students	0.938	2.163	0.069
	Institution provides various opportunities for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad	0.049*	0.945	0.041
	Institution encourages faculty members to publish internationally	0.000*	5.621	0.146
	Institution provides opportunities for faculty members to undertake research abroad	0.916	-2.129	-0.086
	Institution provides opportunities for visiting international students	0.033*	-1.916	-0.075
	Institution provides opportunities for visiting international scholars	0.000*	-0.420	-0.016

*Significant at $p<0.05$; senior (n=1034); junior (n=2604).

■ **Appendix 4.** Differences in perception on institutional involvement in internationalization by doctoral education background: doctoral training from abroad and doctoral training from home.

Construct	Item	p	t	Mean diff.
Involvement	Institution has clear strategy for internationalisation	0.000*	7.021	0.240
	Institution encourages the recruitment of faculty members from foreign countries	0.088	4.992	0.185
	Institution provides various international exchange programmes for students	0.000*	3.720	0.123
	Institution provides various opportunities for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad	0.531	6.714	0.302
	Institution encourages faculty members to publish internationally	0.470	0.239	0.007
	Institution provides opportunities for faculty members to undertake research abroad	0.343	6.934	0.294
	Institution provides opportunities for visiting international students	0.547	7.376	0.294
	Institution provides opportunities for visiting international scholars	0.619	7.843	0.303

*Significant at $p<0.05$; home (n=1816); abroad (n=1228).

■ **Appendix 5.** Differences in perception on internalization outcomes by academic career stage/rank: senior and junior.

Construct	Item	p	t	Mean diff.
Outcomes	Enhanced prestige	0.139	2.668	0.083
	Enhanced academic quality	0.621	1.828	0.059
	Increased revenue	0.001*	-0.551	-0.020
	Enhanced research networks	0.002*	0.653	0.020
	Increased mobility of students	0.010*	-0.066	-0.002
	Increased mobility of faculty	0.010*	0.405	0.015
	Does not weaken cultural identity	0.992	0.500	0.020
	Increased brain gain	0.000*	-3.193	-0.110
	Increased costs	0.113	2.664	0.085

*Significant at *p*<0.05; senior (*n*=1102); junior (*n*=2796).

■ **Appendix 6.** Differences in perception on internalization outcomes by doctoral education background: doctoral training from abroad and doctoral training from home.

Construct	Item	p	t	Mean diff.
Outcomes	Enhanced prestige	0.002*	4.390	0.145
	Enhanced academic quality	0.000*	7.501	0.257
	Increased revenue	0.004*	5.132	0.191
	Enhanced research networks	0.938	4.196	0.132
	Increased mobility of students	0.001*	4.039	0.130
	Increased mobility of faculty	0.000*	6.048	0.225
	Does not weaken cultural identity	0.005*	0.708	0.029
	Increased brain gain	0.000*	5.716	0.200
	Increased costs	0.959	-1.427	-0.048

*Significant at *p*<0.05; home (*n*=1816); abroad (*n*=1228).

International Research Collaboration in Turkish Higher Education: The Role of Individual, Professional, and Institutional Factors

Türk Yükseköğretiminde Uluslararası Araştırma İş Birlikleri: Bireysel, Mesleki ve Kurumsal Faktörlerin Rolü

Alper Çalıkoğlu[1] (iD), Yaşar Kondakçı[2] (iD), Fatma Nevra Seggie[3] (iD)

[1]Çanakkale Borsa Istanbul Vocational School, Çanakkale, Türkiye
[2]Department of Educational Sciences, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Türkiye
[3]Department of Educational Sciences, Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Türkiye

Özet

Küreselleşmenin yükseköğretimdeki etkisi, hem üniversiteleri hem de akademisyenleri uluslararası araştırma iş birliklerine daha fazla katılmaya zorlamaktadır. Türkiye'de de benzer şekilde, devletin ve üniversitelerin son dönem stratejileri akademisyenlerin uluslararası iş birliği kurma konusundaki çabalarını güçlü şekilde teşvik etmektedir. Bu çalışma, Türk yükseköğretiminde uluslararası araştırma iş birliğini etkileyen faktörleri, akademisyenlerin tutum ve davranışlarına göre incelemektedir. Çalışmada survey deseni çerçevesinde, uluslararası bir araştırma projesinin ilgili sorularına dayalı olarak, uluslararası araştırma iş birliği kurma ile bireysel, mesleki ve kurumsal faktörler arasındaki ilişkiler araştırılmıştır. Bulgularımız, küresel trendlere rağmen, araştırmaya katılan akademisyenlerin, dikkate değer bir kısmının uluslararası araştırma iş birliği kurmadığını göstermektedir. Ayrıca, doktora derecesini yurtdışından alma, yüksek akademik unvanlara sahip olma, vakıf üniversitelerinde görev yapıyor olma ve multidisipliner ya da uluslararası odağı olan araştırma yöneliminin uluslararası araştırma iş birliği kurmada etkili olduğu görülmüştür. Çalışmanın sonunda bulgular, yükseköğretimde ulusal gelişmeler ve küresel eğilimler çerçevesinde tartışılarak politika oluşturuculara ve yöneticilere önerilerde bulunmuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: Akademisyenlik mesleği, APIKS, Türk yükseköğretimi, uluslararası araştırma iş birlikleri, uluslararasılaşma.

Abstract

Globalizing forces in higher education put growing pressure on both institutions and academics worldwide to become engaged in international research collaboration (IRC). Similarly, in Türkiye, the recent governmental and institutional strategies have been ambitiously promoting academics' endeavors toward IRC. This study examines factors influencing IRC in Turkish higher education based on academics' attitudes and behaviors. We utilized relevant questions of an international research project and investigated the relationships between IRC and individual, professional, and institutional factors through a survey design. Our findings indicate that despite globalizing trends, a considerable proportion of the participant Turkish academics tend not to establish IRC. We also found that obtaining a doctoral degree abroad, holding higher academic titles, being employed in foundation universities, and orientation towards research that is multidisciplinary or international in scope are influential in establishing IRC. Based on national (i.e., Türkiye) developments and global trends in higher education and the academic profession, we discuss our findings and suggest measures and actions for policymakers and administrators.

Keywords: Academic profession, APIKS, international research collaboration, internationalization, Turkish higher education.

H igher education (HE) is considered an international field of practice (Kerr, 1994), and the university has always had an international dimension ever since its emergence (Enders, 2004). However, internationalization in HE has recently gained new meanings. Thus, new trends and developments have been putting mounting pressure on HE organizations to internationalize (Knight, 2004). As a result, internationalization in HE has been adopted as a policy agenda for governments (Mason, Merga, Canché, & Roni, 2021), strategic orientation for universities, research field for scholars, and a career option for administrative staff members at universities (Bulut Şahin, 2017).

Internationalization in HE has been accepted as a norm (Horvath, Weber, & Wicki, 2000). Specifically, the interna-

tionalization of research has been considered an indicator of a competitive knowledge economy (Kwiek, 2018). Different scholars (e.g., Horvath et al., 2000; Kwiek, 2018) have indicated that small countries rely more on international input for building their intellectual sources. The same argument is equally valid in the transformative era of HE systems. In that sense, international scholars play the same role in constructing the HE system in Türkiye. Güvenç (1998) and Dölen (2013) indicated the role of international scholars in gaining a modern teaching and research institution for Turkish HE organizations. For example, German scientists escaping the Nazi prosecution played a critical role in constructing several disciplines in Turkish universities (Güvenç, 1998).

Kwiek (2016; 2018; 2020) distinguished between international research orientation (IRO) and international research collaboration (IRC), where collaboration refers to behavior, and orientation refers to the precursors of this behavior (Kwiek, 2018). More specifically, IRO is defined as an academic attitude empowering IRC (Kwiek, 2016). However, the existence of IRO does not always guarantee IRC. Several economic, political, social, and cultural barriers may impede the transfer of IRO into actual behavior. The financial cost and structural flexibility are essential to make IRC flourish in a particular context (Kweik, 2018; 2020). Kwiek (2020, p. 57) also distinguished between "internationalists" and "locals" in academic research and defined the internationalists as "the scientists involved in international research collaboration." The first group is "mobile, cosmopolitan, career-oriented academics (loyal to outside reference groups" while the latter is "immobile, and institution-oriented academics (loyal to inside reference groups)" (Kwiek, 2020, p. 61). These orientations are formed based on the norms of the academic profession (Kwiek, 2018). Nevertheless, despite this general classification, scholars warned that these orientations may not always be absolute. In addition to local vs. international orientation, mixed-type researchers in terms of cosmopolitan interest and local commitment can be witnessed (Rhoades, Kiyama, McCormick, & Quiroz, 2008).

Several scholars indicated the pitfalls of monopolistic research and stated the importance of IRC for countries, institutions, and individual academics. From a national and institutional perspective, internationalization in research is a source of legitimacy against power imbalances. These power imbalances are often caused by publications originating from geographical homogeneity (Arnett, 2016). Investments of different countries in their research infrastructures and HE systems lead to improvement in the capacities of their systems and growth in the number of scholars; however, the research outputs are majorly skewed towards Western societies (Jung & Horta,

2013; Tight, 2012). One of the major concerns over monopolies in research results is that this monopolistic view often reflects the needs and expectations of well-established and well-resourced societies in knowledge production; however, it tends to neglect the rest of the world (Jung & Horta, 2003; Collyer, 2008). Through this monopolistic view, the knowledge produced for well-established and well-resourced societies is shared with other countries where the local dynamics would lead to totally different research outcomes. Hence, although HE systems claim to be international by their very nature, in reality, the knowledge produced does not always reflect the international community's needs. As a result, contrary to the expected claims, HE turns out to be a mechanism reproducing the power imbalance across the center and periphery in the global context (Khoo, 2011; Moseneaga & Agergaard, 2012). Liu, Liu, Jiang, Lin, and Xu (2019) indicated that focusing too much inward and being Western-oriented leads to a repetitive focus on research themes serving the Western context. Mason and others (2021) documented the Western hegemony in the field of HE stating that "'the west', and the USA more specifically has become a 'default' context for research is illustrated not only by its own dominance in journal communities, but also through the assumption that regional nomenclature (as in 'the midwest') is universally known, and the widespread lack of reporting of geographical context" (p. 12).

From an individual academic's perspective, IRC is a source of reputation for academics and a basis of legitimacy for HE organizations. Kwiek (2020) argued that IRC is a decisive stratifying factor for researchers as it generates more resources and prestige. However, the prestige of international research does serve not only individual academics but also HE organizations. IRC is a source of professional recognition for academics (Kwiek, 2016; Wagner & Leydesdorff, 2005), which helps to secure more research funds (Jeong, Choi, & Kim, 2014). In that sense, IRC is a source of legitimacy for the institutions (Horvath et al., 2000). On the other hand, IRC is seen as a powerful approach to increase the impact of research. Recent trends and developments in HE organizations' social and economic surroundings put more and more pressure on academics for increased quality and quantity in their research output. The impact of academic research has been a valued indicator of the research quality, and collaboration with international scholars is indicated as an effective way of improving research impact (Kwiek, 2018). As a result, national and international research funding agencies have adopted policies that foster international collaboration in research. One of the responses of the academics to the pressure for research output is international collaboration in research.

As we elaborate later in the upcoming sections, with all the increasing pressures for academics and institutions given above, IRC has become a prominent issue of inquiry in a multi-factor concept gaining importance both in Türkiye and the world. Given this, the purpose of our study is to examine factors related to IRC in Turkish HE according to academics' attitudes. Based on the Türkiye stage of an international survey, we investigate the relationships between IRC and individual, professional, and institutional factors. For this purpose, we seek the answers to the following specific research questions (for Turkish academics):

- Is there a significant association between IRC and selected individual, professional, and institutional factors?
- Which individual, professional, and institutional factors are significantly related to IRC?

Theoretical Considerations

Complexity Theory

Factors contributing to IRC are located at different levels (individual, institutional, national, and transnational). The patterns causing IRC on the part of the researchers result from the complex interaction of these factors in a country and institutional context. In other words, factors giving way to IRC are multiple and located at various levels such as academic discipline, the institutions' strategic orientation, and national policies and reward systems in these policies. As a result, we believe the concepts of complexity theory (e.g., self-organizing, non-linearity, emergence, continuous adaptation) inhabit the intricacies embodied in the IRC (Melin, 2000; Wagner, 2018; Wagner & Leydesdorff, 2005).

Complexity theory asserts that chaotic situations can create order, and there is an order in disorder (Patton, 2002). Relying on the observations on what looks like highly disorganized entities such as atoms, a colony of ants, a flock of birds, and the stock market, complexity theory argues that there is an order and harmony in the behaviors of these entities (Coveney & Highfield, 1995). Specific properties of complexity theory such as self-organizing, continuous adaptation, non-linear progression, and the emergence of novelty make complexity theory applicable to explain IRC. Here, we consider the concept of self-organizing particularly instrumental in explaining the dynamics of IRC. Applying self-organizing to IRC suggests that the academy's general rules exist subconsciously, and individual academics follow the general rules in regulating their actions. According to Coleman (1999), a complex system needs a simple rule and a goal to enable the system to operate without external control, direction, and guid-

ance. Random variations push individual members of a system (in our case, academics in universities) to react to variation in their environments, make a decision and find a direction. As a result, the self-organizing principle guides the individual to operate without any systematic external imperative.

Several scholars advanced self-organizing systems to explain IRC as a powerful theoretical tool (Kwiek, 2020; Melin, 2000; Wagner, 2018; Wagner & Leydesdorff, 2005). The concept emphasizes that academics individually determine their professional orientation and the focus of their academic activities; thus, individual motivation drives academics towards reputation and resources (Wagner & Leydesdorff, 2005). As such, academics often create their occasions of collaboration, typically international scientific meetings. Hence, IRC can be considered a self-organizing activity of dynamic networks, where the IRO facilitates the collaboration of researchers (Wagner, 2018).

Motivation in the Academic Profession and Factors Powering IRC

Motivational factors for scholars to carry out academic work can be grouped under two categories: internal and external (Eimers, 1997). Internal factors include intrinsic motivations like producing meaningful work, helping students and society for the public good, and scientific activities led by intellectual curiosity or performed to expand disciplinary knowledge. On the other hand, external factors are more closely associated with institutional and environmental features such as leadership and material support, recognition and rewarding mechanisms, and tenure and promotion opportunities (Eimers, 1997; Kezar, Maxey, & Holcombe, 2015). As Eimers argues (1997), although internal factors appear more motivating in several circumstances, external motivations are also vital in maintaining academics' scholarly activities in HE.

When it comes to IRC, both internal and external motivations lead academics. Several scholars (Kyvik & Larsen, 1994; Kwiek, 2020; Wagner, 2018) indicated that individual, professional, institutional, national, and transnational factors drive academics to develop IRO and become involved in IRC. Finkelstein, Walker, and Chen (2013) asserted that internationalization is undeniably related to individual academic' value systems and priorities. Given the individualized nature of the academic profession and professional autonomy, a top-down imperative may not be consistently effective in redirecting the focus of academics from local to international orientation in research. Furthermore, as IRC means better chances to publishing and more prestige, it may bring a better position in stratification (Hoekman, Frenken, & Tijssen, 2010). However,

the researcher needs a critical mass before becoming visible to other scholars and attracting other scholars' attention to collaborating with (Kyvik & Larsen, 1994).

Academics' individual and professional backgrounds play a significant role in developing an IRO and involving in IRC. Research has shown that middle-aged man academics with higher positions often tend to become more involved in IRC (Kwiek, 2018; Rostan, Ceravolo, & Metcalfe, 2014; Vabø, Padilla-Gonzalez, Waagene, & Naess, 2014; Fox, Realff, Rueda, & Morn, 2017). Kwiek (2020) elaborated on the characteristics of international collaborators. He stated that internationalists are, in general, males with longer academic experience and higher academic positions, who spend most of their time on academic and administrative tasks rather than teaching. As a result, the internationalists appear concerned with producing knowledge for the international market and the local one (Kwiek, 2020).

Several scholars indicated the discipline as another factor that contributes to international cooperation. For instance, academics in natural sciences collaborated more than researchers in social science and professions (Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014). Moreover, the discipline often regulates international orientation, international qualification, and international behaviors (cooperation) (Horvath et al., 2000). Furthermore, reward systems operate differently in different disciplines. "The structure of reputational audiences" which varies by the social dynamics of the discipline, is a determinant factor in IRO (Kwiek, 2018, p.139). According to Kyvik and Larsen (1997), each academic discipline constructs its value system and research conduct. More importantly, the stakeholders of academic disciplines determine the demand for knowledge.

In terms of institutional factors, organizational culture and the value attributed to IRC in the culture are considered other IRC drivers. The enactment of IRC needs institutional leadership and a culture that embodies international cooperation as a norm. As a result, the institutional culture and leadership are two institutional ingredients that mobilize individual disposition on international orientation (Horvath et al., 2000). Furthermore, the strategic orientation of the institution and reward structure contribute to IRC (Horvath et al., 2000). Research university initiative is indicated as a factor in the international orientation of academics (Kwiek, 2020). Research-based university rankings have recently put mounting pressure on institutions to change their strategic orientation, which also pressures academics for IRC individually. As a result, reputation, resources, culture, and strategic orientation constitute another set of institutional factors driving indi-

viduals toward IRC (Hoekman et al., 2010). Here, it is also essential to indicate the role of resources provided by the institution in the IRC of academics. There is a cost associated with building and maintaining IRC, and the willingness of the institution to cover this cost encourages the academics to build IRC. In other words, individual academics tend to trade off pure local orientation for IRC (Kwiek, 2020).

National/regional policies are also seen as drivers of IRC. The country's geopolitical position, history, language, cultural traditions, size, wealth, and geographical distance are some national variables that may play a role in the IRC of academics (Hoekman et al., 2010). Besides, the status of international research in the governmental policies and priorities may play a motivational role for academics to become involved in IRC. Finally, regional policies may also play a role in the international orientation of individual academics. The most prominent example of regional policies is the EU's policies designed to promote IRC in every field of sciences (Kwiek, 2019).

The Context: IRC in Turkish HE

The Turkish HE appears as a highly centralized national system where governmental policies considerably influence academic work and academics' efforts towards IRC. The system is governed mainly by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE; YÖK in Turkish). The CoHE is a governmental body that has the constitutional authority to determine the route of HE at the national level, develop macro-level strategies, and channel universities to adapt their administration, teaching-learning, and research to these macro-level routes and strategies. The Council also monitors and supervises the actions implemented in universities to ensure the effective use of resources. In doing so, the Council uses its legislative power on several critical issues such as academic staff capacity, personnel operations, academic program openings, and budgeting (Official Gazette, 1981). Hence, CoHE's directive regulations influence university administrators' and academics' daily and long-term academic and professional activities.

Holding all this authoritative power, the CoHE has recently increasingly promoted IRC as a part of the strategy aiming to improve internationalization of the Turkish HE. For instance, in its 2014 report, the CoHE emphasized the importance of expanding academic staff mobility to increase the effectiveness of national research collaboration programs (Çetinsaya, 2014). In 2015, tenure criteria were renewed by endorsing research projects conducted collaboratively with international partners through the European Union programs (Uslu, Calikoglu, Seggie, Gümüs, & Kondakci, 2021). In 2017, the CoHE announced the national 2018–2022 strategy

on the internationalization of Turkish HE, determining the expansion of international collaboration in Turkish universities as one of the main goals in the national internationalization strategy (CoHE, 2017). Part of this strategy includes increasing the numbers of *(i)* programs established jointly with strategically chosen foreign countries, *(ii)* research projects and scientific activities through international exchange programs, and *(iii)* mutual collaboration and exchange agreements with foreign governments and supranational bodies (CoHE, 2017). Similar to the CoHE, The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TÜBİTAK), the main governmental research funding body at the national level, initiates additional programs to expand collaborative research and scientific events carried out at an international level (TÜBİTAK n.d.a, n.d.b). Furthermore, tenure criteria were renewed by promoting research projects conducted collaboratively with international partners through the European Union programs (Interuniversity Council of Türkiye [ÜAK], 2021). In parallel with these developments, many universities included publications or projects through IRC activities into their appointment and promotion criteria as the expected academic productions (Uslu et al., 2021).

With the influence of global trends and national expectations, one can notice a noteworthy increase in the ratio of internationally co-authored research outputs originating from Türkiye rose from 16.67 percent in 2009 to 24.96 percent in 2019 (ScimagoJournalRanking[SJR], 2020a). This noteworthy increase, however, may not be witnessed in all science subjects in the same period. For instance, only a slight increase occurred in the Arts and Humanities (16.17% to 19.29%) and the Computer Sciences (24.7% to 27.41%). Moreover, a decrease in internationally co-authored publications was witnessed in some areas (e.g., 35.62% to 24.42% in Decision Science) (SJR, 2020a). Furthermore, some of the countries with which Türkiye competes in scientific production have achieved to increase their rate of internationally co-authored publication output more than Türkiye did, and they are still ahead (e.g., Iran: 27.9%, Poland: 35.25%, Taiwan: 37.87%) (SJR, 2020b).

Despite the promotion strategies and a noteworthy increase in the ratios, challenges regarding IRC exist in Turkish HE. From a national viewpoint, as the CoHE (2017) states, language appears as a barrier because the number of academic and institutional staff with sufficient foreign language skills is still inadequate. Here, the CoHE's internationalization strategies on IRC are criticized for its quantitative focus, prioritizing the position in rankings, the number of projects, or bilateral cooperation agreements for universities centrally, without sufficiently addressing the specific needs

and expectations of institutions, departments and academics (Vural Yılmaz, 2016a). This centralized type of governing can sometimes lead to the inefficient implementation of policies or bureaucratic burdens at meso and micro-level and discourage academics from maintaining their interest in IRC (Selvitopu & Aydın, 2018). In addition, given that Turkish HE has witnessed a rapid expansion in the past two decades, many universities are still establishing their organizational structure (Özoglu, Gür, & Gümüs, 2016). This continuing establishing process often creates difficulties in creating and maintaining institutional networks for internationalization, thus, for IRC (Vural Yılmaz, 2016b). Perhaps confirming this challenge, the CoHE (2017) emphasizes that expanding institutional capacity is one of the critical goals in the national strategy for internationalization. Furthermore, IRC is considered a concept often influenced by other stakeholders (e.g., governments, funders, supra-national organizations) and agendas (e.g., global economy, international politics, regional/global security (Bammer, 2008). Therefore, beyond all the national challenges given above, the instability and the security problems in the region that Türkiye is located also can play a hindering role in expanding IRC (COHE, 2017).

Overall, while a national strategy has been initiated and a notable increase has been witnessed in some cases, IRC still appears a critical area of inquiry in Turkish HE. Infrastructural problems in HE institutions and the fluctuations in internationally co-authored publication ratios imply that strategy development related to IRC requires going beyond general programs and centralized solutions. Thus, the role of diverse individual, disciplinary, professional, and institutional characteristics should be considered. Also, since IRC often leads to an increased amount of scientific production (Abramo, D'Angelo, & Solazzi, 2011; Gazni, Sugimoto, & Didegah, 2011; Kwiek, 2020), identifying the factors significantly related to IRC appears critical for policymakers and institutional leaders in Turkish HE and similar country cases.

Method

Research Design

We employed a survey design to investigate the factors influencing IRC in Turkish HE from the micro-level perspective (i.e., based on academics' individual attitudes and behaviors instead of secondary data; Kwiek, 2015). Survey design allows researchers to understand the opinions and trends related to a specific phenomenon by studying the phenomenon in a sample derived from the population. Hence, through quantitative data, surveys enable generalizations and conclusions about the trends in the population related to the examined phenomenon

(Creswell, 2014). Based on previous literature and pertinent items in the Academic Profession in the Knowledge-Based Society (APIKS) Questionnaire, we identified individual (gender, age group), professional (doctoral degree gained abroad, academic title, discipline, the academic's orientation toward teaching and research, research orientation), and institutional (university's type and date of establishment) factors. Then we examined the relationship between these factors and IRC.

Population and Sample

The target population for the study was the academics employed in Turkish HE institutions in the 2017–2018 academic year (158,098; CoHE, 2018). We employed a stratified sampling (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2010) to represent institutional and individual diversity in the sample. We considered balance in determining the potential participants' institutions, a balance regarding the geographical region, type

(e.g., public, foundation), and dates of the establishment (e.g., before 1992, 1992–2005, after 2005; Özoglu et al., 2016) (See project website for the ethical and application approvals from the selected institutions; APIKSTR, 2020). As a result, the sample for APIKS Türkiye data is composed of 1810 academics from 78 (67 public, 11 foundation) universities and holding different academic titles. For the current study, the data gathered from the participants who were actively participated in research activities in the year of data collection or the previous academic year and responded to the APIKS Questionnaire Item "Do you collaborate with international colleagues?" were used (*N*=1554; Yes=756, 48.6%; No=798, 51.4%). ■ Table 1 demonstrates the participant demographics of the current study, the APIKS sample, and the population.

As seen in ■ Table 1, both the APIKS Türkiye sample and the sample for the current study represent the variety in

■ **Table 1.** The sample and population demographics.

Variable	Group	Participants actively engaged in research and marked IRC question		APIKS sample		Population*	
		n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Gender	Female	802	51.6	905	50	70,235	44.4
	Male	751	48.3	904	49.9	87,863	55.6
	Missing	1	.1	1	.1	-	-
Academic title	Professor	360	23.2	401	22.2	24,640	15.6
	Assoc. Prof.	368	23.7	402	22.2	14,456	9.1
	Assist. Prof.	428	27.5	512	28.3	37,520	23.7
	Lecturer	269	17.3	321	17.7	35,484	22.4
	Research Assist.	123	7.9	166	9.2	45,998	29.2
	Other	6	.4	8	.4	-	-
Institution type	Public	1,327	85.4	1,540	85.1	134,689	85.2
	Foundation	227	14.6	270	14.9	23,409	14.8
University's date of establishment	Pre-1992	785	50.5	896	49.5	NA	
	1992–2005	437	28.1	516	28.5		
	Post-2005	325	20.9	391	21.6		
	Missing	7	.5	7	.4	-	-
Geographical region of the university	Mediterranean	149	9.6	170	9.4	NA	
	East Anatolia	105	6.8	130	7.2		
	Aegean	252	16.2	288	15.9		
	Southeast Anatolia	53	3.4	67	3.7		
	Central Anatolia	480	30.9	558	30.8		
	Black Sea	136	8.8	167	9.2		
	Marmara	377	24.3	428	23.6		
	Missing	2	.1	2	.1	-	-

Source: CoHE, 2018. **NA:** data not available.

terms of individual and institutional demographics witnessed in the population. In addition to including participants from the selected stratum, the sample demonstrates a balanced variety in terms of several individual characteristics (e.g., gender, academic title) that strengthened the representativeness, which kept the effect of non-response bias to a minimum (Stoop, 2012). Therefore, the sample was deemed sufficient to represent the academics employed in Turkish HE with a 99% confidence level and ±3 confidence interval (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

Data Collection and Analysis

The data of this study was collected in the APIKS project. APIKS project is the third wave of the 1992 Carnegie and 2007 Changing Academic Profession (CAP) studies. It examines the evolving role and responsibility of academics through an international and comparative lens with more than 20 countries (APIKSTR, 2020). The APIKS Questionnaire includes more than 300 items/sub-items in eight sections (e.g., career and professional situation, general work situation, teaching, research, external activities, governance and management, academics in formative years, and personal background). For the current study, we used whether the participant collaborates with international colleagues in research as the dependent variable and other related items from the career and professional situation, governance and management, and personal background sections as independent variables. Türkiye stage of the APIKS data

was collected online in the 2017–2018 academic year (see APIKSTR, 2020 for more details).

We utilized descriptive (e.g., frequency, percentage), and inferential (Pearson chi-square test of association) analysis techniques for the first research question. We presented analysis results for this question with cross-tabulation to visualize a better comparison of the sub-groups. During the chi-square analyses, the assumption requiring that the minimum cell expected values to be at least five was ensured (Field, 2013). For the second research question, we run a binary logistic regression. "Collaborating with international colleagues in the research activities" (Yes/No) question was considered the categorical dependent variable, while relevant items from other sections were considered independent. We tested the significance at the .05 level (Field, 2013) in both chi-square and logistic regression analyses.

Results

Descriptive and Inferential Findings

Individual factors: ■■ Table 2 demonstrates significant associations between IRC and selected individual factors.

According to ■■ Table 2, while establishing IRC is not significantly associated with gender, there is a significant association between age group and IRC. The contingency values show that the highest percentage of internationalists are in the age group of 60 and above. Moreover, for all age groups of 40

■■ **Table 2.** Associations between IRC and individual factors (*n* and % within each row).

			IRC		
			Yes	**No**	**Total**
Gender*	Male	*n*	348	403	751
		%	46.3%	53.7%	100.0%
	Female	*n*	408	394	802
		%	50.9%	49.1%	100.0%
Age group†	<30	*n*	32	73	105
		%	30.5%	69.5%	100.0%
	30–39	*n*	261	304	565
		%	46.2%	53.8%	100.0%
	40–49	*n*	282	265	547
		%	51.6%	48.4%	100.0%
	50–59	*n*	130	117	247
		%	52.6%	47.4%	100.0%
	60 and above	*n*	47	37	84
		%	56.0%	44.0%	100.0%

*N=1553; *X²*=3.192; *p*=.074; †*N*=1548; *X²*=20.451; *p*=.000.

and above, the majority of the respondents establish research collaboration at an international level. However, most of the participants appear as localists for the age groups of below 30 and 30–39. Therefore, IRC in Turkish HE is witnessed at higher percentages, especially among academics who are 40 years old or above.

Professional factors: ▮▮ Table 3 demonstrates significant associations between IRC and selected professional factors.

As shown in ▮▮ Table 3, although there is no significant association between IRC and academic discipline, IRC is significantly associated with professional factors, including doctoral degree, having an academic orientation towards either teaching or research, and academic title. The percentages demonstrate that most of the participants who did not hold a doctoral degree or gained their doctoral degree in Türkiye

were localists; however, the percentage of the internationalists are the majority among the participants who gained their doctoral degree abroad. In terms of academic orientation, most of the participants leaning on teaching appeared as localists, while nearly three quarter the participants favoring research were internationalists. Concerning the academic title, professors were the group who established IRC at the highest percentages among all titles. Similarly, most of the associate professors appeared as internationalists. However, most of the participants appear as localists for the academic titles of assistant professor, research assistant, and lecturer. Overall, these results indicate that IRC is witnessed more among academics who obtained their doctoral degree abroad, favor research instead of teaching, and have higher academic titles.

Institutional factors: ▮▮ Table 4 demonstrates significant associations between IRC and selected institutional factors.

▮▮ **Table 3.** Associations between IRC and professional factors (*n* and % within each row).

			IRC		
			Yes	**No**	**Total**
Doctoral degree*	No degree	*n*	81	162	243
		%	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Earned in Türkiye	*n*	540	579	1119
		%	48.3%	51.7%	100.0%
	Earned abroad	*n*	124	44	168
		%	73.8%	26.2%	100.0%
Academic orientation†	Teaching	*n*	164	242	406
		%	40.4%	59.6%	100.0%
	Research	*n*	592	556	1148
		%	51.6%	48.4%	100.0%
Discipline‡	Arts & Hum & Soc. Sci.	*n*	294	326	620
		%	47.4%	52.6%	100.0%
	Med & Health Sci.	*n*	173	203	376
		%	46.0%	54.0%	100.0%
	STEM	*n*	289	269	558
		%	51.8%	48.2%	100.0%
Academic title§	Lecturer	*n*	49	74	123
		%	39.8%	60.2%	100.0%
	Res. Assist.	*n*	90	179	269
		%	33.5%	66.5%	100.0%
	Assist. Prof.	*n*	191	237	428
		%	44.6%	55.4%	100.0%
	Assoc. Prof.	*n*	205	163	368
		%	55.7%	44.3%	100.0%
	Prof.	*n*	217	143	360
		%	60.3%	39.7%	100.0%

*N=1530; X^2=65.453; p=.000; †N=1554; X^2=14.990; p=.000; ‡N=1554; X^2=3.630; p=.163; §N=1548; X^2=58.272; p=.000.

Table 4. Associations between IRC and institutional factors (*n* and % within each row).

			IRC		
			Yes	**No**	**Total**
Institution type*	Public	*n*	627	700	1327
		%	47.2%	52.8%	100.0%
	Foundation	*n*	129	98	227
		%	56.8%	43.2%	100.0%
University's date of establishment†	Pre-1992	*n*	387	398	785
		%	49.3%	50.7%	100.0%
	1992–2005	*n*	226	211	437
		%	51.7%	48.3%	100.0%
	Post-2005	*n*	138	187	325
		%	42.5%	57.5%	100.0%

*N=1554; X^2=7.119; p=.008; †N=1554; X^2=6.753; p=.034

As ▉ Table 4 shows, IRC is significantly associated with both institution type and university's date of establishment. The percentages demonstrate that most of the respondents from public universities were localists, while the majority appeared as internationalists in foundation universities. Moreover, the percentages of internationalists and localists were roughly equal in both universities established before 1992 and between 1992–2005. However, the localists outnumbered the internationalists for the universities established after 2005. These results indicate that IRC is more common among academics in foundation universities, while most of the academics in the universities established after 2005 tend not to collaborate at the international level.

Logistic Regression Results

Although the descriptive and inferential analyses above provided a basic understanding of the associations between IRC and individual, professional, and institutional factors, logistic regression results in this section revealed factors that had a significant relationship with IRC. Here, in order to provide a more comprehensive examination, we took into account the studies and regression models produced from previous sets of the APIKS data (Cummings & Finkelstein, 2012; Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014; Kwiek, 2014, 2015; Rostan et al., 2014) and included additional variables (e.g., *variable:* research orientation, *values:* applied, social-oriented, international in scope and multidisciplinary; *variables:* institutional opportunities related to internationalization, opportunities for faculty members to undertake research abroad, opportunities/funding for visiting international scholars, *values:* Likert-type question 1: Strongly disagree to 5: Strongly agree) that may influence IRC. ▉ Table 5 demonstrates the logistic regression results regarding the relationship between IRC and individual, professional and institutional factors.

As presented in ▉ Table 5, there was no significantly influential individual factor. However, several professional and institutional factors had a significant relationship with IRC. In terms of professional factors, the odds ratios indicated that holding a doctoral degree earned in Türkiye instead of from abroad and an academic orientation towards teaching rather than research had a negative relationship with IRC. These results imply that a doctoral degree abroad and the orientation towards research more than teaching hold critical importance in enhancing IRC for Turkish academics. On the other hand, a professorship title and an orientation towards multidisciplinary or international research in scope had a positive influence on IRC. Furthermore, significant institutional factors on IRC included institution type, which revealed that being employed at a public university negatively influenced IRC.

Discussion and Conclusion

The increasing international orientation towards research in HE has led governments and institutions to place stronger emphasis on the internationalization of research. In addition, the nature of academic work has changed because of a more competitive job market rewarding professional activities at the international level. Thus, academics in many countries have become more involved in IRC through several individual, professional, and institutional factors. This study demonstrates that Turkish academics are no exception to this changing environment, and several individual, professional, and institutional factors are influential regarding their IRC.

Table 5. Relationships between IRC and individual, professional and institutional factors.

Independent variable		Value	B	SE	Wald	p	OR
Individual	*Gender*	Male	-.182	.118	2.395	.122	.834
	Age group	<30	.143	.424	.114	.736	1.154
		30–39	.396	.324	1.496	.221	1.486
		40–49	.264	.297	.787	.375	1.302
		50–59	-.016	.294	.003	.956	.984
		60 and above (ref)			4.409	.353	
Professional	*Doctoral degree*	No degree	-1.192	.292	16.663	.000	.304
		Earned in Türkiye	-.977	.207	22.262	.000	.376
		Earned abroad (ref)			23.826	.000	
	Academic title	Professor	.893	.276	10.441	.001	2.443
		Assoc. Prof.	.467	.248	3.550	.060	1.595
		Assist. Prof.	-.033	.241	.019	.891	.967
		Research Assist.	-.239	.256	.871	.351	.787
		Lecturer (ref)			26.137	.000	
	Discipline	STEM	.091	.152	.360	.548	1.095
		Medical & Health Sci.	-.247	.160	2.370	.124	.781
		Arts & Hum. & Soc. Sci (ref)			4.803	.090	
	Academic orientation	Teaching	-.289	.133	4.729	.030	.749
	Research orientation	Applied/practical	-.010	.054	.032	.858	.990
		Social	.025	.046	.292	.589	1.025
		International in scope	.435	.047	85.349	.000	1.545
		Multidisciplinary	.169	.053	10.273	.001	1.184
Institutional	*Institution type*	Public	-.430	.184	5.443	.020	.650
	University's date of establishment	Before 1992	.276	.159	3.015	.083	1.318
		1992–2005	.266	.165	2.602	.107	1.305
		After 2005 (ref)			3.477	.176	
Opportunities for faculty members to undertake research abroad			.082	.061	1.799	.180	1.085
Opportunities/funding for faculty members to attend international conferences abroad (F65)			.000	.057	.000	.995	1.000
Constant			-1.495	.550	7.390	.007	.224
-2LL			1819.150				
Nagelkerke *R²*			.221				
*N**			1511				

*Missing values included the respondents (I) who were not active in research, (II) who marked their academic title as 'other', and (III) other cases determined by the analysis software due to the null responses in selected variables.

The current research illustrates that age group and academic title are key individual and professional factors associated with IRC in Turkish HE. According to the findings, academics over 40 years of age tend to establish IRC more than their colleagues who are between 20–40 years old. In addition, the age group 60 and above is the most active in terms of establishing IRC. Moreover, academic staff holding professor or associate professor titles tend to collaborate at the international level more than academics owning other titles. Consistent with previous studies, these findings demonstrate that IRC is more common among older academics and those holding higher titles (Horvath et al., 2000; Kwiek, 2020), indicating the role of age, position, and seniority in establishing IRC. As Kwiek (2020) argues, academics with higher titles often hold administrative positions in their institutions and spend less teaching time while they can devote much more effort to research. These may turn into advantages that can facilitate international collaboration opportunities. Furthermore, creating international networks that help academics establish IRC often takes time, and senior academics with longer experience

may benefit from broadened international networks in their efforts toward IRC (Çalıkoğlu, 2017; Kwiek, 2020). On the other hand, these results imply that it is worth further investigation whether junior academics' lower interest in IRC is intentional or suffering from difficulties regarding their position. If the second is the case, it is critical to support junior academics' international networking efforts through financial and bureaucratic mechanisms. Furthermore, more just distribution of teaching loads and other time-consuming administrative duties may be considered in departments so that junior academics make more room for IRC in their schedules.

The results reveal that professional factors significantly related to IRC include the academic title and a doctoral degree obtained abroad and an orientation towards research that is especially multidisciplinary or international in scope. The importance of gaining a graduate degree abroad in academics' involvement in international activities has been discussed by several authors (e.g., Calikoglu, Lee, & Arslan, 2020; Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014). These authors asserted that earning doctoral degree abroad is influential in expanding academics' own international network and institutional international collaboration. Because of their international graduate experiences and already established networks, academics who obtained doctoral degrees abroad are often seen as key persons enhancing their institutions' international horizon. Thus, they tend to continue carrying out scholarly work with an increased global orientation at their institution. Here, our research has also revealed the importance of multidisciplinary research orientation in increasing IRC, which is rarely argued in the related literature to the best of our knowledge. The complex nature of recent social and scientific challenges puts pressure on governments and institutions. Thus, researchers from different disciplines or with specializations are encouraged and incentivized by policymakers and administrators to gather and collaborate (Abramo, D'Angelo, & Di Costa, 2018). Based on our findings, we suggest that governments and HE institutions increase the promotion of multidisciplinary studies and combine it with internationalization efforts by encouraging research teams that consist of scholars from different countries to expand IRC and help overcome global challenges.

Our study illustrates that academics' IRC is also associated with institutional factors, including the university's date of establishment and institution type. The findings show that IRC is less common among academics in younger institutions. Furthermore, we found a negative relationship between IRC and working at a public university, while academics in foundation universities tend to establish IRC more than their peers in public institutions. Due to increasing massification, many

younger HE institutions suffer from insufficient physical and financial infrastructure and lack capable academic and administrative human resources. Newly established universities in Türkiye are no exception to this (Özoglu et al., 2016). Thus, considering especially the importance of the infrastructure and resources in enhancing IRC, the results regarding newly established universities appear as no surprise. This finding, however, triggers the question of whether the CoHE's internationalization strategies prioritizing primarily quantitative outcomes (CoHE, 2017; Selvitopu & Aydın, 2018) can be equally applicable at every university. Thus, we recommend policymakers and administrators develop measures to enhance the infrastructural capacity and resources at universities suffering from capacity deficiencies to stimulate IRC efforts of academics.

Furthermore, it is worth investigating the reason behind the difference between public and foundation universities regarding institution type. Due to increasing competition and students' changing needs in the global HE market, non-public institutions (e.g., foundation universities in Turkish case) seek ways to expand their international networks and expect their academics to act accordingly (Altbach & Knight, 2007). In addition, Vural Yılmaz (2016b) argues that foundation universities in Türkiye tend to have broader internationalization strategies since they are primarily located in metropolitan cities and benefit this location while attracting international students and scholars. For these reasons, academics employed in Turkish foundation universities may be more interested in establishing IRC. On the other hand, considering the finding of a negative relationship, it is crucial to mitigate the challenges regarding IRC in public universities. Like their peers in foundation universities, academics in public HE institutions have to deal with the competitive changes in scholarly work requiring more publishing and collaborating at the international level (Huang, 2014). However, the segregation resulting from the rapid expansion of Turkish HE has widened the debate on the governance model of Turkish universities', especially public ones', in terms of their institutional autonomy and the balance of power relationship between them and CoHE as the top coordinating body (Çelik & Gür, 2014; Kurt, Gür, & Çelik, 2017). Even CoHE itself labels Turkish HE as a highly centralized system and considers this a weakness in its strategic plan (CoHE, 2015). At this point, one can expect the fragmentation in needs, expectations, and priorities of Turkish public universities should also be reflected in these universities' internationalization strategies. However, prior research has indicated that consistent with the CoHE's quantitatively-driven internationalization goals, most public universities develop ambitious strategies focusing on increasing numeric indicators with-

out insufficient consideration of their resources and distinctive characteristics (Çalıkoğlu & Bulut Şahin, 2018; Vural Yılmaz, 2016a). Given the importance of academics' self-motivation in establishing IRC (Finkelstein et al., 2013), this isomorphic perspective may discourage academics employed at public universities from establishing IRC. Therefore, we recommend that policymakers make more room for public universities to develop and implement their internationalization strategies more autonomously and constitute sustainable financial and bureaucratic mechanisms to support academics. We also suggest university administrators pay more attention to prioritizing divergent IRC strategies considering their own regional and institutional conditions and their academics' needs and interests.

Our findings have brought significant implications also for IRC in Turkish HE and similar country cases. First, despite the increasing pressure of globalizing trends to internationalize more, roughly half of the participant Turkish academics tend not to establish IRC. This is contrary to Smeby and Gornitzka's (2008) argument that in the era of globalization, all academics are cosmopolitans due to either individual motivations or global and national trends. Here, it is critical to note that successful IRC and networking require several prerequisites, including the researcher's motivation or willpower to collaborate and financial and material resources in the researcher's work environment. In addition, the researcher has to be sufficiently attractive for the scholars in other countries to collaborate, and those resources are critical to increasing the said researcher's attractiveness for her/his international colleagues (Smeby & Gornitzka, 2008). As a limitation of the current study, we have no answer to why localists in the current study do not establish IRC. It might be because of personal and disciplinary reasons or being oriented more towards national collaboration rather than international. These participants may also face difficulties in their attempts to widen their international networks. Nevertheless, one can notice that, like in many developing countries, HE authorities in Türkiye prioritize internationalization as a national policy and constitute ambitious strategies to expand IRC (CoHE, 2017). Our study has shown that, to achieve this aim, it is critical to improve the conditions in the working environment for motivated academics who cannot reach sufficient resources for IRC. This can help internationalist academics broaden their networks and make the entire HE system more attractive to academics and institutions in other countries.

Second, unlike previous studies demonstrating the segregated nature of IRC in terms of gender (Kwiek, 2020; Vabø et al., 2014) and academic fields (Kwiek, 2018; Rostan et al., 2014), we found no significant associations between gender,

discipline, and IRC. However, consistent with previous research (e.g., Kwiek, 2020), IRC segregation exists in Turkish HE based on academic titles, age groups, and university types. Academics with higher titles, aged above 40 and employed in foundation universities tend to establish IRC more than their colleagues. As we elaborated earlier, age and seniority/higher academic titles come together in many HE systems and this might be the case also in Türkiye. Additionally, those with higher academic titles, especially professors, often are more visible, experienced, powerful, and attractive in their institutions which may facilitate them to gain or maintain the resources to keep their international networks alive and widening (Kwiek, 2020). However, due to the rapid increase in the number of newly established programs and institutions in Turkish HE, lower academic titles constitute a vast majority (i.e., more than three quarters) of the total academic staff population (█▌ Table 1). This situation also appears similar to being employed in public universities, which we found negatively related to IRC and whose numbers are high in newly established institutions (Özoglu et al., 2016). IRC has been approached to legitimize the revenue and reputation-oriented strategies for internationalization in many countries, which may lead to a more segregated and unequal HE globally (Calikoglu et al., 2020; de Wit, 2019). Our study has demonstrated that this risk should also be borne in mind for Turkish HE. Thus, for a more inclusive internationalization, we suggest that HE decision-makers in Türkiye and similar countries consider taking measures to lower the segregation in IRC. Specific governmental scholarships to host international scholars in public universities for collaboration and extended financial support for junior academics' international mobility may help overcome this risk. These measures are also crucial because empowering IRC may serve to overcome the established hierarchies and Western domination in research and lead to a more equal and collaborative HE environment globally (Arnett, 2016).

Our study has corroborated the existence of complex and contradictory relationships observed in IRC. As noted earlier, despite all the globalizing forces, many academics tend not to collaborate at the international level, either because of their preference or difficulties hindering them. However, IRC occurs for more than half of the participants through several individual, professional, and institutional factors. For a broader understanding of the nature of IRC, one of the critical matters here would be how these academics establish, maintain, and expand their collaboration. For this purpose, as argued in Wagner and Leydesdorff (2005), it is essential to further investigate to what extent and how these collaborations are driven by top-down, organized reward mechanisms and bottom-up,

self-organized participatory actions. Investigating this can help government and policymakers channel material and financial support in a more systematic and efficient way, and help researchers depict a more nuanced interpretation of IRC.

This study examined factors influencing IRC in Turkish HE based on academics' attitudes and behaviors. Although our analysis showed significant associations between several factors and IRC, one should bear in mind the limitations of the current research while interpreting the results. First, our study is based on the Turkish context. Although global trends have a critical influence on HE systems worldwide, with its historical characteristics and governmental and legislative regulations, the national context still tends to play a unique determinative role in attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of academics and the administration of universities (Marginson, 2021). Based on our best effort, we discussed some of the contextual factors that can influence our findings; however, the possibility of additional influential factors related to the Turkish context should be noted. Second, due to the structure of the APIKS questionnaire, we used a yes/no question to gather the responses regarding establishing IRC. Thus, our study is limited in examining more detailed patterns and outputs of IRC (e.g., co-author analysis, target country, region, and journal analysis) in Turkish HE. Researchers can carry out bibliometric studies to examine such patterns further. Third, we chose the factors we examined in this study by considering the intersection of the previous literature and related APIKS questionnaire items. There might be additional factors influencing academics' IRC. Further studies can focus on these additional factors at individual, professional, institutional, and national/international levels. These factors can also be examined through a qualitative design to explore how IRC occurs at the individual, disciplinary and institutional levels in more detail.

References

Abramo, G., D'Angelo, C. A., Di Costa, F. (2018). The effect of multidisciplinary collaborations on research diversification. *Scientometrics, 116,* 423–433.

Abramo, G., D'Angelo, C. A., & Solazzi, M. (2011). The relationship between scientists' research performance and the degree of internationalization of their research. *Scientometrics, 86,* 629–643.

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3–4), 290–305.

APIKSTR (2020). *Project ethical approvals.* Retrieved from http://apikstr.net/index/sayfa/932/project-ethical-approvals (October 30, 2020).

Arnett, J. J. (2016). The neglected 95%: Why American psychology needs to become less American. *The American Psychologist, 63*(7), 602–614.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Razavieh, A., & Sorensen, C. (2010). *Introduction to research in education.* Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.

Bammer, G. (2008). Enhancing research collaborations: Three key management challenges. *Research Policy, 37,* 875–887.

Bulut Şahin, B. (2017). *Internationalization in Turkish universities: Contributions, conflicts, and sources of conflicts: A multiple case study.* Doctoral dissertation, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Calikoglu, A., Lee, J. J., & Arslan, H. (2020). Faculty international engagement: Examining rationales, strategies, and barriers in institutional settings. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 26*(1), 61–79.

CoHE (2015). *Strategic plan of the Council of Higher Education: 2016–2020.* [Report in Turkish]. Ankara: Yükseköğretim Kurulu.

CoHE (2017). *Strategy document for the internationaliazation in higher education: 2018–2022.* [Report in Turkish] Retrieved from https://www.yok.gov.tr/Documents/AnaSayfa/YuksekogretimdeUluslararasilasmaStratejiBelgesi20182022.pdf (October 30, 2020).

CoHE (2018). *Higher education statistics on the 2017–2018 academic year.* [Report in Turkish]. Retrieved from http://istatistik.yok.gov.tr (October 30, 2020).

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education.* London: Routledge

Coleman, J. H. J. (1999). What enables self-organizing behavior in business. *Emergence, 1*(1), 33–48.

Collyer, F. M. (2018). Global patterns in the publishing of academic knowledge: Global North, Global South. *Current Sociology, 66*(1), 56–73.

Coveney, P., & Highfield, R. (1995). *Frontiers of complexity.* London: Faber & Faber.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cummings, W. K., & Finkelstein, M. J. (2012). *Scholars in the changing American academy: New contexts, new rules and new roles.* Dordrecht: Springer.

Çalıkoğlu, A. (2017). *Factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization: A mixed methods study on rationales, incentives, and barriers.* Doctoral dissertation, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey.

Çalıkoğlu, A. & Bulut Şahin, B. (2018). Internationalization in the universities in Turkey: Similarities and differences between institutional strategies. [Paper in Turkish] *Paper presented at the 3rd International Higher Education Studies Conference*, October 11–13, 2018, Kayseri, Türkiye.

Çelik, Z., & Gür, B. S. (2014). *The governance of higher education systems and university autonomy: Global trends and the case of Turkey* [Article in Turkish]. *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi, 4*(1), 18–27.

Çetinsaya, G. (2014). *Expansion, quality, internationalization: A roadmap for Turkey's higher education* [Book in Turkish]. Ankara: Yükseköğretim Kurulu.

de Wit, H. (2019). Internationalization in higher education: A critical review. *SFU Educational Review, 12*(3), 9–17.

Dölen, E. (2013). *German muderrisses in Istanbul Darulfunun: 1915–1918* [Book in Turkish]. İstanbul: İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Eimers, M. T. (1997). The role of intrinsic enjoyment in motivating faculty. *Thought & Action, 13*(2), 125–142.

Enders, J. (2004). Higher education, internationalization, and the nation-state: Recent developments and challenges to governance theory. *Higher Education, 47*, 361–382.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Finkelstein, M., & Sethi, W. (2014). Patterns of faculty internationalization: A predictive model. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalization of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 237–258). Dordrecht: Springer.

Finkelstein, M. J., Walker, E., & Chen, R. (2013). The American faculty in an age of globalization: Predictors of internationalization of research content and professional networks. *Higher Education, 66*, 325–340.

Fox, M. F., Realff, M. L., Rueda, D. R., & Morn, J. (2017). International research collaboration among women engineers: Frequency and perceived barriers, by regions. *Journal of Technology Transfer, 42*(6), 1292–1306.

Gazni, A., Sugimoto, C. R., & Didegah, F. (2011). Mapping world scientific collaboration: Authors, institutions, and countries. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology, 63*(2), 323–335.

Güvenç, B. (1998). *History of Turkish education.* Ankara: Turkish Education Association.

Hoekman, J., Frenken, K., & Tijssen, R. J. W. (2010). Research collaboration at a distance: Changing spatial patterns of scientific collaboration within Europe. *Research Policy, 39*, 662–673.

Horvath, F., Weber, K., & Wicki, M. (2000). International research orientation of Swiss universities: Self-regulated or politically imposed? *Higher Education, 40*, 389–408.

Huang, F. (2014). The internationalisation of the academic profession. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalization of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 1–21). Dordrecht: Springer.

Jeong, S., Choi, J. Y., & Kim, J.-Y. (2014). On the drivers of international collaboration: The impact of informal communication, motivation, and research resources. *Science and Public Policy, 41*(4), 520–531.

Jung, J., & Horta, H. (2013). Higher education research in Asia: A publication and co-publication analysis. *Higher Education Quarterly, 67*(4), 398–419.

Kerr, C. (1994). *Higher education cannot escape history, issues for the twenty-first century.* New York, NY: State University of New York Press.

Kezar, A., Maxey, D., & Holcombe, E. (2015). *The professoriate reconsidered. A study of new faculty models: The delphi project on the changing faculty and student success.* Los Angeles, CA: Pullias Center for Higher Education, Rossier School of Education, University of Southern California.

Khoo, S. M. (2011). Ethical globalisation or privileged internationalisation? Exploring global citizenship and internationalisation in Irish and Canadian universities. *Globalisation Societies and Education, 9*(3–4), 337–353.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 8*(5), 5–31.

Kurt, T., Gür, B. S., & Çelik, Z. (2017). Necessity for reforming Turkish Higher Education System and possibility of governance of state universities by the board of trustees. *Education and Science, 189*, 49–71.

Kwiek, M. (2014). The internationalization of the Polish academic profession: A European comparative approach. *Zeitschrift für Pädagogik, 60*, 681–695.

Kwiek, M. (2015). The internationalization of research in Europe: A quantitative study of 11 national systems from a micro-level perspective. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 19*(4), 341–359.

Kwiek, M. (2016). The European research elite: A cross-national study of highly productive academics across 11 European systems. *Higher Education, 71*(3), 379–397.

Kwiek, M. (2018). International research collaboration and international research orientation: Comparative findings about European academics. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 22*(2), 136–160.

Kwiek, M. (2019). *Changing European academics: A comparative study of social stratification, work patterns and research productivity.* London: Routledge.

Kwiek, M. (2020). Internationalists and locals: International research collaboration in a resource-poor system. *Scientometrics, 124*, 57–105.

Kyvik, S., & Larsen, I. M. (1994). International contact and research performance. *Scientometrics, 29*, 161–172.

Kyvik, S., & Larsen, I. M. (1997). The exchange of knowledge. A small country in the international research community. *Science Communication, 18*(3), 238–264.

Liu, S., Liu, M., Jiang, H., Lin, Y., & Xu, K. (2019). International comparisons of themes in higher education research. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *38*(7), 1445–1460.

Marginson, S. (2021). *Heterogeneous systems and common objects: The relation between global and national science.* Centre for Global Higher Education. Retrieved from https://www.researchcghe.org/perch/resources/publications/cghe-special-report-april-2021.pdf (March 30, 2021).

Mason, S., Merga, M. K., Canché, M. S. G., & Roni, S. M. (2021). The internationality of published higher education scholarship: How do the 'top' journals compare? *Journal of Informetrics*, *15*, 101155.

Melin, G. (2000). Pragmatism and self-organization: Research collaboration on the individual level. *Research Policy*, *29*, 31–34.

Moseneaga, A., & Agergaard, J. (2012). Agents of internationalisation? Danish universities' practices for attracting international students. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, *10*(4), 519–538.

Official Gazette (1981). *The law of higher education* [Text in Turkish]. Retrieved from https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.2547.pdf (April 15, 2021).

Özoglu, M., Gür, B. S., & Gümüs, S. (2016). Rapid expansion of higher education in Turkey: The challenges of recently established public universities (2006–2013). *Higher Education Policy*, *29*(1), 21–39.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rhoades, G., Kiyama, J. M., McCormick, R., & Quiroz, M. (2008). Local cosmopolitans and cosmopolitan locals: New models of professionals in the academy. *The Review of Higher Education*, *31*, 209–235.

Rostan, M., Ceravolo, F. A., & Metcalfe, S. A. (2014). The internationalization of research. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalization of the academy: Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 119–144). Dordrecht: Springer.

Selvitopu, A., & Aydın, A. (2018). Internationalization strategies in Turkish higher education: A qualitative inquiry in the process approach context. [Article in Turkish] *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *33*(4), 803–823.

SJR (2020a). *Scimago country rankings: Turkey*. Retrieved from https://www.scimagojr.com/countrysearch.php?country=TR (October 20, 2020).

SJR (2020b). *Scimago country comparison*. Retrieved from https://www.scimagojr.com/comparecountries.php (October 20, 2020).

Smeby, J-Ch., & Gornitzka, Å. (2008). All cosmopolitans now? The changing international contacts of university researchers. In Å. Gornitzka, & L. Langfeldt (Eds.), *Borderless knowledge. Understanding "new" internationalisation of research and higher education in Norway* (pp. 37–50). Dordrecht: Springer.

Stoop, I. (2012). Unit non-response due to refusal. In L. Gideon (Ed.), *Handbook of survey methodology for the social sciences* (pp. 121–147). Dordrecht: Springer.

Tight, M. (2012). Higher education research 2000–2010: Changing journal publication patterns. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *31*(5), 723–740.

TÜBİTAK (n.d.a). *Funding for scientific activities.* [Text in Turkish] Retrieved from: https://www.tubitak.gov.tr/tr/destekler/bilimsel-etkinlik/etkinlik-duzenleme-destekleri (April 20, 2021).

TÜBİTAK (n.d.b). *International support programmes: 1071 Programme.* [Text in Turkish] Retrieved from: https://www.tubitak.gov.tr/tr/destekler/akademik/uluslararasi-destek-programlari/icerik-1071-programi (April 20, 2021).

Uslu, B., Calikoglu, A., Seggie, F. N., Gümüs, S., & Kondakci, Y. (2021). Recent science and technology policies in Turkey: The shifting role and profile of the national higher education system? In T. Aarrevaara, M. Finkelstein, G. A. Jones, & J. Jung (Eds.), *Universities in the knowledge society: The nexus of national systems of innovation and higher education* (pp. pages 165–181). Dordrecht: Springer.

ÜAK (2021). *Tenure criteria for the 2021 January term* [Text in Turkish] Retrieved from: https://www.uak.gov.tr/Sayfalar/docentlik/basvuru-sartlari/2021/2021-ocak-donemi-docentlik-basvuru-sartlari.aspx (April 20, 2021).

Vabø, A., Padilla-Gonzales, L. E., Waagene, E., & Naess, T. (2014). Gender and faculty internationalization. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The Internationalization of the academy. Changes, realities and prospects* (pp. 183–206). Dordrecht: Springer.

Vural Yılmaz, D. (2016a). Internationalization of Turkish state universities: An evaluation over strategic plans. [Article in Turkish] *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, *21*(4), 1191–1212.

Vural Yılmaz, D. (2016b). The internationalization experience of Turkish universities from the standpoint of practitioners. [Article in Turkish] *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, *37*, 91–109.

Wagner, C. S. (2018). *The collaborative era in science. Governing the network.* Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wagner, C. S., & Leydesdorff, L. (2005). Network structure, self-organization, and the growth of international collaboration in science. *Research Policy*, *34*, 1608–1618.

Mapping of International Mobility Benefits in Strengthening Nursing Programs in Türkiye

Türkiye'de Hemşirelik Programlarının Güçlendirilmesinde Yararlanılan Uluslararası Mobilitenin Haritalandırılması

Hatice Yüceler Kaçmaz[1] iD, Nurhan Doğan[2] iD, Özlem Ceyhan[1] iD, Yeliz Sürme[1] iD

[1]Department of Nursing, Faculty of Health Sciences, Erciyes University, Kayseri, Türkiye
[2]Department of Nursing, Faculty of Health Sciences, Amasya University, Amasya, Türkiye

Özet

Küreselleşmenin hem sağlık sistemini hem de eğitim sistemini etkilediği düşünüldüğünde, hemşirelik eğitimi küreselleşmeden büyük ölçüde etkilenmekte ve hareketlilik programları önem kazanmaktadır. Bu araştırmada, Türkiye'de hemşirelik bölümlerinde üniversiteler arasındaki ortaklıkları ve hareketlilik programları çerçevesinde uluslararası düzeyde öğrenci ve öğretim elemanı hareketliliklerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Araştırma, çevrimiçi anket yolu ile uygulanan tanımlayıcı bir çalışmadır. Araştırma 2017–2018 eğitim öğretim yılında hemşirelik eğitimi veren 82 hemşirelik bölümü ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Hemşirelik eğitimini aktif olarak sürdüren fakülte ve yüksekokulların %70.7'si devlet üniversitesi olup, tamamında uluslararası öğrenci-öğretim elemanı hareketliliği programlarından biri bulunmaktadır. Bölümlerin %58.5'inin öğrenci hareketliliği ile ilgili olarak yurt dışına giden en az bir öğrencisi bulunduğu ve en çok tercih edilen ülkenin Polonya olduğu (%18.1) belirlenmiştir. Üniversitelerin %70.7'sinde yurtdışından kuruma gelen öğrenci bulunmadığı, toplamda 21 farklı ülkeden gelen öğrencilerin en fazla İspanya'dan geldiği tespit edilmiştir. Hemşirelik bölümlerinin yarıdan fazlasında (%53.7) programlar kapsamında yurtdışına giden öğretim üye ve elemanı bulunmaktadır. Hemşirelik mesleğinin gelişiminde hareketlilik programları önem arz etmektedir. Hemşirelik eğitiminde bu etkileşim programlarının daha aktif bir şekilde kullanılması için öğrencilere ve akademisyenlere gerekli danışmanlıkların yapılması ve uluslararasılaşmanın teşvik edilmesi mesleki gelişim açısından önemlidir.

Anahtar sözcükler: ERASMUS, hareketlilik programları, hemşirelik eğitimi, küreselleşme, uluslararasılaşma.

Abstract

Considering that the acceleration of globalization has affected both the health systems and the education systems worldwide, nursing education has been greatly impacted in the process and mobility programs have greatly gained in importance. This study aimed to investigate the mobility of students and academicians at the international level, within the framework of partnerships between universities and international mobility BSN (Bachelor of Science in Nursing) programs in Türkiye. The study used a descriptive method with an online survey and was carried out on 82 BSN programs during the 2017–2018 academic year. The data in the study was collected by means of the "Student and Academician Mobility Information Form" and it revealed that 70.7% of the faculties with BSN programs were from State universities and that all these institutions had student and academician mobility programs. 58.5% of the departments had at least one student who went abroad in the context of mobiliy and Poland was the most preferred choice (18.1%). 70.7% of the universities had no foreign students and for those institutions who did, the country having the highest number of students who enrolled in Türkiye, from a total of 21 countries, was Spain. There were academic staff and faculty who went abroad within the scope of the programs in more than half of the BSN programs (53.7%). Mobility programs are important for the development of the nursing profession. In order to use these more actively in BSN education, internationalization can be encouraged, and the required guidance should be given to students and academics.

Keywords: ERASMUS, globalization, international mobility, internationalization, nursing education.

S ince its accelerated emergence in the 1980s, the worldwide impact of globalization has become one of the most widely discussed issues in the world, today. While globalization was initially an economic phenomenon, it has shaped the world we know today with its social, political, eco- nomic and cultural impacts triggering changes in many areas, ranging from health to education and from economy to poli- tics. With the ease of international movement of capital, the world has become a global marketplace and the increasing competition among the countries trying to gain a place in this

İletişim / Correspondence:

Hatice Yüceler Kaçmaz, PhD
Department of Nursing, Faculty of
Health Sciences, Erciyes University,
38000, Kayseri, Türkiye
e-mail: haticeykacmaz@gmail.com

market, has caused a restructuring of the world economy (Ağrı, 2006; Aslan, 2004; Erdem, 2012).

Globalization is also interpreted as a result of advances in modern science and new technologies. Transportation opportunities and advancements in the information and communication technologies have caused the world to become smaller and has favoured the emergence of worldly consciousness. With globalization, people from different countries come together, exchange goods, services and ideas and benefit from each other's experiences. With the increase in transportation facilities, distances are shortened, transitions of countries and societies in the world increase and people are becoming more itinerant than ever (Aktel 2001; Balay, 2004; Karaman, 2010; Tarcan, 2001).

Globalization has imposed changes in education, in particular in higher education, as in many other structures of society. While the most important source of economic growth in agricultural societies and industrial economies is agricultural land, it is thought that information is the key for economic development in the 21st century, and lack of information is considered to be the principal obstacle to economic and social development. This perspective has laid the groundwork for higher education, considered to be at the center of information, production and distribution, to be considered among important resources for the economic development of countries around the world. In this context, with the effect of globalization as well as the emergence of the information society, new types of universities such as entrepreneurial, corporate and virtual universities have emerged. Relations between institutions have gradually increased with the establishment of new relationship networks, pluralistic institutional collaborations and focuses and universities have gained more international qualifications. Education programs such as the establishment of foreign universities, distance education and online education, are among the innovations brought by internationalization to education. Beside these, the mobility/mobilization of students and lecturers, which are an important aspect of internationalization in higher education, is increasing every day (Balay, 2004; Özdem, 2013; Council of Higher Education of Türkiye [CoHE], 2007, p. 251; CoHE, 2017, p. 84).

The mobility of students and academicians contributes to the acquisition of new information of the participating countries, with mutual interaction, the presence of more dynamic universities, the approximation and harmonisation of higher education systems all over the world, accelerating intercultural understanding and integration, establishing more pluralistic dialogue environments, increasing intellectual and academic dialogue between cultures, as well as enriching and developing education. On the other hand, these universities are criticised for losing sight of their mission of spreading national culture and shaping citizens, while cultural differences are leveled under the effects of global cooperation networks, as well as not educating nations according to their priorities and further deepening the inequality of opportunity in education (Bayık Temel, 2011; CoHE, 2017, p. 84; Çelik & Gömleksiz, 2010; Çetin, 2007).

Globalization has affected the nursing profession and nursing education as well, as with all professions. With globalization, there have been changes in the nature of knowledge, educational institutions and the structure of nursing education (Davidson, Meleis, Daly, & Douglas, 2003). In an effort to adapt to these changes, it is thought that the number of schools providing universal nursing education will gradually increase. It is aimed to ensure that schools that provide nursing education become specialized in time and become internationalized with student exchange programs (Bayık Temel, 2011). New academic systems are developed by ensuring student mobility in pre-and post-graduate education in nursing schools and students are obliged to take part of their education in other countries (Glass, 2006). Nursing students go to other countries and discover the opportunity to experience, research and examine their profession. This internationally developing academic mobility enables people from all countries to easily connect with each other and to share intercultural knowledge and skills (Bayık Temel, 2011). The international mobilization that has been carried out has fostered students' sense of independence, personal development, communication skills and has served to increase their self-confidence. It has served to develop their ability to understand different cultures and to apply transcultural care, while observing and comparing other countries' health care systems and nursing practice. It has many additional positive contributions, such as learning another language and making new acquaintances (Button, Green, Tengnah, Johansson, & Baker, 2005).

In the context of student mobility, the number of international students across the world which was estimated at eight hundred thousand in the 1970s, accounted for some 4.5 million in 2012 and this number was estimated to reach 8 million by 2022 (CoHE, 2017, p. 84). Whereas the first steps of internationalization in higher education began in Europe in the 1980s, the acceptance of international students in higher education through the payment of tuition started for the first time in England as late as 1979. The European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS)

program, which comes to mind when considering an increase in the mobility of international students and academicians and improving cooperation in education and research, both at the country level and throughout Europe, was created in 1987. The number of international students, which was less than one million in the world in 1975, reached 1.3 million in 1990 and 2.1 million in 2000 and this number was 4.1 million in 2010 (Arkalı & Nasır, 2016). This increase is expected to continue with acceleration and reach 8 million by 2022 (CoHE, 2017, p. 84). Recent changes in mobility indicate that the trend continues mostly towards Europe and the United States of America (USA). In 2013, the USA was the country accepting the highest number of international students (Arkalı & Nasır, 2016). Despite the decrease in recent years, the USA retains its position as the most attractive destination in the world for international students and academicians (Ozer, 2017). While Türkiye sent 51,295 students to other countries in 1999, this number dropped to 44,964 in 2013. It was among the top thirty countries preferred by foreign students in 1999 and there was a significant increase in the number of students in 2013 (1999–2013 18,337 and 54,387, respectively); it was ranked seventeenth among the top thirty countries. When we look at the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OECD) rates (8%) among current students in the countries where students go, compared to many countries, Türkiye is far below the average with a rate of 1.9%. On the other hand, it hosts only 1% of international students (OECD, 2015).

In a comprehensive study conducted by OECD on the future of higher education in the world in by 2030, it was stated that the higher education supporting and containing cross-border and transnational mobility of students, academicians and institutions would grow more (CoHE, 2017, p. 84; Şimşek & Bakır, 2016).

Nursing education, which is influenced by the globalization of both the healthcare system and education, also uses exchange programs in its bid to attain international qualifications (Bayık Temel, 2011; Ersin & Bahar, 2014). However, to the best of our knowledge, there are no studies in the literature that examine at what stage the nursing schools in Türkiye find themselves at this time, in the context of the international mobilization resulting from globalization. Therefore, in this study, it was aimed to investigate the mobilities of students and academicians at the international level, within the framework of partnerships between universities and mobility BSN programs in Türkiye.

Method

Study Design

The descriptive research method was used in this study.

Participants

The population of the study was composed of 124 faculties providing undergraduate education in BSN programs, affiliated with higher education institution in Türkiye. The plan included reaching the entire population and no sample selection was made. Within the scope of the study, BSN programs in Türkiye having international student and academician mobility program, as well as agreeing to participate in the study, were the only inclusion criteria. Universities who failed to complete the data collection forms were excluded from the study. Ultimately, the study was conducted with the participation of 82 BSN programs during the 2017–2018 academic year.

Data Collection

The data was collected between September 2017 and July 2018, using the "Student and Academician Mobility Information Form", which consists of two sections and a total of thirteen questions, including three about the institution and ten about the mobility of student-academician. The form, prepared by the researchers, was sent to the faculty deans and heads of departments of the universities where the study would be conducted through official letters from the university of the researchers, as well as through e-mail. The deans and head of department of BSN programs of the target universities that did not respond within six months were followed-up on by the researchers and their responses were collected.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the study was assessed using the IBM SPSS Statistic 22.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) packaged software in the environment. Descriptive and analytical statistical methods were used to evaluate the data and the value of $p < 0.05$ was considered as statistically significant.

Ethical Considerations

Attention was paid to ethical principles at every stage of the study. Prior to launch, Ethics committee approval was received from Erciyes University Social and Humanities Ethics Committee (EU/SBBEK-28). The institutions were informed about the study and responses were provided by the institutions that agreed to participate in the study.

Results

It was determined that 70.7% of the BSN programs were from State universities and included some 1023 academicans and 59,765 nursing students during the 2017–2018 academic year. All the institutions had student and academician mobility programs and university information centres. Among the mobility programs, the ERASMUS program was found to be present in all universities participating in the study and 85.4% of the schools were found to provide information about mobility program for the BSN programs (█ Table 1).

It was also determined that 58.5% of the departments had at least one students who went abroad in the context of student and academician mobility. Considering that the mobility started with the ERASMUS program, a total of 541 students benefited from the program and went abroad from 1987 to 2017; Poland being the most preferred (18.1%) one among 29 countries. It was found that 70.7% of the universities had no foreign students, whereas for those that did, a total of 159 students came to Türkiye from abroad to receive education; Spain had the highest number of students having come to Türkiye out of a total of 21 countries (Bulgaria, Poland, Belgium, Romania, Portugal, etc.). There were academicians who went abroad within the scope of the programs in more than half of the BSN programs (53.7%): 188 (17.2%) of the academicians went to abroad in the scope of mobility programs in all participating universities and among 30 visited countries (Poland, Germany, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, etc.), Portugal was noted to be the highest preferred destination (█ Table 2).

When the students and academicians mobility statuses of the institutions having BSN programs were examined based on some characteristics, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the State and private universities, in terms of student and academician mobility characteristics (*p*>0.05). It was also determined that ERASMUS was the largely preferred program providing mobility and informing the department about mobility program, though it did not produce a significant correlation between the student and staff mobility (*p*>0.05) (█ Table 3).

Discussion

Nowadays, in discussions on internationalisation in higher education mobility, the focus is on student and academician from developing countries heading to developed countries (Kış & Konan, 2012; Özdem, 2013; Taşçı Kaya, 2014). It was noted therefore, that the USA holds its position as the most attractive destination for international students and academicians (Ozer, 2017) and the mobility trend is towards Europe and the USA (Arkalı & Nasır, 2016). It was seen in the present study that Poland, as a Northern European country, is preferred more by students, which is also supported in the literature. This is due to the fact that Poland attaches great importance to exchange programs and is one of the top five countries actively using the programs (Akkutay, 2017; Oflaz & Çavdar, 2017). In another study conducted in Türkiye, Poland was found to be the first to receive students from other countries (Arkalı & Nasır, 2016). The fact that the university and higher education sys-

█ **Table 1.** Characteristics of BSN programs.

Characteristics	n	%
University type		
State university	58	70.7
Foundation university	24	29.3
Total number of academicians: 1023 (2017–2018 academic year)		
Total number of students: 59,765 (2017–2018 academic year)		
Mobility programs*		
ERASMUS	82	100
Mevlana	52	63.4
Others (International student exchange programs, private partnership between universities)	5	6.0
Mobility programs information center at the universities		
Yes	82	100
Mobility programs information center at the programs		
Yes	70	85.4
No	12	14.6

*Multiple options are marked.

tems in the USA and European countries are perceived as more effective seems to affect students selecting these countries. They believe that they can find better employment opportunities with the education they received at these schools and they can work and attain better living conditions in those countries (Ozer, 2017).

It is aimed with the exchange of students and academicians among universities to develop cooperation between countries, to increase the quality of higher education, to enable different universities to come together and make collaborative studies, to support the spread of these studies in other universities and to harmonise curricula of the universities with curriculum improvement studies (Ağrı, 2006). However, when the situation of Turkish students is evaluated, it is found that very few head to foreign countries to do any part of their studies

(Akkutay, 2017). Students from Türkiye constitute 0.9% of students benefiting from the mobility program in the world. Although students are the most financially supported group, it was noted that though at least one student of more than half of the BSN programs went abroad, only 541 nursing students have benefited from ERASMUS program, within the past thirty years. The fact that the overseas experiences of the students did not cause any privilege for students in regards to their nursing profession and the mobility programs are not evaluated in exams, might be discouraging students from participating. In line with these results, it is thought that increasing the introduction of the mobility programs earlier and evaluating the nurses' status of benefiting from mobility programs at the start of their profession, will increase the participation to these programs.

■■ Table 2. Characteristics of international mobility programs in BSN programs.

Characteristics	n	%
International student mobility programs		
Students going abroad		
Yes	48	58.5
No	34	41.5
Total number of students going abroad: 541		Min–max: 1–76
Countries		
Poland	98	18.1
Portugal	52	9.6
Spain	47	8.6
Others (26 countries)	344	63.5
Students from abroad		
Yes	24	29.3
No	58	70.7
Total number of students from abroad: 159		Min–max: 1–37
Countries		
Spain	37	23.2
Poland	31	19.4
Bulgaria	22	13.8
Others (18 countries)	69	43.3
International academician mobility programs		
Academicians going abroad		
Yes	44	53.7
No	38	46.3
Number of academicians: 224		Min–max: 1–33
Countries		
Portugal	52	18
Poland	41	14.2
Spain	19	6.5
Others (27 countries)	112	38.8

■■ **Table 3.** International mobility characteristics of BSN programs.

BSN programs	International mobility programs					
	Students going abroad		Students from abroad		Academicians going abroad	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
University type						
State university	43	15	22	36	38	20
Foundation university	5	19	2	22	6	17
p	0.064		0.160		0.092	
Name of international mobility programs						
ERASMUS	48	34	24	58	44	38
Mevlana	37	15	20	32	34	18
Others	1	4	0	5	1	4
p	0.066		0.065		0.077	
International mobility information center						
Yes	43	27	24	46	39	5
No	5	17	0	12	32	6
p	0.093		0.079		0.052	

Internationalisation in higher education will not only improve the quality of higher education institutions, it will also provide significant contributions in the economic, social and cultural fields of the countries. For this reason, countries need to make efforts to become an important attraction centre in internationalisation in higher education, at both student and academician levels. Despite all this, it is reported in the literature that the number of European students coming to Türkiye is quite low and a great majority of those students have come with short-term exchange programs (Ozer, 2017). Similar to the literature, it was determined in the results of the present study that 70.7% of the BSN programs in universities had no foreign student at all using the exchange programs, and that only 159 students had come from abroad to BSN programs in Türkiye in order to receive education, during the examined period. This may be associated with the fact that the BSN programs of the universities in Türkiye have not been sufficiently publicized to foreign students. In addition, higher education institutions and research centres prepare projects to attract successful people at both student and academician level to their countries and make huge investments in these projects (Ozer, 2017). In line with this information, it can be thought that the BSN programs and higher education in Türkiye have not formulated a sufficient amount of initiatives.

It was determined in this study that the students who have come to BSN programs in Türkiye through exchange programs came mostly from Spain. The reason for this may that in the previous academic year, this country sent some 37,235 students to another country (Akkutay, 2017), more than any other. In another study, it was seen that Spain was in the sixth place among the countries sending the highest number of students specifically to Türkiye (Arkalı & Nasır, 2016).

Higher education is one of the areas where global values are placed. Mobility, especially in international arenas, provides these through their students, academicians, projects, studies and personnel working in higher education (Akkutay, 2017; Kış & Konan, 2012; Oflaz & Çavdar, 2017; Özdem, 2013). Countries are particularly careful to strengthen both their education quality and research capacity by attracting international faculty members to their countries (Knight, 2007). Along with the number of international students, the number of foreign faculty members has an important role in internationalisation (Arkalı & Nasır, 2016). In terms of the number of personnel participating in the ERASMUS personnel mobility program, Türkiye was in second place, right after Poland, in the first five countries (Oflaz & Çavdar, 2017). The UK, Spain, Germany, Italy and Portugal are shown as the most popular five places for personal training (Akkutay, 2017). In this study, Portugal was also seen to be the most preferred place to go abroad within the scope of mobility programs for the BSN programs academicians in the universities. Since the effect of the increase in the mobility of international academicians will naturally reflect on the number of international students, it can be asserted that the changes should increase.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Internationalisation in higher education creates individuals who are open to the events and developments taking place around them, who have an improved culture of common living, have the ability to look at the events with a different perspective and provide contribution in the development of a new generation looking to ensure universal goodwill and harmony. It ensues the necessity to give importance to mobility programs, increase promotion activities and apply programs that will make mobility attractive, in order for the nursing profession to contribute to the development and change of the country. In addition, governmental incentives that will attract foreign students, international partnerships and promotional activities of universities should be increased. Exchange programs are also important in graduate education as in undergraduate education, therefore it is recommended to develop graduate exchange programs in nursing.

Limitations

Due to the confusion of meaning in the data collection form, the questions about the academicians from abroad could not be answered correctly by many participating universities. For this reason, the information about the academicians coming from abroad was not included in the data and the lack of evaluations on this issue was considered as a limitation of the study. Inadequate records of mobility programs in universities and inaccessibility of these records through websites have made the data collection process difficult, which can be considered as another limitation.

References

Ağrı, G. I. (2006). *Higher education policies and Erasmus project in the globalization process.* Master thesis [in Turkish], Dokuz Eylül University Institute of Social Sciences, İzmir.

Akkutay, E. A. (2017). Globalization in higher education and its reflections. [Article in Turkish] *Journal of Research in Education and Society, 4*(1), 1–16.

Aktel, M. (2001). Globalization process and its domains. [Article in Turkish] *Süleyman Demirel University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences, 6*(2), 193–202.

Arkalı, O., & Nasır, V. A. (2016). Internationalization in higher education: A look at the years 1999–2013 from the perspectives of the countries with the most international students and Turkey. [Article in Turkish] *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi, 6*(3), 288–297.

Aslan, K. (2004). Educational perspectives in globalization. [Article in Turkish] *Ege Journal of Education*, (5), 1–5.

Balay, R. (2004). Globalization, information society and education. [Article in Turkish] *Ankara University Journal of Educational Sciences, 37*(2), 61–82.

Bayık Temel, A. (2011). Globalization and internalization in nursing education. [Article in Turkish] *Dokuz Eylül University E-Journal of Nursing Faculty, 4*(3), 144–150.

Button, L., Green, B. B., Tengnah, C., Johansson, I., & Baker, C. (2005). The impact of international placements on nurses' personal and professional lives: Literature review. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 50*(3), 315–24.

CoHE (2007). *Turkey's higher education strategy: 2007-1.* Ankara: YÖK.

CoHE (2017). *Internationalization strategy document in higher education, 2018–2022.* Ankara: YÖK.

Çelik, V., & Gömleksiz, M. N. (2010). A critical examination of globalization and its effects on education. *Fırat University Journal of Social Science, 10*, 133–144.

Çetin, A. (2007). A conceptual study on universities in the process of globalization and university of the future. *ICANAS 38, International Congress of Asian and North African Studies* (pp. 187–188), September 10–15, 2007, Ankara.

Davidson, P. M., Meleis, A., Daly, J., & Douglas, M. (2003). Globalisation as we enter the 21st century: Reflections and directions for nursing education, science, research and clinical practice. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing, 15*(3), 162–174.

Erdem, A. R. (2012). Globalization: Effects on Turkish higher education. [Article in Turkish] *Yükseköğretim Dergisi, 2*(2), 109–117.

Ersin, F., & Bahar, Z. (2014). The effect of globalization upon nursing. [Article in Turkish] *Journal of Harran University Medical Faculty, 11*(3), 280–288.

Glass, N. (2006). Internationalizing nursing: Valuing the multiple spaces and places of nursing education. *Journal of Nursing Education, 45*(10), 387–388.

Karaman, K. (2010). Globalization and education. [Article in Turkish] *Zeitschrift für die Welt der Türken*, 2(3), 131–144.

Kış, A., & Konan, N. (2012). Inönü University faculty members A. B. information and views on erasmus from education programs. [Article in Turkish] *Ankara Review of European Studies*, 11(1), 41–60.

Knight, J. (2007). Cross-border higher education: Issues and implications for quality assurance and accreditation. In Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI), *Report: Higher education in the world 2007. Accreditation for quality assurance: What is at stake?* (pp. 134–146). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

OECD (2015). *Education at a glance 2015: OECD indicators.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

Oflaz, A., & Çavdar, E. (2017). An evaluation of teaching staff mobility in Erasmus programme and suggestions for the problems: In the cases of Ondokuz Mayıs University and Erzincan University. [Article in Turkish] *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies*, 61, 61–76.

Ozer, M. (2017). The last fifteen years of the internationalization of higher education in Turkey. [Article in Turkish] *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi*, 7(2), 177–184.

Özdem, G. (2013). Evaluation of ERASMUS program in higher education institutions (Example of Giresun University). [Article in Turkish] *Educational Administration: Theory and Practice*, 19(1), 61–98.

Şimşek, B., & Bakır, S. (2016). International students mobility and the internationalization process of Atatürk Universty. [Article in Turkish] *Atatürk University Journal of Turkish Researches Institute*, 55, 509–542.

Tarcan, E. (2001). The effects of globalization on health and the global process of healthcare enterprises. [Article in Turkish] *Istanbul Management Journal*, 39, 29–43.

Taşçı Kaya, G. (2014). Book review: Internationalization of higher education and global mobility. [Article in Turkish] *Journal of Educational Sciences*, 39, 195–199.

A Comparative Analysis of the Institutional Quality Evaluation Processes in Turkish, European, and American Higher Education Systems

Türk, Avrupa ve Amerika Yükseköğretim Sistemlerinde Uygulanan Kurumsal Kalite Değerlendirme Süreçlerinin Karşılaştırmalı Analizi

Burcu Özcan[1] (iD), Nurdan Kalaycı[2] (iD), Ting Li[3] (iD)

[1]Şehit Ümit Güder Secondary School, Ankara, Türkiye
[2]Department of Educational Sciences, Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University, Ankara, Türkiye
[3]The Center for International Studies and Programs, American Language Institute, University of Toledo, Toledo, OH, USA

Özet

Dünyada değişen ekonomik, kültürel, politik ve toplumsal koşullar diğer alanları etkilediği gibi yükseköğretim alanını da etkilemektedir. Değişen koşulların etkisiyle yükseköğretim kurumlarının işlevlerinin kapsamı hem genişlemiş hem de bunlara yenileri eklenmiştir. Bu değişikliklerin yanı sıra yükseköğretim kurumlarına olan talep eğitim, araştırma ve topluma hizmet boyutlarında her geçen gün artmaktadır. Yükseköğretim alanında yaşanan büyüme ve yükseköğretim kurumlarının toplum üzerindeki etkisinin derinleşmesi, yükseköğretim kurumlarının faaliyetlerinin niteliğine ilişkin sorgulamalar yapılmasına neden olmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda, yükseköğretim kurumlarında kurumsal kalite değerlendirme süreçleri yürütülmektedir. Araştırmanın amacı, Türk, Avrupa ve Amerika yükseköğretim sistemlerinde uygulanan kurumsal kalite değerlendirme süreçlerinin yapısal analizi ve karşılaştırılmasıdır. Araştırmanın bulguları, ülkemizde Yükseköğretim Kalite Kuruluna, yükseköğretim kurumlarındaki kalite komisyonlarına ve benzer bir konuda bilimsel çalışma yapacak olan diğer araştırmacılara katkı sağlayacağından önemlidir. Araştırma betimsel modeldedir ve nitel yöntem kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu Türkiye, İngiltere, Norveç, Finlandiya ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nin kurumsal kalite değerlendirme kuruluşları oluşturmaktadır. Veriler doküman incelemesi yöntemiyle toplanmış ve doküman analiziyle çözümlenmiştir. Bulgulara göre Türkiye, İngiltere, Norveç, Finlandiya'da kurumsal dış değerlendirme ya da denetim modelleri kullanılırken, Amerika'da kurumsal akreditasyon sistemi kullanılmaktadır. Tüm ülkelerde uygulanan kalite değerlendirme süreçlerinin temel amaçlar, değerlendirilen boyutlar, değerlendirme yaklaşımı, değerlendirme sürecinde görev alan kişiler ve değerlendirme türü bakımından genel olarak benzerlik gösterdiği ancak, ülkelerin yükseköğretim sistemlerindeki yönetim, koordinasyon ve tanınma uygulamalarına göre farklılıklar olduğu belirlenmiştir. Türk yükseköğretim sisteminde kurumsal kalite değerlendirme süreçlerinin nitelikli bir şekilde yürütülebilmesi için, ulusal koşullar göz önünde bulundurularak sistemli bir şekilde düzenlenmeli ve uygulanmalıdır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Kurumsal kalite değerlendirme, yükseköğretim, yükseköğretimde değerlendirme.

Abstract

Changing economic, cultural, political, and social conditions worldwide have a big impact on higher education. Under the influence of changing conditions, the functional scope of higher education institutions has expanded and new functions have been added. In addition to these changes, the demand for higher education institutions is increasing day by day in terms of education, research, and service to society. The expanding functions of higher education and its deepening impact on society call for quality activities of higher education institutions. Therefore, institutional quality evaluation processes are carried out in higher education institutions. This study aims to analyze and compare institutional quality evaluation processes applied in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems. The findings obtained are important as they will contribute to the Higher Education Quality Council of Türkiye, quality commissions in higher education institutions, and other researchers who will conduct scientific studies on this subject. It is a descriptive and qualitative study whose sample consists of institutional quality evaluation agencies from Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the United States of America. The data in the study were collected and analyzed by applying the document analysis method. The findings indicate that institutional external evaluation or audit models are used in Türkiye, England, Norway, and Finland while an institutional accreditation system is used in the USA. Although the quality evaluation processes applied are generally similar in terms of basic objectives, assessed dimensions, assessment approach, people involved in the implementation of the assessment, and assessment type, there are differences in aspects such as the management, coordination, and recognition practices of the countries' higher education systems. Taking into account national circumstances, the institutional quality evaluation processes in the Turkish higher education system should be organized and implemented in a systematic way to ensure quality higher educational practice.

Keywords: Higher education, higher education evaluation, institutional quality evaluation.

Rapidly changing living conditions require individuals who have the knowledge and competencies to anticipate and adapt to possible new changes through education. Education is a process that involves not only a single individual, but also a process that includes the society in which the educated individual interacts. The education level and educational quality of an individual are indicators of the educational quality of society. Each level in the education system gradually contributes to the individual's educational quality.

Higher education plays an important role in the future of society (Eroğlu, 2004), contributing to social development by increasing socio-economic, scientific, and cultural accumulations (Akbulut Yıldırmış & Seggie, 2018). According to Barnett (2004), higher education worldwide is undergoing a series of changes, influenced by factors such as globalization, the revolution that comes with digital technologies, the impact of society on higher education, participation in higher education, access, equal opportunities, and competition. Some of these changes put higher education institutions (HEIs) in challenging relationships with the government, students with different expectations, the business world at the intersection of competition and marketing, and other higher education institutions. (Barnett, 2004). In such a context, various efforts are taken to inspect higher education institutions to hold them accountable to society and the government (Çetinsaya, 2014; Deveci, 2012; Turkish Higher Education Quality Council [THEQC], 2019). Reasons for such efforts include but are not limited to the deepening impact of higher education institutions on society, the expenditures made for the execution of higher education activities, and the impact of the quality of the information produced on global competition (Hamutoğlu, Ünveren-Bilgiç, & Elmas, 2020). Within the scope of these regulations, the importance attached to evaluation studies on audit processes, transparency, accountability, quality, and quality standards by governments and higher education institutions has increased (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, & Worthen, 2004; Stockmann & Meyer, 2016). ▮▮ Figure 1 outlines the areas affecting the quality movement in higher education and the relationships between them.
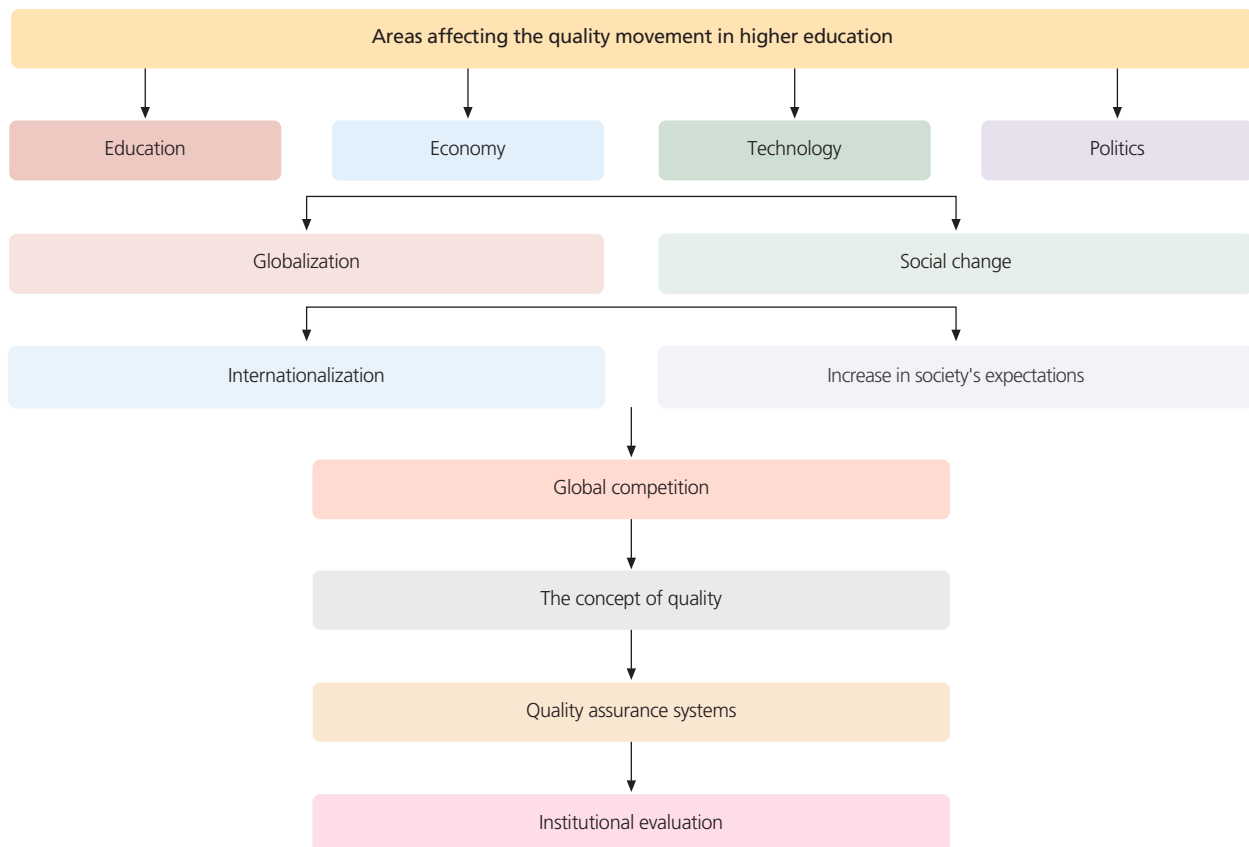
▮▮ **Figure 1.** Areas affecting the quality movement in higher education.

Changes in education, economy, technology, and politics paved the way for globalization and social change. Parallel to the evolution of the economy and technology, the development of the workforce and the importance of quality have come to the fore (Gürbüz & Ergülen, 2008). The effects of developments and changes in social, political, and communication fields have also increased the growing social demand and expansion of systems, and consumer demand for transparency (Martin & Stella, 2007). These effects play a role in increasing the importance of quality in higher education institutions as well as in all fields (Gürbüz & Ergülen, 2008). This process has affected the acceleration of global competition and the development of the concept of quality, which plays an important role in global competition. The spread of the concept of quality, and concerns related to quality have led to the emergence of quality assurance systems and institutional evaluation processes (Martin & Stella, 2007).

Accreditation is the first form of quality assurance that emerged in North America, Central, Northern, and Eastern Europe. To encourage development, European countries encourage competition in higher education systems by using competitive conditions to determine national rankings and research budget allocation (Bok, 2013). With the introduction of university rankings, graduate tracking, and other surveys by governments and professional bodies into higher education, the foundations for a modern, large-scale, systematic higher education quality assurance system have been developed (Yingqiang & Yongjian, 2016). According to Bok (2013), many governments, especially in the United States, have liberalized regulatory controls over the planning, budgeting, and administration of universities. They try to support entrepreneurship by giving more authority to managers and academics within the institution. As a result, governments need to hold higher educational institutes accountable regularly by creating elaborate systems to evaluate the research and educational effectiveness of universities (Bok, 2013), and to develop systematic, government-sponsored quality assessment mechanisms nationwide (Barnett, 2004).

Many countries have started to carry out quality assessment studies in higher education (Harvey & Knight, 1996) and have established units or institutions/organizations responsible for quality assurance. A successfully implemented quality assessment and assurance system provides information that will convince institutions and the public about the quality of activities in higher education institutions. This system will also offer suggestions on how higher education institutions can improve what they do (Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in The European Higher Education Area

[ESG], 2015). The quality assurance system in higher education, which started in the 2000s in Türkiye, has been provided by the institutional evaluation processes carried out by THEQC since 2015 (THEQC, 2019).

There are differences in the quality assessment systems by countries. In some countries, governments implement assessment systems and management control mechanisms that require reporting to improve quality (El-Khawas, DePietro-Jurand, & Holm-Nielsen, 1998); some other countries provide quality assurance through accreditation; some other countries provide it through evaluation committees or external evaluation processes that take place in cycles. No matter whether the quality assurance is achieved through the accreditation or external evaluation process, this process must be carried out systematically, following scientific principles and fundamentals, and by experts in this field (Boyle & Bowden, 1997; Martin & Stella, 2007).

Through quality evaluation processes wisdom is also needed in addition to the ones stated above. To reach wisdom, a workflow must be followed from data to information, from information to knowledge, and from knowledge to wisdom. As seen in ▌ Figure 2, the data are symbols that show the properties of objects and events. Information is data that has been processed to increase usefulness. Therefore, the difference between data and information arises from their functionality (Ackoff, 1999). Information answers descriptive questions such as who, what, when, where, and how many. When we have the knowledge, explanations that answer the question of how can be made. To reach wisdom, it is necessary to show that understanding/ comprehension is realized by answering the question why. These explanations can be associated with institutional evaluation. Thus, institutional evaluation processes should be carried out based on data, information, knowledge, and wisdom to increase both the efficiency and effectiveness of the evaluated institution or program.

The issue of quality in Türkiye was not handled at the national level and in a systematic structure parallel to the new developments in this field until the 2000s (Deveci, 2012) Therefore, analyzing the quality evaluation processes for higher education institutions in the USA and European countries and comparing them with the process in Türkiye is important. In addition, although the quality assurance system and institutional evaluation processes of higher education institutions in Europe are carried out within the framework of ESG, there are differences in practices among these institutions. To reveal these differences, the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems were examined and ana-
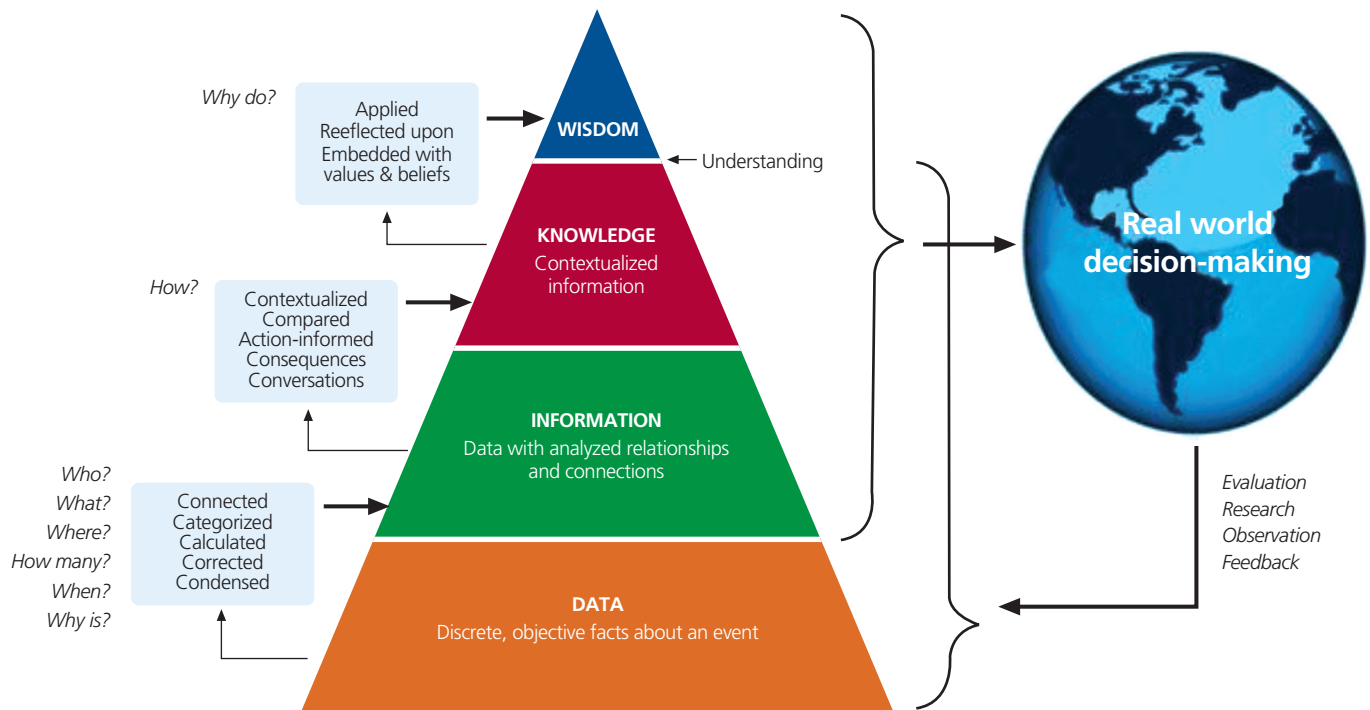
Figure 2. The pyramid of data turns into wisdom (*Source:* Bucata & Rizescu, 2019).

lyzed. The findings obtained from the analysis and comparison of these processes are important as they will contribute to THEQC, quality commissions in higher education institutions, and other researchers who will conduct scientific studies on this subject.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is to analyze and compare the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems. In line with this purpose, an answer to the following research question was sought in the study:

- How do institutional quality assessment processes applied in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems differ according to the naming of the evaluation system, the purpose of the evaluation, the dimensions of the evaluation, the evaluation approach, the people involved in the evaluation process and the type of evaluation?

Method

In this section, information about the research model, study group, data collection tools, data collection, and analysis are given.

Research Model

A qualitative research method was used in this study, in which institutional quality assessment processes applied in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems were structurally examined and compared. In this direction, the structural dimensions of quality assessment processes are described in depth (Kumar, 2011; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016).

Study Group

The study group of the research consists of institutional quality evaluation institutions in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the United States of America (USA) (■ Table 1). The criterion sampling method, which is one of the purposive sampling methods, was used in the formation of the study group. Three criteria were used to determine the countries included in the study group and their institutional quality evaluation institutions: Countries with top-ranked universities in the world rankings (Quacquarelli Symonds [QS], 2019; Times Higher Education [THE], 2019; University Ranking by Academic Performance [URAP], 2019), countries with the institutions/agencies that ensure the execution of the quality evaluation processes in the higher education systems and availability of documents related to institutional quality evaluation

Table 1. Study group of the research.

	Country	Continent	The Institution/Agency ensuring the implementation of quality evaluation processes in the higher education system
1	Türkiye	Asia-Europe	Turkish Higher Education Quality Council (THEQC)
2	England	Europe	The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) Designated Quality Body in England (DQB)
3	Norway	Europe	Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (NOKUT)
4	Finland	Europe	Finnish Education Evaluation Centre (FINEEC)
5	USA	America	Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA)

processes on the official websites of institutions/agencies that ensure the execution of quality evaluation processes in higher education systems.

Data Collection Method, Sources, Tool, and Data Collection

The document analysis method was used to collect data in the research. The documents examined as the data source of the research are regulations, guides, criteria, reports on the official websites of the quality institutions (THEQC, QAA/DQB, NOKUT, FINEEC, CHEA) responsible for the institutional quality assessment processes applied in higher education systems in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA, and the literature on these processes.

The data were collected through a document analysis table. The themes in the document review table were rearranged after the documents related to the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in higher education systems in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA were carefully examined (Table 2).

Data Analysis

This study examines the documents on the official web pages of the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in higher education systems. The collected data were analyzed with the document analysis method (Bowen, 2009). The themes in the document review table were written separately for each quality evaluation institution in electronic form. In cases where sufficient information on a theme could not be directly found on websites, information was requested by sending an e-mail to the relevant institution. The data of each theme of the five organizations in the study group were put side by side in each theme line, and a single table (Table 3) was prepared to show the findings comparatively.

In the research, the steps suggested by Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) were followed to both improve and check validity and reliability. In the document review, primary sources were prioritized for the data to be original. The data analyzed from different sources are presented simultaneously by comparison to avoid the creation of inconsistent definitions or explanations on a subject from documents that do not include different perspectives. The researchers discussed the meanings of the terms within the scope of the subject to understand the documents more accurately and deeply. The meanings of the concepts related to the subject such as institutional evaluation, external evaluation, internal evaluation, and accreditation were re-examined by reviewing the literature. During the document review process, new information and expressions such as the Deming/Shewhart cycle, and regional/national accreditation were taken into account to increase reliability. Feedback was received from two academics, who had published on the subject, regarding the relevance of the research findings and comments. All the documents obtained regarding the quality evaluation institutions of the countries and their activities were recorded electronically. Finally, the sources for all the explanations included in the research are shown in the text and the references section.

Results

The findings obtained on the structural analysis and comparison of the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems are presented below.

Naming the Evaluation System

Institutional quality evaluation agents in higher education systems are called as follows:

- Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation in Türkiye
- Quality and Standards Review in England
- Institutional Quality Assurance Audit in Norway
- The Quality Audits of Higher Education Institutions in Finland
- Institutional Accreditation in the USA

Table 2. General information on evaluation agent for institutional quality assurance in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA.

Country/ organization	Year of foundation	General information
Türkiye/ THEQC	2015	Institutional quality evaluation processes in the Turkish higher education system are regulated by the Turkish Higher Education Quality Council (THEQC). THEQC is an institution with administrative and financial autonomy, a public legal entity, and a special budget (THEQC, 2020). The main duties of THEQC are listed in detail in the Regulation on Higher Education Quality Assurance and the Turkish Higher Education Quality Council (Official Gazette, 2018; THEQC, 2019). Some of the main duties of THEQC are to make evaluations according to national and international quality standards regarding the quality levels of leadership, government and quality, learning and teaching, research and development and service to society, to carry out external and internal quality assurance, accreditation processes and authorization of independent external evaluation institutions (THEQC, 2019; THEQC, 2022).
England/ QAA DQB	1997 2018	The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) carries out quality assessment processes in higher education institutions in England for Higher Education. QAA is an independent body that monitors and advises on standards and quality in UK higher education. The main tasks of QAA are setting and monitoring standards for UK higher education institutions and access to courses leading to higher education degrees, including the development of the Quality Code for higher education, advising on the right to be named a UK university, reviewing UK higher education and preparing a report on the findings, and examining complaints about academic standards and quality in higher education. In addition, QAA provides training, guidance, and support to help UK higher education institutions develop their own quality assurance processes. QAA was designated as the Designated Quality Body (DQB) for England in 2018.
Norway/ NOKUT	2003	Institutional quality evaluation processes in the Norwegian higher education system are carried out by the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT). NOKUT is an independent specialist organization under the Ministry of Education and Research. NOKUT's main tasks are the evaluation of the systems of higher education institutions in terms of quality assurance, accreditation of higher education and vocational education institutions and programs, review of previous accreditation, evaluation of the importance given to the evaluation of quality in higher education, recognition of qualifications offered by foreign higher education institutions and Norwegian higher education institutions (Langfeldt, Harvey, Huisman, Westerheijden, & Stensaker, 2008).
Finland/ FINEEC	2014	The Finnish Education Evaluation Center (FINEEC) carries out institutional quality evaluation processes in the Finnish higher education system. FINEEC is an independent organization operating as a separate unit within the Finnish National Education Agency. The main tasks of FINEEC are evaluating the activities of basic education institutions and higher education institutions in accordance with the national evaluation plan, evaluating the learning outcomes related to the program objectives, and supporting educational institutions in matters related to evaluation and quality management (Loukkola, Vinther-Jørgensen, Pol, & Treml, 2017).
USA/ CHEA, USDE	1996	Accreditation bodies recognized by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) or the US Department of Education (USDE) carry out institutional quality assessment processes in higher education institutions in the USA. These organizations may only be recognized by CHEA or USDE, or by both. Organizations other than CHEA that provide institutional accreditation in the USA are divided into three; regional, national-religious, and national-occupational. CHEA is a private non-government agency, while USDE is a federal government agency. CHEA's main task is to examine the capacity of accreditation bodies to provide and improve the academic quality of higher education institutions and programs according to CHEA standards. The main task of USDE is to examine the capacity of accrediting agencies to validate eligible higher education institutions and programs for federal funds, including student aid, based on federal standards.

The data analysis suggests that traditionally the concepts of *evaluation* and *accreditation* are used and the concept of accreditation has been in use from 2020 in the Turkish higher education system. The concept of *review* in the higher education system of England and the concept of *the audit* are used in the higher education systems in Norway and Finland. In the USA higher education system, the concept of *accreditation* is used. It is known that accreditation is different from other quality evaluation processes. It is a process "by which a (non-)governmental or private body evaluates the quality of a HEI as a whole or a specific educational program to formally recognize it as having met certain pre-determined minimal criteria or standards (Vlasceanu, Grünberg, & Pârlea, 2007, p. 25)."

At the end of the accreditation process, positive or negative decisions are made, such as recognition or granting a license for a certain period. The concepts of audit and review have been used interchangeably by Vlasceanu and others (2007). Moreover, Vlasceanu and others (2007) state that in the United Kingdom, evaluation is also called a review. However, the concepts of evaluation and audit do not refer to exactly the same processes (■ Figure 3). According to the Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education and Career Development (AKKORK, 2020), evaluation is the control of dimensions such as education, research, personnel, and infrastructure of a university, academy, institute, or program. An audit is defined as the activity in which the institutional quali-
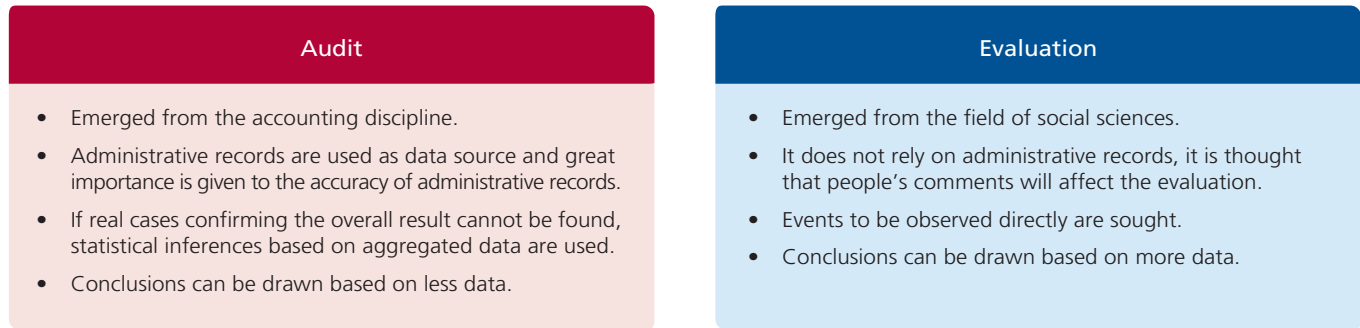
Table 3. Findings regarding institutional quality evaluation processes implemented in Turkish, European, and American higher education systems.

Country/ Institution	Türkiye/ THEQC	England/ QAA	Norway/ NOKUT	Finland/ FINEEC	USA/ CHEA, USDE
Naming the evaluation system	Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation	Quality and Standards Review	Institutional Quality Assurance Audit	The Quality Audits of Higher Education Institutions	Institutional Accreditation
Purpose of evaluation	To evaluate the compliance of the HEI with the mission/ vision and strategic goals the institution defines and whether it adopts the continuous improvement approach.	To provide proof to the Office for Students (OfS) about whether providers meet the requirements of the OfS regulatory framework. To provide proof to the OfS to allow the OfS to decide whether registered providers are neglecting or are at increased risk of neglect of their conditions of registration.	To verify whether the HEI's internal quality assurance ensures the quality of education and encourages improvement.	To evaluate the consistency of the quality work of HEIs according to European standards. To evaluate whether the effective enhancement of HEIs is achieved through the quality system. To support internationalization, experimenting, and a creative atmosphere in HEIs. To collect clear and transparent information on the quality process at HEIs.	To ensure minimum quality in HEIs. To make sure HEIs have processes to try to do what they do better.
Evaluated dimension	Leadership, governance, and quality Learning and teaching Research and development Service to society	Learning and teaching	Learning and teaching	Competence • Learning and teaching Impact and renewal • Research, development and innovation • Societal impact Quality and well-being • Quality system and strategic management Learning organisation • An evaluation area chosen by the HEI	Mission Integrity: Ethics and responsibility Learning and teaching Institutional planning and effectiveness Management system (Differentiating among accreditation agencies)
Evaluation approach(es)	Continuous improvement	Student-centered	Student-centered	Enhancement-led evaluation Student-centered	(Differentiating among accreditation agencies)
Persons involved in the evaluation process	Institutional External Evaluation Commission Head of evaluation team/ Evaluators • Academics • Administrative staff • Students • Employer/professional practitioners	Provider facilitator QAA officer QAA Quality Assurance Manager • Senior QAA officer Evaluation team • Different experts, expert consultants according to the fields	Evaluation team • Academics • Students	Project supervisor Evaluation team • Academics • Students • Employer/professional practitioners	Evaluation team • Academics • Managers • Members of the public interested in higher education
Evaluation type	Peer	Peer	Peer	Peer	Peer

ty control system is controlled at the institutional or program level (AKKORK, 2020). According to another definition (Reddy, 2017), evaluation is the systematic assessment of the effectiveness and efficiency of a program; on the other hand, the audit is determining the compliance of programs, activities, and functions with predetermined standards. While the purpose of the evaluation is stated as making a judgment about the quality of the service available, the purpose of the audit is stated as measuring the practices against a standard (Twycross & Shorten, 2014; Vlasceanu et al., 2007). According to Havens (1980), when examining a program, answers to the same basic questions are sought in both the audit and evaluation processes: "What happened? How does this compare to some standards? What can be done to improve performance in the future?" Although answers to the same questions are sought in both processes, there are theoretical and philosophical differences between the two concepts, stemming from the traditions of the intellectual disciplines they evolved from (Davis, 1990; Havens, 1980).

Havens (1980) emphasizes that the administrative records available to the auditor may not always be complete and reli-

Audit	Evaluation
• Emerged from the accounting discipline. • Administrative records are used as data source and great importance is given to the accuracy of administrative records. • If real cases confirming the overall result cannot be found, statistical inferences based on aggregated data are used. • Conclusions can be drawn based on less data.	• Emerged from the field of social sciences. • It does not rely on administrative records, it is thought that people's comments will affect the evaluation. • Events to be observed directly are sought. • Conclusions can be drawn based on more data.

Figure 3. Differences in audit and evaluation processes.

able, while the evaluator can never observe everything that needs to be observed to support firm conclusions. Therefore, observation and statistical inference can be used together. In addition, Pierre, Peters and Fine Licht (2018) stated that the perception of the differences between audit and evaluation has changed significantly in recent years, and audit has largely turned into a new evaluation form.

Purpose of Evaluation

The purposes of the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in the higher education systems are expressed in different ways in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA. The purpose of the Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation in Türkiye is to evaluate the compliance of the HEI with the mission/ vision and strategic goals the institution defines and whether it adopts the continuous improvement approach (THEQC, 2020, 2021).

The purposes of the Quality and Standards Review in England are to provide proof to the Office for Students (OfS) about whether providers meet the requirements of the OfS regulatory framework and to allow the OfS to decide whether registered providers are neglecting or are at increased risk of neglect of their conditions of registration. (The Designated Quality Body in England [DQB], 2022; The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education [QAA], 2019). In England, the OfS was established as the independent regulator of higher education by the Higher Education and Research Act 2017. The legal functions of the OfS include publishing the regulatory framework for higher education in England and keeping track of higher education institutions officially registered with the OfS and managed by the OfS (QAA, 2019). The regulatory framework sets out the basic requirements that higher education institutions must meet for enrollment in OfS. DQB is operated on an arms-length basis by QAA and in accordance with the provisions of the Higher

Education and Research Act 2017 carries out its evaluations in line with the UK Quality Code for Higher Education, which was revised and republished in 2018 (DQB, 2022). The Quality Code provides a reference point for effective quality assurance and sets out a set of expectations that clearly and concisely articulate the results organizations must achieve in setting and maintaining the standards of their awards and managing the quality of service they deliver (QAA, 2019).

The purpose of the Institutional Quality Assurance Audit implemented in the higher education system in Norway is to verify whether the HEI's internal quality assurance ensures the quality of education and encourages improvement which means how HEIs use the quality assurance practices and the information they collect to improve their education (Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education [NOKUT], 2017).

The purposes of the Quality Audits of Higher Education Institutions highlight learning and teaching, which is the most important function of HEIs. The main function of external quality assurance is to encourage the change and development of the learning and teaching process (Stensaker, Langfeldt, Harvey, Huisman, & Westerheijden, 2011; Szymenderski, Yagudina, & Burenkova, 2015) because the quality of education is a key issue in the creation of the global higher education area (Finnish Education Evaluation Centre [FINEEC], 2019). The purposes of the Quality Audits of Higher Education Institutions implemented in the Finnish higher education system are evaluating the consistency of the quality work of HEIs according to European standards, evaluating whether the effective enhancement of HEIs is achieved through the quality system, supporting internationalization, experimenting and a creative atmosphere in HEIs and collecting clear and transparent information on the quality process at HEIs (FINEEC, 2019). The purposes of the Institutional Accreditation process implemented in the US higher educa-

tion system are to ensure minimum quality in higher education institutions and to make sure that institutions have processes to try to do what they do better (Eaton, 2016).

When the objectives of the institutional quality evaluation processes implemented by the countries in their higher education systems are analyzed, these purposes are thought to be expressed as different forms of the same functions. Billing's (2004) study comparing the purposes of international external quality assurance systems in higher education and investigating whether national quality assurance frameworks show similarity or diversity is the source of this view. The dimensions expressed by the purposes are listed as improving quality, providing publicly available information on quality, standards, objectives achieved, and the use of resources, and contributing to the planning process in accreditation and higher education systems (Billing, 2004).

Langfeldt, Stensaker, Harvey, Huisman, and Westerheijden (2009) also state that quality assurance activities in higher education institutions are carried out to serve various interrelated general purposes. These purposes are ensuring that higher education institutions, practices, or programs meet the required standards, closing the programs that do not comply with the standards, performing institutional or program accreditations, and informing students and other stakeholders about the quality of higher education institutions and their education. Billing (2004) states that national quality assurance systems across countries have much in common. However, the different ways in which the purposes of institutional quality evaluation systems are expressed between countries can be explained in concepts such as applicability, size of the higher education sector, legal rigidity, or flexibility of the quality assurance system.

Evaluated Dimensions

The differentiating features of the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in the higher education systems of the countries due to common and various factors draw attention when the evaluation dimensions are analyzed. Within the scope of the Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation in Türkiye, evaluations are made in the dimensions of leadership, governance and quality, learning and teaching, research and development, and service to society (THEQC, 2022). In the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in the England and Norway higher education systems, the learning and teaching dimension stands out. Various other types of evaluation are carried out in England and Norway. In the Quality Audits of Higher Education Institutions in the Finnish higher education system, evaluations are made on learning and teaching, research, development, innovation, societal impact, quality system, and strate-

gic management, an evaluation area chosen by the HEI (FINEEC, 2019). In the Institutional Accreditation process implemented in the US higher education system, evaluations are made under the headings of mission, integrity: ethics and responsibility, education and training, institutional planning and effectiveness, and management system. However, since Institutional Accreditation in the USA is carried out by various accreditation agencies, the dimensions evaluated differ between accreditation agencies.

The dimension common to the higher education systems of all countries is learning and teaching. Although the quality of learning and teaching in higher education institutions is one of the main focuses that led to the establishment of national quality assurance systems in European countries (Syzmenderski et al., 2015), there are relatively few studies focusing on the impact of institutional quality evaluation processes on this dimension (Coates, 2006; Stensaker et al., 2011). In Syzmenderski and others' (2015) study, which investigated the effects of quality assurance systems on the quality of learning and teaching in universities, lecturers expressed their doubts about the effectiveness of the quality assurance system on the quality of learning and teaching. In addition, almost all students had difficulty in explaining the effect of external evaluation on the quality of learning and teaching.

Evaluation Approach

In the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in higher education systems, continuous improvement approach is adopted in Türkiye, student-centered approach in England and Norway, enhancement-led evaluation and student-centered approach in Finland, and approaches that differ among accreditation institutions in the USA.

The source of the continuous improvement approach is the Kaizen philosophy. Kai, change; Zen means better. The concept of Kaizen means continuous improvement as a whole. Masaaki Imai, who introduced the Kaizen philosophy to the world officially in the 1980s, explains that quality is everything that can be improved and that the first thing that comes to mind when talking about the concept of quality is the quality of the "product" or "service" (Kalaycı, 2008). Deming's cycle (Shewhart/PDCA cycle), which is considered the basis of modern quality studies with the philosophy of Kaizen, can be used in the application of the continuous improvement approach.

The implementation of institutional quality evaluation processes in England, Norway, and Finland's higher education systems all adopt the student-centered approach, which once again reveals the importance of students, who are the most important stakeholders of higher education institutions in quality evaluation processes. In ESG, which is the basic

guide of quality assurance systems in higher education institutions, it is a must to include students in quality processes and to get their opinions (ESG, 2015; Merabishvili, Tsereteli, & Espineira Bellon, 2017). Ensuring student participation in these processes provides an index of the extent to which students research what will make quality education happen, information about what students do, and a tool for determining the efficiency of higher education (Coates, 2006).

Enhancement-led evaluation which is applied alongside the student-centered approach in Finland is based on participation and interaction. The objectives of the enhancement-led evaluation are to involve the personnel, students, and stakeholders of the higher education institution in recognizing the strengths, good practices and areas to be developed in the functioning of the institution, to support higher education institutions in reaching their own goals and to create a premise for the continuous improvement of the institutions (FINEEC, 2019). As such, enhancement-led evaluation is similar to the continuous improvement approach adopted in Türkiye.

Persons Involved in the Evaluation Process

Our data analysis shows that the persons involved in the evaluations are generally similar in their titles and qualifications/features.

The Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation Commission (IEER) is responsible for the execution of evaluations in higher education institutions in Türkiye (THEQC, 2021). IEER first creates a pool of volunteer evaluators and determines the assessment teams. Evaluation teams include academics, administrative staff, students, and employers/professional practitioners. The team leader and members who will take part in the evaluation teams must complete the evaluator training. Evaluations are made about whether there is a conflict of interest or not between the evaluation team and the higher education institution to be evaluated (THEQC, 2020, 2021).

In the execution of the Quality and Standards Review implemented in England, the QAA officer, QAA quality assurance manager who is a senior QAA officer, provider facilitator and the evaluation team take part. The size and composition of the evaluation team vary according to the scope of the evaluation and the characteristics of the higher education institution. The evaluation team consists of different experts and consultants from different fields. Experts are expected to have rich experience and strong expertise in the field for which they are responsible. In addition, regardless of their field of expertise, all experts should have some common knowledge and skills regarding quality evaluation processes. Members of the evaluation team must attend training provided by QAA before

participating in the assessment. To reveal possible conflicts of interest between the evaluation team and the higher education institution, the higher education institution is informed about the team members (QAA, 2019).

The evaluation team, which takes part in the Institutional Quality Assurance Audit implemented in Norway, consists of academic experts with background/knowledge in corporate governance, quality assurance, academic staff, affiliation to a foreign institution, and an institutional-level student representative. NOKUT offers specialist training, enabling the members of the assessment team to participate in the training. Before the evaluation team is approved, information about the evaluation team members is requested from the higher education institution to evaluate whether there is a conflict of interest with the higher education institution (NOKUT, 2017).

Within the scope of The Quality Audits of Higher Education Institutions implemented in Finland, higher education institutions have the right to choose a national or international evaluation team in the evaluation process. International assessment teams must have one or more Finnish members with expertise in the Finnish higher education system. Evaluation teams usually consist of four members: the project manager on behalf of FINEEC, academics, students, and employers/professional practitioners. The head of the evaluation team is required to have previous experience in evaluating the activities of higher education institutions and to have extensive knowledge of the higher education system. Prior to the appointment of the evaluation team, higher education institutions have the right to obtain/provide information about team members to avoid any conflict of interest (FINEEC, 2019).

In the Institutional Accreditation implemented in the USA, the evaluation team consists of academics, administrators and members of the public interested in higher education. In the accreditation process, the faculty and administrative peers of the profession are involved, and academics and administrators provide information to the visiting teams. These members who carry out the peer review process also constitute the majority of the members of the accreditation commissions or boards that make decisions regarding their accreditation status. During the visit to the higher education institution, non-academic public members interested in the field of higher education can also join the team of academics and administrators (Eaton, 2015).

There was no finding that students were included in the evaluation teams that took part in the quality evaluation processes carried out in England. In the accreditation system implemented in the US higher education system, student participation is not allowed in regional and national accreditation institutions, while student participation is provided in some of

the institutions responsible for program accreditation. Considering the importance of student participation in quality assurance processes, this seems to be a feature that needs to be revised in the UK and the USA.

Evaluation Type

All of the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in higher education systems in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA are peer-reviewed. Peer review is the evaluation of a business by one or more people with similar competencies as its producers. In the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in higher education systems, peer review is carried out with the participation of academic staff. Application of peer review, which focuses on mutual assistance to increase quality, can be expected to yield better results because most of the evaluation methods can be seen as threatening (Bingham & Ottewill, 2001; Chapman, 2017; Kalaycı, 2009). Evaluation is as specific as a medical diagnosis process: it asks questions that we do not want answers to be given, with occasional bad results (Theall, 2008 *cited in* Kalaycı, 2009). On the other hand, the strengths of peer review are:

- It provides a professional and detailed exploration of a topic.
- Ideas and practices related to a topic are shared.
- It increases the knowledge and understanding of academics about each other's units and enables participants to approach other units from a wider perspective.
- It enables evaluators to develop themselves professionally, such as through reflection and action planning.

In studies related to peer review, it is stated that this method has weaknesses as well as strengths (Bingham & Ottewill, 2001; Bloxham, Hudson, Outer, & Price, 2015). The poor preparedness of the evaluators, doubts as to whether the assessment was carried out rigorously, the lack of clear evidence on which evaluators base their opinions, and the inclusion of personal comments instead of interpreting standards based on a discipline are aspects that weaken peer review.

To ensure the effectiveness of the peer review process, some factors at the institutional level should be taken into account. For instance, a senior leader should be appointed to be responsible for actions in the region. There should be institutional registration of trained peer reviewers. Staff also need to be trained to best ensure the quality evaluation of the learning and achievement standards, as well as to align policy and process regarding probation, promotion, performance management, awards and recognition, and evaluation. Compliance with academic governance processes, committees, and other audit processes should be involved. Incentives to participate in peer review should be encouraged, and research on how to design quality evaluation and implement its activities needs to be promoted (Booth, Beckett, & Saunders, 2015).

Discussion

The data on institutional quality evaluation processes carried out in higher education systems in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA were analyzed in accordance with the following themes: the naming of the evaluation system, the purpose of the evaluation, the evaluated dimension, the evaluation approach, the persons involved in the evaluation process, and the evaluation type. The conclusions reached as a result of this analysis are as follows: Institutional quality evaluation processes in higher education systems are organized and carried out by autonomous or independent institutions. While the applied quality assessment processes are similar to each other in Türkiye and European countries, a different system is applied in the USA. Türkiye, England, Norway, and Finland use institutional external evaluation or audit models, while the USA uses the institutional accreditation system. The purposes of the quality evaluation systems vary according to the management, coordination, and recognition practices of the countries in their higher education systems. However, the main purposes such as improving the quality of higher education institutions, ensuring public accountability for the goals achieved, and using resources are included in the quality evaluation systems of all countries. The dimension that is considered common in the higher education systems of all countries is learning and teaching. In institutional quality evaluation processes, a continuous improvement approach is applied in Türkiye, student-centered approach in England and Norway, enhancement-led evaluation, and a student-centered approach in Finland. The approaches applied in the USA differ among accreditation agencies. In Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA, the people taking part in the evaluations are generally similar in terms of title and qualifications/features they should have; however, while student participation is included in the quality evaluation processes in the higher education systems of Türkiye, Norway, and Finland, no finding could be obtained about whether the student is included in the evaluation team in England. In the accreditation system applied in the US higher education system, student participation in regional and national accreditation institutions is not included; however, student participation is allowed in some of the organizations responsible for program accreditation. Finally, peer review is carried out in the quality evaluation processes applied in the higher education systems of all the countries included in the research.

Universities have three main tasks: learning and teaching, research and development, and service to society. The importance given to these tasks varies according to the circumstances.

These circumstances can be of economic, cultural, political, and social origin. The implementation of these three tasks and the evaluation of the applications are important in terms of increasing the quality. Thus, the implementation of quality evaluation processes in higher education systems all over the world has become a necessity. This imperative process needs to ensure quality because what we measure evolves. The main point in quality processes should be the criticism of the criteria, evaluation approaches, and principles used in the process, rather than criticizing the process. Barnett's (1992) views on the educational goals of the university, Harvey and Green's (1993) concept of transformational quality, and Billington's (2011) concept of educere are all based on a perception that a continuous transformation of individuals and universities takes place, which enriches the student, faculty, and university intellectually. The most basic purpose of institutional quality evaluation processes should be to create an intellectual environment and to develop the world of thought of its stakeholders. In addition, public accountability is extremely important among the objectives of quality evaluation processes. Accountability is one of the most important practices for the formation of a democratic university.

Successful universities in Europe and the USA are undergoing a planned change and transformation (Ayten, 2016). Analyzing the institutional quality evaluation processes applied in higher education systems in Türkiye, England, Norway, Finland, and the USA, it was determined that the Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation implemented in Türkiye shows similarities with the systems applied in these countries. The Institutional External Evaluation and Accreditation overlaps more with the quality evaluation systems applied by European countries, especially regarding the Bologna process. However, there are also critical views in the literature regarding the effects of these processes being similar:

- The most important problem with the restructuring process is the unexpected scope and depth of the changes made, as well as the similarity with the changes in many different countries with different social, political, historical, and economic characteristics. Although the speed and dynamics of this change vary according to the specific historical conditions and social formation of each country, it is seen that the direction of the reforms follows a very similar path when the latest political initiatives are put into practice by states around the world are taken into account. Across all continents, many government plans, constitutional reforms, legislative actions, regulations, and proposals bring universities closer to the demands of the state and the market. This situation has various consequences in terms of higher education finance, administration, and mission, and ultimately causes problems in the freedom to set their own agenda,

which is preferred by individual institutions (Schugurensky, 2013 *cited in* Bağmen Kaya, 2019, pp. 134–135).

Another view that is parallel to the above view is as follows:

- Under the influence of the growing power of neoliberal ideological genres, education is increasingly commodified. Educational institutions, on the other hand, are transformed into products by being exposed to the logic of the markets. People working at all levels of educational institutions are increasingly valued unequally not for their contribution to the economy, to national and international competitiveness, but only for their contribution to exam results… The great pressure to judge teaching by performance evaluation alone is just a powerful indicator of these trends (Apple, 2017).

Freire (1996) says pedagogy that focuses on production and consumption, which does not think in any way about what we produce, who benefits from what we produce, and who harms what we produce, is definitely not critical pedagogy. We can address this view of Freire specifically with regard to this subject as follows. What we evaluate in higher education systems, who benefit from the evaluation results, and who/what the evaluation results contribute to or harm is an issue that should definitely be considered.

Application of peer review in quality evaluation processes in all countries analyzed is remarkable, but there are concerns in the literature about the objective implementation of peer review (Bloxham et al., 2015; Daniel, Mittag, & Bornmann, 2007). Billing and Thomas (2000) state that evaluation of teaching staff in England is considered very natural. However, a senior academic in Türkiye may perceive it as a threat to autonomy and personal rights, due to the differences in the national higher education systems.

Institutional quality evaluation processes in Türkiye need to be organized and carried out systematically, with in-depth thinking. To be able to do this, the institutional quality evaluation processes of the countries that are more successful in higher education should be analyzed by considering multiple dimensions and by expanding the study group. The quality evaluation processes in Türkiye should be developed cyclically, considering the national conditions.

References

Ackoff, R. L. (1999). *Ackoff's best.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Akbulut Yıldırmış, M., & Seggie, F. N. (2018). The development of higher education studies as an academic field: A literature review at international and national levels. [Article in Turkish] *Yükseköğretim Dergisi, 8*(3), 357–367.

AKKORK (2020). *What is the difference between audit, accreditation, and quality evaluation in the education system?* Retrieved from http://akkork.ru/e/faq/index.php?id_8=40 (June 17, 2020).

Apple, M. W. (2017). *Eğitim toplumu değiştirebilir mi?* (Ş. Çınkır, Çev.). Ankara: Anı.

Ayten, A. M. (2016). Strategic sustainable site management in higher education institutions. [Article in Turkish] *Yükseköğretim Dergisi, 6*(3), 142–154.

Bağmen Kaya, A. (2019). Küreselleşme çağında yükseköğretimin yeniden yapılandırılması. In C. Celep (Ed.), *Karşılaştırmalı eğitim yönetimi* (pp. 133–166). İstanbul: Hiperyayın.

Barnett, R. (1992). The idea of quality: Voicing the educational. *Higher Education Quarterly, 46*(1), 3–19.

Barnett, R. (2004). The purposes of higher education and the changing face of academia. *London Review of Education, 2*(1), 61–73.

Billing, D. (2004). International comparisons and trends in external quality assurance of higher education: Commonality or diversity? *Higher Education, 47*, 113–137.

Billing, D., & Thomas, H. (2000). The international transferability of quality assessment systems for higher education: The Turkish experience. *Quality in Higher Education, 6*(1), 31–40.

Billington, R. (2011). *Felsefeyi yaşamak* (A. Yılmaz, Çev.). İstanbul: Ayrıntı.

Bingham, R., & Ottewill, R. (2001). Whatever happened to peer review? Revitalising the contribution of tutors to course evaluation. *Quality Assurance in Education, 9*(1), 32–39.

Bloxham, S., Hudson, J., Outer, B., & Price, M. (2015). External peer review of assessment: An effective approach to verifying standards? *Higher Education Research & Development, 34*(6), 1069–1082.

Bok, D. (2013). *Higher education in America.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University.

Booth, S., Beckett, J., & Saunders, C. (2015). Peer review of assessment network: Supporting comparability of standards. *Quality Assurance in Education, 24*(2), 194–210.

Bowen, G. A. (2009), Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal, 9*(2), 27–40.

Boyle, P., & Bowden, J. A. (1997). Educational quality assurance in universities: An enhanced model. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 22*(2), 111–121.

Bucata, G., & Rizescu, M. A. (2019). Improving the quality and efficiency of higher education systems based on the knowledge-management approach. *International Conference Knowledge-Based Organization, 25*(1), 199–205.

Chapman, A. (2017). Using the assessment process to overcome imposter syndrome in mature students. *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 41*(2), 112–119.

Coates, H. (2006). The value of student engagement for higher education quality assurance. *Quality in Higher Education, 11*(1), 25–36.

Çetinsaya, G. (2014). *Büyüme, kalite, uluslararasılaşma: Türkiye yükseköğretimi için bir yol haritası.* Eskişehir: Anadolu Üniversitesi.

Daniel, H. D., Mittag, S., & Bornmann, L. (2007). The potential and problems of peer evaluation in higher education and research. In A. Cavalli (Ed.), *Quality assessment for higher education in Europe* (pp. 71–82). London: Portland Press.

Davis, D. F. (1990). Do you want a performance audit or a program evaluation? *Public Administration Review, 50*(1), 35–41.

Deveci, N. K. (2012). *Türk yükseköğretiminde eğitim-öğretim hizmetlerinin kalite düzeyinin ve kalite yükseltme çalışmalarının incelenmesi: Türkiye'deki devlet ve vakıf üniversiteleri üzerinde bir saha çalışması.* Yüksek lisans tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.

DQB (2022). *Assessments.* Retrieved from https://dqbengland.org.uk/assessments/ (August 13, 2022).

Eaton, J. S. (2015). *An overview of U.S. accreditation.* Retrieved from https://www.chea.org/overview-us-accreditation (February 8, 2020).

Eaton, J. S. (2016). *Accreditation and recognition in the United States.* Retrieved from https://www.chea.org/accreditation-recognition-united-states (February 8, 2020).

El-Khawas, E., DePietro-Jurand, R., & Holm-Nielsen, L. (1998). Quality assurance in higher education: Recent progress; Challenges ahead. *The UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education: Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century,* October 5–9, 1998, Paris, France.

Eroğlu, E. (2004). *Yükseköğretimde hizmet kalitesi.* Ankara: Nobel.

ESG (2015). *Standards and guidelines for quality assurance in the European higher education area.* Brussels, Belgium.

FINEEC (2019). *Audit manual for higher education institutions 2019-2024.* Retrieved from https://karvi.fi/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/FINEEC_Audit-manual-for-higher-education-institutions_2019-2024_FINAL.pdf (October 1, 2020).

Fitzpatrick, J. L., Sanders, J. R., & Worthen, B. R. (2004). *Program evaluation: Alternative approches and practical guidelines.* Boston: Pearson.

Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Freire, P. (1996). *Letters to Cristina.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Gürbüz, E., & Ergülen, A. (2008). *Yükseköğretim kurumlarında hizmet kalitesi ölçü ve modelleri.* Ankara: Detay.

Hamutoğlu, N. B., Ünveren-Bilgiç, E. N., & Elmas, M. (2020). Quality processes in higher education: A comparative study of countries according to human development index reports. [Article in Turkish] *Yükseköğretim Dergisi, 10*(1), 112–124.

Harvey, L., & Green, D. (1993). Defining quality. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 18*(1), 9–34.

Harvey, L., & Knight, P. T. (1996). *Transforming higher education.* London: Society for Research into Higher Education.

Havens, H. S. (1980). *Audit and evaluation: Is there a difference?* Atlanta Chapter Association of Government Accountants. Retrieved from https://www.gao.gov/assets/113596.pdf (April 20, 2020).

Kalaycı, N. (2008). "TQM center" and "curriculum" that have been neglected during the application process of TQM in higher education. [Article in Turkish] *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, *6*(2), 163–188.

Kalaycı, N. (2009). Methods used in the evaluation process of faculty members' teaching performance in higher education institutions. [Article in Turkish] *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, *15*(4), 625–656.

Kumar, R. (2011). *Araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Edge Akademi.

Langfeldt, L., Harvey, L., Huisman, J., Westerheijden, D., & Stensaker, B. (2008). *Evaluation of NOKUT: The Norwegian agency for quality assurance in education*. Retrieved from https://enqa.eu/wp-content/uploads/2008/02/External-review-report-of-NOKUT-February-2008.pdf (January 16, 2020).

Langfeldt, L., Stensaker, B., Harvey, L., Huisman, J., & Westerheijden, D. (2009). The role of peer review in Norwegian quality assurance: Potential consequences for excellence and diversity. *Higher Education*, *59*, 391–405.

Loukkola, T., Vinther-Jørgensen, T., Pol, M., & Treml, B. (2017). *ENQA agency review: Finnish education evaluation center (FINEEC)*. Retrieved from https://enqa.eu/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/FINEEC-Review-Report_FINAL.pdf (January 18, 2020)

Martin, M., & Stella, A. (2007). *External quality assurance: Options for higher education managers: IIEP training modules*. Paris: UNESCO IIEP.

Merabishvili, N., Tsereteli, M., & Espineira Bellon, E. M. (2017). Should the students be engaged in the higher education quality assurance? Perspectives of students and quality assurance department. *The Eurasia Proceedings of Educational & Social Sciences*, *7*, 52– 62.

NOKUT (2017). *ENQA review of NOKUT: Self-assessment report*. Retrieved from https://www.nokut.no/contentassets/02c019a4a8824e5db0d5c34fc5523122/nokuts_self-assessment_report_2017.pdf

Pierre, J., Peters, B. G., & Fine Licht, J. (2018). Is auditing the new evaluation? Can it be? Should it be? *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *31*(4), 726–739.

QAA (2019). *Quality and standards review for providers registered with the office for students: Guidance for providers*. Retrieved from https://www.qaa.ac.uk/docs/qaa/guidance/quality-and-standards-review-for-registered-providers-guidance.pdf?sfvrsn=4ccdc281_20 (October 1, 2020).

QS (2019). *World university rankings*. Retrieved from https://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2019 (April 4, 2020).

Reddy, S. (2017). *Program evaluation vs. performance audit*. Retrieved from https://www.drsandeepreddy.com/blog/program-evaluation-vs-performance-audit (April 4, 2020).

Regulation on Higher Education Quality Assurance and the Higher Education Quality Council (2018). *Official Gazette*, 30604, 23 November 2018.

Stensaker, B., Langfeldt, L., Harvey, L., Huisman, J., & Westerheijden, D. (2011) An in-depth study on the impact of external quality assurance. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *36*(4), 465–478.

Stockmann, R., & Meyer, W. (2016). *The future of evaluation: Global trends, new challenges, shared perspectives*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Szymenderski, P., Yagudina, L., & Burenkova, O. (2015). The impact of an assurance system on the quality of teaching and learning: Using the example of a university in Russia and one of the universities in Germany. *Higher Education Studies*, *5*(5), 15–25.

THE (2019). *World university rankings*. Retrieved from https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-universityrankings/2019/worldranking#!/page/3/length/25/sort_by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/sta (April 21, 2020).

THEQC (2019). *YÖKAK stratejik plan 2019–2023*. Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/sp/Yokak_2019_2023_Stratejik_Plan.pdf (May 20, 2020).

THEQC (2020). *Yükseköğretim kalite güvencesi*. Retrieved from https://www.yokak.gov.tr/hakkinda/yuksekogretim-kalite-guvencesi (May 20, 2020)

THEQC (2021). *Institutional external evaluation, accreditation and monitoring programs guide*. Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/Site_degerlendirme_prog_doc/KDDAI_Kilavuzu_Eng.pdf (August 6, 2022).

THEQC (2022). *Institutional external evaluation and accreditation criteria: Version 3.0*. Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/KidrKlavuz1.4/INSTITUTIONAL_EXTERNAL_EVALUATION_AND_ACCREDITATION_CRITERIAv3.pdf (August 6, 2022).

Twycross, A., & Shorten, A. (2014). Service evaluation, audit and research: What is the difference? *Evidence-Based Nursing*, *17*(3), 65–66.

URAP (2019). *World ranking*. Retrieved from https://www.urapcenter.org/Rankings/2019-2020/world-2019 (May 24, 2020).

Vlasceanu, L., Grünberg, L., & Pârlea, D. (2007). *Quality assurance and accreditation: A glossary of basic terms and definitions*. Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES.

Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2016). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin.

Yingqiang, Z., & Yongjian, S. (2016). Quality assurance in higher education: Reflection, criticism, and change. *Chinese Education & Society*, *49*, 7–19.

Thematic Analysis of Status Reports Made within the Scope of Higher Education Assessment and Quality Assurance: The Comparative Case of England and Türkiye

Yükseköğretim Değerlendirme ve Kalite Güvencesi Kapsamında Gerçekleştirilen Durum Raporlarının Tematik Olarak İncelenmesi: İngiltere ve Türkiye Örneği

Nazire Burçin Hamutoğlu[1] ID, Emine Nur Ünveren-Bilgiç[2] ID, Muzaffer Elmas[3] ID

[1]The Center for Teaching and Learning, Eskişehir Technical University, Eskişehir, Türkiye
[2]Faculty of Education, Düzce University, Düzce, Türkiye
[3]Kocaeli Health and Technology University, Kocaeli, Türkiye

Özet

Bu çalışmada 2015 yılından bu yana ortaya koyduğu amaçları gerçekleştiren Yükseköğretim Kalite Kurulu'nun (YÖKAK) 2016, 2017 ve 2018 yıllarında değerlendirme ve kalite güvencesi kapsamında yayınladığı durum raporlarının tematik olarak incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Buna ek olarak, çalışma kapsamında elde edilen sonuçlar İngiltere'nin kalite güvence ve değerlendirme sistemi ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Bu noktadan hareketle, kalite güvencesinde ileriye yönelik yapılabilecek sürdürülebilir gelişim planlarındaki iyileştirmelere yönelik önerilere yer verilmiştir. Çalışmada sınırlı sayıda kaynağın derinlemesine betimlenmesi ve incelenmesi hedeflendiği için nitel bir paradigma takip edilerek durum çalışması deseni kullanılmıştır. İçerik analizinin kullanıldığı çalışmada, yükseköğretimde kalite kapsamında faydalanılan toplam 77 kaynak içerik analizi yöntemi ile incelenmiştir. Çalışmada elde edilen sonuçlar, kalite güvence sisteminin kalbini oluşturan kurumsal özerklik ve liderlik çalışmalarını uluslararasılaşma kapsamında ele alması ve ileriye yönelik misyonların oluşmasında öneriler sunması açısından önemlidir. Türkiye'deki yükseköğretim kurumları arasında iş birliği ve eklemlenme kapsamında hem diploma programları hem de mikro kredilendirme sistemlerine yönelik ileriye dönük öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: Değerlendirme, içerik analizi, İngiltere, kalite güvence, Türkiye, yükseköğretim.

Abstract

In this study it is aimed to examine the status reports which were published by the Turkish Higher Education Quality Council (YÖKAK) in 2016, 2017 and 2018 within the scope of evaluation and quality assurance, thematically. In addition, the results were compared with the UK's quality assurance and evaluation system. From this point of view, suggestions for improvements in sustainable development plans that can be made for the future in quality assurance are included. This study describes and examines a limited number of sources in depth, so a case study design with a qualitative focus was employed. The study, in which content analysis was used, was analyzed with the content analysis method of a total of 77 resources used within the scope of quality in higher education. The results obtained in the study are important in terms of considering the institutional autonomy and leadership studies, which form the heart of the quality assurance system, within the scope of internationalization. Forward-looking suggestions were presented concerning both the diploma programs and micro-credit systems within the scope of collaboration and articulation among institutions of higher education in Türkiye.

Keywords: Content analysis, England, evaluation, higher education, quality assurance, Türkiye.

T he world economy has undergone a change as knowledge overtakes material capital as a source of future wealth (Gencel, 2001). Uncertainties that arise in matters such as which information, to what extent, how and by how much universities are expected to produce knowledge and value present challenging problems for graduates, academics and employers (Hill, Lomas, & MacGregor, 2003). This situation pushed many countries to develop common standards and policies within their higher education (HE) systems and the processes associated with them. Based on these changes, the concept of quality for achieving common standards in HE came to the fore with the *Bologna Process*, which was first dis-

cussed at the global level in 1999. Evaluation of HE institutions called for both internal and external quality control processes that taken together would ultimately reveal quality assurance, which is stated as monitoring and evaluation of the studies carried out to determine that the quality standards are met, within the framework of a certain system and standards.

England

England has been a frontrunner in putting the quality of HE into its agenda. This positioned it to better cope with the globalization of HE and the liberalization of the market, making HE more relevant to social and economic needs, expanding access to HE, ensuring comparability of all provisions and processes within and among institutions (including international comparisons), ensuring financial accountability of HE to the public, training students to create a valuable workforce, and increasing the number of HE institutions.

Today's national system of quality assurance in the UK had its start in discussions about the concept of quality in a more practical way in the early 1990s due to the significant decrease in the number of students in HE (Harvey, 2005). The Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), whose mandate is to contribute to the maintenance and improvement of higher education quality in the UK, was established in 1992 by the Committee of Chancellors and Vice-Chancellors (CVCP), the Polytechnic Directors Committee, the Scottish Central Funded Colleges Conference (CSCFC) and the Permanent Executives Conference (SCOP). Thanks to this Council, regular quality inspections were carried out between 1992 and 1997, and implementation guides were produced by creating improvement projects on quality.

In 1995, CVCP, SCOP and the Scottish Higher Education Directors Committee formed a Joint Planning Group to develop proposals for a new single quality assurance system for HE. The Joint Planning Group's draft report, prepared in 1996, suggested that a new and independent agency should be established to carry out all the functions of HEQC. The new organization, the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), was established in 1997.

The purpose of QAA (2003) is defined as "to attract public attention to sound standards of HE qualifications and to promote continuous improvement in the management of HE quality". Aiming at much more than HEQC, QAA emphasizes standards. To evaluate whether the responsibilities in higher education institutions are fully fulfilled, QAA comes to the fore by reviewing the country's quality policy, determining a number of guiding reference points, and defining the standards in detail, step by step, based on these points (Harvey, 2005). With

the help of these standards, QAA has also put forward a framework of competencies. However, the final "qualifications framework" is implemented as two different qualifications frameworks, as a common agreement between Scotland and the rest of the United Kingdom could not be achieved (Harvey, 2005; QAA, 2003). In line with these determined standards, the first corporate audit program in England and Northern Ireland started in February 2003 (and separately in Scotland with its own framework) and is repeated every six years. Institutions can be subjected to interim evaluations when necessary if they have evidenced trouble in meeting the enunciated standards (QAA, 2003).

Türkiye

As discussed in both the *Bologna Process* and *Lisbon Strategies*, individuals in today's world should be able to work in cooperation with individuals living in different countries and make evaluations by considering the expectations of different markets and policies, beyond discovering many new things and knowing themselves in line with the labor expectations of their own country's policies and market. At this point, the establishment of a quality culture in the HE process will help individuals to take on responsibilities such as accessing information, being aware of the importance of information, using information, protecting and spreading information voluntarily, and taking it one step further, as a principle beyond acquiring a bachelor's degree that will provide a job opportunity. The *Regulation on Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions* was prepared in 2005 in Türkiye by the Council of Higher Education to improve the quality levels of the academic and administrative services of existing HE institutions and to develop cooperation among countries on quality assurance within the scope of the Bologna Process. The Higher Education Institutions Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Commission (YÖDEK), which consists of nine members elected by the Interuniversity Board and a student representative determined by the National Student Council, is responsible for the organization and coordination of academic evaluation and quality improvement studies in HE institutions, within the scope of this authorizing regulation (YÖDEK, 2005). YÖDEK prepared the *Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Guide in Higher Education Institutions*, which defines the processes that will guide the execution of academic evaluation and quality improvement studies in HE institutions in the light of the relevant regulation, with a focus on quality improvement (YÖDEK, 2007). The *Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation*, which came into effect as of being published in the *Official Gazette* dated 23.07.2015 and numbered 29423, amend-

ed the earlier YÖDEK Regulation and a new Higher Education Quality Board was established within the scope of the new regulation. With the *Omnibus Law* dated 01.07.2017 and numbered 7033 and the addition made to the 35th *Article of the Law No. 2547*, the internal and external quality assurance accreditation processes require evaluations according to national and international quality standards regarding the quality levels of education, research activities and administrative services of HE institutions. Executing the processes of authorizing independent external evaluation bodies begun to be carried out by an institution with administrative and financial autonomy, public legal personality and a special budget. The Higher Education Quality Board (YÖKAK), which was established to evaluate the quality assurance system in Türkiye, focuses on the concepts of accountability, transparency, and learning outcomes with an evidence-based approach and innovation. YÖKAK has brought an important dynamism to the HE quality processes with its trainings provided to the HE community, online visits, evaluation and training portals, and program accreditation agency registrations. YÖKAK, which guides HE institutions to establish and develop their own quality assurance systems, has three important objectives regarding quality assurance:

- Supporting the structuring of the internal quality system that focuses on the realization of the mission and objectives of HE institutions and the external evaluation of this system,
- Authorizing and recognizing national and international accreditation bodies, and,
- Disseminating a culture of quality assurance throughout the HE system.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The questions to be answered in the study were handled within the scope of the following:

- Thematic examination of the status reports of YÖKAK, which has been achieving its goals since 2015, within the scope of national evaluation and quality assurance report issued in 2016, 2017 and 2018.
- Comparing the results obtained in the study with the England's quality assurance and evaluation system demanded by other countries, based on the fact that 80% of the institutions that make up the HE system are overseas, and making suggestions for improvements in the sustainable development plans for quality assurance.

The results obtained in the study are important considering the institutional autonomy and leadership (YÖKAK, 2019a,b,c) studies, which form the heart of the Turkish quality assurance system and presenting suggestions for the cre-

ation of forward-looking missions. As such, this study seeks answers to the following research questions:

- What are the structures of the internal quality systems of Turkish HE institutions and how do they relate to the external evaluation processes of this Turkish national system?
- How are the authorization and recognition processes of national and international accreditation institutions of HE institutions carried out?
- What is the process for establishing and deepening the quality assurance culture throughout the Turkish HE system?
- When the works on improving quality in the HE institutions of England and Türkiye are comparatively examined, what are the similarities and differences between the English and the Turkish systems at both institutional and national levels?

Method

Since this study aimed to describe and examine a limited number of sources in depth, a case study design was used by following a qualitative paradigm. *Quality Assurance Evaluation Reports* published in Türkiye in 2016, 2017 and 2018 and 77 resources used in HE quality assurance activities in England were examined. The research in Türkiye regarding *Quality Assurance Evaluation Reports* published in 2016, 2017 and 2018 was deeply examined by using content analysis, and some thematic codes were obtained.

In the second stage of the study, the quality reports of a university in England evaluated by QAA were examined with the help of thematic codes obtained from the documents examined in Türkiye and evaluations were made through continuous comparisons. When the process of obtaining data is examined in the study, it can be said that content analysis was used, and summarizing of reports for each of the nation are used as a data collection tool.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the research, the documents obtained in the analysis of the data were coded by two different experts at different times and placed in the appropriate themes. The codes created by the researchers at different times were consistent with the compared themes. The findings obtained by each researcher were interpreted and an opportunity was created for verification, support, or cross-validation. In addition, the reliability formula suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used to calculate the interrater reliability of the research. Based on this calculation [Reliability = Consensus / (Consensus + Disagreement)], the interrater reliability of the research was calculated as 81.81%. Reliability calculations over 70% are considered reliable for research purposes (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Table 1. Structuring of internal quality systems of higher education institutions and external evaluation processes of this system.

Countries	Theme	Category	Code
Türkiye England	Institutional Self-Evaluation Reports (ISERs)	Guide	Mission
			Evidence
		Status reports	Suitability for purpose
			Compliance with the guide
			Quality assurance system in the self-evaluation process of the institution
			Education and training in the self-evaluation process of the institution
			Research and development in the self-evaluation process of the institution
			Management system in the self-evaluation process of the institution
	Institutional external evaluation	Selection of evaluator teams	Demographic features
			General features
			Suggestions for the process
		Improvements	Number of higher education institutions participating in the process
			Trainings
			Published documents
		Missing aspects	Evaluation
			PDCA cycle
			Systematic structure

Results

Examining the quality assurance status reports made for 2016, 2017 and 2018 in the context of the first question with the help of content analysis, the reports were grouped into two themes: institutional self-evaluation reports and institutional external evaluation. ▪▪ Table 1 shows the themes, categories and codes revealed during the content analysis.

When the status reports made within the scope of quality assurance for 2016, 2017 and 2018 were examined in the context of the second question with the help of content analysis, these reports were seen to gather under a single theme: *accreditation*. ▪▪ Table 2 shows the themes, categories and codes revealed during the content analysis process.

Regarding the third question, when the quality assurance status reports for 2016, 2017 and 2018 were examined with the help of content analysis, the reports were seen to fall under the theme of *disseminating the culture of quality assurance*. ▪▪ Table 3 shows the themes, categories, and codes revealed during the content analysis.

Table 2. Execution of authorization and recognition processes of national and international accreditation institutions of higher education institutions.

Countries	Theme	Category	Code
Türkiye England	Accreditation	Carried out	Published reports
			Organizations in the registration process
		Proposed	Dissemination

Table 3. The process of disseminating the culture of quality assurance in the higher education system.

Countries	Theme	Category	Code
Türkiye England	Dissemination of a quality assurance culture	Carried out	Board activities
		Proposed	Awareness

Discussion

The mission and evidence sub-categories in the guide category under the theme of the institution's self-evaluation reports are handled with an evidence-based approach in all reports about how the cycles in the institution's quality assurance system are closed. The *mission* sub-category appears in the following form in the 2016 Report, "Include information on how the institution defines the main components of the internal quality assurance system, how it manages it, how it makes improvements and how it closes the cycle, in line with its mission and objectives"; and appears in the following form in the 2017 report, "Within the scope of the 'mission differentiation and specialization' project supported by the Council of Higher Education, universities are expected to focus on one of the issues such as education, research and technology production, regional development". It also appears in the following form in the 2018 report, "To guide the continuous development of HE institutions in line with their mission and goals, adopting the understanding of transparency and accountability regarding the use of resources, increasing the contribution of stakeholders to HE outputs, increasing the international reputation and competitiveness of the Turkish HE system, being among the most important achievements of the quality assurance system studies that stand out".

The status reports category under the theme of *self-evaluation reports* is explained in the context of management system in the process of the institution includes "compliance with the guide", "quality assurance system in the self-evaluation process", "education and training in the self-evaluation process", "research and development in the self-evaluation process" and "institutional self-evaluation". When the "quality assurance system in the self-evaluation process of the institution" sub-category is considered in the context of the 2017 report, it is seen that "the mechanisms related to the quality assurance system have started to be structured but have not yet been fully implemented in all education-training, research-development and administrative processes". When the reports for 2017 and 2018 are examined, it is seen that "improvement efforts in practices continue, awareness develops at the national level, and the culture of quality assurance is becoming more and more widespread" compared to the report of 2016.

The "Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) cycle" sub-category under the "deficient aspects" category under the institutional external evaluation theme took its place in all three reports by emphasizing its importance. In the 2016 report, it was reported that "there is a need for improvement in the operation of the Implementation, Control and Action processes in the PDCA cycle, and especially the 'Check' – 'Take action' stages of the

PDCA cycle are areas open to improvement in terms of closing the cycles in the quality assurance system." In the 2017 report, it was added that "the most obvious problem in the field of research in HE institutions is related to the inability to operate the PDCA cycle in R&D activities and the lack of appropriate mechanisms for monitoring research outputs". In the 2018 report, attention was drawn to the "non-effective implementation of the PDCA cycle".

In the "dissemination" sub-category under the "recommended" sub-category under the accreditation theme, there are statements in the reports regarding the dissemination of accreditation, which is very important in the internationalization of HE institutions. In the 2016 report, it is aimed to "encourage and support program accreditation at all levels, to extend accreditation studies and to ensure their sustainability". When the 2017 report is examined, "the existence of program accreditation studies" is emphasized, and in the 2018 report, it is stated that "the number of HE institutions with accredited programs increased by 27% compared to the previous year's report".

When the "Awareness" sub-theme under the "Recommended" category of the theme of *disseminating the quality assurance culture* is examined in all reports, "The revival of the quality assurance tools (Bologna process, YÖDEK, etc.) that have been placed in the HE quality assurance system in Türkiye for many years" is central in all reports. However, it is seen as stated in the 2018 report, that "the quality assurance system does not yet cover all components".

The Processes of Structuring the Internal Quality Systems of HE Institutions and the External Evaluation of this System

Institutional Self-Evaluation Reports (ISERs)

The theme of the *institutional self-evaluation reports* has two categories, namely, guiding QA and submitting status reports. The themes, categories and codes associations in question are shared below.

Guide

While it was stated that the "Mission, Vision, Values and Goals of the Institution" should be discussed in detail in the reports, in 2017 and 2018, for these topics, by preparing the annual evaluation reports that are required to be submitted by the HE institutions within the scope of the "Mission Differentiation Project of the Higher Education Council in the desired format. They are also expected to submit an additional report regarding the mission differentiation". The mission, vision, values and goals are handled in more detail by emphasizing that they should pro-

vide both statements as well as detailed explanations. The results of mission differentiation under the heading of *Mission and Strategic Purposes* which is found under the heading of Quality Assurance in the 2018 guide were included in the self-evaluation of the institution in the context of quality assurance. In addition, a self-evaluation of the Evaluation of Mission-Oriented Universities in the Higher Education Evaluation and Quality Assurance 2017 Status Report prepared in 2017 and the Evaluation of Mission-Oriented Universities thematically in the Higher Education Evaluation and Quality Assurance Status Report prepared in 2018, with a separate approach that requires an additional report within the differentiation of oriented-missions. It can be considered as a reflection of the universities' clear definition of their own mission and vision (i.e., the fact that they clearly state their duties and responsibilities, and that they set a clear plan regarding the implementation of their goals and objectives).

In the guide for 2018, HE institutions are expected to demonstrate their strengths and areas of improvement with evidence similar to the concrete evidence examples in the guide (When the development from the first guide is examined, it is seen that a more evidence-based approach has evolved over time.)

Status reports

When the Quality Assurance Status Reports are examined, it is seen that HE institutions prepare their reports in line with the *Institutional Self-Evaluation Report Preparation Guide*, which is revealed in detail for each year, as an annual Quality Assurance Status Report is published by YÖKAK based on the data submitted that is aligned with this guide. The guides of the mentioned years were examined in detail, and the similarities and differences revealed by establishing a connection with the Higher Education Quality Assurance Status Reports. All of the guides include General Information, Information about the Institution, Quality Assurance System, Education-Training, Research-Development and Social Contribution, Management System, Results and Evaluation.

In addition, the Institutional Self-Evaluation Reports, in the *Quality Assurance Status Reports*, were examined under the heading of suitability for purpose and compliance with the guide in 2016 and 2017, and in 2018 it was examined under the headings of Quality Assurance System in the Institutional Self-Evaluation Process, Education and Training in the Institutional Self-Evaluation Process, Research and Development in the Institutional Self-Evaluation Process, and Management System in the Institutional Self-Evaluation Process. According to the aforementioned evaluations in the 2016 status report, HE insti-

tutions were urged to submit an self-evaluation report in accordance with the guide, support their reports with quantitative and qualitative evidence, use plain and understandable language in the report, update contact information, evaluate internal quality in line with the mission and objectives of the institution, the system should be well defined, how this system is managed, how the improvements are made in the process and how the cycle are closed, and the dissemination of the integrated information management system. The status report of 2017 suggested that HE institutions share their self-evaluation reports on their web pages, and that the personnel working on this subject should be given training regarding compliance with the guide. In addition, it was emphasized that although HE institutions adopted a more evidence-based approach compared to the previous year, they needed to make improvements in these matters.

In addition, it was emphasized that they should make explanations providing a more transparent approach about the functioning of quality assurance, education, research, management and PDCA cycles, and the improvements made in this context. In the status report of 2018, it was observed that the mechanisms related to the Quality Assurance System of HE institutions began to be structured, but not yet implemented in all education-training, research-development and administrative processes. Quality policies had been prepared and announced in most of the institutions and quality commissions were created in all institutions. It is stated that duties, responsibilities, and activities are defined. The defined processes carried out in the design and approval process of the programs of HE institutions are not at a sufficient level of maturity in the process of monitoring and updating the programs, and they need to make improvements by reviewing the education-training processes in order to complete the PDCA cycles. In addition, it was stated that good practice examples were observed within the scope of "student-centered learning, teaching and evaluation" criteria and "learning resources, accessibility and support" criteria.

The processes related to the recruitment, appointment, promotion, and course assignment of educational staff in institutions are well-defined, but the training of trainers, the continuation of their professional development, and the improvement of their teaching skills need further support. It is stated that there are areas open to improvement in the subjects of how the research and development performance of HE institutions is monitored and evaluated, how the research and development performance is improved, and the monitoring and evaluation of the competencies of the research staff. While improvements were observed in the criteria of "structure of management and administrative units", "information management system", "efficiency and accountability of management" in the previous year,

there was a slight decrease in the criteria of "resource management" and "quality of services procured from outside the institution". In addition, establishing integrated information management systems to enable more efficient and effective maintenance and evaluation of all institutional processes is recommended. The level of organizational awareness regarding this issue has increased compared to previous years.

Institutional External Evaluation

The institutional external evaluation theme consists of the categories of selection of evaluator teams, improvements, and deficiencies.

Selection of evaluator teams

Selection of evaluator teams were explained with codes covering demographic characteristics, general characteristics and suggestions for the process. In 2016, 1341 people applied for to become an evaluator to take part in the first external evaluation process. A pool of evaluators was created by considering the competencies of the candidates for each of the subject areas. A total of 106 evaluators (80 professors, 6 associate professors, 18 administrative staff) from 56 different HE institutions took part in the institutional external evaluation process in 2016. In the first year's institutional external evaluation process, 32% of those who contributed as evaluators were from engineering, 17% from social sciences, 16% from health sciences, 11% from science, and the remaining others (24%) from agriculture, veterinary and educational sciences. In the 2016 status report, the following suggestions were made: (1) the evaluation team must get to know the institution better, since the efficiency of the external evaluation process can only be achieved by the team getting to know the institution with good preliminary preparation, (2) competent academic and administrative staff should be included in the evaluator pool, (3) have all evaluators sign an "Ethics Agreement", (4) avoid conflicts or conflicts of interest between the institutions to be evaluated and the evaluators, (5) update the evaluator training and include case studies, and (6) share the experience of the evaluator candidates with the institution in question.

As to overall skills, the report states that 45% of the team members have strong analytical skills and analytical skills, 32% are team-oriented, 12% have both features, 5% have the ability to bring different perspectives, and 3% are task-oriented. When the results regarding the behavioral characteristics of the team members in the team are examined, it is seen that the team members exhibit a harmonious blend in general. In addition, the fact that the team members made a little more effort to get to know the institution better before the field visit result-

ed in them asking more accurate questions during the visit. However, paying more attention to the timing was mentioned as a factor open to improvement.

While the evaluator pool was created in the external evaluation process in 2017, new evaluator applications were received in addition to the participation of the evaluators in 2016, and a total of 2596 applications were received. A pool of evaluators was created by considering the qualifications of the candidates in terms of quality assurance. A total of 280 evaluator candidates, 232 of them academic (199 professors, 31 associate professors and 2 assistant professors) and 48 of them administrative staff, were included in the evaluator pool created in this context. Formed by 36% female and 64% male evaluator candidates, 12% of them were from engineering, 11% from science, 21% from social sciences and 8% from educational sciences; the rest were from the fields of veterinary, agriculture, medicine and health sciences. This report recommended making evaluator application announcements more effective, emphasized stakeholder diversity in the formation of the evaluation team, and making evaluator training more effective.

In 2018, while the evaluator pool was created in the external evaluation process, new evaluator applications were received, including the evaluators who had been assigned as of 2016. A total of 2433 individuals, including academic (Professor, Associate Professor and Doctor Lecturer) and administrative staff (Secretary General, Deputy Secretary General, Faculty/Institute Secretary, Head of Department and Quality Coordinator) from HE institutions, applied for the new evaluator candidacy. An evaluator pool of 528 people was created by considering criteria such as their competency, title, and geographical location at the time of their application. 464 of these evaluators participated in the *Institutional External Evaluation Program Evaluator Training*. Unlike previous years, a Jigsaw (separation and merger) technique was used in this training. Before the training, the subject of the content was divided into three sub-titles; these titles were numbered and distributed to the participants. First of all, the participants with the same numbered content left their groups and formed a new group with other participants with the same number and discussed the subject in line with the sub-title in their hands. Afterwards, they returned to their first group and shared the topics they discussed in detail with the other participants in their groups. The second activity of the face-to-face process was the group discussion about the case studies and problem situations presented to them and sharing their solution suggestions with other groups. At the end of the face-to-face activities, the participants were asked to evaluate the process and the moderators. As a result of the evaluation of the questionnaires filled by 416 out of 464

people who participated in the evaluator training, the participants in general stated that their satisfaction level was high in terms of "finding the training program useful", "giving general information about the evaluation process of the training program" and "sharing experiences through teamwork".

In the report of 2018, the following suggestions are made: The travel, daily and accommodation expenses of the evaluation team are not paid by the evaluated institution, the costs are absorbed by YÖKAK, there is a material and moral reward system, the evaluators do not make comparisons between the HE institution they work for and the HE institution they evaluate, and separate teams will be given to experienced team leaders. Additional suggestions include: A training session can be beneficial, evaluators gain awareness of foundation/state HE institution through inspection/evaluation, it is pleasing to include student evaluators in teams, support student evaluators to take a more active role in the process, academic, administrative and student evaluators contribute with different tasks and evaluators work in the team and emphasizing that their responsibilities are similar, while forming teams; taking into account whether the institution subject to evaluation is a foundation or a state HE institution, the other members will be chosen mainly from experienced people on the condition that the team heads are composed of experienced people, the teams are formed at least two months in advance to be able to review the documents required for the evaluation of the institution, the number of team members visits are increased. Having an alternate evaluator member for the city where the institution to be examined is located is also suggested.

Improvements

The *Improvements* category was analyzed with the number of HE institutions participating in the process, trainings, and published documents codes.

13 meetings were held, 20 HE institutions were involved in the evaluation, a training workshop was given to the evaluation team, and the place of external evaluation in the Council of Higher Education, mission differentiation and specialization (diversity), institutional autonomy (flexible structure) and competitive advantage, Institutional Self-Evaluation Report Preparation Guide and the preparation of Institutional External Evaluation Criteria and their sharing with HE institutions were improvements added in 2016.

Fifty HE institutions participated in the process in 2017 (an increase from the year before) was considered as an improvement. With the reshaping of the Higher Education Quality Board, important steps were taken for improvement. The most important of these was the publication of the

Institutional External Evaluation Directive, the Directive on the Authorization of External Evaluation and Accreditation Institutions Operating in the Field of Higher Education, and the revision of the Institutional Self-Evaluation Report and the Institutional External Evaluation Criteria guides and sharing them with HE institutions. In 2016, 99% of the institutions submitted their Institutional Self-Evaluation Reports and published them on their website; however, this percentage was 100% in 2017.

In 2018, the Institutional External Evaluation Program Evaluator Training Report for the Institutional External Evaluator Training was published and given to evaluator candidates by YÖKAK in line with the feedback from 2016 and 2017. English Preparatory Schools were evaluated thematically within the framework of "Minimum Standards". In addition, "Mission-Oriented Evaluation" was handled as a separate theme. The board members and consultants provided mentoring services for the writing of the self-evaluation report, the structuring of the internal quality assurance system, and the scope of the external evaluation program to the institutions to be externally evaluated. Every month, meetings were held with experts with domestic and international experience on "Quality in Higher Education" on the external evaluation processes of universities, the reliability of the evaluation process and the internal quality assurance system. The participation of 2 foundation universities and 1 vocational school in the evaluation process was mentioned as an improvement. With the launch of the Quality Assurance Management Information System, Institutional Self-Evaluation Reports were uploaded to Quality Assurance Management Information System for the first time. The report also stated that national awareness for external evaluation had improved compared to previous years.

Shortcomings

The category of shortcomings was examined by evaluation, PDCA cycle and systematic building codes.

Regarding the ISERs prepared by HE institutions, the report published in 2016 states that there is a need to increase the awareness level of quality assurance and external evaluation process. There is a lack of concrete information and evidence for "Monitoring and Improvement" in the reports. Since the quality assurance system is limited to ISO processes and the corporate external evaluation process is perceived as "audit", the fact that quantitative data is at the forefront without mentioning process management is one of the most common problems in the reports. The reports contain outdated or inconsistent information about the external evaluation experience. The following are recommended: *(1)* publishing an ISER Preparation

Guide supported by examples will help ensure that the concepts in the institution external evaluation checklist are understood by the evaluation teams and institutions in the same way, *(2)* accessing the forms and documents related to the external evaluation process on the Board web page in Word format, provides the highest efficiency due to the short duration of the field visits, *(3)* adding activities such as preliminary preparation, time extension, and monitoring, *(4)* increasing the competence of the evaluator team, *(5)* listening to the subordinates and superiors together during the field visit and ensuring the active participation of the students, *(6)* clarifying the times in the KGBR preparation calendar, *(7)* removing the scope of the institutional external evaluation process from the ESG effect and continuing to approach the EVA IEP process, *(8)* focusing on a general evaluation rather than a checklist, *(9)* explaining the content of Institutional Self-Evaluation Report specifically every year with four main questions for external evaluation, and finally, and *(10)* applying different criteria for respectively, vocational schools and foundation universities.

Although there is some progress in showing evidence in the preparation of Institutional Self-Evaluation Report in 2017, it seems insufficient. There are serious deficiencies in closing the cycles in the quality assurance system, especially in the "Check-Act" stages of the PDCA cycle. External evaluation does not aim at standardization; on the contrary, it is recommended to raise awareness that institutions should be structured in line with their missions. Thus, increasing the number of training programs, preparing content for awareness, and diversifying the participant profile are recommended. In addition, YÖKAK should play an informative and educational role in order for HE institutions to immediately establish quality policies, determine the method they should follow to reach their defined visions, and increase awareness and training activities.

All programs in 2018 were recommended to consult the opinions of internal and external stakeholders in the program design and update studies of HE institutions, to close the cycles from the PDCA cycle, to systematically monitor whether the program qualifications have been achieved, and to ensure the compatibility of program qualifications with the Turkish Higher Education Qualifications Framework.

Authorization and Recognition of National and International HE Accreditation Institutions

The accreditation theme consists of two categories: completed and proposed. The *completed* category examined published reports and organizations in the registration process; the proposed category was examined with the help of dissemination codes.

Completed

In 2016, the Higher Education Quality Board published the *Directive on the Authorization of External Evaluation and Accreditation Institutions Operating in the Field of Higher Education* for the authorization and recognition of accreditation institutions.

In 2017, the Board completed the sub-legislation studies for the registration of external evaluation and accreditation bodies. regarding the process of authorizing national accreditation bodies, No. 7033 published in the Official Gazette dated 1 July 2017; according to the "Law on the Amendment of Certain Statutory Decrees for the Development of Industry and Support of Production" and the Additional Article 35 added to the Higher Education Law No. 2547, the authority to decide on the authorization of accreditation bodies was directly given to YKK.

In the report of 2016, there is no organization that registered or extended the registration period.

In 2017, three institutions (MÜDEK, TEPDAD, VEDEK) applied to renew the registration certificate and four institutions (EPDAD, FEDAK, İLEDAK, TURAK) applied for registration for the first time, and six national (MÜDEK, TEPDAD, VEDEK, FEDEK, HEPDAK, MİAK) and eight international accreditation organizations (AACSB, ABET, AHPGS, AQAS, ASIIN, EQUIS, FIBBA, IACBE) continued their activities. The number of accredited undergraduate programs in 2016 (433) increased to 504 in 2017.

In 2018, the Board evaluated the registration applications of a total of nine accreditation bodies, five of which were new and four were within the scope of renewal of the registration period. Seven criteria for the process of authorization of national accreditation institutions, and two criteria for the authorization of international accreditation institutions are clearly revealed in detail by YÖKAK.

In 2018, there were 11 accreditation institutions holding the Quality Evaluation Registration Certificate.

Proposed

In the report published in 2016, HE institutions are recommended to expand accreditation studies at program level and to encourage and support program accreditation at all levels. Programs accredited in 2017 were limited to undergraduate programs only. This is recommended for all levels in the report.

In the report published in 2018, expanding accreditation activities and accreditation of institutions that will operate in different fields is encouraged.

The Process of Disseminating the Culture of Quality Assurance in the HE System

Promoting a Culture of Quality Assurance

The theme of disseminating the culture of quality assurance was analyzed under the categories *completed* and *proposed*. The *completed* category was examined with the help of the Board activities and the proposed category with the help of awareness codes.

Completed

In 2016, the "Committee for Dissemination of the Quality Assurance Culture" was established to ensure the dissemination and internalization of the quality assurance approach.

In 2017, 15 presentations were made on quality assurance and Quality Board activities in HE.

In 2018, the dissemination of the quality assurance culture was clearly set out within the strategic objectives. The level of awareness of institutions on this issue increased compared to previous years.

Proposed

The Council of Higher Education was suggested to increase the participant profile by expanding the information, promotion, and training activities aimed at disseminating the culture of quality assurance in HE in the 2016 report.

Organizing training programs to raise awareness for institutions and to spread the culture of quality assurance were recommended in 2017. That the quality culture had not spread to all institutional units still remained to need improvement in 2018.

Comparative Process of Quality Studies Carried out in HE Institutions in England

The management structure of universities in the UK, whose quality assurance and development activities are generally within the country and abroad; negotiation structure of universities (academic boards and infrastructures, faculty committees, academic quality regulation processes, and research programs) (Gemikonakli, 2009). The evaluation of the academic quality/regulation processes of universities is based on ensuring that students have a high-quality learning experience, determining the qualification standards at appropriate levels, and securing and maintaining quality and standards in the future. HE institutions offer their own diplomas by opening their programs in other regions outside the borders of the country (articulation) and award their own diploma (collaboration) by assigning academic staff to another HE institution outside the country in England (Gemikonakli, Kindberg, & Dikerdem, 2008; Middlesex University, 2008/2009). Universities are obliged to prepare a

report every year. However, when necessary, QAA conducts inspections. The purpose of universities in making annual reports is supporting staff in maintaining academic standards, assessing student experience and student outcomes, assessing and improving the quality of educational support, communicating general quality assurance issues to the university and identifying good practices in learning, teaching and assessment and sharing them widely to improve quality. The reporting processes for quality assessment of HE institutions in England are similar to Türkiye.

A very detailed definition has been provided for the units with internship application in the self-evaluation process in England. The criteria of the evaluation process are clearly explained by universities for internship applications. In addition, student questionnaires are one of the most important components in the preparation of self-evaluation reports. These questionnaires were derived from students by using The National Student Survey (NSS), the Graduate Taught Experience Questionnaire (PTES), the Graduate Research Experience Questionnaire (PRES) and the Module feedback.

The UK has established specific criteria for selecting the evaluator team in the institutional external evaluation process, which are listed in detail below.

- The External Evaluator should have appropriate stance, expertise and experience in the subject and audit being audited. This can be determined by considering their academic and/or professional qualifications; current (or last if retired) post or workplace; the scope of studies carried out in HE; momentarily involved in research or scientific and professional activities in the field of quality assurance and development.

- External Evaluators should be drawn, if possible, from a variety of institutional or professional contexts. If more than one evaluator is required for the event, they must not be from the same institution. It should be avoided that there is a conflict of interest or conflict between the institutions of the External Evaluators and the university that will enter the evaluation process.

- External Evaluators must not have previous close involvement with the University so as not to compromise their impartiality. In the last three years, the proposed External Evaluator must not be a member of the university or a close relative, administrator or student.

- External Evaluators should normally not be used more than once in an 18-month period. Exceptions may occur when the availability of potential Assessors is limited.

Universities appear to have benefited heavily from student participation in promoting quality assurance to continuously

improve the student experience at universities, to provide opportunities for students to participate in quality assurance and development processes to provide feedback, and to provide opportunities for the university to 'close the feedback cycle' (Mitchell, Sheriff, & Georgiadou, 2008). For this purpose, student representatives, program representatives, student surveys, campus forums, and student memberships in committees and panels are involved.

Since 80% of HE institutions are located abroad, accreditation in the UK is carried out to eliminate the problems of students and stakeholders such as curricula and teaching methods related to their ethnic origins, to ensure that the institution personnel can work at high quality without harming the reliability of the institution and to ensure continuity in taking the necessary responsibilities for their students (asic.org.uk). Accreditation bodies can be national or international. Universities in the country can accredit each other.

Suggestions

Considering the UK's quality assurance and accreditation processes, it can be recommended to open a program in other universities outside the borders of the country and to give their diploma (articulation) and to implement the systems (collaboration) that assigns their own diplomas by assigning their academic staff to the quality systems in Türkiye. However, it should be noted that the micro-credit system is also very important within the scope of cooperation to be developed within the scope of quality assurance. Micro-credits (micro-credentials) are recognized as an innovation with transformative potential for working life during and after HE (Kır & Bozkurt, 2022). In today's world of rapid change, diploma programs can be slow to show a quick reflex to change and manage the transformation. It is also recommended to develop and articulate collaborations with these programs in accordance with the skill-oriented micro-credit system. The mission of the UK in the quality assurance and evaluation system can support the steps that Türkiye will take within the scope of internationalization. Thus, institutional autonomy and leadership efforts in the sustainable development plans of institutions can be shared at the international level. In addition, it can be suggested that the national capital remains within the borders of the country by ensuring that universities are competent by YÖKAK as institutions accrediting each other within the borders of the country. Finally, expanding the participation of students studying at universities at all levels in decision-making and development processes e.g., forming a student senate) may also be beneficial in establishing and disseminating a culture of quality assurance and ensuring objectivity.

Acknowledgment

References

Gemikonakli, O. (2009). *Quality assurance and strategic decision making.* Internal Quality Assurance System in Armenian Higher Education Institutions, TEMPUS-TACIS JEP No. 27178-2006 "ARMQA", London, UK.

Gemikonakli, O., Kindberg, C., & M. Dikerdem (2008). Objectives, principles and techniques of quality assurance and institutional quality assurance: A case study. Proceedings of the *Dissemination Workshop: Internal Quality Assurance, Experience, Problems, and Trends* (pp. 34–42), 23–24 September, 2009, Yerevan, Armenia.

Gencel, U. (2001). Total quality management and accreditation in higher education services. [Article in Turkish] *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 3*(3), 164–218.

Harvey, L. (2005). A history and critique of quality evaluation in the UK. *Quality Assurance in Education, 13*(4), 263–276.

Hill, Y., Lomas, L. & MacGregor, J. (2003). Students' perceptions of quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Higher Education, 11*(1), 15–20.

Kır, Ş., & Bozkurt, A. (2022). A conceptual evaluation of micro-credentials in higher education. [Article in Turkish] *Uşak Üniversitesi Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi, 8*(1), 12–29.

Middlesex University (2008/2009). *Learning and quality enhancement handbook.* Retrieved from https://www.mdx.ac.uk/about-us/policies/academic-quality/handbook (December 5, 2019).

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Mitchell, I., Sheriff, M., & Georgiadou, E. (2008). A framework for quality assurance in curriculum development. Proceedings of the *Dissemination Workshop: Internal Quality Assurance, Experience, Problems, and Trends* (pp. 43–57), 23–24 September, 2009, Yerevan, Armenia.

QAA (2003). *UK quality code for higher education.* Retrieved from https://www.qaa.ac.uk/docs/qaa/quality-code/qualifications-frameworks.pdf (November 13, 2019).

YÖDEK (2005). *Academic evaluation and quality improvement regulation in higher education institutions.* [Regualtion in Turkish] Retrieved from http://www.yodek.org.tr/download/yonetmelik_dl.pdf (November 11, 2019).

YÖDEK, (2007). *Academic evaluation and quality improvement guide in higher education.* [Guide in Turkish] Retrieved from http://www.yodek.sakarya.edu.tr/yodek/files/7aa12f8d2582deb44d4249c7aa4a2020.pdf (November 13, 2019).

YÖKAK (2017). *Higher education evaluation and quality assurance 2016 status report.* [Report in Turkish] Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/Site_Activity_Reports/2016-Y%C3%9CKSEK%C3%96%C4%9ERET%C4%B0M%20DE%C4%9EERLEND%C4%B0RME%20VE%20KAL%C4%B0TE%20G%C3%9CVENCES%C4%B0%202016%20YILI%20DURUM%20RAPORU.pdf (November 13, 2019).

YÖKAK (2018). *Higher education evaluation and quality assurance 2017 status report.* [Report in Turkish] Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/Site_Activity_Reports/2017-Y%C3%9CKSEK%C3%96%C4%9ERET%C4%B0M%20DE%C4%9EERLEND%C4%B0RME%20ve%20KAL%C4%B0TE%20G%C3%9CVENCES%C4%B0%202017%20YILI%20DURUM%20RAPORU%20v13.pdf (November 13, 2019).

YÖKAK (2019a). *2018 higher education evaluation and quality assurance status report.* [Report in Turkish] Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/Site_Activity_Reports/2018DurumRaporuv2.pdf (November 13, 2019).

YÖKAK (2019b). *2018–2019 Higher education evaluation and quality assurance status report.* [Report in Turkish] Retrieved from https://api.yokak.gov.tr/Storage/AnnouncementFiles/23-10-2019/79/2018-2019%20durum%20raporu%20v4.pdf (November 13, 2019).

YÖKAK (2019c). *YÖKAK general evaluation report.* [Report in Turkish] Retrieved from https://yokak.gov.tr/Common/Docs/Site_degerlendirme_prog_doc/GenelDegerlendirme20152019.pdf (November 13, 2019).

www.tuba.gov.tr   https://www.facebook.com/TUBAakademi   https://www.twitter.com/TUBAakademi   www.yuksekogretim.org