

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF INTERNATIONALIZATION POLICIES
IN CHINESE AND CANADIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

Although internationalization plays an increasingly important role in higher education, it has been perceived as both innovative and turbulent in the past several decades (Knight, 2008). This study explores and compares the contexts and challenges of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. By applying the “Global Higher Education Matrix” created by Jones (2008) and the “Four Approaches to Internationalization of Higher Education” (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003) as an analytical framework, this study analyzes the different priorities of the internationalization policies implemented by global organizations, national/ federal governments, provincial governments, and institutions in Canada and China.

Using a comparative policy approach, this study informs the policy and practice in the internationalization of higher education in both China and Canada. Due to the different internationalization contexts, the internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education promote different priorities on five aspects: academic mobility, cooperation and partnership, internationalizing curriculum, quality assurance, and administration and governance.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PERMISSION TO USE	i
Abstract	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Background	2
Research Problem Statement	4
Research Purpose and Research Questions	6
The Significance of the Study	7
Positionality	8
Limitations of the Study	9
Organization of the Thesis	10
Chapter 2: Literature Review	1
Definition of Internationalization	1
Rationales and Elements of Internationalization of Higher Education	3
Challenges in Internationalization of Higher Education	6
Internationalization of Canadian Higher Education	8
The historical background of internationalization of Canadian higher education	8
Overview of the internationalization policies of Canadian higher education	11
The challenges in internationalization of Canadian higher education	14
Internationalization of Chinese Higher Education	17
The historical background of internationalization of Chinese higher education	17
Overview of internationalization policies of Chinese higher education	21
The challenges in internationalization of Chinese higher education	23
Different Contexts of Internationalization of Chinese and Canadian Higher Education	27
Conceptual Framework	28
Global Higher Education Matrix	29
Four approaches to internationalization of higher education	31
Summary	34
Chapter 3: Methodology	36

Introduction	36
Research Design	37
Data Collection	38
Data Analysis	41
Trustworthiness	45
Chapter 4: Findings.....	49
Document Collected and Analysis Process	49
Policies collected	49
Policy analysis process	59
Internationalization Policy in the Global Context	61
Quality assurance, cooperation, academic mobility and administration	62
Different Priorities of Internationalization Policies	64
Academic mobility.	65
Cooperation and partnerships	67
Internationalizing curriculum for intercultural competency	70
Quality assurance	72
Administration and governance	74
Coherence of Internationalization Policies between the Four Levels	79
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion	82
Different Challenges of Internationalization Facing China and Canada	82
Discussion	84
Conclusion	88
Recommendations for Future Studies	91
References	93

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3-1. Codes of Internationalization Policies in the Chinese Context	44
Table 4-1. Internationalization Policies at the Global Level.....	50
Table 4-2. Internationalization Policies of China	53
Table 4-3. Internationalization Policies of Saskatchewan.....	55
Table 4-4. Internationalization Policies of Beijing.....	55
Table 4-5. Internationalization Policies of University of Saskatchewan.....	58
Table 4-6. Internationalization Policies of Beijing Normal University.....	58

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2-1. Conceptual Framework33

Chapter 1: Introduction

Internationalization plays an increasingly important role in higher education. The past thirty years witnessed a dramatic expansion of international activities in higher education, both in volume and complexity (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Since 1978, motivated by China's open-door policy and economic reforms, the internationalization of Chinese higher education has shifted the focuses from the outflow of scholars or students to the transnational education and internationalization of curricula (Huang, 2003). Currently, China puts more focus on developing strategies to attract foreign students and promoting overseas educational programs and branches (Jin, 2012). Canada plays a dominant role in the internationalization of higher education.

According to statistics of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (2011, AUCC was renamed as "Universities Canada" in 2015), in Canadian higher education institutions (HEIs), the number of international students and faculty has grown significantly over the last thirty years. In addition to promoting academic mobility and internationalizing the curriculum, Canada is also engaging in other activities, such as integrating international accreditation and improving quality assurance mechanism (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

This study compares the internationalization of higher education in China and Canada by analyzing the relevant policies issued by different levels of authority: global organizations, national/federal governments, provincial governments, and institutions. This chapter first discusses the background of the study, the purpose of the study, and the research questions; next,

the researcher's positionality is stated; finally, the significance of this study and the structure of the thesis are addressed and outlined.

Background

Driven by a variety of academic, economic, political, and social goals, national and provincial governments around the world are implementing policies and programs to promote the internationalization of higher education (Helms, Rumbley, Brajkovic & Mihut, 2015). During the past two decades, public policies concerning internationalization of higher education were launched in the wake of the rapid development of globalization. Global organizations, such as the UNESCO, the International Association of Universities (IAU), and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), initiated and adopted new policies on the internationalization of higher education (Helms et al., 2015). Most of these policies are targeted at the challenges of internationalization faced by higher education. For example, quality assurance is a challenge faced by internationalization of higher education. Thus, UNESCO and IAU implement policies to improve the quality of teaching, learning, and research, such as *Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education* and *Sharing Quality Higher Education across Borders: A Statement on Behalf of Higher Education Institutions Worldwide* (UNESCO, 1995; IAU, 2005, 2012, 2016). Marginson and Rhoades (2002) stated that global political forces could shape and influence national states and their higher education systems. Therefore, examining the policies at the global level is crucial to understand the trend and

challenges of internationalization.

At the national level, Knight (2004) noted that internationalization policies should include all policies affected or addressed by an international or intercultural dimension of higher education, such as foreign relationships, development assistance, immigration, employment, science and technology, culture, etc. According to Helms et al. (2015), these policies can generally be categorized into five types: student and faculty mobility, research collaboration, cross-border education, internationalization at home, and comprehensive internationalization strategies. In Canada, over the past ten years, most policies and strategies concerning international education were initiated by national associations, such as the Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE), the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC), and the Colleges and Institutes Canada (Mcbride, Humphries & Knight-Grofe, 2015). China has also launched relevant policies on internationalization of higher education (Jin, 2012). For example, *the 2003–2007 Action Plan for Revitalization of Education (2003–2007 年教育振兴行动计划)* stresses the significance of promoting the collaboration of scientific research with other countries and improving the quality of faculty and student exchange programs (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2004).

At the institutional level, internationalization policies can refer to the international dimension of the institution's mission, purpose, values, and functions (Knight, 2004). Located within the nation and influenced by the national government, universities are becoming

internationalized by integrating international or intercultural dimensions into their functions and objectives (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002). Zha (2003) argued that in order to ensure the sustainability and success of internationalization, institutions must fortify the internationalization of the culture, policy, and organizational process. Additionally, Shute (1999) claimed that “internationalization has become an integral element of a university’s mission and mandate” (p.39). Jin (2012) stressed that reviewing the public policies on the internationalization of higher education allows us to understand the development and trends of internationalization. The above statements demonstrate that internationalization plays an essential role in the development of higher education institutions. Moreover, the analysis of public policies on internationalization should involve policy initiatives at various levels and dimensions.

Research Problem Statement

Over the past three decades, since both Canada and China have been focusing more on the development of the internationalization of higher education, there are many studies with respect to the history and trend of the internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education (Huang, 2003; McBride et al., 2015). Since internationalization has brought not only opportunities but also challenges, many studies focus on the challenges faced by the internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. Friesen (2009) noted that internationalization caused the commercialization of Canadian higher education, which may influence the quality of international education, such as the quality of teaching and learning,

international programs, and activities. Yuan and Fu (2012) proposed that the content, curriculum and teaching methods in Chinese HEIs cannot adapt to the development of internationalization. There are few courses with international content or taught by English. Moreover, the teaching content tends to be theoretical instead of practical.

Additionally, there are comparative studies of higher education in China and Canada. For example, Lang and Zha (2004) applied the peer selection strategy and conducted a comparative study on the University of Toronto and the Tsinghua University. The study indicates that instead of comparing the universities from comprehensive perspectives, it is more targeted and efficient to compare one aspect. Since the league table and international ranking system are only at the institutional level, the university comparison and peer selection should start from program comparison. The results point out some weaknesses of the Tsinghua University. For example, the University of Toronto puts more emphasis on teaching and education, whereas the Tsinghua University focuses on research and output, such as publications and patents. Besides, the Tsinghua University does not have database as CUDEC or AAUDE, which is crucial to offer valid and sufficient data in university comparison and peer selection. Nevertheless, in terms of the government funding and support, the Chinese government shows stronger support to higher education than Canadian governments (Lang & Zha, 2004).

Yang (2008)'s study focused on the relationship between government and university in the governance of higher education and compared the administrative setup between Canadian

and Chinese higher education. This study suggests that Chinese higher education can learn from the Canadian educational administration system in several aspects: the degree-granting management, the funding systems, concepts of running various institutions, and the model of access to universities or colleges (Yang, 2008).

However, although there are case studies comparing the Chinese and Canadian higher education institutions, there is a gap in comparative studies concerning the internationalization of higher education in Canada and China. For example, no studies compared the internationalization policies at three levels: global, national, and local. Moreover, no studies focused on the specific higher education institutions in Canada and China, such as Beijing Normal University and University of Saskatchewan. This study will therefore attempt to fill these gaps by proposing the following purpose and questions.

Research Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to explore the different historical contexts of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. Also, it aims to examine the different priorities in the internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education through analyzing the policies that initiated at the global, national, provincial and institutional levels. Accordingly, this study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the different challenges facing the internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education systems?

2. What are the different priorities of the internationalization policies in Chinese and Canadian higher education?
3. How can the comparison inform future development of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian high education?

The Significance of the Study

Since internationalization of higher education has been perceived as innovative and turbulent in the past several decades (Knight, 2008), this study is a timely investigation of the development of the current context of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. At the theoretical level, by applying the “Global Higher Education Matrix” created by Jones (2008) as an analytical framework, this study allows us to understand the interrelationship between the internationalization policies at different levels (global, national, provincial and institutional). In terms of the policy level, the analysis of contexts and challenges of internationalization of higher education will contribute to the understanding of the current policies. Vice versa, examining the existing policies will enhance our comprehension of the internationalization context of higher education. Exploring the different contexts and challenges on the internationalization of higher education helps policymakers and institutional leaders to understand the deficiencies of the existing initiatives or policies. More importantly, the comparative study can inform the future development of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education.

Positionality

I studied English translation and interpretation for my bachelor's degree in Tianjin Normal University. At the same time, I took courses on education and educational psychology in the Department of Education and received a teaching qualification certificate. I have been working in a middle school in my hometown as a substitute teacher for half a year. In the third year of university, I heard of the Masters' program of Educational Administration from the College of International Education and Exchange. I found it was an excellent opportunity for me to go abroad and experience a different educational background.

In the beginning, I was in the course-based program. After taking the EADM 838 Administration and Governance in Post-Secondary Education and EADM 811 History and Development of Organizational Theory, I became interested in internationalization since it has exerted significant influence on the organization and governance of higher education. In the second term, I took EADM 892 Comparative and International Perspectives in Education, in which I found that I am interested in comparative studies. Therefore, I decided to transfer to the thesis-based program by the beginning of the third semester and conduct a comparative study of higher education in China and Canada.

Internationalization plays a significant role in Chinese and Canadian higher education for the last thirty years. In addition, internationalization of higher education is highly connected with the benefit of international students. Particularly, most policies regarding the internationalization

of higher education are about recruiting international students, internationalizing the programs and curriculums, providing scholarships and services to international students. Hence, as a Chinese student in a Canada university, it is of great importance for me to understand the context of and the policies on internationalization in both countries.

Furthermore, as a Chinese international student in Canada, I think it is a great opportunity for me to do a comparative study since I have an educational background in both China and Canada. Regarding the analysis of policies, I can read policies and literature in Chinese and English.

Limitations of the Study

Although the research objective and methodology are clearly stated, there are some limitations of this study. First, document analysis is the only data collection method for this study. The documents involved in this study are public policies related to internationalization. There is a possibility that some policies are not retrievable or accessible. Also, although there are definitions of public policies, the internationalization policies in this study are defined by the researcher, so the selection of documents is necessarily subjective. Moreover, the English versions of most Chinese policies are not available so the English translation may affect the trustworthiness of the data analysis.

In addition, due to the time limit, the sample size is small. This study only focuses on one city and one university respectively in China and Canada. Especially at the institutional level,

different universities are likely to implement different policies or strategies on internationalization. Therefore, further study can focus on collecting more policies, including policies issued by other cities and universities in China and Canada.

Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized in five chapters. The first chapter introduces the background of the study, proposes the research problems and purpose and the significance. The second chapter is a literature review, which is mainly divided into two parts: the first part illustrates the relevant literature regarding the internationalization of higher education within the global context, in China and Canada, including the background, challenges, and policy development; the second part outlines a conceptual framework, which is applied to analyze the policies. The conceptual framework includes a “Global Higher Education Matrix” developed by Jones (2008) and the Four Approaches to Internationalization of Higher Education proposed by Knight (1997) and Zha (2003). The third chapter explains the methodology of this study, including the research method, data collection, and data analysis. The fourth chapter is the findings of this study, involving the different priorities of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education and the coherence of internationalization policies at the global, national, provincial and the institutional levels. The fifth chapter is discussion and conclusion.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

With the rapid development of globalization, information technology, and knowledge-based economy, internationalization has become an inevitable trend in higher education (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2010). It is necessary to clarify the meaning, rationale, and development of internationalization of higher education before analyzing and understanding the contexts of internationalization of higher education in China and Canada. This literature review consists of four sections. The first section focuses on the definition, rationale, the elements of internationalization, and the challenges facing the internationalization of higher education in a global context. The second and third sections outline the internationalization of Canadian and Chinese higher education, including the historical contexts, current challenges, and the development of the internationalization policies. The last section discusses the findings and the implications through reviewing and analyzing the literature.

Definition of Internationalization

Over the last three decades, internationalization of higher education has been defined and applied in different ways (Knight, 2003a). Knight (1994) defined internationalization of higher education as “the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching/learning, research and services functions of a university or college” (p.3). In this definition, the internationalization of higher education is seen as a process; however, it overlooks the objectives or the goals of the internationalization development process.

Söderqvist (2002) has extended Knight's definition by proposing:

the internationalization of higher education institution (HEI) is a change process from a national HEI into an international HEI leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and research and to achieve the desired competencies. (p.29)

The above two definitions explain internationalization at the institutional level; however, de Wit (2011a) emphasized that a more focused definition is necessary if the internationalization of higher education is to be assessed and to advance higher education. Since the internationalization of higher education is highly relevant to the national and provincial governance, Knight (2003a) further referred internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels to "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education" (p. 2). By analyzing and combining the key information in the above definitions, de Wit (2015) gives an up-to-date definition of internationalization 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. (p. 24)

These definitions recognize internationalization as a process rather than a result, where internationalization is a developmental process to achieve a goal. Besides, the definitions are evolving and changing from a narrow scale to a broader scale, which is likely to keep changing and improving along with the development of globalization.

Rationales and Elements of Internationalization of Higher Education

In order to analyze the context of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education, it is essential to understand the rationales of internationalization as they may vary over time and lead to different approaches and policies (de Wit, 2011b). Under different contexts, different rationales motivate the internationalization of higher education. Knight (1997) categorized the rationales into four groups: political, economic, academic, and cultural/social.

The political rationale refers to the issues about the relationship between countries, such as national security and peace. The economic rationale regards international education as economic benefits. International students are viewed as the key to improve trade relations and a nation's international competitiveness. The academic rationale represents the improvement of the international academic teaching and research standard and the quality of the higher education system. The cultural/ social rationale focuses on enhancing the intercultural understanding and respecting cultural diversity (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003).

Zha (2003) stressed that the focus on the four rationales has shifted over time. The political rationale dominated during the Second World War (WWII) since the world was seeking

peaceful coexistence by improving understanding between different countries. Later, influenced by the international competition, the focus of internationalization was transferred to the economic rationale. Finally, the academic and social/cultural rationales were given more attention due to the mobility of students and scholars, cross-border cooperation programs, and the communication of languages and cultures (Zha, 2003).

Additionally, van Vught, van der Wende, and Westerheijden (2002) suggested that supply and demand also motivate the internationalization process. First, the insufficient infrastructure of higher education and decreasing national funding for higher education push institutions to seek an overseas market. Another factor is the liberalization of educational markets, initiated by the World Trade Organization (WTO) to promote the cross-border cooperation and partnership between higher education institutions (van Vught et al., 2002). Notably, the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) perceives the higher education as individual's good rather than for the public benefit; hence, higher education is amenable to market coordination (van Vught et al., 2002). The above two factors can also be identified as the economic and political rationales. For example, the demand and insufficient national funding can be related to economic factor; the GATS initiated by WTO can be seen as the political factor.

As the national governments and institutions become increasingly crucial in the internationalization of higher education, Knight (2004) argued that the four categories of rationales (political, economic, academic, and cultural/social) do not separate national and

institutional levels. For this reason, Knight (2004) proposed the rationales driving internationalization at the national level: human resources development, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation building, and social/cultural development. The rationales at the institutional level are international branding and profile, income generation, student and staff development, strategic alliances, and knowledge production. By outlining the above rationales, we can find that there is a close relevance between national-level and institutional-level rationales. For example, both levels focus on the student and faculty development and strategic alliances. Moreover, although there are different rationales under each level, the core rationales still follow the four categories.

Understanding the elements or forms of internationalization of higher education gives us directions when analyzing internationalization under a particular context. Zha (2003) concluded that there are two elements of internationalization: one is different types of academic activities, such as student exchanges, curriculum, recruiting international students, etc. The other element is organizational factors, like policy statements, annual planning, etc. Knight (2012) identified the two forms of internationalization: “internationalization at home” and “internationalization cross-border.” “Internationalization at home” refers to the campus-based strategies, such as the intercultural or international dimension of curriculum, teaching, research, the integration of foreign students, etc. “Internationalization cross-border” education focus on mobility, including the movement of people, programs, policies, knowledge, etc. (p.23).

For a given country, in relation to its internationalization context of higher education, the rationales and elements of internationalization may be different. Hence, the context of internationalization of a country should be considered when analyzing the rationales. Although the internationalization shows rapid development and has brought opportunities and benefits to higher education, there are also challenges and risks that may hinder the development. Thus, the following section introduces the challenges facing the internationalization of higher education.

Challenges in Internationalization of Higher Education

Influenced and motivated by the trend of globalization, the rapid development and continuous changes of the internationalization have not only brought opportunities but also challenges to higher education. According to the IAU Survey report conducted by Knight (2005), most of the higher education institutions (96 % of the responding institutions from 95 countries) claim that internationalization brings benefits to higher education. Nevertheless, 70% also believe that there are challenges along with this internationalization process.

The benefits of internationalization are apparent. The top three benefits are the increasing number of internationally oriented staff/students, the improved internationalization research collaboration, and academic quality (Knight, 2005). The three least significant benefits are “the national and international citizenship, revenue generation, and brain gain” (Knight, 2007, p.9). However, the challenges are also prominent. The top three challenges of internationalization are related to the cross-bordered education: commercialization of education programs, the increase

of low-quality providers, and brain drain (Knight, 2005). The low-quality providers refer to those institutions offer programs only for the degree rather than the quality of the program. The three least important challenges are pertaining to the internationalization at home: “the loss of cultural or national identity, jeopardy of the quality of higher education, and the homogenization of curriculum” (Knight, 2007, p.8).

At the institutional level, the lack of financial support is a barrier to internationalization (Knight, 2003b). Another IAU Survey conducted by Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014) demonstrated that equal access to international programs and the assessment of the quality of the international programs are also proved to be obstacles to the internationalization of higher education. Furthermore, there are noteworthy differences in the benefits and challenges of developing and developed countries due to the imbalanced development of internationalization in different countries (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

The findings indicate that the future of internationalization is positive at the global level as more institutions will engage in the internationalization (Knight, 2007). However, it is less positive at the national level as most of the national governments are cutting back the funding to international education and do not play a role in implementing national policies and facilitating international research, mobility, and development projects (Knight, 2007). Based on the findings, Knight (2007) suggested that the internationalization of higher education will face more challenges in the future, especially at the national level.

Internationalization of Canadian Higher Education

In order to analyze the internationalization policies of higher education, we should first evaluate the historical development of internationalization of higher education as the policies were formulated and implemented concerning the problems or situations during a particular period. Thus, this section and the following section describe the internationalization of higher education in Canada and China, including the historical background, a general introduction of the policy development and the challenges faced by Chinese and Canadian higher education.

The historical background of internationalization of Canadian higher education.

Generally, higher education in Canada is dated from 1635, when the Jesuits built the first college in Quebec during the French Colonial period (Harris, 1976; Elbrekht, 2015; Jones, 2014). At the time, education was targeted to teach Aboriginal people grammar and theology. Gradually, more advanced courses in secondary school were upgraded to become the first higher education programs (Elbrekht, 2015; Jones, 2014). As religion was central to most Canadian colleges, most higher education institutions sought to combine theological issues with science and social problems (Sheehan, 1985). In 1789, the first university was established by British colonial legislatures in the European school's style (Elbrekht, 2015; Jones, 2014). In the 1840s, the colonial legislators created many colleges with direct religious affiliations, which was the model for higher education in that century (Jones, 2014).

The time before the Second World War (WWII) (1867-1939) witnessed the slow

formation of colleges and universities, which was represented by the public, private, non-religious, and religious institutions. Most universities were primarily teaching institutions; some universities developed research activities and graduate programs (Elbrekht, 2015; Jones, 2014).

During WWII, Canadian researchers started to make plans to increase access to higher education (Jones, 2014). According to the statistics of AUCC (2011), the number of students and universities increased by 50% over the 1960s. The international engagement of higher education started during this time. Due to deficit of knowledge in understanding the intercultural relationship, many organizations were built by the government to promote the international relationship between Canada and other countries, such as the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT) in 1960, the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) in 1965 (Friesen, 2009). Then in 1966, the Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE) was founded to build a friendly relationship with international students. After that, Canada's External Aid Office (Canadian International Development Agency) was established in 1968, which aims to attract international students and support the partnership and cooperation between Canadian and foreign institutions (Shute, 1999).

As a result of the massification of higher education following WWII, the federal governments shifted operating grants for universities to the provinces (Jones, 2014). Meanwhile, Canadian universities started to be autonomous by building internal governance systems. With the high accessibility to higher education institutions, higher education can be identified as a key

to prompt the social and economic development of the nation (Jones, 2014). Supported by the increasing government funding, the Development Research Centre was built in 1970 to encourage research collaboration with developing countries (Friesen, 2009). This period witnessed the rapid increase of international students, which not only promoted the internationalization of curriculum and programs in most Canadian higher institutions but also encouraged the Canadian students to study abroad (Friesen, 2009).

The contemporary development of higher education started in 1995, characterized by a series of reforms. In the mid-1990s, the Canadian federal government decided to cut the funding for higher education and increase the investment in research and development (Jones, 2014). Owing to the government funding cutbacks, leaders of most higher education institutions started to seek opportunities through cooperating with foreign institutions. Therefore, the internationalization of Canadian higher education in the 1980s-1990s focused on student mobility and international research cooperation (Friesen, 2009). Many policies and strategies were implemented to attract foreign students to study in Canada, such as providing scholarships, setting up new curriculum and programs, etc. By the end of the 1990s, internationalization has become a trend in most Canadian higher education institutions (Friesen, 2009).

Through reviewing the history of the internationalization of Canadian higher education, we can see that the establishment of authorities and organizations has pushed forward the internationalization of higher education. Also, the policies initiated by the organization have

played a role in directing and guiding this process.

Overview of the internationalization policies of Canadian higher education.

Influenced by the Canadian constitutional system, the responsibility for making and implementing higher education policies is assigned to the provinces. The federal government of Canada is only responsible for the related policy areas, including student financial assistance, research, and development, cultural and language policy initiatives, and human resource development (Jones, 2009; Jones & Oleksiyenko, 2011). In recent years, the Government of Canada launched *Advantage Canada* in 2006 and *Compete to Win* in 2008 to attract international students and encourage Canadians to be more global engaged (CBIE, 2012). Moreover, many organizations and authorities were established to promote international education, such as the Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development (DFATD), the Council of Ministers of Education (CMEC), the Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE), and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC). However, the federal government does not implement policies directly related to internationalization. Most of the internationalization policies were issued by organizations, such as DFATD, CBIE, CMEC, etc.

In Canada, there was not a national policy on international education until the *International Education Strategy* was released in 2014 (McBride et al., 2015). This plan is the first official federal strategy in regulating international education in Canada. However, the federal government and relevant organizations have been engaging in international education

over the last two decades. In 2007, cooperating with embassies, DFATD launched Edu-Canada to attract international students. Through CMEC, DFATD built a partnership with the provincial governments to launch “Education au/in Canada” to promote Canada’s education brand. In 2011, the Government of Canada invested \$10 million in international education (CBIE, 2015).

Key Driver of Canada's Future Prosperity was launched in 2012 in response to the issues on inbound international students and economic contexts. (CBIE, 2015; McBride et al., 2015). Furthermore, the Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE)’s *A World of Learning: Canada’s Performance and Potential in International Education* provides an overview of the provincial strategies towards the internationalization of higher education (CBIE, 2016). According to McBride et al. (2015), internationalization policies on the national level focus on the students’ mobility, providing scholarships for international students, immigration, internationalization at home, and internationalization learning outcomes.

Besides, there are other relevant policies on international education that focus on a specific aspect, such as *International Mobility in Higher Education* and *Assessing and Implementing Credit Transfer in Student Mobility Partnerships* (CBIE, 2017), *Canada’s International strategy: Focus on Scholarship* (CBIE, 2011), etc. Moreover, there are marketing plans that support international education. For instance, the *Global Market Action Plan 2013* (Government of Canada, 2013) and *Canada’s Economic Action Plan 2011* (Government of Canada, 2011) pointed out international education should be recognized as a priority which can

provide Canada with competitive advantages. *Bringing the World to Canada: An International Education Marketing Action Plan for Provinces and Territories (the Plan)* addresses the issues of recruiting and attaining international students. It also suggests that the provinces and territories should work together or build the partnership with the federal government to enhance their education competitiveness and improve economic development (CMEC, 2011).

At the provincial and institutional level, policies concerning internationalization focus on the improving the international student services, engaging in distance education, internationalization at home, tracking international learning outcomes, and enhancing research collaboration (McBride et al., 2015). For example, the *Saskatchewan Plan for Growth, Vision 2020 & Beyond* set three goals of international education: first is attracting and retaining international post-secondary students; second is encouraging Saskatchewan business students to study foreign languages to engage internationally; third is encouraging Saskatchewan students to study business abroad by establishing the Saskatchewan's International Future Scholarship (Government of Saskatchewan, 2012). In 2014, Saskatchewan developed a *Designation Framework*, which aims to provide a transparent process for institutions to host international students. The framework was also developed to ensure the quality of international students during recruitment (CBIE, 2013). In response to the priorities in the in the *Plan for Growth*, the Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education developed a post-secondary *International Education Strategy*, which proposes three objectives: first is to encourage Saskatchewan students

to study abroad; second is to attract more international students studying in Saskatchewan; the third is to improve the quantity and quality of international research partnerships. Also, the strategy suggests that a council on international education should be established to regulate further and provide service for international education (Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education, 2015). Also, the *Saskatchewan Innovation and Opportunity Scholarship* focuses on providing scholarship or funding to international students to promote research cooperation (Government of Saskatchewan, 2017).

The challenges in internationalization of Canadian higher education. The survey conducted by AUCC reveals that internationalization has become a core element of Canadian universities' activities, but meanwhile, the benefits and risks of internationalization are becoming more prevalent in the global dimension of higher education (AUCC, 2014).

The survey shows that the number of students is beyond the capacity of some Canadian higher education institutions — especially many universities in urban areas and regions that attracted large numbers of immigrants and international students (AUCC, 2014). Due to the increasing enrolment of international students and space constraints, domestic high school graduates cannot get into their ideal universities or programs even if they got good grades. Students who do not want to travel away to attend university may not have a chance to go to the local university. Moreover, since there are significant costs to expand university capacity and the government cut back the funding, it is difficult for higher education institutions to expand their

capacity (AUCC, 2014).

The need of expanding university capacity leads to another challenge: the lack of government funding. A significant amount of funding is needed to increase the physical and human resources, which is the key to expand the university capacity. However, as the federal government cut funding to higher education in the mid-1990s, universities have to reduce physical and human resources, such as reducing teaching faculty, support services, and constraining enrolment (AUCC, 2011). The conflict of increasing the number of international students and insufficiency of physical resources poses the third challenge to higher education, which is to ensure and maintain the academic quality of programs and international students' learning and engagement. Friesen (2009) also stated that the commercialization of higher education, which is brought by the trend of globalization and internationalization, may influence the quality of education. He explained that the purpose of students is to receive credentials as the education customers instead of improving their learning and skills; the faculty members tend to pursue research and innovation to succeed as professionals instead of focusing on teaching. Thus, the teaching and learning quality will not be guaranteed. Jones (2009) was also concerned that the increasing number of international students would take jobs from the local students since the government paid less attention to this issue and provided little support about the problem of student employment and the job market. Furthermore, the diversity of international students requires a comprehensive accreditation mechanism and course credits transfer system. Students

often lack access to credit transfer information before applying for a program overseas (AUCC, 2014).

Another challenge is relevant to the outward mobility. First is the geographic misalignment, that is when Canadian students study abroad, they do not choose the institutions of the countries where Canadian universities and government are eager to build relationships with, such as Asian countries and Latin America (AUCC, 2014). Also, neither the government nor the institutions give sufficient financial or policy supports that might help expand students' choices (AUCC, 2014). Second is that there is a lack of regulation or policies that ensure the Canadian students can benefit equally from the international experiences. Academic values, quality, and equity should be considered when building the international linkages (AUCC, 2014).

Jones (2009) also pointed out the challenges regarding the internationalization policies of Canadian higher education. First is Canadianization, which means that less coverage of Canadian topics and studies will be concluded in the university curriculum with the trend of internationalizing the curriculum. Second is Federalism, which is the result of the decentralized constitutional system in Canada. In other words, the federal government approach has been fragmented as the authority for implementing a range of policy areas that interacted with higher education were dispersed to different departments and organizations (Jones, 2009).

The challenges of internationalization facing Canadian higher education can be divided into internal and external challenges. Internal challenges include limited capacity of institutions,

academic quality, insufficient well-developed credit transfer mechanisms, limited outwards mobility of Canadian students and the loss of Canadian and local culture in the curriculum.

External challenges are the lack of government funding, the fierce competition in the employment market, the misalignment of policies between different levels.

Internationalization of Chinese Higher Education

The internationalization of higher education is not a new trend in China. Chinese higher education dates to the Han Dynasty (206 BC–220 AD), with evidence of international connections in higher education in early Chinese history (Chen & Huang, 2013). Since the late 1990s, influenced by open policies of Chinese higher education, internationalization has become the strategic choice of most of the Chinese higher education institutions through motivation by worldwide globalization trends in higher education (Jin, 2012). Reviewing the literature about the historical development of Chinese higher education allows us to further understand the internationalization of higher education.

The historical background of internationalization of Chinese higher education.

Although the modern higher education in China is considered to start in the late 1980s, Chinese higher education can be traced back to Eastern Zhou Dynasty (771-221 B.C.) (Yu, Stith, Liu & Chen, 2012). The international dimension of Chinese higher education emerged in the Han Dynasty, marked by sending Chinese diplomatic officials to the West to establish relationships with other countries. In the following Wei, Jin, and North and South dynasties (A.D.220-589),

Chinese higher education experienced the cross-border exchange of knowledge and culture. The formal internationalization of higher education started in 1840 (Chen & Huang, 2013).

During the Modern Era (1840 to 1948), beginning with the Qing government's defeats in the Opium Wars (1839–1842 and 1856–1860), Chinese higher education emulated and adopted the Western model and promoted science learning, first from Japan and later from America and Europe (Hayhoe, 1989; Yu et al., 2012). This period also symbolized the beginning and the early development of the internationalization of Chinese higher education, which was actuated by a series of movements, represented by the “Introduction of the Western Learning into China Discourse” and “Self-Strengthening Movement.” In the 1860s, under the western colonists’ invasion of China, Qing officials launched “Yang Wu Movement” and “Self-strengthening Movement.” “Yang Wu Movement” advocates building higher education institutions by following the model of western schools, including their educational objectives, curriculum, teaching methods, and subjects. “Self-strengthening Movement” aims to send Chinese students abroad to learn western manufacturing skills, which initiated the development of internationalization (Chen & Huang, 2013). These movements became more progressive after the defeat of the Qing government in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895) (Chen & Huang, 2013, p.93).

The defeat of the Qing government led to the Hundred Days of Reform, which aimed to abolish the traditional examination system and establish a modern educational system (studying

science and mathematics instead of Confucian texts). It also encouraged imperial family members to study abroad (Eckel, 1948). The invasion of the Eight-Power Allied Force forced the Qing government to reform to save the Qing dynasty. Therefore, “Xin Zheng Movement” (New Policy Movement) was launched in 1901, featured by the abolition of the imperial officer selection examination system and the establishment of xuetang (university), was accompanied by the reform of curriculum. During the “New Policy” period, the Japanese educators teaching in the xuetang promoted the internationalization of Chinese higher education (Chen & Huang, 2013, p.94). Moreover, in the late Qing Dynasty (1840-1912), students were sent abroad to learn advanced science and technology. The second upsurge of sending students started at that time following the first wave abroad in the 1870s (Chen & Huang, 2013; Yang, 1994).

From 1912 to 1949, Chinese higher education was in the early stage of modernization, featured by the great cultural diversity and the co-existence of traditions and overseas experiences (Hayhoe, 1989; Wang, 2013). The New Culture Movement (mid-1910s-1920s) brought a series of reform, leading to the co-existence of American-type universities with traditional institutions. The internationalization of higher education showed considerable progress during this period, especially the launch of *the Implementation Program for Students Studying Abroad* before breaking out of the Anti-Japanese War (Chen & Huang, 2013). The international activities of higher education during that time can be divided into four areas: first is introducing the Western education aims and curricula; second is combining with the advantages

of Western higher education administration systems; third is enhancing the international academic exchanges; fourth is strengthening the regulations of sending students abroad (Chen & Huang, 2013).

Chinese higher education shows rapid development after the People's Republic of China was founded in 1949 when the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) came to power (British Council, 2013; Wang, 2013). In the early 1950s, highly influenced by the Soviet Union, the Chinese government restructured higher education institutions and unified the instruction system: the texts, syllabi, etc. (British Council, 2013). In 1958, due to the Great Leap Forward (Da Yue Jin) within the construction of the nation, education at all levels showed rapid expansion and enhancement (Wang, 2013). The higher education institutions increased rapidly before the Cultural Revolution broke out in 1967. By borrowing the model of universities in the Soviet Union, the government built many vocational and technical institutes and reorganized comprehensive schools. Also, a large number of Chinese students were sent to the Soviet Union and other socialist countries (Chen & Huang, 2013). Nevertheless, the Cultural Revolution lasted for ten years and isolated Chinese higher education from other countries and hindered the development of higher education, which directly impeded the pace of internationalization (British Council, 2013; Chen & Huang, 2013).

The New Era of Chinese higher education was from 1977 to the present. In 1977, the establishment of the National Higher Education Entrance Examination (Gao Kao 高考) had a

profound impact on Chinese higher education in history. The “Four Modernizations” proposed by Deng Xiaoping in 1977 marked the revival of the internalization of higher education. China started to seek western models to internationalize higher education (Chen & Huang, 2013). Since 1978, motivated by the open-door policy and a series of economic reforms, the internationalization of Chinese higher education has experienced a change of international activities, from the mobility of international students, scholars, and faculty to transnational higher education and internationalization of curricula (Huang, 2003). In 1999, China started a decade-long higher education expansion (British Council, 2013). As a result, student enrollment in universities increased from under 3 million in 1994 to 7 million by 2000, and 15.61 million in 2005 (Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China, 2010).

With the increasing outflow of Chinese students, many international students came and studied in China. The internationalization of Chinese higher education put more emphasis on increasing international exchanges of teachers and students, strengthening the cross-border academic exchanges and scientific research cooperation (Chen & Huang, 2013). Moreover, with the support of the government, the transitional schools have been increasing significantly. The science and technology cooperation and exchanges between Chinese higher education institutions and foreign higher education institutions have also been improved (Chen & Huang, 2013).

Overview of internationalization policies of Chinese higher education. Although the

internationalization of higher education has a long history in China, the rapid development started in 1978 (Huang, 2003). The policies regarding the internationalization of higher education were initiated and changing progressively during the past thirty years. According to Jin (2012), there is no specific policy area directly connected to the internationalization of higher education. However, some action plans and documents issued by the central and provincial government, such as the *Action Plan for Revitalization of Education in the 21st Century (面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划)* (MOE, 1998), the *Outline of the National Plan for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020) (国家中长期教育改革和发展规划纲要 (2010-2020 年))*(Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China, 2010), etc.

Huang (2003) demonstrates that the development of internationalization policies of Chinese higher education can be divided into two stages: 1978-1992 and 1993-present. From 1978 to 1992, most policies issued by the Ministry of Education focused on dispatching students, scholars, and faculties abroad for advanced studies. There were also policies for inviting foreign scholars and faculties, introducing and the foreign curriculum and encouraging the return of overseas students (Huang, 2003). As a result of the Cultural Revolution, the *Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party (CCCCP) Decision on Institutional Reform of Education (中共中央关于教育体制改革的决定)* was issued in 1985 to modernize the education system (Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, 1985). This policy highlights the importance to reduce the gap of education between China and developed countries, which was followed by the

National Outline for Education Reform and Development (中国教育改革和发展纲要) launched in 1993 (CCCCP and the State Council, 1993).

Since 1993, with the increasing outflows of scholars, students, and faculty members, most policies focused on encouraging overseas students and scholars to return, attracting foreign students to study in China, and regulating the transitional education and internationalizing the curriculum (Huang, 2003). Specifically, based on the *Action Plan for Revitalization of Education in the 21st Century (面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划)*, the *2003–2007 Action Plan for Revitalization of Education (2003-2007 教育振兴行动计划)* indicates the need to promote Chinese education and language (MOE, 1998, 2004). The *National Outline for Mid and Long-Term Education Planning and Development 2010-2020 (国家中长期改革与教育发展规划纲要 2010-2020)* called for improving the cross-cultural understanding and providing education aid to developing countries (Government of China, 2010). With the implementation of these policies, the internationalization of higher education has been improving gradually, but it also brought many problems and challenges.

The challenges in internationalization of Chinese higher education. With the development of the global knowledge economy and China's engagement in communication with other countries, the internationalization of higher education has been receiving more attention. Undoubtedly, the internationalization brought benefits and opportunities for the development of Chinese higher education. However, it also poses many challenges domestically and

internationally.

Following the benefits and challenges proposed by Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014), Li (2009) outlined the three challenges faced by Chinese higher education. The first challenge is that internationalization intensifies the competition in the education market, which is mainly caused by four reasons: first, developed countries have advantages in expanding overseas education market over developing countries; second, more foreign institutions run international schools in China; third is the advanced internet and technology development lead to flourishing distance education in developed countries; fourth, the commercialization trend of internationalization poses a huge challenge to the public non-profit nature of Chinese higher education (Li, 2009; Ding, 2012).

The second challenge is the intensified competition of talents market, which is because a large number of foreign higher education institutions attract Chinese students to study abroad (Li, 2009). The competition in the talent market directly leads to the brain drain, which is the biggest challenge faced by most developing countries (IAU, 2003; Ding, 2012). The third challenge is the Chinese higher education sovereignty, including the culture, value, politics, which is likely to be influenced and threatened by the introduction of Western culture and value (Li, 2009). Students' ideas and beliefs are easy to be affected and misplaced, which poses a challenge to the school-running system, operation mechanism, administration of Chinese HEIs (Yu & Zhang, 2006).

Ding (2012) also pointed out that quality assurance and the institution administration are also challenges faced by HEIs (Ding, 2012). As mentioned by Ding (2012), educational concept and academic quality in Chinese higher education are still backward compared with developed countries. Huang (2003) also noted that the quality assurance of the international activities is not guaranteed since the present regulations and requirements relating to international education are restrictive and rigid. Additionally, most Chinese students seek degree education in Western countries, while those foreign students studying in China are mainly for Chinese language and culture. Most of the self-funded and government-funded Chinese scholars and students who studied abroad chose not to come back after getting their degree. It puts Chinese higher education in a disadvantageous position (Huang, 2003; Yuan & Fu, 2012). Moreover, due to the centralized governance of Chinese higher education, the institutions lack systematical internationalization strategies and unclear talent training objectives, which also impedes the internationalization development (Yu & Zhang, 2006; Ding, 2012).

Next challenge is the teaching content, curriculum and teaching methods are still backward and cannot adapt to the development of internationalization. In terms of curriculum and teaching content, there are few courses with international content offered by Chinese HEIs (Yuan & Fu, 2012). Although some universities have developed bilingual teaching and introduced original English textbooks, it is not universal. It may ignore the combination of relevant domestic content and focuses on theoretical knowledge, so the teaching content is not

practical. Also, students' beliefs and thoughts may be influenced or misplaced by a Western value, which requires new topics in teaching content. Moreover, students' limited English level may lower the efficiency of teaching and the use of original foreign textbooks. Besides, the teaching methods are mainly based on lectures, and the advanced information technology methods have not been popularized, which cannot meet the requirement of the internationalization context (Yu & Zhang, 2006; Yuan & Fu, 2012).

Last but not least, there is a lack of related knowledge and internationalization awareness among the administrative team and the faculty in Chinese universities (Yu & Zhang, 2006). First, faculty and administrators lack international and cultural awareness, and haven't yet mastered the modern educational ideology and the world's leading scientific and technical theoretical knowledge in related fields (Yu & Zhang, 2006). Second, Chinese HEIs hire more foreign experts and professors from abroad, which inevitably increases the competitive pressure of teachers. Third, the multicultural university environment and export educational services, such as and worldwide religious, ethnic and other issues, places higher demands on university administrators (Yu & Zhang, 2006).

In a nutshell, the challenges faced by Chinese higher education can be divided into external and internal challenges. External challenges include the intensified competition of the education market, brain drain that caused by fierce competition of the talents market, Chinese higher education sovereignty being threatened by Western culture and value. Internal challenges

are the maintenance of quality, insufficient administration system, imbalance of degree-seeking international students, unqualified faculty and administrators, and backward curriculum, teaching content, and teaching methods.

Different Contexts of Internationalization of Chinese and Canadian Higher Education

The comparison of context demonstrates that the international engagement of Chinese higher education has a longer history compared to Canada. The international engagement of Canadian higher education started during WWII (1939-1945), while Chinese higher education began in 1840 when the Qing government was defeated in the Opium War. Although internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education was both actuated by the wars, the origins are different. The Chinese scholars were trying to learn western knowledge and technology to save the country, while the Canadian government seeks help from universities to promote intercultural understanding between different countries and cultures.

The factors that promote the development of internationalization are different. During the early period, a series of movements promoted the internationalization of Chinese higher education, while the establishment of national authorities and organizations promote the development of internationalization in Canada. Internationalization of Chinese higher education started from learning western models and sending students abroad to attracting international students, while Canada began internationalization from attracting international students to creating an overseas learning experience for Canadian students.

Looking through the process of internationalization, the internationalization in China has experienced more twists and turns compared to Canada. During the early period from 1840 to 1977, Chinese higher education engaged in learning from the western model and Soviet Union model and sent Chinese students abroad to learn western manufacturing skills. After 1977, motivated by the “Four Modernizations,” open-door policy, and a series of economic reforms, more international activities were developed, such as dispatching Chinese undergraduate and graduate students abroad and introducing western textbooks and curriculum. Since the 1980s, China started to attract foreign students and build partnerships and cooperation with foreign institutions.

By comparison, Canada started to attract foreign students since the beginning of internationalization in 1950. Instead of being motivated by policies and economic reform, the cut of government funding in 1970 led to the rapid development of internationalization. Due to the lack of funding, Canadian HEIs started to seek cooperation and build the partnership with foreign higher education institutions and recruit more international students.

Conceptual Framework

This section outlines and explains the analytical framework that was utilized to guide this study. Before exploring the theories, it is crucial to understand the functions and meanings of a conceptual framework. Miles and Huberman (1994) described a conceptual framework as “a visual or written product, which lay out and explains presumed relationships among the key

factors, concepts, or variables of the phenomenon” (p. 18). The conceptual framework is built on the results of the literature review. It serves as the basis of the research process, such as the development of practical research questions, the design of methodology, the selection and the analysis of data (Maxwell, 1996; Owen, 2014).

In this study, the function of the conceptual framework is to examine the interrelationships between the internationalization policies from global, national, provincial and institutional levels. Therefore, I applied the Global Higher Education Matrix (Jones, 2008) to probe the complex and multi-layered interrelationship or interconnection among policies at different levels of the Chinese and Canadian higher education system. Moreover, the Four Approaches to the Internationalization of Higher Education, including activity, competency, ethos, and process, was utilized as a tool to categorize and analyze the policies (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003).

Global Higher Education Matrix. Combining Marginson and Rhoades (2002)’s Global Agency Heuristic and Clark (1983)’s levels of authority within higher education system, a Global Higher Education Matrix was developed by Jones (2008) to explore the globalization and internationalization of higher education from inter-relationships related to the local, national and global dimensions.

Focusing on the governance and policy-making of the higher education system, Clark (1983) presented a “triangle” model on the states, market, and professional control, which serves

as a heuristic for studying and comparing national higher education systems under the influence of governments, markets and professions. Marginson and Rhoades (2002) argued that Clark's "triangle" heuristic had framed comparative higher education research on the national policies and higher education systems, but it is restricted to the national level. Therefore, a Glonacal Agency Heuristic was established by Marginson and Rhoades (2002) to emphasize the significance and intersection of global, national, and local dimensions. The term "Glonacal" represents the three dimensions or levels of authority – global, national, local. "Agency" refers to the organizations and the agencies of human action under the three levels. The Glonacal Agency Heuristic not only allows us to examine the activities and regulation from the global perspective but also the relationships between the national policies and local policies (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002).

Jones (2008) stated that the multiple dimensions mentioned in the Glonacal Agency Heuristic could also be considered as different levels of authority within the higher education system. Thus, based on the multiple planes of international, national, local, Jones (2008) proposed Global Higher Education Matrix as a tool to explore "how each level of authority is oriented towards these multiple dimensions" (Jones, 2008, p.464). Compared to Glonacal Agency Heuristic, this matrix put more emphasis on the reciprocity and dynamic interactions of the multi-level (federal, provincial, institutional and faculty) policies and initiatives (Jones, 2008). Jones and Oleksiyenko (2011) applied Global Higher Education Matrix as a framework to

explore the inter-relationships among federal, provincial (Ontario), and institutional levels of authority through analyzing the complexity of policy perspectives and activities related to internationalization. The findings prove that the Global Higher Education Matrix can be an efficient and useful framework for studying the relationships between policies on internationalization of higher education system at different levels.

This section described the Global Higher Education Matrix and its application in other studies. Next part will introduce the Four Approaches to the Internationalization of Higher Education, which was combined with the Global Higher Education Matrix to serve as the analytical framework for this study.

Four approaches to internationalization of higher education. There are mainly four approaches to describe the concept of internationalization: competency, activity, ethos, and process (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003). Zha (2003) defined “approaches” as “the stances adopted by persons in leadership positions towards the promotion and implementation of programs aimed at internationalization” (p.250). Knight (2004) stated that the approach is the manner that a country or an institution use to address the implementation and conceptualization of internationalization. In addition, the approach to internationalization can reflect or characterize the priorities, culture, history, politics toward implementing internationalization so that the approach can vary from countries and institutions (Knight, 2004). Barton, Hartwig, and Cain (2015) applied the four approaches as a part of the analytical framework to analyze the practicum experience of

international students. The four approaches were recognized as four themes to show the analysis process of the interview transcript.

The “competency approach” focuses on the development of students and faculty in terms of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values. Due to the increasingly fierce competition of the labor market, the development of skills and knowledge is significant for students to be competitive (Zha, 2003). This approach mainly focuses on improving the quality of teaching and research and promoting the capability of program and courses to meet the international norms and quality. In other words, the competency approach is to internationalize curricula and programs and to develop the competencies in the students and faculty (Knight, 1997).

The “activity approach” promotes specific activities or programs, such as curriculum, student or faculty exchange, technical and financial support, and international students (Zha, 2003). The activity approach can also be seen as the process of integrating international education into the curriculum and activities that promote an intercultural dimension, including the international students, curriculum and student/faculty exchange (Knight, 1997).

The “ethos approach” aims to “create a culture or climate that values and supports international or intercultural perspectives and initiatives” (Zha, 2003, p.251). This approach can be understood by organizational development theories. For example, an organization creates a culture or climate to support the principles or goals. It also acknowledges that a strong and support culture or climate has a significant role in combining the international dimension with

the mission and goals of higher education institutions (Zha, 2003).

The “process approach” is targeted to integrate “an international or intercultural dimension into teaching, research and service in higher education institutions by combining a wide range of activities, policies, and procedures” (Zha, 2003, p.251). The emphasis of this approach is on program and organizational aspects, such as policies and procedures.

For better understanding the function and the connection of the Global Higher Education Matrix and the four approaches and how the two concepts will be combined to serve as the analytical framework of this study, a figure will be provided as followed.

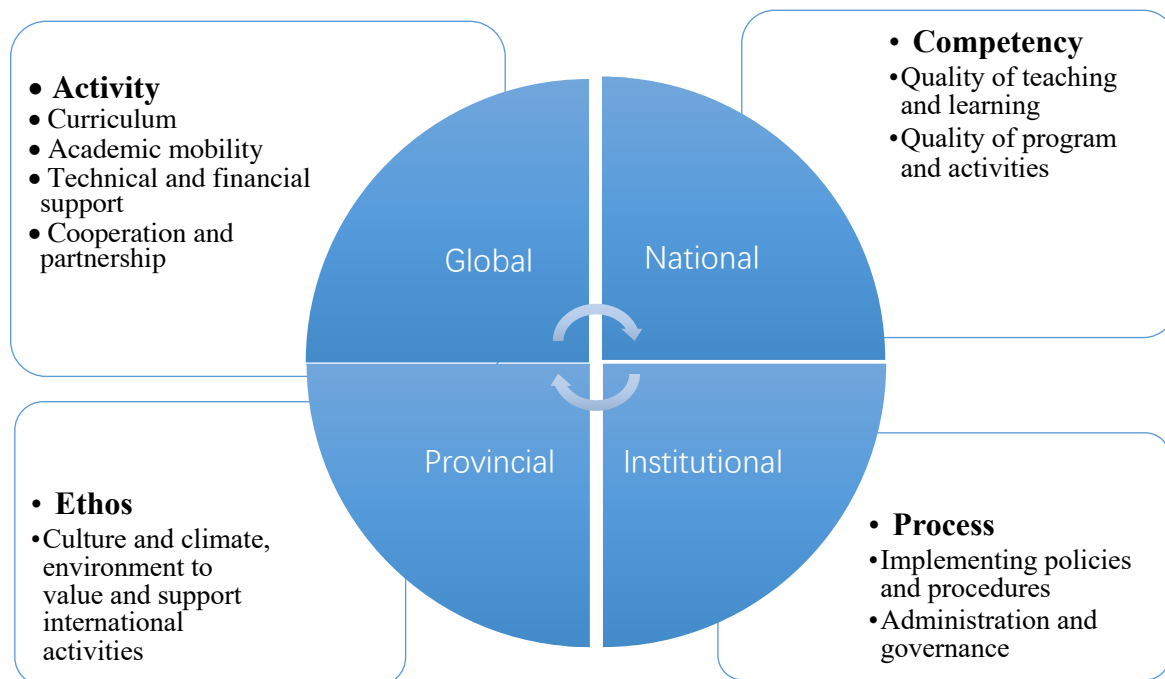


Figure 2-1. *Conceptual Framework*. Adapted from Jones (2008), Knight (1997), and Zha, (2003).

Regarding the research purpose and questions, the “Global Higher Education Matrix” and “Four Approaches” were used to analyze the interrelationship and interconnection between the

policies on different levels as well as the priorities on internationalization of higher education in different countries. As illustrated in Figure 1, by applying the Global Higher Education Matrix (Jones, 2008), the internationalization policies on Chinese and Canadian higher education were collected from four levels of organizations: global organizations, federal governments, provincial governments and institutions. The interrelationship of policies was also analyzed based on the four levels. Besides, each of the four approaches represents different strategies towards internationalization of higher education, which was applied to examine the focuses or priorities of the internationalization context and policies in China and Canada.

Summary

This literature review allows us to comprehend the definition, rationales and the background of internationalization of higher education. It also provides the background and policy development of internationalization in both Chinese and Canadian higher education. After reviewing the literature, we can find that although there is plenty of research focusing on the internationalization of higher education in China and Canada, there are still gaps regarding the comparative studies on internationalization of higher education. First, there is a lack of comparative studies on the internationalization context and policies of higher education in China and Canada. Second, there is no research exploring how the internationalization contexts shape the policies. Third, there are no comparative studies analyzing the internationalization policies from the specific four levels. Last but not least, there is no research targeting at the two particular

institutions.

Concerning the gaps, this study analyzes and compares the interrelationship between the background and policies of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. First, by applying the “Global Higher Education Matrix” (Jones, 2008), this study provides a thorough analysis of internationalization policies from four levels: global, national, provincial and institutional. Also, analyzing the contexts and challenges of internationalization of higher education will contribute to the understanding of the existing policies. Moreover, comparing the contexts and priorities of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education may help policymakers and institutional leaders to further understand existing initiatives or policies.

With the introduction and elaboration of the analytical framework, the next chapter will describe the method that I used to conduct this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The review of previous studies on internationalization of higher education in China and Canada demonstrates that there is a lack of comparative studies on the internationalization of Canadian and Chinese higher education. To address this gap, this study explored the different historical contexts and the priorities in the internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education by analyzing the alignment between the public policies that initiated on the global, national, provincial and institutional level. The three research questions are proposed as followed.

1. What are the different challenges faced by the internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education systems?
2. What are the different priorities of the internationalization policies in Chinese and Canadian higher education?
3. How can the comparison inform future development of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian high education?

As illustrated in the previous chapter, the “Global Higher Education Matrix” (Jones, 2008) and the “Four Approaches of Internationalization of Higher Education” (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003) served as the analytical framework of the policies. This chapter explains the methodology of this study, including research design, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Design

This study employed the comparative policy analysis under qualitative methods. Qualitative research is defined as “an approach to inquiry that begins with assumptions, worldviews, possibly a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems exploring the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2007, p.37). Patton (1999) claimed that qualitative research is suited for research that seeks to explore the deep meaning of a social event since it allows us to better understand the context of the data. Patton (2002) also argued that the qualitative method is the most appropriate when the research questions are open-ended. More importantly, qualitative methods are useful when the researcher focuses on the dynamics of the process and requires a deeper understanding of behavior and the meaning and context of complex phenomena (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Regarding this study, the research questions are open-ended and aim to explore the context and the development of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. Hence, I used qualitative method in this research and followed a comparative policy analysis.

In this study, internationalization of higher education is a phenomenon related to and influenced by a country’s cultural, historical and political context. I assumed that the policies and context concerning the internationalization of higher education in China are different than in Canada. Therefore, comparative policy analysis is appropriate for this study since it “raises the possibility of much richer insights concerning the influence of cultural milieu, political

competition, and governmental structures themselves on the characteristics of public policy” (Cyr, 1975, p.378). Moreover, the comparative policy analysis requires more complex and diverse information, which may generate more incisive conclusions on policies at different levels (Cyr, 1975). According to Hallak (1990), comparative cross-cultural policy studies allow a country to reform or improve their education systems by identifying the long-term trends of the other country’s national setting (institutional, provincial and other factors) and strategies. By providing generalizations about policies beyond national limitations, comparative policy analysis can help policy-makers to understand the common problems in different educational systems, to identify the national aims and options, and to examine the potentials and benefits of cross-border borrowing or adaptation (Cyr, 1975; Hallak, 1990).

Additionally, in qualitative research studies, researchers bring their worldviews or set of beliefs to the research project, and they are actively involved and intend to understand and explain the phenomena (Creswell, 2007). Researchers are also required to engage in considerable reflection when conducting qualitative research, including making and challenging their own assumptions, adopting a course of action, and recognizing how findings will answer the research questions and shape the study (Carcary, 2009). In accordance with the qualitative research design, I applied document analysis to collect data.

Data Collection

Document analysis was the data collection technique for this study. Trauth (2001) noted

that the data collection method is influenced by the research problem and questions, the theoretical framework or philosophical assumptions. Documents can provide data on the particular context. In other words, documents can provide background information and the historical roots of specific issues or cross-cultural research (Bowen, 2009; Merriam, 1988). Furthermore, Merriam (1988) pointed out that all types of documents can help the researcher to “uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem” (p.118). In this case, the policy documents allowed us to understand the context and development of the internationalization of higher education.

In addition, document analysis is a process of understanding empirical knowledge by evaluating the documents rather than outlining and conveying the ideas from printed material. The content of the documents should fit the conceptual framework of the study and be relevant to the research problem and purpose (Bowen, 2009). Before illustrating the data collection process, it is significant to clarify the definition of internationalization policies in this study. According to Pal (2005), policy refers to “a course of action or inaction chosen by public authorities to address a given problem or interrelated set of problems” (p.2). Policies are documents implemented by individuals or organizations with the authority. A policy document should include three key elements: problem definition, statements of goals, and instruments (Pal, 2005). In this study, the problems are the challenges of internationalization of higher education faced by Chinese and Canadian higher education. The internationalization policies refer to the plans, strategies,

blueprints, and regulations formulated and implemented by the governments, the relevant authorities, and the non-governmental organizations to cope with the challenges and facilitate the development of the internationalization of higher education.

With the conceptual framework and research design, the documents are the public policies on internationalization of higher education at the global level, national level, provincial level, and institutional level. Most policies were collected from the website of the legitimate organizations or authorities. Some Chinese policies that were not accessible online were retrieved from the database in the National Library of China. At the global level, the policies were collected from the websites of UNESCO, the International Association of Universities (IAU), and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). At the national level, the Chinese policies were mainly collected on the websites of four authorities: the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China (中华人民共和国中央政府), and the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (中华人民共和国教育部). The Canadian policies were collected on the websites of the Global Affairs Canada. At the provincial level, the policies were collected from the website of the Government of Saskatchewan, the Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education, and the Beijing Municipal Education Commission. At the institutional level, the data collection was conducted at the University of Saskatchewan and Beijing Normal University.

There are three reasons that I selected these two universities. First, both universities have

been engaging in internationalization since the early 1990s. Both institutions have established cooperative ties and partnerships with foreign universities and international organizations. The two universities both encourage students to study abroad by developing exchange programs, collaborative programs, and degree programs and encourage scholars and faculty to participate in international activities and research. The BNU has around 1800 long-term international students from over 100 countries and regions, which ranks among the top in Chinese universities (BNU, n.d.). The U of S has more than 110 international research and development projects with institutions in more than 60 countries (U of S, 2018). Secondly, the two universities cooperated and established student exchange programs and are looking forward to strengthening cooperation with each other. For example, the potential plans of the College of Education at the U of S highlight facilitating the cooperation with BNU by sending more student internships to take courses at BNU and improving faculty exchanges between institutions (Glazebrook, 2017). Thirdly, BNU and U of S have been implementing policies, strategies, and plans related to internationalization during the previous two decades.

Data Analysis

This section outlines the methods and procedures that I used to analyze the data. According to Bowen (2009), the analysis of documents is an iterative process, which involves skimming, reading, and interpretation. This iterative process combines two methods: content analysis and thematic analysis. Content analysis is the process of identifying organizing

information into categories related to the central questions of the research, which aims to describe the phenomenon in a condensed and systematic way (Berg, 2004; Bowen, 2009).

Qualitative content analysis was defined as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p.1278). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), there are three kinds of content data analysis methods: conventional content analysis, directed content analysis, and summative content analysis. Conventional content analysis is an inductive method, which means that the codes are directly from the text data. Directed content analysis is a deductive method, which usually starts with a theory or relevant research findings in order to get codes as guidance for initial codes. It was defined as “the use of more analytic codes and categories derived from the existing theories and explanations relevant to the research focus” (Berg, 2004, p.341). Summative content analysis involves identifying and quantifying certain words or content in the text to understand the contextual use of the words or content. Therefore, with the conceptual framework, directed content analysis was more suitable for this study.

The analytic procedure of content analysis typically includes four steps: first, transferring the data into text. Secondly, sorting the materials by categories, commonalities or disparities. Thirdly, identifying and developing the codes within the data and affixing notes. Fourthly, codes are transformed into categorical labels and themes. Coding is the deep reflection and interpretation of the data’s meaning. In other words, coding is to analyze the meaningful segment

with descriptive words or symbols. Lastly, interpretation is to connect the understanding of the data with previous studies and theories on the basis of identifying the deep meaning of the data (Berg, 2004; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014).

As this study applied directed content analysis, which extracts initial codes from theories or conceptual framework. Firstly, I collected internationalization policies on Chinese and Canadian higher education in both electronic and paper forms from four levels of organizations: global organizations, federal governments and relevant organizations, provincial governments and institutions. Secondly, I read through the policies and skimmed the related information or content from the policy documents. Then I translated the relevant information from the Chinese version into English. Thirdly, I identified the codes from the policies by using Four Approaches to the Internationalization of Higher Education, including: academic mobility, cooperation, administration, education market, internationalizing the curriculum, funding, and quality assurance. Table 3-1 shows an example of the process of identifying the codes from Chinese internationalization policies at the national level. Fourthly, I identified the themes in terms of the differences and similarities of Chinese and Canadian internationalization policies: academic mobility, cooperation and partnership, internationalizing curriculum for intercultural understanding, governance and administration, and quality assurance. Lastly, I examined and interpreted the themes in light of the conceptual framework and the research purpose.

Table 3-1.

Codes of Internationalization Policies in the Chinese Context

Codes	Recommendations
Academic mobility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the number of international students • Encourage two-way student, researcher and faculty mobility • Encourage Chinese students who studied overseas come back • Hire foreign faculty, researchers, scholars and administrators • Encourage students and faculty exchange • Invite foreign experts to give speeches in Chinese HEIs
Cooperation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cooperate with international education organizations • Cooperate with foreign institutions, research centers and enterprises • Cooperate with foreign partners to run joint programs or joint schools
Quality assurance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve the quality of international programs • Internationalizing teaching faculty • Chinese faculty get training overseas • Improve the assessment and supervision system and mechanism • Attracting quality international students
Internationalizing the Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internationalizing textbook, teaching content and teaching method • More disciplines taught in English
Funding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase funding input to support cultivating talents • Provide funding to support outstanding Chinese student study abroad • Arrange funding to support teachers and students who go abroad for internships and conduct teaching experiments
Administration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internationalizing administrators • Improving the administration system • Improve the internationalization policies • Participate in formulating policies on internationalization • Implement different cooperation strategies towards developing and developed countries

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual recognition of academic credentials, degree certificates and educational qualification
Education Market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage high-quality Chinese HEIs run branches overseas • Promote Chinese higher education branding • Promote Chinese language • Regulate Confucius Institutes

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness refers to the criteria for judging the quality and goodness of the investigation and the findings of the qualitative inquiry, which made the result noteworthy to audiences and readers (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Schwandt, 2014). In qualitative studies, trustworthiness aims to claim that the inquiry’s findings are valuable and worthy (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

According to Johnson and Christensen (2012), the trustworthiness of qualitative research means that the quality of the study is plausible, credible, and defensible. Guba and Lincoln (1989) developed four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility means that the researcher’s reconstruction and representation should match and fit the respondent’s opinions or views. Transferability is about generalization, which requires the inquirer to provide sufficient information on this case studied for readers to build the degree of similarity between the findings of this study and other cases. Dependability means the research process should be logical, traceable and documented. Confirmability requires the inquirer to be objective, which means that the assertions, findings, and interpretations should be objective (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

Since policy analysis is the only data collection method for this study, the trustworthiness was based on ensuring the quality of study in all the phases of content analysis. Bowen (2009) highlighted that it is necessary to “determine the authenticity, credibility, accuracy, and representativeness of the selected documents” (p.33). Content analysis mainly involves three phases: preparation, organization, and results reporting. Accordingly, the trustworthiness of content analysis should be evaluated from these three stages (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, & Kyngäs, 2014).

During the preparation phase, when collecting the data, I followed three criteria: accessibility, comprehensibility, and accuracy. First, I defined the internationalization policies as the plans, strategies, blueprints, and regulations formulated and implemented by the governments, the relevant authorities, and the non-governmental organizations to cope with the challenges and facilitate the development of the internationalization of higher education. I made sure that all the policies are accessible either as electronic documents collected from the governments or organization websites or paper documents collected from the library or other databases. After collecting the policies, I consulted with my supervisor about the accuracy and the comprehensibility of the policies. Second, as this study is related to the comparison of Chinese and Canadian policies, the documents included English and Chinese versions. Most of the English versions of Chinese policies were available online on the official translation website. The English version of Chinese policies that cannot be retrieved online were translated by myself

and checked by my academic peers who are majored in English and Chinese Translation and Interpretation. Therefore, this process ensured that the English text was trustworthy and accurate translation from the original one in Chinese.

For the organization phase, I ensured that the policies were well categorized, and the research process was traceable and documented. For example, I made tables about the process that how I identified codes from the policies (Table 1 is an example). After I identified the codes and themes, I did peer examination. During peer examination period, I consulted with my academic peers who are in Master's and Ph.D. programs in Educational Administration and then confirmed with my supervisor. After getting feedback from my peers and supervisor, I edited and guaranteed the feasibility of the codes and themes.

Last stage is the trustworthiness of interpretation, which is related to transferability, conformability, and credibility (Elo et al., 2014). I described in my limitations that this study only selected two provinces and institutions in China and Canada, so findings from this study could potentially be transferred to other settings, including different countries, provinces and HEIs. The analytical framework is also transferable when comparing internationalization policies. Conformability refers to the objectivity, which requires two or more people are congruent about the accuracy, relevance, or meaning of the data (Elo et al., 2014). When attending the Comparative and International Education Society conference and presented the results of this study, I ensured the accuracy of my findings by consulting with Dr. Liu Baocun, a

professor at Institute of International and Comparative Education of Beijing Normal University. I also discussed with doctoral students in our department and my supervisor for their opinions and confirmed that the data was meaningful, and the findings were accurate. Credibility requires researchers to ensure that data are identified and described accurately (Elo et al., 2014). To establish credibility, I used tables to explain the preliminary data analysis process. Besides, I used quotations from the original policy documents to show the connection between data and findings.

This study used qualitative method and applied policy analysis. Document analysis and directed content analysis are data collection and data analysis methods. With the analytical framework, Global Higher Education Matrix and the Four Approaches of Internationalization of Higher Education, the next chapter will illustrate the data collection and data analysis process, and propose the findings of the study.

Chapter 4: Findings

This chapter first describes the document collection and analysis process. Secondly, it analyzes internationalization policies issued by the global organizations to provide the global background of internationalization and examine the priorities of the internationalization policies at the global level. Thirdly, the priorities of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education are compared at the national, provincial, and institutional levels. Lastly, the alignment and coherence of the policies are analyzed and explained between the four levels: global, national, provincial, and institutional.

Document Collected and Analysis Process

This section describes the document collection and analysis process, including how and where I collected the policy documents, what policies I collected, and how I analyzed the policy documents.

Policies collected. At the global level, I gathered the policies from the official websites of three organizations: The International Association of Universities (IAU), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). *IAU Strategic Plan 2016-2020* specifies the three roles that IAU plays in the internationalization of higher education: first, IAU examines the trends and identifies the benefits and challenges of internationalization; second, it provides references and suggestions to Higher Education Institutions and policymakers about developing

their internationalization strategies; third, it assesses internationalization processes and activities (IAU, 2016). OECD not only focuses on the challenges and opportunities facing internationalization of higher education but also plays a role as a policy advisor in the field of higher education (Hénard, Diamond & Roseveare, 2012). UNESCO aims to help countries adopt international standards and programs that promote the sharing of ideas and knowledge. It also provides a platform for the development of policies (UNESCO, n.d.). The three organizations have implemented policies or strategies on different aspects of internationalization of higher education. The policies collected and analyzed are listed in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1.

Internationalization Policies at the Global Level

Authority of Issuing	Issuing Date	Name of Document
UNESCO	1995	<i>Policy Paper for Change and Development in Higher Education</i>
IAU	2000	<i>Towards a century of cooperation: Internationalization of higher education</i>
IAU	2005	<i>Sharing Quality Higher Education Across Borders: A Statement on Behalf of Higher Education Institutions Worldwide</i>
UNESCO	2005	<i>Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education</i>
OECD	2005	<i>Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education</i>
OECD	2010	<i>International Mobility in Higher Education</i>
IAU	2012	<i>Affirming Academic Values in Internationalization of Higher Education: A Call for Action</i>
IAU	2016	<i>IAU Strategic Plan 2016-2020</i>

At the national level, two significant policy documents of Canadian higher education

were collected from the website of Global Affairs Canada: *Canada's International Education Strategy (IES)* (2014) and *International Education: A Key Driver of Canada's Future Prosperity* (2012). The International Education Division of Global Affairs Canada plays a role in attracting international students to Canada and promoting Canada's education profile abroad. It also facilitates and coordinates the relations and services between the federal government, provinces, NGOs, and Canadian public and private educational institutions. (Global Affairs Canada, n.d.).

The primary objective of the *International Education Strategy (IES)* is to increase the number of international students by focusing on priority education markets. It also encourages Canadian HEIs to build partnerships with institutions abroad, facilitate student and faculty exchanges, and promote Canada's education brand (Global Affairs Canada, 2014). The goal of *International Education: A Key Driver of Canada's Future Prosperity* is to provide recommendations for an international education strategy that is aligned with other relevant policies at the national and provincial level (Global Affairs Canada, 2012).

To make sure of the comprehensiveness of Chinese policy document collection, I collected data at the National Library of China in Beijing in February 2018, in addition to collecting policies on the official websites of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China (Government of China) (中华人民共和国政府) and the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (MOE) (中华人民共和国教育部). During this data collection in China, I reviewed the *Compilation of Education Laws and Regulations in the*

People's Republic of China (中华人民共和国教育法律法规规章汇编) (Legislative Affairs Office of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2010) and several specific policies, such as *Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools (中华人民共和国中外合作办学条例)* (MOE, 2004), *Notice about reforming Certificate management of Foreign Students (关于改革外国留学生学历证书管理办法的通知)* (MOE, 2001).

The *Compilation of Education Laws and Regulations* shows that there is no direct policy on the internationalization of higher education. However, a few crucial educational policy documents mentioned internationalization of higher education in specific chapters, such as the *Action Plan for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century (面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划)* (MOE, 1998), and the *Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)(国家中长期教育改革和发展规划纲要(2010-2020 年))* (Government of China, 2010). The policies were mainly issued by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (中华人民共和国教育部). The Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China takes charge of formulating policies and plans, as well as drafting the regulations and rules for the development and reform of higher education. It also provides guidelines and policies for international educational exchanges and cooperation, such as the policies on programs for Chinese students studying abroad and foreign students studying in China, as well as joint educational programs by Chinese and foreign educational

institutions. Besides, it cooperates with the State departments and UNESCO in education, culture and other areas (MOE, n.d.). Three policies were issued by the Central People’s Government of the People’s Republic of China (Government of China) (中华人民共和国政府), the State Council (国务院), and the General Office of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China (CCCPC) (中共中央办公厅). After reading the relevant documents, I examined seven policy documents of Chinese higher education, which are displayed in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2.

Internationalization Policies of China

Authority of Issuing	Issuing Date	Name of Document
Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China	December, 1998	<i>Action Plan for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century</i> 《面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划》
Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China	February, 2004	<i>2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education</i> 《2003-2007 年教育振兴行动计划》
Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China	May, 2007	<i>Outline of the 11th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of the People’s Republic of China</i> 《国家教育事业发展 “十一五” 规划纲要》
Central People’s Government of the People’s Republic of China (Government of China)	May, 2010	<i>National Outline for Mid and Long -Term Education Planning and Development 2010-2020</i> 《国家中长期改革与教育发展规划纲要 2010-2020》
Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China	July, 2012	<i>Outline of the 12th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of the People’s Republic of China</i> 《国家教育事业发展第十二个五年规划》
General Office of the CPC Central	April, 2016	<i>Several Opinions on Promoting Education Opening-up in a New Period</i>

Committee and the General Office of the State Council		《关于做好新时期教育对外开放工作的若干意见》
The State Council of the People’s Republic of China (State Council)	January, 2017	<i>Outline of the 13th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of the People’s Republic of China</i> 《国家教育事业发展 “十三五” 规划》

At the provincial level, the policies were collected from the official websites of the Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education and the Government of Saskatchewan.

Saskatchewan did not have a public provincial policy or strategy on international education until the Government of Saskatchewan launched the *International Education Strategy* in 2015.

Although there was no policy on international education before 2015, Saskatchewan has been actively engaging in international education for the last decade. In 2009, the Government of Saskatchewan started to create opportunities to attract international students (CBIE, 2012). For example, the government released the Saskatchewan Immigrant Nominee Program (SINP) and the Graduate Retention Program to attract international students by offering immigration and permanent resident opportunities and employment opportunities (CBIE, 2012). In 2012, recognizing the value of international education and the significance of increasing global engagement of Saskatchewan students, the Government of Saskatchewan launched the *Saskatchewan Plan for Growth, Vision 2020& Beyond*. In Beijing, similar to the national policies, there are no specific provincial policy documents on internationalization of higher education. The related documents that were analyzed are education development plans, which were issued by the Beijing Municipal Education Commission. The examined Saskatchewan and

Beijing policies are presented in Table 4-3 and 4-4.

Table 4-3.

Internationalization Policies of Saskatchewan

Authority of Issuing	Issuing Date	Name of Document
Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education	2013	<i>Plan for 2013-2014</i>
Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education	2014	<i>Plan for 2014-2015</i>
Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education	2015	<i>Plan for 2015-2016</i>
Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education	2016	<i>Plan for 2016-2017</i>
Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education	2017	<i>Plan for 2017-2018</i>
Government of Saskatchewan	2012	<i>Saskatchewan Plan for Growth, Vision 2020& Beyond</i>
Government of Saskatchewan	2015	<i>International Education Strategy</i>

Table 4-4.

Internationalization Policies of Beijing

Authority of Issuing	Issuing Date	Name of Documents
Beijing Municipal Education Commission	October, 2006	<i>Outline of the 11th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of Beijing</i> 《北京市“十一五”时期教育发展规划》
Beijing Municipal Education Commission	December, 2010	<i>Outline of Beijing's Municipal Plan of Education for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)</i> 《北京市中长期教育改革和发展规划纲要(2010-

		2020 年)》
Beijing Municipal Education Commission	February, 2012	<i>Outline of the 12th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Reform and Development of Beijing</i> 《北京市“十二五”时期教育改革和发展规划》
Beijing Municipal Education Commission	September, 2016	<i>Outline of the 13th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Reform and Development of Beijing</i> 《北京市“十三五”时期教育改革和发展规划 2016-2020》

At the institutional level, the policies were collected from the University of Saskatchewan (U of S) and the Beijing Normal University (BNU). Since the early 1990s, the U of S has been increasing its engagement with internationalization. The past two decades have seen a substantial increase in international activities, such as international research and teaching, building partnership with foreign higher education institutions, and students exchanges (U of S, 2003). Canadian universities have the autonomy to make their own set of internationalization priorities, goals and initiatives. Therefore, compared to the internationalization policies at the national and provincial level, the strategies and plans launched by U of S are more detailed and concrete. Facing the challenges of internationalization, U of S has launched systematic plans and strategies. After reading the related documents, I chose three major internationalization policies, including *Internationalization at the University of Saskatchewan Mission Statement* (U of S, 2000), *“Connecting with the World” The International Blueprint for Action 2025– A Vision for a Globally Significant University (International Blueprint)* (U of S, 2018), and *Globalism and the University of Saskatchewan: The Foundational Document for International Activities at the University of Saskatchewan* (U of S, 2003).

The Mission Statement mentions the general goals and detailed objectives of internationalization of the U of S. The goal of internationalization of the U of S is to “integrate an international dimension into its education, research, and service activities in order to prepare the university community to live and work in an increasingly interdependent world” (U of S, 2000, p.2). Influenced by the *University Plan 2025*, the *International Blueprint* focus on the same themes through an internationalization strategy and goals. It provides detailed action plans and objectives following the four key strategies: “internationalization learning experience, diversifying university community, strengthening our global impact through discovery and growing our global citizenship and international community service” (U of S, 2018, p.2). *Globalism and the University of Saskatchewan* aims to provide a balanced strategy to internationalization, which focuses on five main dimensions: internationalizing learning experience, enhancing academic mobility, improving learning quality and academic success of international students, strengthening international research cooperation and graduate student training, and improving the service and outreach system to support internationalization.

BNU has been promoting internationalization on different aspects for the last decade. The goal of internationalization of BNU is to implement an international development strategy and integrate internationalization in the whole process of discipline construction, personnel training, scientific research, service, and management (BNU, 2014). Compared to Canadian HEIs, Chinese HEIs implement policies and strategies based on national governance and policy

frameworks. When collecting the internationalization policies at BNU, we found that the institutions also implement their policies based on the policy frameworks of the national policies.

The institutional internationalization policies are outlined in Table 4-5 and 4-6.

Table 4-5.

Internationalization Policies of University of Saskatchewan

Authority of Issuing	Issuing Date	Name of Document
University of Saskatchewan	June, 2000	<i>Internationalization at the University of Saskatchewan: Mission statement</i>
University of Saskatchewan	2002	<i>University of Saskatchewan Strategic Directions: Renewing the dream</i>
University of Saskatchewan	September, 2003	<i>Globalism and the University of Saskatchewan: The foundational document for international activities at the University of Saskatchewan</i>
University of Saskatchewan	May, 2018	<i>“Connecting with the World” The international blueprint for action 2025– A vision for a globally significant university</i>

Table 4-6.

Internationalization Policies of Beijing Normal University

Authority of Issuing	Issuing Date	Name of Documents
Beijing Normal University	December, 2011	<i>Outline of the 11th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of Beijing Normal University</i> 《北京师范大学“十一五”发展规划纲要》
Beijing Normal University	August, 2014	<i>Outline of the 12th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of Beijing Normal University</i> 《北京师范大学“十二五”发展规划纲要》
Beijing Normal	2014	<i>2014 Annual Work Points of Beijing Normal</i>

University		<i>University</i> 《北京师范大学 2014 年工作要点》
Beijing Normal University	2015	<i>2015 Annual Work Points of Beijing Normal University</i> 《北京师范大学 2015 年工作要点》
Beijing Normal University	2016	<i>2016 Annual Work Points of Beijing Normal University</i> 《北京师范大学 2016 年工作要点》
Beijing Normal University	October, 2016	<i>Outline of the 13th Five-Year Plan for the Educational Development of Beijing Normal University</i> 《北京师范大学“十三五”发展规划纲要》
Beijing Normal University	2018	<i>2018 Annual Work Points of Beijing Normal University</i> 《北京师范大学 2018 年工作要点》

Policy analysis process. According to Creswell (2013), coding includes gathering text data, segmenting sentences or paragraphs into categories, and labeling the category with a term. Based on the Four Approaches to the Internationalization of Higher Education (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003), including activity, competency, ethos, and process, I read the regulations of the collected Canadian and Chinese internationalization policies. Next, I segmented the regulations into different categories (codes). For example, increasing the number of international students and researchers, improving students and faculty mobility and exchange, and introducing various international programs can be categorized as “academic mobility.” In this way, I identified seven codes from the Canadian and Chinese policies: academic mobility, cooperation, administration, education market, internationalizing the curriculum, funding, and quality assurance. The first code is academic mobility. Second, cooperating with international education organizations, institutions and research centers, collaborating with provinces and territories and other countries’

governments, and building partnerships with key states were categorized as cooperation.

The third is administration, including implementing specific policies, providing services, enhancing the ability of administrators and improving the administrative system to support international activities. The fourth is the education market, which is enhancing and promoting marketing and branding plans. Fifth, internationalizing textbooks, teaching content and teaching methods were categorized as internationalizing the curriculum. The sixth is funding, including providing funding to support international activities and to revise the international education strategy. Finally, ensuring the quality of the international programs, the quality of teaching and learning and improving the assessment system and mechanism were categorized as quality assurance.

After outlining the codes, I identified the themes. According to Attride-Stirling (2001), there are two steps to identify the themes: the first step is to “abstract the themes from coded text segments,” which means reviewing the text segments under each code, identifying the patterns and extracting the salient or significant themes (p.392). The second step is to refine the themes by going through the extracted themes and refined the themes to be specific enough to be interpreted and broad enough to contain the ideas of the text segments (Attride-Stirling, 2001). In this case, I re-read the regulations under the codes, and I extracted six themes based on the similarities and differences of the internationalization policies in Chinese and Canadian higher education: academic mobility, cooperation and partnership, internationalizing curriculum for

intercultural understanding, governance and administration, and quality assurance.

Internationalization Policy in the Global Context

This section introduces the global context of internationalization for three reasons: first is to provide a global background of the internationalization of higher education; second is to analyze the priorities of internationalization policies at the global level; third is to examine the alignment or coherence of the policies between global, national, provincial and institutional levels. Although nearly all higher education institutions (HEIs) are engaged in different forms of international activities, the general level of internationalization is still low and uneven (IAU, 2012). According to the IAU survey conducted by Knight (2005), internationalization brings benefits to higher education; meanwhile, it also poses many challenges.

The internal benefits of internationalization are the academic benefits, such as improving the teaching, learning and research quality, creating various programs, providing more opportunities for experts and faculty to enhance their abilities, and improving the institutional policy-making (Knight, 2007; IAU, 2012). External benefits include preparing students to be more globally engaged, increasing engagement between institutions and national, provincial, and global stakeholders, revenue generation and brain gain (Knight, 2007; IAU, 2012).

The challenges can also be regarded as internal and external challenges. Internal challenges include four points: first, commercialization of the internationalization progress led to the increase of low-quality providers, which offer poorly-designed and low-quality programs;

second, internationalization of curriculum may cause the homogenization of curriculum; third, by internationalization teaching content and method, it may decrease the diversity of institution modes (Knight, 2005; Knight, 2007; IAU, 2012); fourth, many countries do not have a comprehensive framework for quality assurance, and accreditation, as well as the recognition of qualification (IAU, 2005; UNESCO, 2005; OECD, 2005). External challenges consist of the loss of cultural and language diversity, exacerbated brain drain in developing countries, unevenly shared benefits between institutions, and low-quality international partnerships (Knight, 2007; IAU, 2012). Unevenly shared benefit means that internationalization strategies and the access to resources may advantage the better-resourced and better-quality HEIs. Low quality of partnership means that, driven by the ranking system, the goal of building a partnership may be gaining institutional reputation rather than for actual interest in collaboration (IAU, 2012).

Quality assurance, cooperation, academic mobility and administration. The examination of the internationalization policies issued by the global authorities shows that the top four priorities of internationalization policies at the global level are quality assurance, cooperation, academic mobility, and administration. According to Knight (1997), quality assurance of internationalization of higher education means ensuring the quality of student learning and teaching by improving the quality of the curriculum, providing training opportunities to faculty and establishing quality assurance mechanisms. The UNESCO and IAU policies suggest that the institutions and governments should not only improve the quality of

teaching, learning, and research, but also pay more attention to assessing and enhancing the quality of international activities, and programs (UNESCO, 1995; IAU, 2005, 2012, 2016). For example, Moreover, the IAU policy states that running schools in foreign countries or exporting education resources should follow the quality practice and ethical code (IAU, 2000). The priority on quality assurance is also represented in other policies, such as *Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education* (UNESCO, 2005; OECD, 2005) and *Sharing Quality Higher Education across Borders: A Statement on Behalf of Higher Education Institutions Worldwide* (IAU, 2005), etc. Additionally, it underpins academic values and principles that a government or institution should follow during the process of internationalization, such as promoting academic freedom, adhering to the international standards of research, pursuing equity in access and institutional autonomy, etc. Moreover, it emphasizes that international programs should be built on the equality of partnership and promote intercultural competence. The partnership between institutions should seek mutual benefit, respect, and fairness (IAU, 2000; IAU, 2012).

The second priority is encouraging cooperation. According to the UNESCO and IAU policies, the institutions should cooperate with their foreign counterparts and enhance the collaboration of international research and academic programs. The collaboration between global organizations, governments, and institutions should also be strengthened (UNESCO, 1995; IAU, 2005, 2016). The third priority is academic mobility. Three IAU policies mention that the

mobility of students, faculty and researchers should be facilitated, and the number and variety of academic mobility programs should be increased (IAU, 2000, 2005, 2012). More importantly, it recommends encouraging the mobility of retired faculty and researchers to promote the share of knowledge (IAU, 2000).

Fourth is strengthening the administration and governance of internationalization. Except for encouraging governments and institutions to launch policies or strategies related to internationalization, the policies also stress that the internationalization strategies launched by governments and institutions should be based on the internationalization process instead of the external market and economic forces (IAU, 2000; IAU, 2012). Besides, three policies issued by IAU, OECD and UNESCO highlight the importance of building a mechanism for international recognition of accreditation and qualification (IAU, 2005; OECD, 2005; UNESCO, 2005). Last but not least, the IAU policy also emphasizes the significance of internationalizing the curriculum and extra curricula activities so that the foreign and domestic students can both benefit from internationalization and gain global competences (IAU, 2000).

Different Priorities of Internationalization Policies

The analysis and comparison of codes demonstrate that the internationalization policies at national, provincial and institutional levels in China and Canada share commonalities but also have differences. The priorities of internationalization policies will be examined and compared under the “Four Approaches to Internationalization.”

Academic mobility. The regulations under the code “academic mobility” demonstrate that at the national, provincial, and institutional levels, China and Canada both focus on promoting academic mobility, including improving two-way student and faculty exchange and mobility, attracting international students, hiring foreign researchers and experts, and increasing the number and variety of international mobility programs (Global Affairs Canada, 2012, 2014; MOE, 1998, 2004, 2007, 2012; Government of China, 2010; General Office of CCCPC and General Office of the State Council, 2016; State Council, 2017). However, compared to China, Canada focuses more on the process, which is providing services and formulating related policies to promote academic mobility. For example, the Canadian policy recommended “developing a that sophisticated and comprehensive e-communication system that will serve as a national portal for international students interested in education in Canada” (p. 17) and “improving education visa processing to provide consistent and timely processing of high-quality candidates” (p. 15). (Global Affairs Canada, 2014).

The Canadian and Saskatchewan policies also highlight the retainment of international students, which is to encourage students to stay in Canada after completing their degrees (Global Affairs Canada, 2012, 2014; Saskatchewan Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, 2014). Saskatchewan policy suggests retaining and integrating international students by providing services and employment opportunities, such as connecting the skills that students gain from international education experience to employment opportunities and supporting the career

development opportunities for domestic and international students (Government of Saskatchewan, 2015). For example, there are recommended actions in the Saskatchewan policies, including “attracting and retaining more international students, who are a prime source of new talent” (Government of Saskatchewan, 2012, p. 16) and “support the expansion of post-secondary co-op and career development opportunities for domestic and international students”, “work with post-secondary institutions, career centers and employers to increase awareness of employment opportunities and supports for international students” (Government of Saskatchewan, 2015, p. 2).

U of S engages in improving the academic success and social well-being of international students (U of S, 2003, 2018). For instance, the U of S *International Blueprint for Action 2025* (2018) states that “build on existing and innovate new strategies and support systems to improve student completion rates, achieve and sustain high levels of satisfaction in learning and cultural experiences, and create a sense of inclusion at the university” (p. 7). Also, according to the *Globalism and the University of Saskatchewan* (2003), “the University must ensure that it has strong programs and services in place which support international students with their transition to Canada, Saskatoon, and the campus to enable them to achieve academic success and well-being” (p. 12).

While the internationalization policies of BNU and U of S both mention that students and faculty are encouraged to return to their country after studying abroad, the U of S policies stress

that the participants should share their experience and knowledge, learning outcome, and contribute to the internationalization of the university upon return (U of S, 2015; BNU, 2011, 2014a, 2015, 2016a, 2018). In this way, international learning experience can be more targeted and high-quality. Additionally, in terms of attracting international students, BNU seeks to increase the number of degree-seeking and graduate international students, but U of S highlights increasing the diversity of international students by offering various programs (BNU, 2014a, 2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2018; U of S, 2018).

To summarize, the internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education at the three levels all mention promoting academic mobility. However, the focuses and the approaches to promoting academic mobility have differences. Canada pays more attention to attracting international students by improving the administration system and providing services, including assessing their academic outcome and social well-being. More importantly, the Canadian policies emphasize the attainment of international students to gain and attain talents.

Cooperation and partnerships. At the national, provincial, and institutional levels, China and Canada both encourage HEIs to cooperate with foreign institutions, research centers, run joint-programs or research with foreign partner institutions (Global Affairs Canada, 2012; MOE, 2004, 2007, 2012; Government of China, 2010; General Office of CCCPC and General Office of the State Council, 2016; State Council, 2017). The Chinese policy suggested that “it is necessary to cooperate with renowned schools, education institutions, research institutes outside

this nation to establish education, teaching, training and research organizations or projects” (“加强与国外高水平大学合作，建立教学科研合作平台，联合推进高水平基础研究和高技术研究”) (Government of China, 2010). The Canadian policy recommended “seeking to strengthen existing and develop new strategic instruments of cooperation with priority countries to enhance research collaboration, two-way student mobility and knowledge exchange” (Global Affairs Canada, 2014, p. 13).

Nonetheless, due to the decentralized governance of higher education, the Canadian federal government tends to cooperate with Canadian provinces and relevant national organizations, like the Council of Ministry of Education, and the Canadian Bureau for International Education (Global Affairs Canada, 2012, 2014). For example, the Canadian policy stated that “the Government of Canada must work in partnership with the provinces and territories, via the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (CMEC), to reach a better understanding of existing quality-assurance mechanisms” (Global Affairs Canada, 2014, p. 6). Furthermore, the other policy suggested that “in cooperation with provincial and territorial governments and stakeholders, the Government of Canada will seek to strengthen existing and develop new strategic instruments of cooperation with priority countries” (Global Affairs Canada, 2012, p. 16).

The Chinese government collaborates with international education organizations, such as UNESCO, the European Union, and the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, etc. (MOE, 2004,

2012; State Council, 2017). For example, according to the Chinese policies, “strengthen the cooperation with UNESCO and other global organizations” (“继续加强与联合国教科文组织等国际组织的合作”) (MOE, 2004), and “promote the educational cooperation between China and relevant UN agencies, the European Union, the Shanghai Cooperation Organization, the ASEAN, the African Union, the Arab League, the Organization of American States and other global and regional organizations (“积极推进我国与周边国家以及联合国相关机构、欧盟、上海合作组织、东盟、非盟、阿盟、美洲国家组织等全球性和区域性组织的教育合作”)(MOE, 2012).

At the provincial level, similar to the Chinese government, the Government of Beijing also encourages the HEIs to cooperate with international education organizations, renowned foreign schools, research centers, build joint schools, and programs with foreign partners (Beijing Municipal Education Commission, 2006, 2010, 2012, 2016). The Government of Saskatchewan suggests facilitating cooperation between governments, HEIs, and industry market. It also addresses improving the quality of international partnerships (Government of Saskatchewan, 2012). At the institutional level, the BNU policies stress the importance of cooperating with international education organizations; yet, the U of S policies focus on collaborating with national, provincial governments, non-governmental organizations and communities and increasing the diversity and quality of partnerships (BNU, 2014a, 2015, 2016a, 2016b; U of S, 2000, 2003, 2018).

To conclude, the internationalization policies at the three levels in China and Canada all

highlight strengthening cooperation. However, China focuses on building external partnerships while Canada focuses on internal cooperation. Besides, compared to China, Canada pays more attention to the quality of partnerships.

Internationalizing curriculum for intercultural competency. As an essential part of internationalization, internationalization of the curriculum has three main focuses: first is the structure and approaches to design courses; second is infusing international perspectives in students; and third is developing teaching and learning strategies for internationalization (Leask, 2001). According to Leask (2001), the internationalization of the curriculum emphasizes the design of curriculum content, the learning process, and the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes of students. The internationalization policies at the global level encourage governments and institutions to internationalize their curricula in terms of their internationalization context (IAU, 2012, 2016). The policy stated that it is necessary to pursue “the internationalization of the curriculum as well as extra curricula activities so that non-mobile students, still the overwhelming majority, can also benefit from internationalization and gain the global competences they will need” (IAU, 2012, p.5). The Chinese policies regard internationalization of curriculum as internationalizing textbooks, teaching content, and teaching methods (MOE, 2012, 2017). It also suggested that Chinese HEIs should “learn and borrow advanced curriculum and teaching methods from foreign institutions” (“学习和借鉴国外先进的课程体系和教学方法”) and suggests that more disciplines should be taught in English (MOE,

2012). Although Canada has formulated policies or strategies on internationalizing the curriculum, the two main internationalization documents do not include any content about internationalization of the curriculum. Saskatchewan policies mention internationalizing curriculum, but do not provide any detailed explanations or regulations.

The U of S policies refer to internationalization of curriculum as infusing the curriculum with international and intercultural content to foster intercultural understanding (U of S, 2000, 2003, 2018). Here is an example from the blueprint (U of S, 2018):

“build awareness of courses with international and cross-cultural content: a) develop an inventory of current courses with international and cross-cultural content, including courses with international Indigenous perspectives; b) identify these course offerings utilizing registration system attributes, and promote the value of taking courses with international and cross-cultural content” (p. 4).

In the BNU policies, except for introducing high-quality research resources overseas to enrich its courses, textbooks, and teaching content, such as integrating the international studies into textbooks, borrowing advanced teaching content, they also encourage departments to increase the quality and number of bilingual and English-taught courses (BNU, 2011, 2014a, 2016a). For example, the BNU policies recommend that

“Reconstructing the curriculum. Facing the needs of national and social development, we will learn from the curriculum of high-level universities at home and abroad and integrate

new knowledge, theories and technologies, as well as updating teaching content. Making full use of high-quality education resources to enrich and improve curriculum system.

Increasing the number of bilingual courses and English-language courses.” (“重构课程体系。面向国家和社会发展的需要，借鉴国内外高水平大学的课程设置，修订培养计划。及时整合新知识、新理论和新技术，更新教学内容。充分利用优质开放教育资源，丰富和完善课程资源。加强公共课的建设与教学改革。加大双语课程和全英文课程建设力度”) (BNU, 2011, 2014a).

In conclusion, internationalization of curriculum in China focuses on the course design and teaching content, while Canada concentrates on the learning process and promoting intercultural competency and understanding.

Quality assurance. Competency means improving the quality of students and faculty in terms of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values and enhancing the quality of programs and activities (Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003). The quality of teaching and learning of international education has always been a significant issue. Concerning quality assurance, Chinese and Canadian internationalization policies at the three levels all recommend attracting qualified international students and developing an assessment mechanism for international education (Global Affairs Canada, 2014; MOE, 2004, 2007, 2012, 2017; Government of China, 2010; CCCPC, 2016). The Canadian policy recommended that the relevant organizations should cooperate and develop “a clear guidelines on quality assurance and a quality-assurance

framework that will ensure that Canada's reputation for quality education and support of international students" (Global Affairs Canada, 2014, p. 14). The Chinese policies suggest that we should "improve the quality of international education and improve the quality assessment and supervision mechanism for international students" ("提高留学教育质量, 建立来华留学质量标准 and 保障体系, 加强来华留学管理与监督") (MOE, 2017). Nevertheless, the priorities on teaching and learning are different. China focuses more on hiring foreign outstanding faculty and internationalizing faculty to improve the ability of faculty in teaching international content or conducting international studies (MOE, 2007, 2012, 2017; Government of China, 2010; CCCPC, 2016; State Council, 2017).

Regarding BNU and U of S, BNU prioritizes teaching quality, which is providing faculty training or development opportunities, while the U of S pays more attention to improving international students' academic success by assessing their learning outcomes and learning environment (BNU, 2014a, 2016a, 2016b; U of S, 2003, 2018). For example, the BNU policies state that "facilitating the overseas training of teachers" ("加强教师境外研修工作") (BNU, 2016a) and "cultivating a group of excellent academic experts and professors, so that our top-level talents with international level will reach 0.5% of full-time teachers" ("有重点地在本校教师中培养一批学术大师和教学名师, 使我校具有国际水平的顶尖人才达到专任教师的0.5%") (BNU, 2014a). The *U of S Blueprint* recommends that "selecting and implementing an assessment tool (or set of tools) to measure students' global citizenship and intercultural learning

outcomes, and their satisfaction with participation in international learning experiences” (U of S, 2018, p. 5). Furthermore, and the *Foundational Documents* recommend that “enhancing the support systems for international students studying at the University, to help them achieve academic success, social inclusion, and personal satisfaction” (U of S, 2003, p. 13)

Thus, concerning the quality of teaching and learning, China puts more emphasis on teaching, which is to enhance the faculty’s teaching and research ability in international studies, while Canada focuses more on improving student’s academic success by providing services to support their social well-being and assessing their learning outcome.

Administration and governance. Regarding the administration and governance of internationalization, I will first introduce the different governance roles that governments play in the internationalization of higher education. Then I will illustrate different focuses on administration and the different allocation of funding towards internationalization.

The roles that the Chinese and Canadian governments play in the governance of internationalization are different. In China, the management of internationalization is centralized. The Chinese government plays a dominant role in internationalizing higher education, such as planning and designing the programs, implementing policies and strategies, providing funding, supervising and regulating the activities (Li, 2016). By comparison, the governance of the internationalization of higher education is more decentralized in Canada (Mcbride, Humphries, & Knight-Grofe, 2015). Although Canada’s federal government still plays an essential part in

international education, including building international relations, developing cooperation in scientific research, developing labor force, most of the responsibilities were delegated to provincial government and the institutions (CBIE, 2012). Thus, each province has its education ministry, which is responsible for making decisions about funding and coordinating post-secondary education under the political context of the province. Each province has its policy mechanisms, frameworks, and institutional structures (Shanahan & Jones, 2007). Besides, Canadian HEIs hold a high degree of autonomy to develop and implement their policies and strategies. As the Chinese national government plays the dominant role in the policy implementation, the provinces or HEIs do not have its policy frameworks or mechanisms. The strategies and plans that formulated by provincial governments and HEIs follow the framework of the national policies.

Although internationalization policies of China and Canada both advocate establishing administrative units and strengthening the administrative system, the focuses of administration have differences. Canada focuses on improving the service system for international students, but China emphasizes the necessity of internationalizing administrators, which means to improve the ability of administrators in dealing with internationalization issues (General Office of CCCPC and General Office of the State Council, 2016). For example, the *Several Opinions* recommends “training a group of outstanding administrative talents to deal with Sino-foreign school running” (“加快培养一批优秀涉外办学管理人才”) (General Office of CCCPC and General Office of

the State Council, 2016).

Regarding the two institutions, U of S provides more services to encourage students to study abroad, improve the quality of learning experience, and support the well-being of international students (U of S, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2018). More importantly, it encourages individual student and faculty to engage in the governance of internationalization, which can also strengthen their awareness of internationalization. The U of S policies also indicate that it is essential to identify the barriers on the process of internationalization, such as the barriers to engage in international activities and the barriers that impede the development of internationalization (U of S, 2003, 2018). For example, the *Foundational Documents* states that “the internationalization of research activities entails increasing faculty awareness of opportunities and addressing systemic barriers that discourage international engagement” (U of S, 2003, p.14). Moreover, the *Blueprint* emphasizes “addressing barriers to attracting a diverse international student body and removing barriers (where possible) associated with program distribution and residency requirements” (U of S, 2018, p. 3). By this means, the direction and goals of internationalization can be more targeted and clearer. However, BNU focuses more on improving the quality of the administrative system, such as establishing a coordination mechanism for the implementation of the internationalization strategies between the departments and improve the management of international education by issuing related documents on internationalization development assessment (BNU, 2016a).

China and Canada both agree that sufficient funding should be available to ensure the development of internationalization. The internationalization policies of China and Canada both mention providing funding to support international education, such as building international activities, sending students abroad, and attracting international students (Government of China, 2010; MOE, 2012; Global Affairs Canada, 2014). BNU and U of S suggest providing funding to support students to study abroad, international research and initiatives and research collaboration (BNU, 2016a; U of S, 2003; 2018). However, at the national level, the Canadian policies show that more funding should be invested to improve the international strategies development, while China invests more funding on supporting outstanding students and faculty to study and receive training abroad (MOE, 2012; General Office of CCCPC and General Office of the State Council, 2016; Global Affairs Canada, 2012, 2014). For example, according to the two Canadian policies, “funding should be provided for the development of a comprehensive International Education Strategy” (Global Affairs Canada, 2014, p. 4) and “recent Government of Canada investments related to international education, including specific funding allocations to revise the international education strategy” (Global Affairs Canada, 2012, p. 18). The Chinese policy states that “more funds should be provided to cultivate talents, and support teachers and students to go abroad for internships and conduct teaching experiments” (“在经费使用及管理上，更多向支持人才倾斜，按规定统筹安排相关资金用于支持师生赴国外实习、开展教学实验”) (General Office of CCCPC and General Office of the State Council, 2016). At the provincial

level, the Government of Saskatchewan suggests that the funding should be invested to improve international education studies, while the Beijing government provides funding to support outstanding students to study abroad (Government of Saskatchewan, 2012).

China and Canada both put the priority on graduate education compared to undergraduate education. In Canada, the policies suggest that the federal government and related authorities should develop bilateral agreements with priority countries on graduate education and research and provide more funding to support graduate education and research (Global Affairs Canada, 2012; CBIE, 2015). The U of S policies also indicate that graduate students should get increased training and research opportunities (U of S, 2003). The Beijing policies suggest increasing the number of international graduate students and provide more research and study abroad opportunities to graduate students (Beijing Municipal Education Commission, 2006, 2010, 2012, 2016). Besides, the BNU policies state that the institution should increase the proportion of international graduate students and hire more internationally renowned experts to participate in postgraduate education. Also, the policies mention setting up an international education program in English and offers overseas training opportunities for graduate students (BNU, 2014a, 2014b, 2016a, 2016b, 2018).

To sum up, the internationalization policies of China and Canada at the three levels all address the significance of strengthening the administration system, but it is apparent that the Canadian internationalization policies have more detailed regulations on providing service and

support to international students. For Chinese higher education, administration of internationalization generally focuses on internationalizing administrators, building administrative and assessment mechanism. Besides, compared to China, Canada pays attention to the process of internationalization by identifying the barriers that are impeding its development and providing a targeted solution. The allocation of funding shows that most funding is invested in promoting academic mobility in China, whereas Canada provides funding to support international studies. Also, U of S offers more support to send students overseas, while BNU put more funding on attracting international students.

Coherence of Internationalization Policies between the Four Levels

Through reviewing and analyzing the priorities of the internationalization policies at the global and national levels, we found out that although the national policies are more detailed and targeted, the three priorities of the global policies: quality assurance, academic mobility, and cooperation are coherent with the national policies. The different governance structure of higher education in Canada and China leads to the differences of policies at the national, provincial and institutional level. As the Chinese government takes the main responsibility in the policy implementation of higher education, the internationalization policies of Beijing and BNU share the same framework with the national policies. By comparison, due to the decentralized governance of higher education and the autonomy of Canadian HEIs, the policies of U of S are not aligned with the policies of Saskatchewan and Canada.

The comparison of the internationalization policy documents of China and Beijing shows that the policies at the provincial level are similar to those at the national level. However, there are a few distinctions. For example, the national policies recommend that the government should attract more international students. The provincial policies clearly state that more attention should be paid on increasing the percentage of graduate and degree-seeking students. Furthermore, as the national government is the major funding provider for internationalization activities of HEIs, there are no regulations about funding in the provincial policies. The institutional policies also follow the same framework with the policies at the national and provincial level. However, the international activities included in the BNU policies are more various and targeted, such as encouraging faculty to publish academic results in internationally renowned journals or publishers, promoting the classified cultivation of international talents, increasing the number of international summer schools and conducting comparative research at international universities, etc. Although there are some differences between the regulations of the Chinese internationalization policies at the three levels, generally, they are highly aligned and coherent.

The internationalization policies of Canada, Saskatchewan and U of S show that there are not many relevant internationalization policies or strategies at the national or provincial level. Since the HEIs have more autonomy regarding the governance and policy implementation, the internationalization policies of U of S are more systematic and concrete. For instance, first, the

international activities are more various, such as encouraging international co-authored publications, hosting and attending international conferences. Second, to create an environment that fosters the awareness of internationalization, the policies focus more on creating an intercultural and inclusive environment. Third, the institutional policies emphasize administration. The administration is moving towards building systems and establishing relevant administrative units to support international students, preparing Canadian students to study abroad, to engage faculty in international activities, and regulate the cooperation and partnership of projects and research. It also encourages individual student and faculty to be involved in the governance of international education, which can contribute to strengthening the awareness of internationalization.

In a word, through comparing the policies at the global, national, provincial and institutional level, it is obvious that the internationalization policies at the global level are aligned with the national policies. In addition, compared to Canada, the Chinese policies at the three levels are more aligned and coherent.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the different historical contexts and challenges of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education systems. It was also designed to probe the different priorities in the internationalization policies in China and Canada. The previous chapter illustrated the findings of the study, including the different priorities of internationalization policies in Chinese and Canadian higher education and the coherence of the internationalization policies at the global, national, provincial and institutional levels. This chapter presents the discussion of findings and the conclusion. It also provides recommendations for future internationalization policy development and recommendations for future studies.

Different Challenges of Internationalization Facing China and Canada

The challenges of internationalization faced by Chinese and Canadian higher education can both be divided into external and internal challenges. Nevertheless, due to the different internationalization contexts, the challenges faced by China and Canada have differences. First are different external challenges. In China, the external challenges include the intensified competition of the education market and talents market and the threat caused by the promotion of the Western culture and value. In Canada, the external challenges are the lack of government funding, the fierce competition in the employment market, and the misalignment of policies between different levels caused by decentralized governance of higher education.

In light of the internal challenges, quality assurance is a challenge faced by both Chinese

and Canadian higher education. Other internal challenges facing by Chinese higher education are the insufficient administration system the imbalance of degree-seeking international students, and the backward teaching content, curriculum and teaching methods. For Canada, internal challenges include the limited capacity of the institution, insufficient well-developed credit transfer mechanisms, limited outwards mobility of Canadian students and the loss of Canadian and local culture in the curriculum.

According to *The International Blueprint for Action 2025*, internationalization has brought opportunities and benefits to U of S. It provides opportunities for students and faculty to engage globally. It offers cooperation opportunities in research and projects, which strengthens research ability and attract distinguished international researchers and faculty (U of S, 2018). Meanwhile, the rapid development of internationalization also poses challenges to U of S. First, the increasing enrolment of international students led to the cultural diversity of the university, which may threaten its core value and own culture (U of S, 2002). Second, as the boundaries of knowledge are becoming less distinct, the university has to ensure the teaching and learning quality meets international standards. Moreover, research and programs need to be innovated and improved to adapt to the complex global environment. Last but not least, insufficient external funding may hinder the faculty from engaging in international research and institution from working on international activities. (U of S, 2002; U of S, 2003).

According to the *Outline of the 12th Five-Year Plan for the Development of Beijing*

Normal University (北京师范大学 “十二五” 发展规划纲要), internationalization has brought benefits to Beijing Normal University (BNU). It not only provides opportunities for multi-faceted and high-level cooperation, but also opportunities to attract international high-quality education resources and international talents (BNU, 2014). However, it also poses many challenges. First of all, it intensifies the competitiveness in attracting talented professors and students. Second, the international influence of BNU is still at a lower level, which means the education brand needs promoting. Also, it states that the internationalization of teaching faculty and the administrative team remains low. In other words, teachers and administrators are not competent or qualified enough in international studies or dealing with issues related to international education. Furthermore, the awareness of internationalization across campus is low. The quality of international cooperation and exchange needs to be improved. Last but not least, there is still a large gap between the dominant disciplines and the advanced international level (BNU, 2014).

Discussion

“Integrating an intercultural dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education” is an essential point in the internationalization of higher education (Knight, 2003a; de Wit, 2015), which is demonstrated in the internationalization policies of U of S. For example, the U of S policies propose that the extra-curricular activities should foster intercultural understanding; the curriculum of undergraduate and graduate course should be

infused with intercultural content; and students' intercultural learning outcomes should be measured (U of S, 2000, 2003, 2018). However, this point is not reflected in the Chinese internationalization policies because the internationalization of the curriculum of Chinese higher education focuses on the course design and teaching content.

Furthermore, the previous studies state that the governance structure of Chinese higher education is centralized, but the governance structure of Canadian higher education is decentralized (Jones, 2009; Li, 2016). This governance structure is reflected in the interrelationship of the policies at the three levels. For example, the Chinese internationalization policies at national, provincial, and institutional levels are highly aligned. Nevertheless, there are not many related policies issued by the Canadian or Saskatchewan government, and the Canadian HEIs have high autonomy to implement their policies. The Chinese national government takes the primary responsibilities of education. The provincial governments and HEIs follow the instructions of the national government. Besides, regarding cooperation and building partnerships, China focuses on building external partnerships while Canada focuses on internal cooperation. Building external partnerships means cooperating with the global organizations and other countries; international corporation means strengthening the cooperation between federal government, national organizations, provincial governments, and institutions. This difference may be caused by the different governance system of internationalization in China and Canada.

There are previous studies on the internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education. Huang (2003) introduced the internationalization policy development from two phases and pointed out the different focuses of the internationalization during different phases. He also pointed out that although foreign models may influence the internationalization of Chinese higher education, the national identity has always been maintained through government regulation. Moreover, the internationalization of Chinese higher education has been focusing on mutual communication and exchange since 1978 (Huang, 2003). Jin (2012)'s study demonstrates the development, changes and the tendency of the internationalization of Chinese higher education. Jin (2013) divided the policies related to internationalization into four categories: policies for students and faculty to study abroad; policies for attracting foreign students to study in China; policies for the returned overseas students and the introduction of overseas talents; Sino-foreign cooperative education. Jin (2013) concluded that the implementation of internationalization policies directly pushes the development of internationalization of education and has a profound impact on higher education. She also posed that future policy development should focus on maintaining and improving the quality of international students, Sino-foreign cooperative programs, and cross-border education delivery. In this study, based on the findings, we can find that the Canadian internationalization policies put more focus on improving the quality of international students. For example, the Canadian internationalization policies pay more attention to enhance student's academic success by providing services to support their

social well-being and accessing their learning outcome. Moreover, Canada pays more attention to the quality of cooperation and partnerships of international education because most of the policies mention that building partnership should follow the quality and ethical rules.

The brain drain is regarded as one of the most significant challenges faced by the internationalization of higher education in developing countries. Due to the fierce competition of the talent market, brain drain is also a considerable challenge facing Chinese higher education (IAU, 2003; Huang, 2003; Knight, 2005). In this study, the Canadian internationalization policies highlight the significance of attaining international students by creating more job opportunities and implementing related policies, which aims to gain international talents. It can be considered as a reason that causes the imbalance of brain drain and brain gain in developing countries and developed countries.

During the process of internationalization, China and Canada both put focuses on graduate students. For example, policies state that more international programs and exchange opportunities should be provided to graduate students. Compared to undergraduate students, graduate students focus more on conducting research, which can promote the cooperation of international studies and researches. The research results and achievement may contribute to the development of international education.

Furthermore, at the institutional level, U of S implemented an internationalization vision plan. All the international activities should be targeted to the University's internationalization

vision; the administration units should be able to implement the internationalization vision, and financial resources are made available to support the internationalization vision. The vision serves as a guideline for internationalization. BNU can borrow from this experience and also formulate a plan to guide the internationalization process.

Policies serve as guidance to the development of internationalization. This study compares the historical context and policies of internationalization of Chinese and Canadian higher education. Analyzing the contexts and challenges of internationalization of higher education allows policymakers and institutional leaders to understand the advantages and the disadvantages of the existing policies and learn from each other's experience.

Conclusion

The role that internationalization plays in higher education continues to be increasingly important. The rapid development of internationalization has brought not only opportunities but challenges to Chinese and Canadian higher education. Therefore, the governments and institutions should develop policies target at coping with the challenges. Due to the different internationalization contexts, the priorities of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education have differences on five aspects: academic mobility, cooperation and partnership, internationalizing curriculum, quality assurance, and administration and governance. First, although Chinese and Canadian policies both focus on promoting academic mobility and attain talents, Canadian policies pays more attention to the process, such as providing service,

improving administration system and building assessment mechanism. Second, due to the centralized and decentralized governance structure of higher education, China tends to build external partnerships with international organizations to improve the development of internationalization, while Canada focuses on the internal cooperation between federal, provincial governments and institutions. Third, internationalizing curriculum in China put priority on introducing and building advanced teaching content and courses, especially more courses should be taught in English. However, Canadian policies focuses on infusing international content into the curriculum to foster intercultural competency understanding. Fourth, Chinese policies emphasize the importance of improving teaching quality, such as enhancing the faculty's teaching and research ability in international studies; while Canadian policies focuses on the quality of learning, such as providing services and building mechanisms to improve the social well-being and academic achievement of students. Fifth, Canadian policies have more detailed regulations on the administration of international students, whereas Chinese policies concentrate on internationalizing administrators.

The comparison of the different priorities can inform the further development of internationalization policies of Chinese and Canadian higher education. In terms of academic mobility, quality assurance, and administration, Chinese policies should put more focus on international students, such as providing more detailed suggestions about improving the administration system and providing services to support international students, developing

assessment mechanism to ensure international students' learning and social well-being. Canadian policies should provide detailed regulations on improving the capabilities of faculties and administrators in dealing with international education. The internationalization of the curriculum in Chinese higher education focuses on courses design and teaching content, while Canada aims to promote intercultural competency and understanding. Although the policies recommended that more subjects should be taught in English and more textbooks in English should be introduced, the language barrier is a major reason that caused this difference. Since the teaching method and teaching content in Chinese universities are still backward, more targeted policies should be developed about internationalizing the curriculum of Chinese higher education. Furthermore, Chinese policy maker or institutional leaders could focus on identifying the barriers and challenges in internationalization, so the future policies can be more targeted.

Moreover, because of the centralized governance structure of higher education in China and the decentralized governance structure in Canada, the Chinese internationalization policies at the national, provincial, and institutional levels are more aligned than Canadian policies at the three levels. In terms of China, the internationalization policies of BNU follow the framework of national policies, which means the institutions lack the autonomy to formulate policies.

Regarding Canada, compared to the U.S., there are not many internationalization policies issued by the Canadian government or the Government of Saskatchewan. Thus, the Chinese HEIs should be given more freedom to implement policies and making decisions. The Canadian government

and the Saskatchewan government should enhance cooperation with HEIs to ensure the alignment of the policies and decisions. On the other hand, the Chinese internationalization policies suggest creating the environment of internationalization in HEIs and strengthening the awareness of internationalization, but there is still a lack of awareness. One focal point of the U of S policies is improving the awareness of internationalization on the campus by engaging the students and faculty in the governance of internationalization. Therefore, in order to strengthening the awareness of internationalization in campus, the Chinese policy development could focus on encouraging students and faculties to participate in the process of internationalization.

Recommendations for Future Studies

Based on the limitations of this study, I propose that future studies can select more provinces of China and Canada and more institutions in each province. Also, future studies can collect more policies related to internationalization. Two questions arose based on the major findings and the policy analysis process. One crucial point in the Chinese and Canadian internationalization policies is improving the quality and quantity of international activities. The variety of international programs not only can promote academic mobility and but also improve international students' learning experience and cultural understanding. Therefore, the first question is what kind of international activities should be developed in the future? As quality assurance is a great challenge faced by Chinese higher education, the second question is that

what mechanism should the governments and HEIs build to improve the quality insurance? In other words, what policies or strategies the governments and HEIs should implement in light of the problems about quality assurance? Last but not least, internationalization of higher education encourages the cooperation between cross-border HEIs. In recent years, many Canadian universities signed agreements and built partnerships with Chinese institutions. However, the needs for each university is likely to be different with the development of internationalization. Hence, future studies can focus on improving and updating agreements between HEIs.

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